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THE
JOURNAL OF EDUCATION,

A Monthly Record and Review.

JANUARY TO DECEMBER, 1883.

VOL. V.
NEW SERIES.

LONDON:
PUBLISHED BY WILLIAM RICE, AT THE OFFICE OF THE JOURNAL,
86 FLEET STREET, E.C.

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The Journal of Education,

96 FARRINGTON STREET, LONDON, E.C.

THE HEAD-MASTERS' CONFERENCE.

THE Annual Conference of Head-masters met on Thursday and Friday, December 21st and 22nd, at University College, London. There were absent, of the leading Head-masters, Dr. Hornby, of Eton, Dr. Ridding, of Winchester, Dr. Bradby, of Haileybury, and Dr. Baker of Merchant Taylors'. It was announced, in the course of the proceedings, that Mr. Gray, of Bradfield, was absent from the happiest of causes. The numbers present at the meeting on Thursday, in the theatre of the College, were about one hundred, on the second day not much more than fifty.

Mr. EVE, in opening the proceedings, expressed the pleasure it gave to him and his colleagues to welcome the Conference to the University College School. Since the last meeting, two distinguished members of the Conference had retired to well-earned rest—namely, Dr. Holden, of Durham, and Mr. George Butler, of Liverpool. Another of their members, Dr. Huckin, of Repton, had been removed by death. He had left behind him, both at Merchant Taylors' and at Repton, a memory which would long be cherished.

The first subject for discussion was the teaching of Geography. A paper, by Mr. Hale of Eton, had been circulated among members, and Mr. Phillpotts read a paper recommending special teachers, map-drawing from memory, and the use of the black-board, and ending with a model lesson on the physical and political geography of Ireland.

Mr. SOUTH considered that Geography had a high educational value. It was the subject in which books were useless, or nearly useless, and in which a bad teacher was most sure to fail. It thus afforded, incidentally, a good test of a teacher's power. He did not consider that a special teacher was required. Physical Geography could be well taught by the Science master, and Political Geography by the regular teacher of History. No boy should be allowed to begin Physical Geography till he had mastered at least the rudiments of Mechanics and Natural Science. On coming to Blackheath, he had been astounded at the ignorance of his boys on the simplest natural phenomena. For instance, one of his head boys remarked to him one evening, "How very odd that the moon should change from night to night." Geography was valuable, not only for examination purposes, and as a preparation for commercial life, but for developing the power of expression. In this respect it might rank with History. Mr. South inadvertedly on the wretched little riders to the History questions which did duty for Geography in the London

Matriculation Examination; yet, even for that modicum required, he found that he had to make special preparation. Geography was one of the few subjects that they taught in common with the Board Schools. Elementary masters could criticise their methods, and they were bound to show their superiority. Intermediate between Physical and Political Geography, there came what he might call the science of Topography. The teaching suffered greatly for the want of good apparatus. There were few blank maps, and those expensive; few good astronomical diagrams, like the admirable ones in Agnes Giberne's "Sun, Moon, and Stars." Teachers should make use also of the mechanical helps for fixing position, such as the railways in England.

Mr. TANCOCK wished to ask masters whether there was any feasible scheme for working Geography from the bottom to the top of a school, and what was the standard they should aim at. At Norwich they began teaching Geography at ten, and with small boys he found that the lecture system did not answer. He could not get Geography taught by his masters with at all the same efficiency as they taught Latin or Greek grammar, and that because they had no definite standard to aim at. For the lower school, they began with the British Isles and Europe, and added for the higher forms a little general information; but the upper school masters did not seem to care much about the subject, though they complained if small boys came up to them ignorant. Candidates for special examinations were turned over to the Modern School master, and some of these distinguished themselves in Geography, but this produced no effect on the general knowledge of the school. In fact, he believed that geographical knowledge had advanced but little since he was at school, when the rule made by boys, and accepted by masters, was, "When asked where a place is, if you've heard the name before, say Italy or Greece, if not, say Asia Minor."

Dr. CARVER, being called upon by the Chairman, said that he thought a special master most desirable. The various form masters must superintend the teaching, but the Head-master must fix the standard and engage a specialist to see it enforced. The numerous medals of the Geographical Society that Dulwich had won, were due to making Geography a special subject, and having a highly qualified man to teach it. Mr. Robinson regulated the course in the various forms, but the work was left to form masters till before the special examinations. One term out of three was given to Physical Geography. This branch was far more popular than the other, especially among Science boys. A knowledge of Physics, Heat, and Magnetism, was a necessary preparation for Geography. The order in which the subject was taken at Dulwich was—(i.) Form and Motion of the Earth; (ii.) Atmosphere; (iii.) Oceans; (iv.) Dry Land; (v.) Life on Earth. Among means and appliances one of the most important was large Globes. No projection could give a boy correct notions of relative size and position. Stanford's Globes (three feet diameter) were admirable. Relief casts were also valuable, and there were too few published. In conclusion, Dr. Carver insisted that one master must be made specially responsible for Geography, though he need not take all the teaching on himself.

Mr. EVE brought forward the following resolution:—

"That it is desirable that in Public Examinations, when not used as School Examinations, the practice of setting definite books for translation should be discontinued, and that unnecessary translations only should be given, dictionaries only being allowed in the case of younger boys: and that the Committee be instructed to communicate this resolution to the various examining bodies."

This resolution, he premised, did not apply to all schools, but only to schools sending in pupils to the London University Matriculation, the Law, and the College of Surgeons Examinations. On the difficult question of the Local Examinations, he would also say a few words separately. Again, several Colleges at Oxford and Cambridge required special books to be taken up for their Entrance Examinations. Now suppose, what was not an uncommon case, that a few pupils at a school intend to enter the University of London, that two or three others are preparing for various Colleges, and two or three more for Professional examinations; it would be seen how difficult and distracting the work of the schoolmaster became. The London Matriculant will be reading a book of the Metamorphoses, not always selected with perfect discretion. The College of Surgeons have put their Entrance Examination in the hands of the College of Preceptors, who set the same books of Cæsar and Virgil from year to year, and the lawyers will have to get up some other book. Thus a troublesome confusing element is introduced into schools, and a uniform system of study is rendered impossible. Again, the boys who are going in for the same examination, must necessarily be grouped together, whether they be

clever or stupid, high up or low down in the school. The ideal examination, it seemed to him, was the German *Abiturienten-examen*. Doubtless we should never come to that, but our examinations mostly went into the opposite extreme, being committed wholly to outsiders, and disregarding the requirements of the school. He would anticipate one obvious objection to the resolution, viz., that if set subjects were excluded, scrappy reading—reading merely for “tips”—would be encouraged. But he believed that the steady perusal of a book would be found to be the best preparative for doing unseens. He had received from the master of a preparatory school a valuable suggestion as to the setting of unseens. Where very easy unseens were required, they might be manufactured by the examiners. Thus he believed that Mr. Arthur Sidgwick's Greek Prose Composition was composed mainly of translations of Greek unseens, manufactured for the Entrance examination at Rugby. Public examinations differed wholly in their objects from School examinations, that a boy could take in his stride, and that caused no special strain or disruption of his work. Professor Tait, who was a sworn foe to cram, proposed that candidates for the Indian Civil Service, should be sent for a three months' cruise without books, before being allowed to enter. He wished to see some pressure, on the part of the Conference, put on examining bodies to induce them to take similar views.

Mr. OATES said there were two essentials in all Public Examinations—first, Composition; and second, Grammar and Philology. No one ought to be allowed to compete till he had satisfied the examiners in these two points. For French, a leading article in the *Times* ought to be set for translation as a preliminary test. History and Geography were doubtless a desirable acquirement for officers, civil and military; but they were specially designed for the benefit of the crammer. Three months' “cram,” in the special periods set for Woolwich and Sandhurst, counted as much as three years' steady preparation in Latin and Greek. The two test subjects of examinations were Mathematics and Composition, whereas English Literature— [At this point the Chairman recalled the speaker to the point.]

The Rev. E. THRING called attention to another branch of the subject. In assigning Scholarships to little boys at Uppingham, they had successfully worked the system of Unseens, allowing dictionaries and lexicons. It was useless to make lamentations over “cram” (“cram” which all condemned and all supported), unless they could come forward with some practical statement of the way to get rid of it. The object of all examinations was to find out what a boy's education had been, not how much he had learned; and this could not be tested so long as examiners were confined to set subjects. He instanced the case of an Uppingham boy, who had been plucked in French for the Navy examination, and, with three months' “cram,” had passed twentieth out of eighty.

Dr. WEYMOUTH said that he had been asked by a distinguished lady what the Head-masters' Conference had hitherto done, and had not found it easy to give a satisfactory answer. It would have been easier if they had passed an important measure like this of Mr. Eve. It was the unanimous feeling of the Assistant Masters of Mill Hill that it would be a great benefit if the preparation of set books were no longer required. As an instance of the practical inconvenience of the present system, he stated that the requirements of External Boards had compelled the junior classes of his school to read hardly any other Latin book but *Cæsar* for all the last year.

Dr. H. A. JAMES thought that all would agree that, for abler boys and higher examinations, the method of testing by “unseens” was the best; but one practical difficulty had been overlooked. It was far harder to get a boy up to a certain standard in unseens than in a set book. He doubted the possibility of teaching lower forms so that they would produce any appreciable result when set down to an unseens. Candidates for the Legal and Medical Examinations came to them late, and had to go in at sixteen. Such boys could manage to get up a single book, but would infallibly be plucked in an unseens.

Mr. KITCHENER thought it possible to lower the standard of unseens so as to meet the case of the stupidest. Cambridge had introduced a compulsory unseens even for the Local Examinations; and he held that, by that simple change, the University had done more good than by any similar measure passed in late years.

Mr. MILLINGTON said that teachers should strive from the first to widen their pupils' point of view; to show them that they were not learning a single book, but laying the basis of linguistic and literary knowledge.

Mr. INGRAM pointed out that unseens in Latin and Greek were strictly parallel to what boys were required to do in an Arithmetic or Algebra examination; but he held that they had not enough experience to show whether stupid small boys were capable of doing unseens.

The Rev. E. M. YOUNG said that in the school entrance examination they tested the capacity of boys by unseens. The change proposed would get rid of one great hindrance to form-teaching in schools.

Mr. TANCOCK remarked, that in the discussion, so far, the point of view of lower grade schools, and that of the parents of stupid boys, had not been taken. For Army competitions and Scholarships he should support the change, but he should be sorry to see it introduced for the entrance examinations to professions. A boy, even if he knew little or no Latin, might be quite fit to become a doctor or a solicitor. The modicum of Latin that seemed little to them was found hard by lower grade schools. After last year's Conference, he had attended an informal Conference of Second Grade Head-masters, and he had found that not a single master was in favour of doing away entirely with set books. He thought that the supporters of the motion had hardly considered all the consequences of the change. One result would be, that second grade schools would, in many cases, drop Latin. Those who continued it would read no books, and do nothing but unseens. He was told that this was now the case with Army candidates. The present system suited well the accurate teaching of books for a few hours weekly. He would support the Resolution with the additions of “competitive” to Public Examinations.

Mr. J. B. ALLEN pointed out the difficulty that arose in setting unseens from the variety of the style and diction of classical authors.

The Rev. T. B. ROWE rose to ask a question. Was it intended to exclude Matriculation Examinations? [Mr. Eve, No.] The Universities were the chief offenders, and it would be a great gain if the Conference could persuade them to set a good example.

The Rev. H. St. JOHN READE moved, as an amendment, that after the words, “that it is desirable in public examinations,” &c., the following limitation should be introduced:—“which are intended to test knowledge of languages, and not merely the power of mastering a subject,” &c. This amendment would leave it an open question whether the Medical and Legal examinations were intended to test a knowledge of language.

The Rev. J. M. WILSON strongly deprecated the resolution as it stood for boys under 16. Examinations were of use not only for the purpose of ascertaining boys' ability, but of directing studies in schools. The effect of the change on the teaching of masters, would be to introduce a system of delectuses or select passages such as were now used by the crammers. The change would be beneficial in the case of the London University Matriculation and College of Surgeons, but bad in the case of the Local Examinations. Would the mover accept an amendment to this effect?

Mr. PHILLPOTTS supported the motion on the ground that it would direct teachers to what was their proper aim,—to promote a knowledge of language. He thought that the Local Examinations had done an infinity of harm by promoting unmitigated cram. In answer to Mr. Tancock's objection, that boys would be excluded from the professions, he believed that unseens could be adjusted to any standard that might be fixed. He had set one, only last week, for boys between ten and eleven, to be done without dictionaries. He proposed that to the resolution there should be added a rider, that it was not the wish of the Conference to raise the standard of examinations, and that the bodies concerned should direct their examiners not to reduce the number of passes. Instead of getting rid of Latin, he held that the change would have the opposite effect. Boys would take a greater interest in Latin and make greater progress. He had never sent boys in for the Locals, but many boys came to him who had passed the Locals, and he found their knowledge of Latin inadequate and inaccurate. They had either used translations to get up the book, or had had translations dictated to them. As to the “dodge” by which crammers were supposed to prepare for unseens, he should be much obliged if anyone would communicate it to him, as he held that it could be nothing else than the best method of learning a language.

The Rev. H. W. MOSS agreed with Mr. Phillpotts that there was no difficulty about setting suitable unseens. Masters who prepared for the Locals would do well if they would take heart of grace and believe that they could face unseens and dispense with set books. At the same time he thought it would be ungenerous if they sought to impose their opinions on inferior schools. He would therefore wish to exclude from the resolution the Locals as far as they served for school examinations. With this proviso, he wished, in their own interest, to see this resolution passed. Their boys who had to be prepared for special examinations, lost the advantage of class-teaching.

Dr. BUTLER said he was thankful for the healthy whiff of opposition from the other side of the house. He hoped he should not seem captious if he said that the last words that fell from Mr. Moss seemed to show where the danger lay. Their own interest was likely to

miscad them, in so far as they did not take account of those whose circumstances they did not know. It was easy to quote individual instances where examinations in set books would do positive harm, or less good than in unseen passages; but what staggered him in this resolution was, that they hardly knew how wide the sea was on which they were asked to launch themselves. On the one hand, they had the Universities to consider, who, in the entrance examinations of several colleges, did not confine themselves to unseens; and on the other hand, and at the other end of the scale, they had the ingenuous and frank avowal of the army crammer, that he would welcome the substitution of unseens, because he possessed an instrument peculiar to himself which would enable him to outstrip the schoolmaster. From what Mr. Tancock had said, it was evident that, by passing the Resolution, they would be causing a good deal of irritation among middle-class schoolmasters. It had been said, that if the object was to ascertain mental powers, the best test was the unseen, or, another speaker would add, composition. But, in his opinion, the preparation of set books enabled the examiner to judge of one important faculty that was not tested by unseens—the power to master and retain, at least for a certain time, a definite portion of knowledge. At Harrow, where in the Entrance Scholarships boys were tested only by unseens, hardly a year passed in which they were not called upon to modify their opinion. Boys who were rejected often outstripped the successful competitors by their power of getting up a book on a special subject and reproducing their knowledge in ship-shape. Another point required consideration. They must consider the reflex action of examinations on teaching. What would be the effect on those masters who are preparing for such examinations as the Locals? Would there not be less and less a thorough going through with books, and more and more a giving of passages to impart knowledge of the language? This was the misgiving that was weighing on his mind before Mr. Tancock spoke. There was a distinct intellectual advantage in grasping one book or even a portion of one book. The general result at which he arrived was, that the resolution as it stood was dangerously sweeping. It was desirable to take consultation. He believed in Committees. His experience of past years had shown him that the wisdom of nine men conferring together was almost infallible. Dr. Butler then moved the amendment:

“That the Committee be instructed to collect opinions as to the advantages or disadvantages likely to arise from abandoning the practice of setting definite books for translation in public examinations and replacing them by unseen translations only.”

Dr. ABBOTT seconded the amendment. He held that the change proposed by Mr. Eve would be ultimately beneficial, not only to the higher schools, but to those who took the Locals, but they wanted further information. He had himself no experience of the Local Examinations, but he knew something of the boys who went in for them. There were evils in both systems, and they must strike the balance. Books, it was true, would not be so carefully studied, and the literary element would somewhat suffer, but with boys and girls the literary element was not strong. On the other hand, under the present system, many who had passed an examination in Cicero or Virgil really knew nothing of the Latin language. Boys had come to him who had passed the College of Preceptors' Examination in Latin with distinction. He set them to construe the simple sentence, “Oppida magna boni agricolae habent,” and though he gave them the benefit of the two possible ways of taking the words, not one out of five could translate it. The setting of unseens was a practical difficulty. The Cambridge Examiner of this year had reported very severely on the unseen translations of the boys, and still more so of the girls; but when he came to look at the passage set, he had found it much too hard. He was thoroughly convinced that the supposed difficulty of making unseens sufficiently easy was imaginary. At the same time, he would not have the Conference pass a resolution which would expose them to the suspicion of meddling with interests other than their own. He therefore supported the amendment.

Dr. Butler's amendment was then carried.

The Rev. E. BARTRAM urged the claim of the Society of Schoolmasters to the support of the Conference. After sketching the origin, constitution, objects, and work of the Society, he criticised in detail the rules, the report, and, in particular, the expenses of management, and made various suggestions by which it might be rendered more popular.

Mr. THRING moved:—

“That the Conference considers it desirable that the members should make more widely known the claims of the Society of Schoolmasters on the support of all schools represented at the Conference.”

He advised that a sub-committee should be appointed, with Mr. Bartram as Chairman, to make suggestions, to be brought either before the Committee of the Conference or the Committee of the Schoolmasters' Society.

Mr. WILSON seconded the motion, and it was carried.

The Rev. G. C. BELL gave some explanations respecting the report and statement of finance.

The Conference then adjourned until Friday at ten o'clock.

The Head-master (Mr. Eve) of University College School entertained the members of the Conference, a number of Assistant Masters, and other distinguished guests, at a dinner in the Library of University College. The number who sat down cannot have been far short of 200. Among those present were Mr. Justice Fry, the Dean of Westminster, Mr. Erichsen, Sir A. Hobhouse, the Master of University College, Oxford, Mr. Oscar Browning, Sir G. Young, Mr. Cozeus-Hardy, and nearly all the professors of the College.

In the evening a *Conversazione* was given by the Council of the College and the Head-master of the School in the Flaxman Gallery. Some 600 ladies and gentlemen were present.

The second meeting of the Conference was opened by Dr. SCOTT, who, at the request of the Chairman, rose to propose the following motion:—

“That the Conference desire to express their sympathy with the family of the late Archbishop of Canterbury, and their sense of the eminent services that he has rendered to the Church and the Nation.”

It is the connection of the Archbishop with schoolmasters that gives us a right to speak, and all will feel that on such an occasion we cannot refrain from speaking. A public loss claimed a public tribute. Many of us have learnt from the life of Mrs. Tait, and I can confirm from what I have seen myself, and learnt from a dear relative who was connected with the Archbishop, how simple and how unaffected was the family life that he led when he was free from the cares of office. One who knew Mrs. Tait said of her,—“When you go with Mrs. Tait, you never know where she is going to take you; it may be to the court or to a hovel, or you may drive from the Palace to the entrance of a court where the carriage cannot pass.” The Archbishop himself could not give perhaps so much time to those personal ministrations by reason of the many public duties pressing on him, but by his statesmanlike breadth of view, by his noble impartiality, by his Christian charity, he has been able to hold the reins of the Church, and guide her aright through all her dangers and difficulties, when in less able hands none could tell what dissensions might have arisen, and even what disruptions might have come. We can utter no better wish for his successor, than that he may be guided by the same principles, the same Christian charity, the same clear insight into the evil as well as the good he may see around him. The Archbishop's last public act was the Confirmation of the youthful Princes, his last act on his death-bed was a message of peace, and he has now surely entered into his rest according to God's word, “Blessed are the Peacemakers.” We desire in this way to express our sympathy with his family, not that we can console the mourners for their infinite loss, but to show at least that we have felt what has been lost.

Dr. JEX BLAKE seconded the Motion. The few words he should say, were not a compliment to the body of which both the late Archbishop and the Archbishop elect had been members, though they might be taken as a sign, that if great administrators were wanted, they would be found among men whose chief duty it was to administer the great schools of the nation. As an old pupil of the late Archbishop, he felt a singular tenderness for his memory, and recalled his singular kindness and friendship. He remembered the enthusiasm with which, as school boys, they had taken the horses out of his carriage and dragged him to the station, and the few feeling sentences of farewell that their Head-master addressed to them on leaving Rugby. He had a singular gift of precise and elegant diction, and had it not been for the necessary check that his exalted position imposed on him, his great eloquence would have been as fully recognised as his great sagacity.

Dr. BUTLER hoped that there would not be felt any abrupt inconsistency between the motion of congratulation that he was called upon to bring forward, and the motion of sympathy that had just been so feelingly and eloquently proposed. It was no less fitting that they should express their sympathy with him who was recently a member of their brotherhood, and who was now invited to fill the place of him who had been taken from the head of us all, and from the heart of not a few present. With Dr. Benson he had been connected by a warm

and unbroken friendship of more than thirty years. At Trinity College, Cambridge, on Commemoration Day in December, 1851, Dr. Benson gained the Declamation Prize for an Essay on a congenial subject—the character of George Herbert—and he should never forget the beautiful address, or the admirable manner in which it was delivered. At Rugby, Dr. Benson came under the personal influence of that great trainer of Head-masters, the Bishop of Exeter, who, by a remarkable reversal of position, was now subject to one whom, more than twenty-five years ago, he called to be his assistant. There was a curious parallel in the case of the late Archbishop, who, when he was consecrated by Dr. Moberley, was gently and playfully reminded of the reversal of their positions, the Archbishop having been prepared by him for confirmation when he was tutor of Balliol. After those early days of apprenticeship at Rugby, Dr. Benson was called to what may be termed the national work of founding a new school. Under his rule, that foundation of national patriotism grew to its present prosperity. From Wellington College he was summoned to Lincoln, to revive an old institution, and breathe into it life, spirit, and animation. Again he was called to be founder, and a planter, as well as a ruler. At Truro, he founded a fresh centre of spiritual life, and raised that great Cathedral, which was at once the symbol and the instrument of religious life and beauty. By the pleasure of his sovereign, and the concurrence of the whole Church, he was now called to a sphere where it might be more difficult to become a founder and a builder, as well as a ruler of men. Yet, who that knew him would doubt that his eager, ardent, energetic spirit would find unexpected elements to introduce, which will testify that he can add and will add to the greatness even of that position. As to their part in assuring him of their sympathy, it will not be regarded by him as formal or superfluities. Moments of public responsibility are moments of private sympathy. It was told of another Archbishop, that when a friend was asked by some one whether he had known him, he was answered, "I knew him when he was comparatively a fellow-creature." Dr. Benson will be not only comparatively, but positively, a fellow-creature, and a fellow-feeler with all his fellow masters. In this solemn interim between the life of the past and the life of the future, which invoked their sympathy and their earnest prayers, he invited the Conference to offer to the Archbishop their respectful congratulations, together with the hope that he would be long spared to discharge the duties of his high office.

The Rev. E. C. WICKHAM, in seconding the motion, referred to the sudden wrench by which the Bishop had been called to leave the "opera interrupta minasque murorum ingentes." The various patrons to whom the Archbishop owed his advancement showed his catholic breadth of character. When the Governors of Wellington College advertised for a Head-master, they were not satisfied with the candidates, and applied to Dr. Temple to send them his best man. Then he was taken to Lincoln by Bishop Wordsworth, a great man in his way, but of a very different school. The late Prime Minister had appointed him to Truro, and the present to the Archbishopric. In all these positions, Dr. Benson had shown his great administrative ability, his creative power, and his power of co-operating with those who differed from him.

Mr. EVE supported the motion, and expressed his pride and pleasure at the election of a brother Fellow of Trinity, and one who, for so many years, had been his beloved chief at Wellington College.

Mr. BARTRAM moved:—

"That a Committee be appointed to consider what alteration in the rules can be made to render the work of the Society of Schoolmasters more popular and useful; that the Committee consist of Dr. Abbott, Dr. Baker (Treasurer), and Mr. Bartram, and be instructed to ask Dr. Wormell and Mr. Isbister to take part in their deliberations."

Mr. THRING seconded, and the motion was carried.

The Rev. G. C. BELL brought forward the question of Local Examination Scholarships, which was down in Mr. Wilson's name. At the Wellington Conference a resolution had been passed, that it was desirable that Scholarships be provided for boys who had distinguished themselves in the Local Examinations of Oxford and Cambridge. The Scholarships that had been offered in accordance with this resolution fell under two heads—those sanctioned by Governing Bodies, those offered by private arrangement of House masters. Under the first head they had received offers from Cranbrook, Epsom, Haileybury, Marlborough, Westminster, Wellington College, Uppingham, King's College, and Durham and Dulwich provisionally. Under the second head, from Canterbury, Felstead, Onndle, and Havesham—in all, about twenty scholarships. The results of the Conference of the Committee with the Delegates of Local Examinations at Oxford and the Syndicate at Cambridge were

published in the Report. Since the Report had been issued, he had heard several objections to the scheme, especially from the Head-master of Warwick. Mr. Grundy feared that he would be robbed of his most promising scholars. He had not realized that the instructions under which the Committee acted, excepted schools habitually sending boys to the Universities. Still, whether well founded or not, there was a feeling of hostility to their proposal. Some middle-class schools even contemplated a withdrawal of their pupils from the Locals if the scheme was carried through. He hoped to remove this opposition. The facts were, that each year some three or four boys came to the top who were fit to receive a University education, but wanted help to do so. For the casual help these boys now received from local benevolence, they wished to substitute the regular help of Foundation Scholarships. As there were only twenty Scholarships in all, and these Scholarships were tenable for four or five years at least, the chance of any school being robbed was exceedingly small. But he should go farther, and say to these masters,—“If one of your lads who has shown aptitude for higher education is enabled by the disinterested goodwill of the Conference to obtain it, is it right that you should stand in the way of your pupil's advancement?”

Dr. JAMES urged that, before electing such Scholars, the consent of their Head-master should be asked in some shape or form.

Rev. A. R. VARDY said there could be no doubt of the purity of the motives that prompted this offer of Scholarships; but the best motives were liable to misconstruction, and there was need of caution. They should try to remove the false impression that this was an attempt to poach on the preserves of lower schools. They could not dismiss the prejudice that exists with contempt or indifference, as if the masters concerned—masters in every respect their equals—were not actuated by motives as pure and disinterested as theirs. Nor could he regard the question as set at rest by the saving clause in the Clifton resolution. It was almost impossible to determine what schools did habitually send boys to the University. Membership in the Conference was no test. The Conference was rather a fortuitous growth than formed in accordance with law; and if the lists were revised, it was conceivable that some Head-masters present would be debarred, and many admitted who were now excluded. There was no finality in schools. They fluctuated with the Head-master, some rising to the first grade, others dropping out and losing touch with the Universities. He had so hearty a sympathy with the intention of those offering Scholarships, that he hoped some way would be found to meet this objection. If the metaphor of big brothers and little brothers that they had heard more than once at the Conference, were more than a phrase, the difficulty would be overcome. Small masters would (as in his own case he had known them do) pass on their best boys to big masters. As a *δευτερος πλοῦς*, though better than the present one, he could have wished that there had been a free open movement in the matter. If the big schools had gone into the market, and advertised that they would confer Scholarships on boys who had taken high places in the Locals, and could profit by further education, this would have obviated the feeling of jealousy which exists. Masters would have felt at liberty to consult with parents and give advice to boys. As this course was now out of the question, he would suggest some safeguards. (i.) To give the fullest publicity to the intentions of the founders of these Scholarships. If the choice of Scholars were left to the Delegates and Syndicate, they would be acting behind the backs, and without the knowledge, of the boys' head-masters. (ii.) As they asked for the confidence of their small brethren, so they should give them their confidence in return, and ask their opinion. The correspondence should be conducted, not between the Universities and parents, but between the founders of Scholarships and the Masters of Scholars.

The Rev. E. M. YOUNG said that the plan which Mr. Vardy thought to be now impossible, had been carried out at Sherborne, where they had at present a Scholar sent there by the master of a Cathedral School.

Mr. PHILLIPOTS thought that they were not setting to work in the right way, but forgetting the philosophic precept, "Act so that your act may be indefinitely extended with advantage." The veto on certain schools would act to the prejudice of certain boys. Again, he doubted the advisability of drafting the pick of the middle class schools into large boarding schools, where, if they betrayed their origin, their life would be made a burden to them. Like poor officers in a regiment, they would be reminded of their poverty at odd corners. The scheme should be organized in a private way. If their object was simply to raise education throughout the country, the way to do so was to raise a fund for carrying on a boy's education either at his own school or elsewhere, according to the choice of the parent. He would willingly subscribe to such a fund.

Rev. J. M. WILSON said they had heard every possible objection

to the scheme in Mr. Vardy's able and exhaustive speech. Mr. Phillpotts' philosophy he was inclined to neglect, as Mr. Phillpotts' objections appeared to him inconsistent with themselves. By reference to the lists of the Oxford and Cambridge Locals, it would be seen that the limit of age reduced to a very small number the boys eligible each year. Full publicity would be given to their offer, the Scholarships being advertized in the yearly circular of the Delegates. It would be easy, if thought desirable, to alter "schools that habitually send boys to the Universities" to "schools that do not profess, &c." As a fact, the great mass of Local candidates come from schools that do not retain boys after sixteen. Instead of being deprived of clever boys, such schools could not have a better advertisement than to have gained a scholarship at Winchester or Haileybury. Mr. Phillpotts thought that these boys would be dreadfully out of place in these schools. He was ready, with his usual generosity, to subscribe to send them there, but unwilling to accept them if sent by the Delegates.

Rev. G. M. BELL said the discussion had shown him the great importance of repetition at the Conference as at school. It was never the intention of the Committee to go behind the middle-class masters, or not to consult them. Their offer might stimulate healthy rivalry in some districts, and incite some local millionaire to help to keep a local luminary in his original sphere.

Rev. E. THRING called attention to one point, the most important of all, which had scarcely been touched on. Hitherto the debate had been concerned with head-masters' and schools, but had neglected the boys themselves, and the nation. They had seemed to be dealing with an entirely new question, whereas, as long as he could remember, he had heard discussed the question of providing a ladder, so that no boy in England should be wanting in natural means to reach the University, if he had the ability. When they came forward to make an exceedingly generous offer, for it did no good whatsoever to the school that accepts the scholar, let them not in any way appear before the world as putting any hindrance in the way of this great national question. However many Scholarships might be offered, the number of boys capable of taking advantage of them in any year must be small. The scheme was important, not from the numbers it affected, but from supplying a want where most felt. If they excluded boys from schools that sent boys to the Universities, all the other difficulties raised *solvuntur ambulando*. The masters he had spoken to welcomed the scheme, as at present they were compelled, if they wanted to carry on the education of a clever boy, to hunt out a patron for him. As to Mr. Phillpotts' advocacy of a private subscription, he held that to formulate a scheme did not exclude private generosity, but if private action were left to itself, it would exclude the most important part of the proposed scheme—the evidence that head-masters are willing and able to bridge over the great gulf between middle and higher education.

Mr. ROWE thought that, if the scheme was once started, the objections now raised would disappear, but his difficulty was to start it. He had tried to fall in with the scheme, but had failed. One of the provisions of the Endowed Schools Commissioners' scheme for Tunbridge, was that all Scholarships should be awarded by open competition. This was not an open competition, and not only could no such scholarship be given by the Governors, but they had not even power to remit the tuition fees. He should like to know if anyone had got over this initial difficulty, and if so, how.

Mr. EVE could offer no suggestion. As to Dr. James's recommendation to the Committee, he would advise that no Scholarship should be offered when the Head-master objects to such an offer, and at the same time can afford a reasonable presumption that he can, without a wide departure from the lines of his curriculum, prepare the boy for the University.

Dr. WEYMOUTH would suggest to Mr. Rowe, that the Local candidate might be invited to go in for the Open School Competition, and he would be pretty sure to come out top. The experience of Mill Hill proved to him that Mr. Phillpotts' social difficulty was imaginary. One-tenth of their boys were too poor to pay the school fees, yet these boys were marked by no social stigma.

Dr. ABBOTT offered one practical suggestion. There were many schools that *professed* to send boys to the Universities and did not send them, as was shown by the petitions they received from masters for admission to the Conference. If, then, this limitation were carried out, they would have cases of one boy making a class by himself, and preparing for the University with wholly insufficient instruction, and thus they might be sacrificing, not only the boy, but national education, to the possible prosperity of a small school. No veto ought to be allowed to Head-masters. Again, in some large schools the expense was so great that the Scholarship would only go a little way to cover it. In another case, the parent might be actually making money by his boy. He would, therefore, add to Dr. James's recommendation the words

"without increase of expense." There might be now only two or three of these Scholars a year, but they should look forward to the time when there would be ten or twenty. He thought the objection that middle-class schools would decline to send their boys in to the examinations a nugatory one. Why did they at present send in boys for the Locals? Was it not at the wish of the parents, and to keep up the standard of the school? Would they not, *a fortiori*, be forced by parents to send boys in who were likely to win Scholarships, and would not the winners reflect credit on the school? He thought Mr. Thring's warning well-timed and needful. In his own case, he could not help doubting whether he was always actuated by the highest motives. For his own school and his own scholars he tried to do his very best, but he had some compunction of doubt as to whether he sufficiently considered education at large. Therefore he was grateful to Mr. Thring for reminding them that the scheme was nothing if it was not public. Now and then they might some of them feel some unpleasant consequences from it, as he felt the effects of the 153 Free Scholarships at St. Paul's, and would be glad when his rich neighbour moved farther off; but, in both cases, he heartily wished them God-speed.

The Rev. H. W. MOSS illustrated from his own case the advantages of these Scholarships, and the inadvisability of any restrictions. He had gone, at sixteen, from a lower grade school to Shrewsbury. He had no complaint to make against his first master; but it was only when he came under Dr. Kennedy that he found out his ignorance of scholarship, and learnt what scholarship really meant. Supposing his first master had thought fit to put a veto on his going to Shrewsbury, and kept him with the idea of forming a class for the University, it would have been very unfair to him, and might have ruined his future prospects.

It was then agreed that the Committee should draw up the rules afresh, and invite further proposals before finally settling them.

Dr. Abbott, Dr. Butler, and Dr. Ridding were elected members of the Committee.

(To be continued in the Supplement of Jan. 15th.)

ESSAYS ON SCIENCE TEACHING IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

V.

By DR. WORMELL.

AS the preceding essays have been almost entirely restricted to the higher Public Schools, it may be an advantage to consider the subject in its relation to a school occupying a middle position in the educational ladder. Such a school is usually characterised by the fact that its pupils leave at the age of fifteen or sixteen, and, as a rule, are destined afterwards to follow some commercial pursuit. It has bonds of connection, and points of resemblance, with both extremes. It has to teach the common educational subjects which form the whole work of the Elementary School, and, in its higher mathematical and literary work, it has affinities with the higher Public Schools; and a small percentage of its pupils pass on to the Universities. But its speciality is the teaching of Science. An important object of its scheme of education is to cultivate in the pupil an intelligent attitude of mind in relation to the things and phenomena about him. The purpose is to give him ability to examine such things, and both to describe and use them. This it strives to accomplish chiefly by means of Science. Many of the pupils in such a school, particularly in London and in large towns, have afterwards to take up scientific trades and professions; and, although it is no business of the school to teach particular trades, it is its business to develop the powers of mind, of eye, and of hand, so that the pupil will be prepared for any scientific calling that circumstances may place in his way. It follows that, if the methods and principles of Science are of more importance to one class of school than to another, they are of most importance to the Middle-class School. At the same time, while considering the relation of the subject to the work of a school in which more time is devoted to Science Teaching than to any other subject, the general principles involved here will apply to any school where this kind of teaching is really and earnestly attempted.

Instruction in Science properly begins with the Object-teaching of the younger children. It is frequently assumed that the school course of studies should, in every respect, be regulated by that of the Universities; but a little reflection will show that, in Science work, at least, a complete and continuous system cannot be formed by descending from the University scheme, but may be formed by ascending from that of the lower schools. If we divide the subjects of our Object-teaching into kinds that are fundamentally distinct, we may then, by successive differentiations, arrive at the University classification; but, if we attempt to integrate the University factors, so as to determine what should be the beginning, insurmountable difficulties soon appear.

Now, these Object-lessons may be divided, at the beginning, into three classes—lessons on (1) Form, (2) Material, (3) Life (Natural History).

The first class passes through the following stages (with intermediate links):—The formation of symmetrical plane figures and solids; the discrimination and description of the ordinary plane figures and solids; the generation of surfaces by motion of lines and of solids by motion of surfaces; generation of curves by mechanical means; the generation of surfaces of revolution, measurements of length, surface, and capacity; the use of squared paper; plotting of curves; measurements and calculations by means of plotted curves; the connection of what has gone before with Theoretical Geometry, Algebra, &c.

The second begins with the discrimination of qualities and properties of things, and gradually develops into what are commonly known as Mechanics, Physics, and Chemistry. The simpler facts of all these branches of Science are at first brought together under such headings as—Experiments on water, air, glass, wood, metals—materials and productions used in manufacture and for food—distinctive properties of solids, liquids, and gases.

The third class, beginning with Natural History, develops into Physiology, Biology, Botany, and Geology.

We have next to consider the method of teaching. Until very lately, the Science lesson of a school was but a lecture-room display, the teacher being but a manipulator of apparatus, and the pupils only admiring spectators. Even Chemistry, which is now so well systematised, was introduced into schools by lectures, consisting either of pops, bangs, and fire-works, or of constant repetitions of ebullition in a test-tube. As might have been foreseen, such displays have proved ineffectual in awakening thought, and kindling enthusiasm. Where Science had not root and vigour enough to grow beyond this beginning, it has naturally declined or died out. Of still less use were lectures descriptive of diagrams of apparatus. The teaching of Science should be by lesson, and not by lecture. There are three things to be secured, and it is only by oral question and answer in rapid succession that it can be shown when the desired results are attained. The pupil has to learn to see what he ought to see, to describe what he sees, and, finally, to reason on the connection of what he has seen and described. Between lessons, he has to be taught to interrogate Nature with his own hands, at first under the guidance of teachers, and afterwards more or less in his own way. The apparatus used should be of the simplest and least expensive kind, made, when possible, by the pupil himself. At first, he will simply endeavour to repeat what he has seen done by others. This use of the demonstrations of the Science lessons should be always in the mind of the teacher. When an experiment is shown in the lesson, it is well to say whether it is to be repeated at home (requiring but simple means and no supervision), or in the laboratory (requiring supervision); or whether it is only a teacher's illustration, requiring the use of apparatus that cannot safely be placed in the hands of pupils.

The relative time at lesson and laboratory work should be about as one to two. In the school whose course I am now briefly describing, the younger boys have two lessons a week of three quarters of an hour each, followed by half-an-hour's experimental work in class, the pupils having sets of the same materials as agents, and simultaneously performing the same

experiments. As they rise in the school, Science claims more of their time. In the upper classes, there are six lessons a week, each followed by two hours of laboratory work; so that a boy who takes the whole course, devotes to Science eighteen hours out of the thirty he spends at school. As a rule, it is found that the most useful laboratory work is quantitative rather than qualitative. Most of it should consist of making measurements under given circumstances, and tabulating or plotting out the results.

In deciding what branches of Science are to be taught in a school, account must be taken of seasons and circumstances. Heat and Electricity best suit the winter months; Light, the Summer. Botany, which may be a continuous study in the country, is best dealt with in May and June in a city school. The Science curriculum, however, should never be so stereotyped as to compel a teacher to take up branches he does not care for. Particularly is this the case with the Biological subjects. We have seen Physiology or Geology suddenly become the most engrossing of studies under a particular teacher, and, when the course of events has lifted him to higher places, the zeal that he aroused has at once begun to wane, and has soon subsided altogether. Much everywhere depends on the teacher. When enthusiasm enters into the subject he has to teach, much will be done with small appliances. When he has no more love for Science than for other things, give him the best equipment the world can produce, and he will accomplish but little.

THE "AJAX" AT CAMBRIDGE.

TWO years have passed since the undergraduates of Oxford astonished and delighted the literary world by their revival of a Greek play. With all the boldness of a new inspiration, they chose the most wonderful and terrible of ancient dramas, the "Agamemnon" of Æschylus, and with the confidence of untried effort, they attempted in its presentation, the utmost rigours of classical severity. Before an attempt so novel and daring, criticism melted in a glow of gratitude and admiration. The sister University now follows in an already trodden path and with more measured steps. The performance of her undergraduates is marked by a temperance and thoroughness characteristic of Cambridge. They choose a play by the tragedian Cambridge most delights to honour, Sophocles, a play typically Greek in sentiment, but of no overmastering pathos; the audience was provided with a prose translation by Prof. Jebb, which needs no words of ours to praise, and which leaves us, indeed, with but this regret, that six plays of Sophocles are left still untranslated; every detail of stage management is watched over by a skilled archæologist; in their music and their stage scenery, they preserve a calculated balance between ancient and modern sentiment; at all points they invite a criticism they have certainly no reason to dread.

The play opens with a scene whose pictorial effect was well calculated to start the spectator's emotions in a pleasing key. The unhappy watchman, whose somewhat uncouth monologue begins the "Agamemnon," had a hard task,—he was endured with a respectful patience hard to maintain; but the Ajax charmed us from the outset. Against the lovely background of the Trojan shore, the coast line and blue sea and distant mountains, stands out in clear relief the grand white-robed figure of the goddess Athene. Our theories about simple statuesque beauty, clear untroubled Greek outline, later to be so rudely disturbed by the turbulent restlessness of Tekmessä, here find full satisfaction; and, looking to our "Dramatis Personæ," we see with pleasure that the actor who personates Athene, bears a name which, with the reflex of a brother's honour, every student of Greek art holds in high reverence. There is a fitness in these things. Still, Mr. E. A. Gardner's conception struck us as perhaps even too austere. Athene could be very human at times,—if our memory serves us, once she plucked a favourite hero by his yellow hair, and we fancy somehow she brought the cowering Odysseus so near his unseen

raging rival with lurking humorous intent. Anyhow, the humour of the scene was so emphasized in its representation, that Athene's unsympathetic austerity looked a little overstrained.

With the Trojan coast before us, we must say a word on the vexed question of scene-painting. That the Cambridge scenery was, before all things, pleasant to the eyes, was evident by the delight of the audience; but, among many scholars, there seems to have been a sense that they were tasting forbidden fruit, apt to turn to ashes in the mouth—ashes of inaccurate archæology. The fear is, we believe, in the main groundless. Dr. Waldstein, in his preface, promises us a representation that shall correspond to a supposed presentment of the play in the second century B.C. Now, so early as the end of the fifth century, ancient literature tells us, lived a painter, by name Apollodorus, who won for himself fame by painting the "species," the outside seeming of things; he won for himself also the two titles of scene-painter and light-and-shade painter (*σκηνογράφος* and *σκιαγράφος*),—it is significant that the terms were accounted interchangeable, the scene painter was *ex officio* the painter of perspective. Probably this perspective was at first, in the main, linear, the majority of early plays have for their background architectural scenes of temple or palace. It is noticeable also, that Aristotle attributes the first regular use of *σκηνογραφία* to Sophocles, so that the elaborate Cambridge scene-painting has a special justification. This very scene-painter, Apollodorus, executed a picture, which had for its subject the ship of the younger Ajax struck by lightning,—a scene which we imagine would demand considerable facility in the treatment of aerial perspective and chiaroscuro. That the Greeks did attain to a surprising mastery in these arts, we have sufficient evidence in the coast scenery of the several paintings excavated on the Esquiline Hill. We hold, therefore, that the Cambridge scenery was not only pleasing but also archæologically permissible.

For the elaborate and very beautiful music of Prof. Macfarren, Dr. Waldstein sets forth a perhaps somewhat hazardous justification. He says,—“Though this music may differ from the music of the ancient Greeks, it no doubt will tend to produce a similar effect upon people whose ear has been trained by a long experience of the most highly developed forms of modern music.” This principle of “similar effects” has, in the parallel question of *translation* from the Classics, led to the wildest vagaries. It is only our almost total ignorance of the nature of Greek music which makes it admissible here. A principle, doubtful in itself, may, however, be applied with the instinctive sympathy and insight of genius. This Prof. Macfarren has done. Sometimes we felt a momentary shock of incongruity when we were treated to a bit of imitative Handelism, or when the chorus were allowed to “spitefully exult” on the grand syllables of *καθυβρίζων*; but, for the rest, we felt the music about us like a sympathetic atmosphere. Among many merits was, first and foremost, its delightful emphasis of the choric metres. This delight of pure metre—perhaps the subtlest and finest of all pleasures—was, for once, offered freely to all; a thing to be understood of the people. We longed that every schoolboy, every undergraduate, who, with a pattern before him, has toiled to complete his laborious task of choric patchwork, should be there, and hear with his ears the impetus and swing of the seemingly intricate metre—should know that a Chorus was, not a dead letter, to be written by inches and feet, but a live thing, to be sung and shouted and danced. The coldest of Englishmen must have been stirred with something of southern impulse at the sound of *ἔφριξ' ἔρωσι*, and the sight of the brown-limbed sailors moving so rhythmically in the blithe dance to Sea-roaming Pan. It is greatly to the credit of Cambridge that she supplied so goodly a show of thews and sinews, worthily to impersonate the stalwart Salaminian sailors. This chorus was a thing of gladness and open-air rejoicing, to haunt one's memory on the darkest days. It came with a sense of momentary relief, but with the double pathos of unconscious irony, after the veiled foreboding of the speech of Ajax. Scarcely less full of human charm, though more subtle in its

utterance, was the musical expression of the lament of the chorus for the joys of home, with its glorious outburst at the end

προσείποιμεν Ἰθάνας.

We felt more vividly than ever, in reading the play, that the function of the Chorus was to allay, as well as sustain, the emotion of the spectator. The Chorus, in both these cases, breaks out into song just as the pathos of the situation becomes well-nigh intolerable in its strain. The Chorus was almost beyond criticism, just a thing of pure delight,—but the actors were of less even merit. There was about Odysseus none of that sudden persuasiveness of speech which was, as Helen has told us, the characteristic of the man of many wiles. He was dull and heavy, and moved uneasily in his utterance of his own language. However, to recite glibly some hundreds of Iambic lines is no light task, and let those of us who have accomplished the task be the first to cast a stone. The thing can be done, however, as Tekmessa proved by the mouth of Mr. A. R. Macklin. His delivery of the narrative of Tekmessa was a masterpiece of swift, voluble, living declamation. We felt for once that Iambics were the fit vehicle of rapid, passionate utterance. His attitudes and gesture as he told the horrid tale were, in the best sense, tragic. But this fine beginning, full of a real actor's inspiration, issued in an end as disappointing as it was distasteful. Flattered, probably, by the evident sympathy of a modern audience, Mr. Macklin forgot all limit and measure; availing himself, no doubt, of the fact that Tekmessa was a spear-bought bride, he made her indulge in pitiful gestures and lamentations and paroxysms that would have disgraced even the daughter of a Phrygian father. We cease to wonder at the dislike and contempt of Ajax, and from all our hearts we echo his words,—“Woman, silence graces women.” The beauty of the whole of the last scene was disturbed and degraded by the ceaseless, restless lye-play and offensive grimacings of Tekmessa. Could she not have cast herself down, once for all, in some splendid attitude of despairing grief! Agamemnon and Menelaus were too busy remembering their Iambics to have time to understand or express the sentiments they gave utterance to; but Agamemnon *looked* every inch (and there were many) the King of men. Odysseus and Agamemnon (Mr. White-Thompson and Mr. H. J. Ford) seemed to have peculiar views as to the nature of the *στιχομυθία* that fell to their lot. They rolled out their alternate sentences at each other with a slow, sonorous majesty, that was peculiarly out of place, and, coming as it did at the close of the play, was excessively wearisome. A *στιχομυθία* is nothing if it is not, in the fullest sense of the word, *rapid*, word *snatching* at word, thought carping at thought. Often its intelligibility depends on this swift sequence. The dreary drag of the *στιχομυθία* was the most definite blunder in execution we noted.

To Ajax, Ajax who acted to the manner born, every critic has awarded his full meed of well-earned praise, let us keep our tribute for the more delicate merit of Teucer. As soon as he enters bearing his silver bow, the pathos of the piece centres upon him; when the shroud is lifted, and he kneels by the body of Ajax, we have before us the perfect image of tender, chivalrous grief. Mr. Cust played his part with just that dignity and reserve which, far removed from coldness, adds to the majesty of grief, abating none of its tenderness. Tekmessa's grief is (in Mr. Macklin's hands) a shallow sorrow, boisterous in utterance. Teucer's is a great deep pain borne with a hero's mastery; and yet Mr. Cust, without a particle of overdone pathos or grimacing bye-play, made us feel how sensitive to every touch of pain and insult was Teucer, standing out against the background of impassive brutality, lent him by Agamemnon and Menelaus; he never seemed to be acting, he was himself, just a goodly, gracious Greek.

The scene around the body of Ajax brought home, more forcibly than anything else, the advantage of spectacular presentation of Greek plays. Greek feeling about burials is hard for us to realize, now-a-days we separate too decisively between body and soul. But, when we see before our eyes the

dead body of Ajax, and around it, as round some sacred altar, are gathered wife and child, and hero brother, in passionate lament, in untold anguish, not so much for the death as the thought of threatened dishonour, for a moment we do feel a sympathy too keen to be wholly historical; nor do we breathe freely till we hear fair Teucer bid the Chorus "dig the hollow bed and place the high-set cauldron girt with fire," and the slow procession winds out bearing the hero aloft in all honour.

One word in conclusion. The "Agamemnon" at Oxford seemed an isolated phenomenon in University life, a splendid meteor that flashed and fell into darkness. The Cambridge performance is only part of a general movement; hence its careful, well-considered character. Cambridge now boasts its regular school of archaeology; two of its Professors are archaeologists of European note; it has recently added to its staff a regular lecturer on Classical Archaeology, whose enthusiasm and zeal are sufficiently evidenced by the performance he has throughout superintended. Thanks to the ceaseless efforts of the Slade Professor, Cambridge undergraduates have now access to a museum of casts, a series of representative coins, a library, and in short the nucleus of an excellent archaeological "Apparat," they have opportunities for archaeological training, close and accurate, after Cambridge fashion. That archaeological accuracy does not deaden but rather gives life to classical scholarship, we have abundantly witness in this performance of the "Ajax"; which is at once the outcome and the evidence of this archaeological movement.

CORRESPONDENCE.

"MAXIMA DEBETUR VETULIS REVERENTIA."

To the Editor of the *Journal of Education*.

SIR,—Our daughters are now exposed to one thoroughly immoral tendency in the modern society novel, which, though it has been noticed, has not been flagellated so severely as it deserves. I refer to the excessive depreciation of middle-aged and elderly persons (especially women), which is so conspicuous in the pages of many novels of modern life, especially in those written by women. According to these novelists, one would imagine that advancing age destroyed every vestige of valuable qualities, moral and mental. All delicate feeling, high aspiration, and noble self-denial, "the sublime promptings to do the painful right," "unspoken sorrows," and "sacred joys" (George Eliot) are depicted as the most despicable graspingness, deplorable vulgarity, and intense prosaicism and worldliness. This unseemly caricature defaces and vulgarizes otherwise often pleasing and lively pictures of modern manners. Now, do we really believe that young people have no faults, and old ones no virtues? Is all feminine nobility, ideality, distinction, tightly buttoned up within the creaseless carapace of the modern eighteen-inch-waisted damsel? Have we never seen young girls vain, giggling, self-centred, jealous, idle, frivolous, or middle-aged elderly women thoughtful, devoted, patient, modest, cultured?

It is the fashion, in literature, to idealize youth and to photograph age, but it is unnecessary to turn the photograph into a caricature. Is there no such thing as the poet's

"Old age serene and bright,
And lovely as a Lapland night,"

left among us now? From our first-rate novels, indeed, this blemish is absent; it is the second-rate which are so faulty. In fact, our leading novelists *photograph* (even they do not *paint*, except George Eliot) age with faithful and sympathetic touch. We have all met with a Mrs. Pryor (C. Brontë),—

"Of matronly form, who, though she wore no cap and possessed hair of quite an undimmed auburn, shading small and naturally young looking features, had no youthful aspect, nor apparently the wish to assume it."

And with a Mrs. Bates (J. Austen),—

"A very old lady, almost past everything but tea and quadrille.

She lived with her single daughter in a very small way, and was considered with all the regard and respect which a harmless old lady under such untoward circumstances can excite."

And with a Mrs. Yeobright (T. Hardy),—

"A woman of middle age, with well-formed features of the type usually found where perspicacity is the prominent quality enthroned within."

With a Mrs. Costello (H. James, Junior),—

"A widow with a fortune; a person of much distinction, who frequently intimated that, if she were not so dreadfully liable to sick head-aches, she would probably have left a deeper impress on her time."

With a Lady Drum (William Black),—

"A tall elderly upright person, with a massive face, which was yet kindly in the severity of its features, and with a fine head of grey hair elaborately arranged."

These are faithful photographs; in fact, the portraits of Mrs. Yeobright and Mrs. Costello have an imaginative element which may almost rank with painting.

But, what shall we say of the following vulgar daubs which abound in second-class fiction, making one wish that it was unlawful to publish a novel before graduating at least in Lessing's "Laokoon," or Adam Smith's "Moral Sentiments," where the laws of the Seemly in Literature are laid down on a philosophical basis?

"Lady Gerard is lying in an arm chair. She is fat, to make you shudder; she has a short turn-up nose, short legs, a red skin, and next to no hair—all very good points in a pig, but hardly so good in a lady."—"Red as a Rose is She."

Again,—

"The new Mrs. Leader, terribly plain indeed, 'yellow as a eustard,' the parishioners said; a 'face that might be skillfully forded across,' the Doctor said, 'by means of stepping-stones in the shape of scattered warts.'"—"Two Fair Daughters."

Again,—

"Mrs. Noblespear, a short, stout woman, without any pretensions to dignity or grace, but possessing a pretty, good-natured face, with little expression in it, save one of uniform placidity, indicative of a spirit of universal adaptability. If she had ideas, they were all borrowed; if she expressed opinions, they were those of others."—"The Shadow of Erksdale."

Though the vials of wrath are kept for stout people, still the thin ones do not fare much better.

"Lady William Nettleship was a skinny dried-up looking old lady, whose features twitched incessantly with incipient paralysis."—"The Root of all Evil."

"Fifty at the youngest, stiff-backed, lean, bony, and inexpressibly sour-tempered, Rachel Carew was a living protest against every grace of womanhood and every suave delight of life."—"The Countess Mélusine."

One would think, if anything is to be predicated of a healthy young person, it is that he or she will have a good appetite, yet we read in "Comin' thro' the Rye,"—

"As yet, however, I am too young to love my dinner very heartily. As yet, I 'eat to live'; in the fulness of time, I may perhaps 'live to eat,' but not now, not yet."

In fact, everything vulgar, prosaic, silly, worldly, base, is on the side of age; and the lovely heroines, though brought up by these repulsive mothers, yet turn out of exquisite refinement, and full of tender and delicate sentiment. Now, the charms of youth are patent and undeniable; but there is also a charm of age, more subtle and enthralling, to those who are not too steeped in sensuousness to perceive it, than all the pellucid, limpid, goodly, heavily-fringed, agate, opal eyes, or pearl, ivory, apple-blossom, rose-leaf, silky, milk-white, peach skins, &c.

It is most unwholesome reading for our youth to be always portrayed as interesting and touching, but their parents and guardians, as torpid as gorged leeches, and quite unable to sympathize with the young people's ethereal feelings and highly-strung scruples.

"The soul's dark cottage, battered and decayed,
Lets in new light through chinks that time has made."

Surely we ought to forget the chinks, and fix our attention on the "new light."

Truly, those are to be pitied who cannot recall to their mind's eye more than one sweet faded face; and, as a beautiful ruin, covered with many-tinted lichens and mosses, is to a new red-brick villa, so are such purged and sanctified visages to the necessarily blank record of the shining, but not unfrequently hard, lineaments of youth.

Mr. Henry James has acutely remarked, that the complex passion of love, what he calls "the ardent forces of the heart," is very meagrely depicted in English fiction, and that even George Eliot is singularly "austere" in this matter. Truly, we get enough and to spare of a very material side in the Broughton-Lynn-Linton-Mather school. But I can only recall Charlotte Brontë's works as showing real vigour and style in this direction. Anyone, even slenderly acquainted with continental fiction, will admit its superiority to our own in ideality and manifoldness on a question of passion.

Let us not, like the one-eyed doe in the fable, always be on the look-out in this one direction, and not see where our real danger lies.

Yours obediently,

A. GRENFELL.

PUNISHMENTS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Will you allow me to offer one criticism on a letter on this subject contained in your last issue?

Your correspondent drew a sharp distinction between "lines" and other punishments. Should not the division mark be drawn elsewhere? There is no generic difference between copies and "lines." Copies have no more relation to the offence, and are quite as mechanical. Lines become copies if they are written properly, and copies become lines if there are enough of them.

The difference seems to me to lie, not in the nature of the punishment, but in the nature of the offence. If a boy, usually obedient, is guilty of one act of disobedience, set him a punishment sharply, shortly, and with some relation to his offence. If a boy, usually industrious, fails in one lesson, let him write it out. In these cases we want variety, elasticity, and resource, the Themistoclean power of extemporizing what is necessary. All such things as the discovery of the ingredients of ink, if he makes a mess with it, or the investigation of the laws of gravity, if he drops a book and makes a noise with it, a boy who is on the whole amenable, takes as they are set, and is amended. The master can afford a certain humour to temper the infliction.

But if the boy's temper is out of gear, if he is disobedient, not in isolated instances but frequently, if he is lazy, not in this or that lesson but constantly, and the will-struggle between him and the master is persistent; then it is not any particular offence which must be punished, but the state of mind of which the offence is the outcome. Some will say, the master must refer such a case to the higher power. But I hold there is an intermediate condition, for which a mechanical punishment is suitable. Each master should have a reserve official punishment in the use of which he is stern, consistent, and self-restrained; which he himself regards, and all his boys regard, as his last weapon, before sending the case to the imposition school or the head-master. Any variation in the nature of this, or any mitigation of its dulness, weakens the effect. I think myself that lines are not unsuited for it; we can have them written on double-ruled paper, we can insist that the writing fits the lines, and that the "m"s are round at the top, and "u"s at the bottom. With such restrictions, lines may be as useful as without them they are deleterious.

C. C. C.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

DEAR SIR,—The letter by "E. W. H.," in your issue of December 1, seems to me deserving of attention by both schoolmasters and parents. The way punishments are administered is most provoking. In nine out of ten cases, the system which obtains in our prisons is followed—that is, the criminal is set to do something which is absolutely useless,

and without a pretence of improvement to the boy. The punishment, moreover, is seldom if ever deterrent, and you will find that, while the well-behaved, studious boy never gets a single imposition, others get an indefinite number, to which they pay no sort of attention, and which in no way tend to make them wiser or better behaved. In one college I am familiar with, punishments are sown broadcast, and many thousands of lines must be written out at an absolute waste of time and patience. In some cases a sheet of paper is simply given to be filled up, and then the boy's ingenuity is taxed to spread out his writing as much as possible, and to make a fine show with the minimum of effort. Punishments, I think, might often be such as to teach a boy neglected back-lessons, or to practise him in arithmetic, or finally, and not least, to keep him up in drill. The fact is, masters often inflict punishment most capriciously, and most lazily, for they are unwilling to give themselves any trouble as to the nature of the punishment, or in seeing that it has been properly carried out. The lines set are never read or corrected, and so long as, even in the most superficial way, some sort of a task is shown up, they are satisfied.

A note should be made in a book, kept for the purpose, of every punishment inflicted, and the list shown monthly to the head-master or principal, who should, in the event of the number exceeding a defined standard, send for the boy, and inquire how they were deserved, and either the boy should himself be punished with such severity for his gross indifference as would make him wince again, or the master should be shown that he is pursuing a wrong course with the boy. In very many cases the master punishes hastily, and from lack of leisure or care to ascertain whether such punishment is deserved or not, and some such monthly examination as I suggest would bring prominently to the notice of the principal, of the master himself, and of the boy himself, that either punishment was being inflicted rather wildly, or that the boy was incorrigible, and required to be dealt with in a different way. At one school I was at, we used to have sums set of various kinds—practice, long division, squares, cubes, &c.; also extra drill was ordered, and boys had to attend the gymnasium for so many days, especially on half-holidays. Again, a few lines may be set to learn by rote from lessons already imperfectly done. Twenty lines of Ovid, or Cæsar, or Horace, learnt off by heart, at least practises the boy in Latin, and he cannot shirk doing the lesson pretty well. Similarly, to square eight figures, and take the square root of the result, is capital practice; or again, to cube seven or eight figures, and extract the cube root, is a very good form of restraint. At least an hour is necessary for an eight-figure cube, and the quickness taught is marvellous. Loss of "leave out" meets the case of a boy who is indifferent to punishment, or "half-hours," as they were called at Addiscombe, *i.e.*, the attendance at precisely every hour and half-hour at a given office to report his name, is a punishment boys dislike, and would often try to avoid deserving. I feel sure our present system is a vague one, and that "E. W. H." has started a most important point.

Masters have too little leisure to study boys' idiosyncrasies. The moment class is over, they are glad to be quit of the room and of the boys; and, if punishments are set, they are glad to set such as will tax their time and attention the least.

Masters, again, are, I think, narrow-minded, as "Olim Etonensis" said, and very unwilling to take a hint from an outsider; and I feel that, if they would only work out the problem of punishments more carefully, their number would be greatly reduced, while the gain to the boys would be immense.

I would add the following list of punishments to those noted by "E. W. H.":—

(1). The learning off by heart a few lines of English or Latin verse or prose; or the study of one or more problems in Euclid, &c.

(2). The squaring or cubing of, say, seven or eight figures, and giving the square root or cube root of the result. A good stiff Practice sum, or a simple or quadratic equation, according to the boy's power.

(3). Extra attendance under the drill-sergeant in gymnastic instruction.

(4). Attendance every half-hour on holidays.

(5). Monthly report to principal of punishments inflicted. (N.B.—Parents should be informed each term when their son's default list is beyond a certain standard.)

I have, so far, put my ideas down very crudely, but am confident you could work out the subject fully and profitably, for all that "E. W. H." says in the last paragraph of his letter is true.

Yours obediently,

R. E.

PARENTS AND TEACHERS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

DEAR SIR,—We parents are indebted to you for the "excel-

lent little homily" you have quoted for us in the *Journal* of this month, from the pages of the *Natural Religion*. As a rule, I fear, its censure is deserved, especially as regards the education of girls, in which parents are even more without ideal than in that of their boys. But I take exception to one remark quoted, as it embodies, I venture to think, an opinion very misleading in the education of the young. "Children," the author says, "are, as it were, fresh blocks of marble, in which, if we have any ideal, we have a new chance of realising it, after we have failed in ourselves." Now, this is only very partially true.

Admitting to the full the enormous power of training begun from the earliest weeks of infant life, and involving influences even before birth, we are soon brought to acknowledge that our children are not "blocks of marble" we can mould at will to any ideal. And, if they were, are we doing justice to the divine working of many laws in assuming that they can only carry out lines in which we have "failed"? They may be of far finer stuff than we are! At the best, we are but the servants of "nature." Our children come to us with organization and forces beyond our power of ultimate control. We, as parents, can only reverently study this organization and these powers, and take care that, in the atmosphere and influences we provide for their development, the best means of growth is afforded to the young life.

If such choice were allowed us, we should naturally desire that our children grew up with an ideal physical development; but, though we can take care that girls as well as boys shall have opportunities of the fullest muscular exercise, with no unnatural obstruction to growth, we cannot do more to command grace and beauty. And have we more power over the mental and moral than we have over the physical qualities of our children?

But, admitting that we can only watch and serve forces higher than ourselves, by all means let us shape the ideal towards which we can educate the future man and woman.

Fortunately for humanity, this ideal must vary considerably. To most of us, at this time, it will include highly-trained intellectual powers for both sexes; to fewer, perhaps, will it include the reverence which *should* guide the keenness of the intellectual force. To those who believe in the perennial beauty of human virtue will come ideals of Christ-like devotion to ideas, heroism in carrying these into action with "a veray perfight gentil" knightliness, a puritan avoidance of the lusts of the flesh, a sunny enjoyment of the best human joys provided by a loving Creator. With such visions as these, seen by glimpses, but never lost sight of, worked for moment by moment, silently, quietly, yet with a wholly self-forgetting patience, we have reason to believe that our children will realize something at least of that towards which we have worked. We know that a certain success follows such thought and labour, and we also know that the best proof of even a partial success lies in the acknowledgment that, when the education of the school-boy or girl is done, and that of life begins, a still more important phase of conscious and unconscious training is only begun.

To parents who have formed any ideal of their children's development, it is shocking to be asked, as they frequently are by public school masters, "What do you intend your son to be?" Such questioners seem only half answered by the reply,—"Educated"; when his education ends with his university career, it will be time enough to see by what employment he can earn his bread: we have to train a *man*, not an industrial labourer!

With a grateful sense of the educational services of your journal, I am, yours sincerely,
E. M.

"A PRINTER ON TECHNICAL EDUCATION."

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—The letter signed "A Typographic Printer," which appears in your current issue, illustrates, in a very remarkable manner, that condition of things which the existing schemes of Technical Education are intended either to remove or to ameliorate.

The tendency of productive arts and manufactures, when carried

out on a large scale, is to become subdivided into a very considerable number of small and distinct branches; the full advantages of extreme division of labour being thus realised. This condition of things has been constantly found to still further contract the limits of minds already narrow, so that the practitioner of a fractional division of a considerable branch of industry often so far broods over his special branch of work, as to regard it the head and corner-stone of a great and important industrial system. He then neglects to study his trade as a whole.

An intelligently organised system of technical education is rather intended to bring into prominence the leading principles on which each industry is founded; and to expand the mind of him whose daily work becomes more and more circumscribed by the exigencies of economical production.

Those who, like your correspondent, would desire to so far extend the area of technical education as to organise three separate examinations to cover the ground of Typographic Printing alone, would defeat the main object; as the aim and end of the present scheme is to enable each workman to appreciate the full scope of his craft, and to understand the chemical and physical principles on which it rests.

One reason why printing, as a branch of Technology, is so little studied in this country, is the absence of the State printing offices, which are so usual on the Continent; as these State printing offices partake largely of the nature of advanced Technical Schools. Many a time, when I have wished for information on some point, have I visited the National Printing Office in Paris, where it is easy to gain admission to any department, and to converse with the workmen while they are engaged in their duties. As a rule, the French workman contrasts strikingly with his English brother; and it would be indeed difficult to find many Parisian printers displaying such lamentable ignorance regarding the art of Printing in general, as is displayed by your correspondent "Typographer"; still, in Paris, a mere Typographer does not rank as a Printer, this latter term being far more comprehensive.

Yours very truly,
THE EXAMINER IN PRINTING.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—I thank you for allowing me to see in proof the Examiner's reply to my letter. It seems that he has not thought fit to apply himself to the specific objections and arguments brought forward by me, but has contented himself with a general statement of the principle upon which he says the City Guilds' scheme proceeds.

His contention appears to be that pre-eminence in a certain trade is best promoted by enlarging generally the minds of the journeymen employed therein, by inducing them to study the processes of other trades connected with their own. My contention, on the contrary, is, that the pre-eminence in question is due, not to the man of many trades, but to the specialist,—that the principle itself is not sound; and that, even if it were, he has carried it out badly by making the circle of allied trades too large, and by giving undue prominence to those which are of minor importance.

To descend to particulars. In my letter, I expressed my surprise that, though nine-tenths of all the men employed in the trade examined in his papers were Typographic Printers—in his "Honours" paper, there was not one single question on Typographic Printing. Again,—assuming that the Technological Examinations are intended, not for the master printer, but for the journeyman—I stated that it seemed to me absurd to examine a journeyman in the processes of a trade which he would never by any chance be called upon to practise, and the knowledge of which could not benefit him one whit in that to which he had devoted himself. And, finally, I put forward the suggestion that separate Examination Papers should be set for each trade, or branch of trade, for which *separate apprenticeships existed*.

To touch upon a small matter, which occupies a prominent position in his letter—the alleged intellectual superiority of the French printer to his English confrère. It is possible that it may be so; it is possible, too, that the superiority may be more apparent than real—and, probably, most apparent of all, to the gentleman amateur, with only an amateur's knowledge of the work the man is engaged upon. But this I will affirm, that, if the French Printer may be judged by the average of the French work that comes to this country, he is much inferior in *skill* to his English brother. For, if we take the average French newspaper, French journal, French school book, or French novel,—and these classes of work will embrace a considerable proportion of the whole printing of the country,—they are markedly inferior (judged by every criterion of good printing, viz., out of type, style of composition, paper, and impression) to the average of the same class of work produced in this country.

With regard to his remark respecting the extended meaning which the word "Imprimeur" enjoys in France, an examination of Littré does not seem to bear him out. According to that authority, it includes, just as in this country, the Typographic, the Copperplate, and the Lithographic Printer; but I fail to find there any mention of the Ink-maker, the Type-founder, the Etcher, the India-rubber Stamp-maker, &c., &c., whom he would imply it does include in French, and should include in English.

In conclusion, may I be permitted to express my admiration of the courage of an "Examiner in Printing," who can complain of a Printer's "lamentable ignorance of his art," and who yet, both in his letter and in his papers, cannot help betraying the fact that he is not, and never has been, himself a Practical Printer.

I am, Yours faithfully,

A TYPOGRAPHIC PRINTER.

JOTTINGS.

No University or other body has as yet established a permanent Chair for a Professor of Education in England, though there is an increasing demand for lecturers. The two Chairs in Scotland are, we hear, too poorly endowed to make their permanency certain. But, from statistics now two years old, we see that in 1880 there were no less than thirty Chairs for the Science of Education in Germany, besides eight in Austro-Hungary, and eight in Switzerland. In the United States, too, Chairs of Education have been established in Missouri, Iowa, and Michigan, and at Harvard. We never take the lead in such matters, but, give us time, and we follow. It is true we have one invention entirely our own, and we seem likely to remain in exclusive enjoyment of it. An Italian once declared he could find no ripe fruit in England but *baked apples*. Our one educational device is connected with anything rather than ripeness—the pupil-teacher system. And, slow as we are in borrowing the educational plans of our neighbours, they are in no greater hurry to take advantage of ours.

ONE benefit we are already gaining from the appointment of English-speaking professors of education, viz., some much needed additions to our literature. With the important exception of Mr. Thring, our Head-masters (no doubt from want of time) have done little, and seem likely to do little for us in this department; but contributions from the professors are coming in fast. We have quite lately received Prof. Laurie's volume of collected papers on the "Training of Teachers," &c., and, from America, Prof. W. H. Payne's "Outlines of Educational Doctrines." It is very satisfactory to find such men addressing themselves to what Prof. Payne calls "the work of the hour; collating and co-ordinating truths that already exist . . . and taking a careful inventory of what we now have, before we address ourselves to the work of discovery."

"A COLLEGE which is in its essence denominational must be in danger of sacrificing something of its efficiency as a place of thorough training for teachers." So says the *Times* of to-day in a leader. So we have said all along.

THE authorship of "Vice Versa" has long been an open secret, and, as Mr. Guthrie was named on prize day at King's College, London, as a distinguished pupil of the College, there is no harm in giving the origin of his *nom de plume*. In his first contribution to the *Cambridge Review*, he signed his name in full, T. Anstie Guthrie, but, by a freak of the printer, the T. was changed to F., and the surname omitted. Hence arose F. Anstie.

THE retirement of Mr. John Morley from the editorship of the *Fortnightly* was a serious loss to periodical literature. Hardly less serious is the retirement of Mr. Leslie Stephen from the *Cornhill*. The new editor, Mr. James Payn, can furnish to order any number of stories and sketches with dash and frolic, and a spice of real humour; but we shall miss those charming hours in a library, those graver essays on manners and morals, and, above all, that literary polish and distinction, without which no article, however exalted or notorious the writer, was admitted to the *Cornhill*.

MR. JOSEPH HUGHES announces that the *Governess* will henceforward appear as a penny weekly,

THE Government is contemplating extensive changes in the Educational Department at South Kensington, with a view to popularising and utilising to a greater extent the library and educational apparatus.

A FACETIOUS competitor asks whether the Prize Editor is a foreigner or Mr. Frost, in that he always spells rhyme *rime*. Prof. Skeat, in his admirable edition of Guest's *History of English Rhythms*, writes:—"As Dr. Guest rightly rejected the spelling *rhyme*, for which he substituted *rime*, it became necessary to go a step further, by employing the correct spelling *rime*."

MR. FREEMAN looks leniently on the innovations of American spelling. He can stand *honor, labor, &c.*, but he draws the line at *neighbour*. The old English *neah-gebir, neah-bir*, must by universal analogy become *neighbour*, and nothing else. On the other hand, Max Müller picks out *neighbour* as one of the senseless vagaries of English spelling. Spencer wrote *neibor*, why should not we?

THE Local Examinations and Lecturers Syndicate recommend, in their Report, that they should be authorised to entertain applications for the appointment of persons to *inspect* schools or parts of schools. This is a move in the right direction.

THEY also recommend that students under seventeen, on December 15th, be admitted to the Junior Examinations, but classed separately, and excluded from the Honour list.

WE note an important change in the subjects of Junior Examinations. Two subjects instead of one are now required to pass in Section 8 (Natural Philosophy).

THE swarm of children's books which the present season demands and supplies, would naturally direct our attention to the subject—at all times an important one for the educationist—of juvenile literature. And here it strikes us, *inter alia*, that while its present state leaves much to be desired,—old offences, such as twaddle, priggishness, and sentimentality, still continuing more or less to flourish, and some new ones having sprung up, in the shape, for example, of American phraseology and sensationalism,—a decided improvement has, nevertheless, taken place upon a point which used to form rather a prominent feature in the stories told to the youth of older generations. This was the ruthless attitude assumed in them towards the dire catastrophes and disasters which they so frequently related as the sequel to childish faults and follies, their stern insistence upon the moral, "serve them right," in the cases of small children who had been burned to death

"All because they went and did

The things their mothers had forbid."

or had otherwise forfeited life or limb to their imprudent or undutiful behaviour. More modern stories, on the contrary, even when they do treat of such tragical consequences, usually represent them as melancholy and pitiable events, not as purely satisfactory and encouraging instances of poetical justice; so that it would, we imagine, be difficult to find among the publications of the last twenty years a parallel to the complacent cruelty of the following stanza, which concludes the metrical history of a wretched little boy, whom some foolhardy escapade has visited with the loss of a leg:

"And now Harry walks with a crutch,
Since that is his only expedient,
But nobody pities him much,
Because he was so disobedient."

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OCCASIONAL NOTES.

It is triumph for Rugby, and a mild source of satisfaction to the humblest dominie, that two successive Archbishops of Canterbury have served their apprenticeship as Schoolmasters; and it was no idle boast of Dr. Jex Blake, that if administrators are wanted they may always be found in the ranks of the Conference. Dr. Benson is a man of whom any profession might be proud; his fitness for the primacy none will dispute: but, for this very reason, we are all the more impelled, like the slave behind the Roman victor, to whisper in the ear that this is no just triumph for the profession—proves rather that we are not yet a profession. Perhaps the ablest Archbishop that could have been chosen would have been Mr. Gladstone himself, and next to him Lord Selborne; and Mr. Freeman has quoted precedents. But the time will surely come when it will seem as absurd to bestow the Primacy on a successful schoolmaster as on a successful statesman or lawyer.

THE London Conference of Head-masters will leave pleasant memories of geniality, goodwill, and (if Mr. Freeman will allow us the word) of cosmopolitanism. No burning questions were discussed, and even the Training of Teachers, thanks to Mr. Bell's *cirenicon*, caused no angry ripple. By Mr. Eve's tact and forethought, each of the two hundred guests who dined in the beautiful College Library found at least one congenial neighbour, and at the crowded *Conversazione* no one was solitary in the crowd. At the Conference proper, though Dr. Weymouth might still find it difficult to answer the pertinent query, what the Head-masters had *done*, yet at least three serious questions were raised, debated, and advanced a stage; while on the important national movement of Local Scholarships, the Conference were able to enter in part on the fruits of past labours.

THE debates were well sustained and marked by common sense, though, with two exceptions, there was nothing that deserved the name of eloquence. Dr. Butler can touch nothing that he does not adorn. In congratulating Dr. Benson he found a congenial theme, and spoke from fulness of knowledge; but his speeches on the question of "unseens," and proposing the vote of thanks to Mr. Eve, were triumphs of oratory. "We have not sufficient facts to go upon," and "The chief object of the Conference is private intercourse,"—this was the gist of the two speeches; but what variations of these two simple *motives*, what discords prelude harmony, like a fugue of Bach or a sonata of Beethoven! But the speech that affected us most was that of Dr. Scott. The suppressed emotion, the genuine pathos, the simple nervous English, that characterized his tribute to the late Archbishop, were not unworthy of John Bright or John Henry Newman.

THE debate on "unseens" was the most characteristic and the least satisfactory. First comes the ardent reformer who denounces existing abuses, then a chorus of sympathisers, who have each their special grievance, then a whiff of opposition which swells into a breeze, and lastly the judicious bystander, who professes to know nothing himself, wishes for further information and suggests a Committee. So the matter is shelved, and the wretched middle-class school boy will continue to get by rote a translation of Virgil and Cæsar, and think he is learning the Latin language.

MR. PHILLPOTTS' essay on Geography teaching was very clever and full of points, but his model lesson on Ireland smacked of the crammer, and it was fortunate for the harmony of the meeting that Dr. Hornby was not present. The political geography of Ireland is a sore subject.

MR. JOYNES has announced, in a not very dignified letter to the *Daily News*, the resignation of his Mastership at Eton. The principle at stake is so important that we cannot but regret that it should have found such a weak and vacillating exponent. Nothing, however, that Mr. Joynes has done can justify, or even excuse, Dr. Hornby's action. Mr. Joynes may be an inefficient master whom it was desirable to get rid of (on this point we know absolutely nothing), but, granting the supposition, it does not improve the case for Dr. Hornby, who has then dismissed a bad master on a false pretext, for publishing a book which Dr. Hornby has not read. We believe and hope that Dr. Hornby stands alone, and that no single member of the Conference would support his action. If the precedent he has set were generally followed, none but time-servers and toadies could remain in the profession.

OUR old friend, "An Examiner," sends us what he calls an aftermath of errors:—"I set for an unseen the familiar *Meunier de Sans Souçi*. The first two lines were rendered, 'On a smiling coast, chosen by the king, lived de Sans-souçi, the chocolate-maker.' I had put at the side my private mark signifying idiocy, when the connection of *chocolat Menier* flashed upon me. In the *Roi des Montagnes*, I asked for an explanation of 'Il a épousé la veuve du doge de Venise' (John Harris is wedded to a sea life), I got,—'He has married the widow of an Italian greyhound, i.e., a rakish Italian nobleman.' Again, in Aristotle's Poetics, 'Ἡ ποιητικὴ εὐφροδὸς ἐστὶν ἢ μανικοῦ,' was rendered, 'The poet had better be a man of easy pleasantry than a madman.' As both these were cases of prepared books, I had no hesitation in awarding minus marks. For a low form in English Composition, I gave three proverbs to be explained, one of which was, 'The devil is not so black as he is painted.' A typical essay began, 'We know so little of the powers of darkness that the attempt to fix the exact shade of his Satanic majesty is presumptuous, if not profane; but we have the authority of Scripture for stating

that the devil occasionally presents himself as an angel of light.' My last error is not humorous, but instructive. Of a Sixth Form whom I examined on the reign of George III., one-half stated, either that George III. was a strong Whig, or that he took no part in politics. From this and other indications, it was clear to me that the master did not hold with Professor Secley, that politics is a branch of history, and had rigidly excluded all reference to present parties and statesmen. Hence his pupils regarded Pitt and Fox as shadowy phantoms with whom they were no more concerned than with Psammis and Pharaoh Necho. To prevent a false inference, I may state that this did not happen at Eton."

A SUPPLEMENTAL *vivâ voce* examination for the Oxford and Cambridge Locals, such as was advocated in a paper read before the Education Society, is doubtless a counsel of perfection, but one step in this direction seems to us both advisable and practicable. Why should not a piece of dictation be given to candidates in French and German? There is no more satisfactory test of a pupil's command of a living language, his intelligence, his power of audition, his practical knowledge of grammar,—and dictation is a thing that cannot be crammed. This suggestion has, we believe, been made more than once to the Universities, but the Syndicates have replied by a *Non possumus*, on the ground of expense. Seeing that the College of Preceptors conduct a similar examination for half the fees charged by the Universities, we cannot consider this excuse a valid one; but, even allowing it, we hold that it is better to raise the fee than to scamp the examination.

FROM the first Government grant of £1,500 for Art training, made by the Board of Trade in 1836, to the last year's grant of £70,000 made by the Science and Art Department, is a great stride. Still more encouraging is the fact that not far short of a million Art students had in the same year received instruction in institutions aided by the State. But, though Mr. Mundella is justly proud of what has been done, he is fully aware that far more remains to be done if England is to hold its own against foreign competition in Art industries and manufactures. Speaking at the West London School of Art, he said, that a recent visit to Paris had shown him how far we were behind France in providing Art education. All the artisans of Paris, and a large number of those in the country, are receiving gratuitous Art instruction. The municipality of Paris expended £32,000 in this way last year, and that sum will be largely extended during the present year. Paris, with half the population of London, spends more than double the amount on education generally. And yet Mr. M. Arnold tells us that, unless we practise economy, a reaction among the ratepayers will set in, and a Board be elected that will starve and stint our present system, and stop all future progress.

A CORRESPONDENT of the *Times* furnishes some extra-

ordinary statistics concerning Competition Wallahs. In the Bombay Presidency, we are told, out of the hundred and odd civilians appointed under the present system, 9 have died, 2 have retired from physical debility, 10 have been pronounced unfit for work on account of bodily weakness, 2 have been dismissed for inability to ride, and *eight have gone mad*. Such an indictment would indeed give us pause, if, like the *Times*, we credited the statement. But, as the anonymous correspondent proceeds to quote "cases of aggravated eccentricity, intolerable manners, unmanliness, and a sort of half-and-half imbecility, all to be traced to this mad fad of cramming," his animus is so obvious that we simply decline to believe him. We love the crammers as little as he, but no one who really knows India will say that the Civil Service has degenerated since the old Haileybury days. Compare William Arnold's *Oakfield* and Mr. Trevelyan's *Competition Wallah*.

THE strictures passed in our November number upon the alien purposes which the Universities' Examination Board Reports are occasionally made to serve, suggest another objectionable feature, which is, we think, gradually becoming more prominent in a certain class of scholastic advertisements. It is natural, and perhaps not undesirable, that schools should adopt the expedient of advertising their pupils' successes in the matter of Certificates, Exhibitions, Scholarships, University distinctions, and so forth,—objects from the attainment of which there results a certain amount of *κῶδος*, that may be supposed to give them a value irrespective of merely pecuniary considerations. But, in such announcements as—"The total amount of *money gained* was £306," "The prizes gained amounted in *money value* to £325," "The *money thus secured to the pupils or their parents* amounted to Thirteen hundred and thirteen pounds sterling,"—we have cynically direct appeals to that sordid spirit of greed, superinducing upon the part of the parents a desire to draw pecuniary profit from the education of their children, which is probably an inevitable, and certainly an uncommendable, accompaniment to the still increasing opportunities for its gratification.

WE are very glad to learn on good authority that Mr. Thring is engaged on a new work on Teaching. We could hardly wish a more valuable contribution to the literature of Didactics, than a book giving us the mature experience of the author of "Education and School."

"That deadliest of all foes to the English tongue and to every other tongue, the Schoolmaster." So writes Mr. E. A. Freeman in the first number of *Longman's Magazine*. We have indeed heard of one deadly foe to the English tongue, but this was not a schoolmaster but a schoolmistress. This refined but not philological lady would not allow her pupils to speak of "a great deal" of anything. "My dear," she used to say, "you mean a great quantity."

You cannot mean a great *deal*. Deal is a piece of wood." But neither schoolmasters nor schoolmistresses of the present day, as far as we are aware, wage war in this fashion against the mother tongue. They do perhaps give epitomes of grammar to pupils who are too young to benefit by them, but this instruction sinks in about as much as water poured on a duck's back, so the language used by their pupils is entirely unaffected by it. It is surely rather hard to describe schoolmasters (poor simple folk who believe all that the grammarians tell them) as the deadliest foes to language. They no more invent the new expressions which displease Mr. Freeman than they invented the title of the "Emperor of Austria." As to their cramming boys with grammar in a condensed and therefore unintelligible form, Mr. Freeman should be the last to complain of this. Has he not used his well-earned reputation in history to introduce into the schoolroom historical epitomes as unsuited to the young as the most crabbed grammars they are ever tormented with?

THE letter from "an Assistant Mistress," which appeared in our *Midmonthly Supplement*, raises some serious objections to Miss Beale's provident scheme, but it does not suggest a more excellent way. We share our correspondent's dislike to thrift upon compulsion, but we agree with Miss Beale that some scheme is urgently needed, which shall enable (not compel) Mistresses, and Masters as well, to make adequate provision for old age. A scheme has been at work in one of our Public Schools for some eight years, which seems to us to offer a better model than Miss Beale's. Each Master is allowed to contribute yearly to a saving fund a sum not exceeding £100. The Council, for every £100 contributed, add a bonus of £25, and proportionately with lesser sums, and offer further 5 per cent. compound interest on the accumulation. If, however, the Master leaves before he has served 7 years, he only receives back his own contribution with interest. Such a premium for thrift has naturally induced every Master to contribute, and the only objection to which the scheme is open is, that it comes to much the same thing as compulsion. What the Council add in premiums, it will be argued, they must subtract from salaries. As a matter of fact, it has not been so in this particular case, but, even if it were, we fail to see the hardship. The Governing Body says,—“No one in our employ shall starve in his old age, or, if he does, the fault shall be at his own door.” The practical effect of such a plan, if it were generally adopted, would be in many cases to raise salaries which are now at starvation point.

THE *British Quarterly* has a genial sketch of the life of Friedrich Ritschl. What will strike the Philistine reader most is the miserable wages that the most learned and most popular professor in Germany may receive. At Halle he starts with a class of nearly two hundred for his course on Horace, yet the modest fees derived from his lectures barely suffice, even with occasional help from

home, to meet the cost of simple existence, and a Professorship at Breslau with a fixed income of £75 is looked upon as a God-send. When the Prussian Government send him to Italy to examine Plato's MSS., he is allowed £37. 10s. for the expenses of his journey. His wages for ninety-four semesters of incessant and not wholly fruitless activity, can have barely exceeded a year's salary of the Head-masters of Eton and Harrow.

THE following epigram by the late James Spedding is new to us:—

“When I was a freshman, old age did appear
A reverend and beautiful thing,
For knowledge must gather as year follows year,
And wisdom from knowledge must spring;
But I found that the years that had brought me my knowledge
Took the power to digest it away,
And let out all the store I had gathered at college
Through leaks that increased every day.
So I said it—and think not I said it in jest,
You will find it is true to the letter—
The only thing old people ought to know best
Is, that young people ought to know better.”

An apt counterblast to the Master of Trinity's *mot*, “We are none of us infallible, Mr. S., not even the youngest.”

FLORIMEL: A FRAGMENT.

Seeking for daintiness, we ruffle dainty flowers,
Children of garden art and tropic heat:
Then, sick of daintiness, we fly from sheltered bowers,
And, to the moorlands turning tired feet,
Learn, 'neath the open sky and unaverted showers,
That still the heather honey is most sweet.

IN presenting these letters of my friend X— to the public, I feel it my duty to explain that the lady so frequently and bitterly referred to under the name of “the false Florimel,” is not, in my opinion, quite so condemnable as his reiterated blame would make her appear. The story of his relations with her is simply this.

Ten years ago, when X— first came to London, he was introduced to her and her husband, who were then living in a retired part of the town, and making friends among the rising literary generation. Their means were modest, and the husband of the “false Florimel” had not as yet made his mark. She herself had no particular pretensions in the way of birth, and no intellectual distinction. Neither was she beautiful. She had, however, a large measure of worldly wisdom, great tact, and a certain gracious *bonhomie*, which made her extremely pleasant in society. X—, who was young and enthusiastic, magnified these gifts, and formed an ideal of the lady which it was not in the scope of her character to realise. He was the most constant guest at her weekly receptions; and, being a variously accomplished man, with a touch of genius about him, was always welcome. He was unquestionably the most brilliant figure in her circle. But this was ten years ago. Since then, Florimel's husband has distinguished himself, and the pair have advanced in worldly fortune. For one friend they possessed in their early married days, they number now a hundred acquaintances. Their simple hospitality of old times has given place to the conventional dinner-giving and receiving of the wealthy world. And the result is, that their friends see them less, and know them less, than they did. During the same period, the fortunes of poor X— have clouded over. First, family troubles involved him in pecuniary losses; then, family losses left him alone in the world. He needs sympathy more than ever. He is too poor to marry; and he is obliged to look to friendship for the consolations of life. It is, therefore, not unnatural that he

should suffer keenly under the discovery that "Florimel" is, in plain English, tired of him. She knows, now, all the distinguished people in London, and all the fashionable people into the bargain. She has little time, and no occasion, for heart-hunger; and, being a woman of lukewarm affections and poor imagination, she fails to realise the other side of the position; it does not occur to her that the contemplation of prosperity may be less satisfying than the enjoyment of it. I make all possible excuses for her to X—; but nothing that I can say succeeds in taking the sting out of his mortification—not even the suggestion, with which I ply him periodically, that he ought to consider himself not less, but more, happy than others, in that he knew her in the old days, when the Juggernaut car of worldly fortune had not passed over her life, and crushed the human impulse out of her. He knew her when she was worth knowing, I remind him often, whereas her present world knows her only as a woman of cold heart and cheap smiles. But I have said enough. His letters shall now speak for themselves.

"Hey Moor,

"Yorkshire, October —, 1882.

"Dear B—,

"I keep my promise at last, and make an effort to write to you. Forgive me if I say that it is an effort that goes much against the grain. During the fortnight that I have been here, I have lost all appetite for intercourse with civilised people, and the act of putting myself once more *en rapport* with them affects me unwholesomely. It makes me savage to think of you mock-ruralising in your toy cottage, amongst hills once lovely in the silence and retirement of inviolate nature, now vulgarized by a hideous eruption of red-brick villas, tortinred and defiled by the outrageous meddling of a crew of Philistines and Florimels. The consciousness that thoughts begotten of solitude, and nursed at the bosom of Nature herself, will reach you in the midst of the *schwärmerei* of affectations and conceits over which the false fair one presides, checks the impulse of expansion, and turns the flow of my confidence back upon myself. I simply cannot write to you, my dear B—, while you dwell in the same county with Florimel. I would rather not think of you so long as you consent to pitch your holiday tent in view of her windows. Or, if I must write for honour's sake and courtesy, I will tell you facts, and nothing more. You shall know (you may tell Florimel, if you will) that I am lodging at a farm-house in the middle of the moors. If I look out from my sleeping-room at the back, I see first a reach of scrubby common, waddled over by a few geese, and flecked with patches of gorse; then a stretch of boggy ground; then a slowly rising fell, on which the heather is turning purple; and, beyond the fell, six several lines of far moorland, each dyed a deeper indigo than the last, and all wooing me to roam a little further, and vanish on the line of the horizon. If I look out from my sitting-room in front, I see nothing but a steep bank, covered with fern that is just beginning to bronze. If I go out and climb the bank, I look down into a basin with a bottom of parched bent, or up and away over a vast panorama of lowly curving hill and dale.

"Further, you may know (and you may tell false Florimel) that my farm-house is a real farm-house; that my sitting-room is a spacious kitchen with a stone floor; my fire-place an open hearth, in which I burn sods of turf and heath; that my writing-table is a very solid and inconvenient oak chest, in which I believe the clothes of three generations to be stowed away; and that the two dips, by the rather smoky light of which I am writing, are set in brass candlesticks, the sight of which would make Florimel's mouth water. Tell her this, by all means; and when she says (as I hear her saying), 'Oh, do ask him to buy them for me,' tell her further that I have just made my venerable landlady sign a document binding her, in the name of all sacred things and persons, never to sell stick or crock of oak, brass, or delf to certain friends of yours and mine who shall be nameless here, though their names are written plainly enough on the bit of greasy paper to which the good woman has just put her shaky signature. But what a fool I am! You will never tell her anything so — well, so brutal.

You are flattering her, as usual, to the top of her bent, and talking contemptuously of that wretched cynic X—, who is not a bad fellow at heart, though too crotchety and thin-skinned to get on in society. And I daresay you are right. I certainly am too something or other to get on in society, as Florimel and her crew arrango it. Bric-à-brac has too many angles for my susceptibilities to knock against. Polite conversation is too ingenious—no, *subtle* is the word of the day—too subtle for my homely wits. I do better here, where there are no angles, but only sweeping lines, and monotonously gentle curves; and no conversation, as the art is understood in town. The people here never converse. They only speak. They give greeting, and ask the time of day; or, sometimes a shepherd whom I make friends with, when a sudden storm drives me to take shelter under the lee-side of a hill, disbursts a few facts from his memory: tells me, perhaps, how many sheep he lost in a spring-time of bad fame; points out the track upon which a comrade once started on a tramp through snow that closed over him fatally; or, in more domestic vein, chronicles the births and the burials of his children. But, whether the theme be meteorological, agricultural, or of the household, the matter is always of fact, and the manner, plain statement without comment. Nobody makes remarks up here. Nobody criticises, analyses, moralises. And the happy consequence is, that nobody is bored. Just realise, if you can, what that means in my case. I have spent a fortnight without opening a book, and without exchanging a word with a cultivated person, and I have not been bored. I have had no arguments. I have given no offence; I have taken none. I have read the newspapers, and have observed, as I have often done before, that the current of public life has neither changed its direction, nor lost its impetuosity, because I have ceased for a while to discuss its progress. I have realised that the world can do without me every bit as well as I can do without it; and even this has not disturbed my temper.

"But what do I do, you ask,—I walk. I walk till I am hungry, and then turn into the nearest inn, cottage, or farmhouse, and make a meal of whatever is forthcoming; when I am in luck, I get a dinner of ham and eggs, and see it broiled under my eyes in a frying-pan, as large as a tea-tray, that hangs by an iron chain over a peat-fire, round which my friends the shepherds sit and cogitate. When I am out of luck, I put up with dry bread and a drink of milk or water.

"Or I walk till I am tired, and then lie down in the heather, and look up at the sky, which seems very near to the earth here, where there are neither trees, nor steeples, nor telegraph posts to educate the eye in the art of mensuration. I lie in the heather and feel the sky close above my head, and let my eye follow the white tracks of the paths, and fancy, like a child, that when they stop short at the horizon and against the background of a loftier upland, they have reached the heaven itself. I believe the scientific people can exactly measure the forces that have heaved the soil into the ups and downs that are so pleasant to my senses, and perhaps at another time I might care to follow their calculations. To-day, it contents me to know that the fulness of those round bosoms of our mother earth is equal to the hunger of her prodigal sons when they turn at last from the starvation diet of a hollow society, to cast themselves into the lap that bore the burden of their earliest existence.

"Don't write to me, and above all, don't expect to hear from me again.

"Yours always,
"X."

I did *not* write to him, but I *did* expect to hear from him again; and my expectation was justified. A second letter came within the week.

"Dear B—,

"I have met a woman—a real woman at last; and I must tell you about her forthwith, and you must tell Florimel—the false Florimel, I should say, *must* say henceforth scrupulously, whenever I speak of my old friend (or enemy)—for I have found the true Florimel now, and am ashamed to think that I have slipped into the habit of calling

the false one by her name, without the distinguishing adjective. But, after all, the blame is hers, not mine. The plausible sham abused my senses, and made me quarrel with the reality it counterfeited. You must work out the parable for yourself at your leisure. I am in a hurry to tell you about my discovery. I have found a woman who realises my conception of what a woman should be—a natural daughter of earth and heaven. It is hardly five hours since I first saw her, but in that time I have tasted life after a new fashion. Since I came here, I have been always serene, and serenity was so great a gain after the strain and torture of spirit I had lately suffered that I thought it was enough. But now I have found a deeper content in communion with a being whose every word and look is spontaneously, harmoniously perfect. You will say that I am in love. And I shall answer that it is not so. There is something in the presence of this woman that forbids the idea of love, in the sense in which you would impute it to me. But it is not coldness: rather, I should say, a certain largeness of nature which overpowers consciousness of personal relations and rebukes the presumption of passion. I feel, while with her, as I have felt sometimes on finding myself face to face with a formidable peak, after climbing a succession of minor elevations. The small hill stimulates us to make it ours by exploration: the mightier mass, by convincing us at a glance that it is unscalable, reduces us to the alternative of crouching at its base, or rising in spirit to a mood proportionate to its magnitude. I am not in love with her, but through her, I am, what I little thought ever to be again, in love with the universe. She has cast out my demon, and effectually reconciled me to life. I must tell you about her in detail.

"I met her last evening, as I was returning from one of my rambles. When about three miles from home, I felt tired and thought I would rest. A little way off my direct route was a narrow valley, to which I have particularly attached myself. It runs from east to west, opening at one end towards the setting sun; at the other, letting in the first rays of the rising moon. It is a favourite haunt of mine, towards evening, when the contrasts between the grey twilight of the glen itself, and the splendid colours of the sunset on the one hand, and the cold clearness of the moon's light and outline on the other, are very impressive. I thought it would be worth while to go a quarter of a mile out of my way in order to rest in this scene, before finishing my walk. But, as I entered my valley, I saw with surprise and annoyance, that the spot in which I usually sit, was already occupied. My first impulse was to withdraw; my second, to go on, and let the intruder know that I thought myself ill-used. A few more steps, and I knew that the object of my indignation was a woman. Once more I thought of retreating, but it was now too late. The enemy had seen me, and taken the position into her own hands. She rose with dignity and self-possession; and, without exactly advancing towards me or directly greeting me, she contrived to make me understand that she expected greeting from me. I raised my hat and wished her good evening. She smiled gravely and said—'It is indeed a very good evening.' Her tone was perfectly simple, but there was a quiet enthusiasm in it which, together with a refined and cultivated articulation, convinced me at once that I was in the presence of no ordinary woman. Her eyes had met mine on the moment of greeting; but, as they had almost immediately carried their glance beyond me to the horizon, I was able for an instant to observe her unobserved. She was rather tall, and the great plainness of her dress made her appear a little taller than she actually was. A long skirt made of dark blue serge, and innocent of flounce or furbelow, hung straight from her waist to her feet. Her shoulders were wrapped in a shawl of the same colour; and a large felt hat, of a darker shade, covered her head. But the low sun lighted her face, and showed plainly a pure oval outline, lips at once firm and full, a nose almost straight enough to be Grecian, and dark grey eyes shaded by long lashes and rather prominent brows. Her temples were lost in the curves of her hat, but the width at the top of her covered head gave assurance that they were finely developed. Her complexion was warmly fair; her hair brown in the shade, and golden where the light touched

it: her countenance grave, without being melancholy. It took me a very few seconds to possess myself of the portrait I have thus slowly reproduced for your benefit, and my satisfied glance quickly followed the direction of hers. We watched the sun sink in silence.

"It had been a day of showers, and the horizon was heaped with clouds. The sky was streaked with that metallic green that comes before and after storms; but the prevailing colour was a dull gold, of which the reflection, cast strongly down by the masses of dark cloud, lighted the valley vividly, and gave to the moment a look at once serene and triumphant. The feeling of the atmosphere was in keeping with this appearance. The air was fresh, and we breathed it with a sense of gathering strength. As she had said, the evening was indeed very good. But the best was yet to come. As the last spot of the orange sun passed below the horizon, the entire scene changed. Suddenly, as with a strong throb of some universal artery, a flood of crimson colour rushed through the sky, and the whole expanse of tawny moorland blushed. It was as if the heart of the day had burst in its farewell beat, and dyed the world with its life-blood. Involuntarily, we both uttered a cry; and, before the sound of it had died away, the splendour was gone, and the landscape had subsided into quiet dun and grey, that deepened into black in the hollows of the hills.

"I have only seen a sunset like that once before,' said my companion.

"I do not remember ever seeing one so rapid in its transitions,' was my reply. 'It has been truly glorious—like a sublime drama of the parting of the earth with her lover.'

"She smiled: 'It is a glorious spectacle, even at its simplest.'

"And yet,' I said, 'how often we allow it to pass unobserved! Certainly, during the three weeks I have staid in this place, I have not missed it once; but, in London, week after week goes by without my looking at a sunset.'

"She smiled again: 'People have often more important things to do than to watch the sunset; and I fancy that is your case when you are in London. It is mine throughout the year. But the same circumstances that hinder me from seeing the evening spectacle, oblige me to be present at the morning one. I seldom miss the sunrise.'

"May I ask,' said I, 'what are the circumstances that make you so early a riser?'

"I work in a factory,' was her answer, delivered with such absolute unconsciousness of its startling effect, that I dared not betray surprise by look or word. I was dumb for a minute, and, to cover the pause, stooped to pick up a small volume I observed lying on the ground, and which I presumed, rightly, to be hers.

"This volume occasioned me a new shock. It was not a printed book, such as ordinary mortals carry about with them, but a few sheets of beautifully-illuminated manuscript, bound in ornamented vellum. And I am ashamed to say that, mastered by the unusual curiosity my new acquaintance excited in me, I allowed my eye to rest long enough on the open page to make the further discovery that the matter inscribed in it was a passage from 'Endymion.'

"She observed my interest, but apparently without vexation, for her remark was, 'You, too, love Keats?'

"Certainly,' I replied; and then, taking courage, I added, 'and this seems to me a singularly fit moment in which to find him open on the ground. Without being too fantastical, I think one might trace a parallel between the vision we have just seen, and the character of his genius and career.'

"Her eyes responded sympathetically, and she said—

"Yes, truly. Passionate and clear; tender and impetuous. Of all the group, he was the one with the most original and the most perfect gift. He wanted nothing but time, and even without that, he has made us feel him as the strongest pulsation of our literature of this century. Not one of all the others comes as near to us as he does in joy and in sorrow, in our abject moods and in our flights towards heaven. He is equally at home on the common earth and in the empyrean. Twenty

years ago, I transcribed these passages from him, in a fit of girlish enthusiasm, and they have been my constant companions ever since.

"It seemed as if she were determined to heap amazement on amazement. Twenty years ago she had made this beautiful little book! And I had taken her to be about two or three and twenty. But children of three years old do not read Keats, or illuminate, or even write, I must add on a decade, and still be crediting her with impossibilities. Besides, she had said 'girlish' enthusiasm, and, for thirteen, *childish* is the word. Must I suppose she was fifteen or sixteen, or even seventeen, when she made the extracts, and consequently call her five or seven and thirty? Of two improbabilities, I choose the remoter one, and believe that she made her book at ten years old, or even younger. I will not allow her to be more than thirty to-day.

"I said, 'You read Keats, then, in the intervals of your work at the factory?'

"Yes, he is always in my pocket or my hand."

"And you prefer him to all other poets?"

"Ah, no! That would be absurd. I prefer him for reading at odd minutes. He seems to me especially the poet of moods—above all, of the moods of our own time. He contents himself with giving expression to them, and does not attempt to construct a complete philosophy to rebuke or justify each momentary impulse."

"And you don't like a complete philosophy?"

"Not to fit into my odd minutes. The complete philosophy is wide as life itself, and is good for meditation before the day's work begins and when it is over. The working hours are the time for special tasks, with the weariness, the disgust, and the satisfaction that they bring; and the intervals of rest demand a corresponding character in the occupations provided for them. We want the sympathy of a friend and comrade when we are tired, not the preaching of the philosophers or the clamour of an egoist."

"Meaning, by the former, Shelley and Wordsworth, by the latter, Byron."

"Precisely," she said.

"You speak exclusively of the poets of our own century. Do you not read the older masters also?"

"Surely, yes. But they again claim a distinct place in our life. I cannot read Shakespeare or Spenser or Milton on working days. I reserve them, like expeditions into the country, for Sundays and other festivals. They need to be frequented with ceremony and consideration. Their world is removed from ours, and we must put off our every-day mood and prepare deliberately for a journey to it."

"I feel the truth of what you say," I replied. "It is impossible to read the great poets in the clatter of modern life. That is why nobody does read them, I suppose—nobody in London, I should say. For it seems that up here on the moors people have different habits."

"If you mean me," she answered, "I do not live in the moors. My home is at L— (and she named a manufacturing town thirty miles away). I come here very seldom—twice a year at the outside, and then only for three days."

"Then I hope this is your first day," I put in.

"It is," she answered, "and, as a consequence of its being so, I am tired and must be going home."

"May I not see you home?" I asked, "it is growing dark, and you ought not to walk alone."

"It will be very pleasant to have your company," she said, "if my way does not lead you apart from yours. But, as for walking alone, I am used to that in town and country, at all hours. I have no fear."

"I then inquired in what direction her temporary home lay, and I leave you to imagine my rapture on learning, first that it was at Heymoor, and, on more particular questioning, that she was lodging at the same farm-house as myself. With many women this discovery might have led to embarrassment, but I had already seen enough of this one to know that the coincidence would appear perfectly simple to her. I was not equally sure, however, that I had made a good impression on

her, and I was therefore agreeably reassured when she said, with unmistakable cordiality, 'This is pleasant. We shall perhaps see more of one another before I return to L—.'

"Our walk to the farm-house was altogether delightful. But it is too late to give you the details of it now. I will write again."

"Yours, in as far as I am not hers,

"X."

(To be continued.)

HEALTH OF AMERICAN WOMEN.

By DOROTHEA BEALE,
Principal of the Cheltenham Ladies' College.

"God's gift was that man should conceive of truth
And yearn to gain it, catching at mistake."

THERE has been a temporary lull in the discussions on education in relation to health; it seems likely to be revived by two recent publications. None who value education need fear the result. I am sure we ought to be grateful to those who pointed out some evils of the existing systems, which ought not to be ignored; and we may even thank those who denounced the higher education of women altogether.

Yes, I am persuaded the interests of truth are best served by the honest expression of doubt, of error. The skin of the Python, and the head of the slain Gorgon, made their conquerors invulnerable; all the life of the monster entered into the victor. And is it not still the presence of some hideous Error which so fills us with passion that we become invincible? Thus we were roused to do battle against the doctrine, that we women are to live for our lower rather than our higher life, and when this Error began devouring prey in America, the American giants and St. Georges armed themselves, and we have heard them hammering away ever since at his scaly armour, and at last there is a great spear driven through his eye, and he is dead; and we English people have been fighting against some smaller griffins of the breed which have flown over the sea, but we have not done battle quite in the thorough way that people of the future have done. They have arranged the campaign systematically, they have opened a regular siege, drawn lines of Torres Vedras, and starved out the enemy, whilst we in England were feeling somewhat despairing—for a crop of fancies springs up apace, like mushrooms, and makes such a great show—but facts, alas! are of slow growth; still in a good soil facts survive in the struggle for life, and fancies disappear; and the result of fact-culture as opposed to fancy-culture is given in a series of articles in the *North American Review*.

We knew that, to set the physical health against the intellectual, was absurd; that the latter was the necessary condition of the former, but this had to be proved inductively; so Dr. Dio Lewis tells us of a school that was opened at Lexington in Massachusetts, and in four years nearly 300 girls came under a special regimen. Many delicate girls entered, for parents heard of the fame of the sanitary system pursued at Lexington; they came with the usual American young-lady dress, and the usual young-lady ailments—backache, headache, palpitations, &c.: they brought letters from anxious parents, from family physicians, urging moderation in study, in gymnastics; and they must avoid stairs, they must recline frequently, they must not walk far, they must certainly observe Dr. Edward Clarke's advice. When pupils came, they were measured about the chest, under the arms, round the waist, the arm, and the forearm. They were then provided with a short, loose, light dress, which left the body and limbs as much liberty "as boys have in their gymnasium dresses." Long heavy skirts, suspended from the waist, were abolished. Clothing was not piled on some parts of the body, whilst other parts were left exposed, but it was evenly distributed. Shoes and boots with narrow soles, pointed toes, and high heels, were replaced by coverings for the feet made similar in shape to the member they were intended to clothe,

And with what results to the health? Sad to relate!—frightful for a fashionable young lady!—the waists grew in size until they reached—almost the alarming size of the classic models of beauty, that of the Venus of Milo. There were other results:—"Pupils came full of complaints and other sufferings which may not be named here, and, in a few months, could do the full and hard gymnastic work of the school, dance three evenings a week, go upstairs without symptoms, and walk five to ten miles without inconvenience. A common exclamation amongst them was this:—"What a slave I was! Everything was toil and suffering. I have now just begun to live." And all this happy change came of abandonment of corsets, the adoption of a simple, physiological dress, with the exercise which this change in dress renders easy. The change in health and capacity often seemed magical." Dr. Lewis writes,—“If this paper were designed for the eyes of medical men only, certain facts might be given which would surprise them, and leave no doubt that we have utterly failed to comprehend the mischief done to the growing form by the present modes of dress.”

Similar results were obtained elsewhere.

“The Boston Normal School for Physical Education, trained and graduated 421 teachers of the New School of Gymnastics. The graduates were about equally divided between the sexes. A considerable proportion of the women were school-teachers in broken health, seeking, in the new profession, a better means of living. The average health of the women was, in the beginning, lower than that of the men. But, with the removal of the corset and the long, heavy skirts, and the use of those exercises which a short and very loose dress renders easy, a remarkable change ensued. In every one of the ten classes the best gymnast was a woman.”

The articles of dress which we desire to see reformed may, perhaps, be classed under four heads:—

1. Those which injure by compressing the waist.
2. Those which injuriously affect the temperature.
3. Those which by their weight impede motion.
4. Those which distort the feet, and produce disease by throwing the body into an unnatural position.

I. There is the Corset. “This, *even when loose*, does much harm, for it is hard and stiff, whilst the part of the body it surrounds is soft and flexible. If the wearer stood, and always upright, little harm would be done, but when she sits, and especially when she bends forward, as in reading or working, the pressure on the abdomen becomes considerable, and does serious mischief. With every bending of the body, even the very loose corset is brought in contact with yielding parts. The floating ribs, that masterpiece of the human mechanism, and those soft parts of the person covered by the corset, cannot perform the undulating and vital movements incident to respiration and digestion, even under a very loose corset.” When, however, it is not loose, and is made the means of reducing the waist, and the internal organs are forced into unnatural positions, a very serious class of diseases is produced, upon which I cannot enter here.

II. There is, in fashionable dress, an unequal distribution of clothing. While the chest and hips are often overloaded, the arms and legs are so thinly clad that the imperfect circulation compels congestion of the trunk and head.

III. Long heavy skirts are worn which drag upon the body, and impede the movement of the legs.

IV. There are tight shoes, which arrest circulation, and make walking difficult; high heels, which increase the difficulties in walking, and so change the centre of gravity in the body as to produce dislocations in the pelvic viscera.

We have not, at Cheltenham, adopted quite such stringent measures as the authorities at Lexington, but we have abolished heels, and, amongst our boarders, there is but little attempt to deform the waist; yet more reforms are required, and would be made, were it not almost impossible for parents to procure sensible dress without great trouble and expense, as shops keep in stock only the fashionable deformities. We hope shortly to issue a leaflet of directions for dress, and shall

keep models, and give the names and addresses of shops where properly made clothing can be obtained.

Proper clothing is not the only thing necessary; but, without this, exercise and games, which people do now value, are positively injurious; food cannot be properly digested, sleep fails, the brain suffers, and what follows?—a prescription, perhaps, to give up thinking, when a little more thought, and a little more reading of the laws of health, a little more study of artistic form (to say nothing of higher matters), would have prevented the folly and the sin of which too many are guilty, owing to a childish vanity which simply makes them ridiculous.

Children's clothing should be such that they can at any time, without changing, enjoy the giant-stride, and all other exercises—but, alas! even little ones are sometimes cased in stays. I am told by a credible witness, that a mother has been known to lace up a child of seven. She could only grow up a miserable invalid.

I hope, in time, to be able to produce a large body of statistics, and effectually dispose of the idea that study, under proper conditions, is injurious to health. In Milton Mount school, of 150 boarders, in which the students are specially distinguished for their success in examinations, the standard of health is equally remarkable. Miss Hadland writes,—“In ten years we have had only two cases of serious illness. Our doctor considers he has never seen a pupil suffering from overwork. For awhile, we paid a fixed salary to him for two visits weekly, but these were so often unnecessary, that we settled to pay 5s. a visit. Our bill from January to September, 1882, was £2. 12s. 6d.”

The high standard of health at Cheltenham is shown by the statistics of our Boarding Houses. Taking the average of 10 Houses, we find it less than 3 days a year for colds and all ordinary ailments, except in one House, the Mistress of which was inexperienced, and managed it badly,—the contrast was as instructive as the good statistics.

Schoolmistresses can assist mothers in many ways—(1) By putting pressure upon dress-makers and tradesmen, and by employing only those who will make what is needed.

(2) They can have occasional courses of lectures on the Laws of Hygiene, for the mothers, and the many who have had no opportunity of learning; lectures which would give simple lessons on the care of the skin, the proper use of baths, on dietary, on the amount of sleep required, proper hours for exercise and study, &c. I have found a few pages, which I printed, on the “Relation of School to Home Life,” very useful.

(3) They can insist, in practice, on conformity to the laws of health, and, when people see the results, they will obey.

(4) They can teach the elements of Physiology to their pupils, and cultivate a taste for real grace and beauty; and thus the fashionable deformities will come to be regarded as a mark of barbarism. Miss Buss has done much already by collecting statistics, but it is in schools in which boarders predominate that results can be best tested, and methods applied.

I have not space to notice the second publication. I hope to do so next month.

I am sure we owe a debt of gratitude to those who have compelled us to prove what we knew was true, that *cæteris paribus*, that most civilised races are the healthiest; that true education not only improves the intellect, but, by developing the judgment, and lifting the moral nature, diminishes the tendency to the follies and sins which are the chief causes of all the ills that flesh is heir to.

REVIEWS.

Yonge's Constitutional History of England from 1760 to 1860
(London: Marcus Ward & Co.)

This is, no doubt, in a sense, a Constitutional History; that is, it is a narrative of successive Parliamentary measures affecting, more or less, the principles and the working of

the Constitution. But it is little save a narrative of those measures. Of the events related, only the direct, we might say the mechanical, connection with each other is given, and their wider bearing on the national life is scarcely touched upon. Of the deeper principles, the more complex and comprehensive effects, on any one period, of the legislative and political action of that or the preceding period, we get no glimpse. This, in a word, is just a class-book, nothing more. We could hardly give a better exemplification of what we may call the mechanical handling of the subject, than the following words in the preface—"The change in some leading features and principles of the Constitution wrought by the Reform Bill of 1832, exceeds any that were enacted by the Bill of Rights or the Act of Settlement. The only absolutely new principle introduced in 1688, was that establishment of Protestant ascendancy which was contained in the clause which disabled any Roman Catholic from wearing the Crown. In other respects those great statutes were not so much the introduction of new principles as a recognition of privileges of the people which had been long established, but which in too many instances had been disregarded and violated. But the Reform Bill conferred political power on classes which had never before been admitted to be entitled to it, and their enfranchisement could not fail to give a wholly new and democratic tinge to the Government." That the Reform Bill of 1832, either in intent or effect, gave a democratic tinge to the Government, may be safely denied. It removed gross and glaring inequalities and inconsistencies in the suffrage, such as, while admitting the scum of the towns to the vote, excluded in the counties all but landed proprietors; but, so far was it from "democratic," that it enfranchised only the middle classes, leaving the working classes in fact more excluded than ever. It was but the carrying out of the ancient principle that was the basis of all our Charters and Petitions of Rights, and the ground of former contests innumerable,—that the laws by which the people are governed should be made with their own consent. But the Bill of Rights and the Act of Settlement—that is, in fact, the Revolution which they sprang from and embodied—established a new principle of far deeper and wider import than that of "Protestant ascendancy," in the change of a dynasty, wrought by the will of the people expressed through Parliament, not to mention a whole new group of ideas and principles which sprang up and bore fruit around that leading idea; especially that of ministerial responsibility. It was not merely the recognition of "principles that had been too often disregarded and violated," but the final and total overthrow of the system of arbitrary personal government, which had prevailed with little break for nearly 200 years.

Mr. Yonge must presume his readers to be familiar with Hallam's Constitutional History, which he professes to carry on, as no sketch is given of the condition of things on George III.'s accession, though we can hardly understand what followed, unless we realise the point at which Constitutional Government then stood. And no adequate idea is given of the great struggle of the first twenty-two years of George III.'s reign, which were devoted by him to breaking the power of the great Whig oligarchy,—a not unjustifiable object, but not attained without a strain on the political and moral royal conscience. For the first ten years this was done by a system of direct personal bribery, hiring majorities whenever needed (our legislature was indeed corrupt enough already, but not as then for the promotion of personal government); for the next twelve, by a secret agency called influence, worked through Lord North and private agents, by means of places and pensions, and tampering with the elections. The condition of the state and the country, both in their external and domestic relations, when this end had been obtained, and the bearing it had on the question of economic and parliamentary reform which then first began to be agitated, are left unnoticed.

Again, the story of Wilkes is told well and fairly, and the legal questions as to the right of the House to act as it did, and the legality of General Warrants, are carefully examined; but the wider national issues, the facts which show the

struggle to have been a turning-point in our Constitutional course, the victory of the people over the Parliament, being the very first step towards the increased and ever-increasing share the people took in public action, of all this Mr. Yonge seems hardly conscious. The book is, as a narrative, it must be confessed, a little dull. It wants original thought, and the style is colourless. But, if we compare it, to its disadvantage, with the more brilliant, or vigorous, or philosophical writers who have dealt with the same, or parts of the same, theme, with his precursors Hallam, or Massey, or Goldwin Smith, or Scceley, or with one who covers the same ground, Sir Erskine May, we must remember that most of these authors have given force and colour to their writing by the inspiration of a vivid political bias. Mr. Yonge, though obviously a Conservative, aims at impartiality of statement, and, if he sometimes gives a one-sided view of a question, it may be fairly held to proceed from a want of power, not of will, to see it all round. It is on the subject of legislative reforms that this deficiency is most conspicuous. So, at least, it will be judged by those who regard that leading feature of Conservative policy—opposition to all change—as denoting, in general, a class-feeling of fear of any alteration likely, or supposed likely, to touch the interests of any particular class. But, undoubtedly, there is also an opposition of genuine and conscientious conviction to measures deemed subversive of religious morality and order; and it is well in these days, when four-fifths of our publicists are Liberals, to hear the other side.

A few passages, embodying views of doubtful accuracy, may be mentioned. In page 10, Mr. Yonge recounts the mischiefs which proceeded from the delay to put down the Gordon Riots, owing to the supposed necessity of reading first the Riot Act, a thing which no magistrate dared do; and he gives just praise to the King's resolution to dispense with these forms, and call out the troops at once by an order from the Adjutant-General's office. But he adds that "this was a lesson of value to the whole community, making it universally known that military discipline does not require the soldier to refrain from the duty incumbent on every citizen—the prevention of crime." Military discipline was not in question here, but obedience to the civil law, and it would be a dangerous doctrine that would encourage soldiers to "save society" without reference to the constituted authorities. It was obvious that what was wanted was an amendment of the civil law, which should enable the military authorities at once to obtain leave to act in a pressing emergency.

Again, in relating the repression of the Irish Rebellion of 1798, he dwells on the ferocity of the insurgents, and speaks with complacency of the celerity with which it was crushed, and with most solemn reprobation of those who attributed the revolt to the severities of the Irish Viceroys and his chief counsellors. We shall never do justice to Ireland till we realize what we have done to make her hate us. And, in this case, it behoves us especially to remember the savage horrors which accompanied the re-riveting of our yoke on Irish necks. The cruelties of the rebels were far outdone by the Protestant gentry, and the Loyalist yeomanry and militia, with the sanction of the whole of the upper classes and both Houses of Parliament. It was, alas! Irishmen who thus tortured and butchered Irish men, women, and children; but it was for the maintenance of English authority over Ireland, and caused that authority to become all the more odious.

On page 185, he mentions Mr. Grey's protest against passing the Union Bill before the sentiments of the Irish people, as distinct from those of the Parliament, had been ascertained. Mr. Yonge considers that it is wholly unconstitutional to regard it as an open point whether the decision of Parliament represents that of the nation, and protests against any idea of a fresh reference by members to their constituents, even when such a question had not been contemplated at the time of the election. Yet, surely we are now in England familiar with the idea of a dissolution when any change, especially affecting the political status of the whole nation, is proposed; much more in Ireland, where it was a question of national existence, and where their Parliament was known to represent but one-

seventh of the nation, and of them only the higher classes. But Mr. Yonge's attempt to support his position by a comparison with the States-General of France, whose early decay he attributes to the dependence for precise instructions of its members on their constituents, is a curious instance of his habit of singling out a small detail as a sufficient explanation of a wide and many-sided question. The States-General decayed because they had no inherent power of any kind as against the sovereign, who was not bound to call them together, and, as he could obtain money without their aid, did not care to do so. Mr. Hallam's assertion,—“It is absolutely certain that the States-General of France had at no period, and in no instance, a co-ordinate legislative authority with the Sovereign, or even a consenting voice,”—gives the keynote to the history of their fitful action and final decay.

On page 403, Mr. Yonge actually repeats in good faith the story of a plot hatched by the *Assemblée Nationale* to arrest and imprison Louis Napoleon at Vincennes, which he frustrated by his *coup d'état* of 1851. No doubt, ideas of such a conspiracy were darkly insinuated, and busily propagated, before the assault on the Constitution; but, when the charge was dragged forth in the Chamber, and the Ministers indignantly challenged to bring proof, they wholly broke down. It was true that, while the act was doing, documents proving the existence of this plot, and the full justification of the President's counterplot were freely promised; but they were never produced, and to this day nothing more has been heard of them. The same sort of story was repeated in later years, when the throne was getting shaky and a *Plébiscite* had to be prepared for; but of this, too, no proof was attempted. “*La Presse*,” having published by command the official account of the plot, ingenuously expressed the general opinion of France about it, by adding, as though to the “roman” of a *feuilleton*, the words, “To be continued in the next number.”

Mr. Yonge's writing is not always accurate, any more than his thinking; and we read with wonder of the Sepoy revolt as “branding with the foulest disgrace the race”; or, as he afterwards says, the “native tribes,” whose “inconstancy and treachery” it revealed, just as if he were speaking of the massacre of a boat's crew of Englishmen by New Zealanders.

But Mr. Yonge has one or two good passages in which he sums up sensibly enough the points of a question, as on the subject of the publication of Parliamentary Debates, and of the right of Parliament to Tax the Colonies. And, though we have noticed the paucity of general views, in the last page of his book he certainly points out the difference which a hundred years have wrought in the character of our Government, which was striving, for more than half that time, to keep things as they were, and only half conscious that the Reform Act of 1832 was the seed of further inevitable changes, which the modern statesman must essay, not to prevent, but to guide and modify. But next to no light is given in the whole work as to how this came about, or help in tracing the laws of that current of change which slowly set in, and brought us from the limited Constitutional organization of 1688 to the “revolution” of 1832. After a few just remarks on the necessity of general education, the only political moral which he finally draws, for the benefit as he says “of the masses,” is in the very amiable but rather feeble sentiment of the closing paragraph,—“The great lesson taught by the history of the period is, that the great majority of our educated men are actuated by honest and patriotic motives.” And that “more important than a correct estimate of any one transaction or any one measure to influence the future, is the habit of putting a candid, and therefore a favourable, construction on the characters and intentions” of those who happen to rule us.

Lessing's Nathan der Weise. Edited by C. A. BUCHHEIM. (Clarendon Press Series. Extra fcap. 8vo., pp. 357. Price 4s. 6d.)

Editors are of two kinds, editors for love and editors for money. Of the more common species, the editor for money, we have no wish to speak slightly. When a foreign book

is needed for the English market, someone must be found who is at home in the language of it, and can give such explanations as the English reader requires. So the publisher applies to a teacher of the language, and an edition is produced which is of some use, if not much, to all the parties concerned. The editor for money has no more wish to give us anything of permanent value than the pastry-cook; but the editor for love works with different aims and different results. He delights in his author, and expects that all who understand him will delight in him also. So he goes to work to exhibit his author with the most favourable surroundings. In this way, he throws much light on the book he edits, and all its readers, from that time forward, are indebted to him. He does this at considerable personal sacrifice, as the time spent on doing a piece of editing in this spirit is never adequately paid for—at least, in money. But, after all, it is a satisfaction to us, and a great compensation for toil,

“If something from our hands have power
To live, and act, and serve the future hour”;

and good, careful work spent in elucidating a classic is more certain to serve the future hour than any other in which the majority of literary men can engage.

One of the most thorough “editors for love” in this country is Dr. Buchheim, and he has evidently thrown himself heartily into the present work. To value “*Nathan der Weise*” as highly as Dr. Buchheim values it, is, perhaps, possible for a German only. In studying the three masterpieces, “*Minna von Barnhelm*,” “*Emilia Galotti*,” and “*Nathan der Weise*,” the foreign reader sees their excellence up to a certain point; but what he sees does not seem to justify the enthusiasm of admiration with which Lessing is regarded by his own countrymen. Even Dr. Buchheim fails to make us enjoy the “*Nathan*” as a dramatic work, however interesting it may be from the theory of toleration it puts before us. Perhaps a *Tendenzschrift* could hardly be very great as a drama. Young Jewesses would not be likely to talk in the following strain now-a-days: during the Crusades such language was as impossible as a lecture on spectrum analysis:

“Wem eignet Gott? Was ist das für ein Gott,
Der einem Menschen eignet? der für sich
Muss-kämpfen lassen?”

The true dramatist must not preach by the mouth of his puppets, as Lessing preaches by the mouth of Nathan and Reppa. The play contains, we are told, “the gospel of toleration”; but Lessing's gospel was rather the gospel of scepticism—that the highest good of humanity is to be found, not in the possession, but in the pursuit, of truth. Nothing can be clearer than his own declaration on this point:—

“Wenn Gott in seiner Rechten alle Wahrheit und in seiner Linken den einzigen immer regen Trieb nach Wahrheit, obschon mit dem Zusatze mich immer und ewig zu irren, verschlossen hielte, und spräche zu mir: ‘Wähle!’ ich fielen Ihm mit Demuth in seine Linke und sagte: ‘Vater, gib! Die reine Wahrheit ist ja doch für Dich allein.’”

But we must not be tempted further into this wide subject with little space and time at our command.

Whatever we foreigners may say to it, the greatness of “*Nathan der Weise*” is established by the high place it holds in German literature, and Dr. Buchheim's pains have been well bestowed in making this classical work as comprehensible as it can be made to the English reader. His introductions are always excellent, and here, where they are especially needed, they are especially good.

The text he has, to our great delight, printed in Roman type. Prince Bismarck himself cannot permanently stop this improvement, but we fear he will delay it. Why a man who is a great statesman and diplomatist should suppose himself, and be supposed by other people, to be in virtue of his political success a good authority in the matter of type, seems to us as odd as it would be to appeal from him to Herr Joachim, say, because he is the greatest of violinists. But, alas! Prince Bismarck is resolved to frown down Roman type in Germany. The educated man, he says, looks at the word

as a whole, not as a collection of letters, so, if a letter here or there is like another letter, this is of no consequence. It seems therefore that the Prince is an advocate of the Chinese system against the European. However, in spite of Prince Bismarck, we have no doubt that Dr. Buehheim, who in such matters is the greater authority among us, will by his example soon make German type as obsolete in the books printed here as its kindred black-letter.

We observe a small matter which would not be worth mentioning if these were not our classical editions of classical works. It is a great thing to have the lines numbered, and it does not much matter whether they are numbered *according to the metre* or *according to the printing*; but it is inconvenient to have one plan adopted in one book and another in another. In the "Nathan" Dr. Buehheim has taken the metrical plan; in some others he has counted the printed lines, which depend on the dialogue.

In the notes we have help given us *almost* whenever we need it; but here and there verbal peculiarities which seem too simple for explanation to a German editor, do not seem quite so simple to us. To give an instance: "Ihr habt gut reden" (p. 26, ad. i.) seems worthy of a note. The book, it must be remembered, is not a book for the young, so the explanations most needed are explanations of expression, not of thought. When Recha says,—

"Fühlt man der ersten unbegreiflichen
Ursache seiner Rettung nicht sich so
Viel näher?" (p. 18, line 291),—

we can understand many grown English readers being puzzled by the position of *sich*, but we cannot understand any such reader translating the passage and then being in doubt about its meaning.

However, it is seldom a reviewer finds so little *à redire* in anything that comes before him, as in this excellent edition of "Nathan der Weise."

SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES.

OXFORD.

The Rev. W. Sanday, M.A., Principal of Bishop Hatfield's Hall, Durham, and late Fellow of Trinity (1866-73), has been elected by the Heads of Colleges to Dean Ireland's Professorship of Exegesis, vacant by the resignation of Canon Liddon. Mr. Sanday was a First Classman in Classical Moderations (1863) and in the Final Classical School (1865).

Mr. A. V. Dicey, B.C.L., Counsel to the Board of Inland Revenue, and formerly Fellow of Trinity, has been elected to the Vinerian Professorship of English Law, to which is attached a Fellowship at All Souls. Mr. Dicey obtained a First Class in the Final Classical School, 1858, and the Arnold Prize for an Historical Essay (on "The Privy Council") in 1860.

BALLIOL COLLEGE.—The following elections have been made:—To an open Classical Fellowship—J. W. Mackail. To Classical Scholarships—J. Burnet, Edinburgh University; M. Llewellyn Davies, Marlborough; H. L. Withers, King's College School, London. To Classical Exhibitions—L. P. Crawford, Eton; H. T. Bowlby, Charterhouse; W. Ashburner, University College School, London. To Minor Classical Exhibitions—C. Baring, Eton; F. W. Sherwood, Reading School. To Brackenbury Scholarships—In Modern History—C. L. Long, Glasgow University and Balliol; *proximè accessit*—W. R. D. Adkins, Balliol; distinguished in the examination—C. E. Mallet. In Natural Science—W. Overend, St. Bartholomew's Hospital.

WADHAM COLLEGE.—The following elections have been made:—To Scholarships—H. de B. Gibbins, from Bradford Grammar School; N. Wedd, from the City of London School; H. W. Horwill, unattached student; M. Jacobs, from St. Paul's School. To Exhibitions—R. E. E. Frampton, from Malvern College; A. Hill, from Shrewsbury School; R. F. W. Holme, from Sherborne School; R. W. Gordon, from Manchester School.

HERTFORD COLLEGE.—The following elections have been made:—1. To Open Classical Scholarships—H. de V. Welchman, Hertford College; W. Thunson, Balliol; W. E. Cornwall, Clergy Orphan School, Canterbury. 2. To an Open Mathematical Scholarship—W.

F. Duckworth, Magdalen. 3. To the "Essex" Scholarship—H. M. Lawrence, Forest School. 4. To "Lusby" Scholarships—H. Townsend, Rugby School; C. J. Cornish, Hertford College. 5. To "Mecke" Scholarships—A. Campbell, Worcester Cathedral School; W. Miller, Rugby School (open *pro hac vice*). To the "Lucy" Scholarship (open *pro hac vice*)—H. B. Tristram, Hertford College. There were about seventy candidates. No election was made to the "Harrow" Scholarship.

CAMBRIDGE.

GIRTON COLLEGE.—Four Certificated Students of this College have, during the past year, passed the following London University Examinations: In the Intermediate B.Sc. Examinations, held in July, E. Aitken passed in the First Division, with First Class Honours in Botany and Second Class Honours in Physics. In the Preliminary Science, M. E. Pailthorpe passed in the Second Division, taking also the Mathematics of the Intermediate B.Sc. In the Intermediate M.B., L. C. Bernard passed in the Second Division. In the B.Sc. (October), C. A. Scott passed in the First Division, with First Class Honours in Mathematics. Miss M. Anelay has been appointed Resident Lecturer in Natural Science.

By the death of Professor Challis, on December 3rd, Cambridge has lost her oldest professor. Professor Challis was born in 1803, was senior wrangler in 1825, and was elected to the Plumian chair in 1836. He will be best remembered by his championship of Professor Adams as the discoverer of the planet Neptune.

DURHAM UNIVERSITY.—The following class list in the Final Theological Examination has been issued:—Class 1—E. B. Brown; Class 3—J. S. Lonsdale, J. B. S. Mais, A. T. Theodosius.

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY, MANCHESTER.—The Registrar sends us the following correction of last month's News:—No Degrees were conferred, or could have been conferred under the Charter, upon "students" of the College without examination. Eight Students of the College received Degrees, but all had completed the necessary courses of study, and had passed the prescribed Examinations, four of them with Honours. The remaining Degrees, with the exception of one honorary M.A., were (under cap. iv., sec. 3 of the Charter) conferred upon *Associates* of the College of at least three years' standing at the date of the Charter. The qualifications for Associateship are (1) attendance during three years upon certain courses of study at the College. (2) Having obtained a Degree of some University of the United Kingdom, or the F.R.C.S. or M.R.C.P. of England, or having passed a special examination in Arts, or Science, or Medicine and Surgery. As a matter of fact, no less than *eighty-seven* of those upon whom the degree of B.A. or B.Sc. was conferred already held the same or a higher Degree of an older University. I may add that the number of students in the Day Classes of the Owens College, at the date of the Charter, was not, as you say, 125, but 443, or, if the Medical School be included, 653.

IRELAND.

A question which has been ruffling the calm stream of academic life in Dublin for some years seems now to be approaching a definite issue. On Wednesday, November 29th, the Academic Council, by a vote of 7 to 4, declared that it was desirable to throw open the Arts Degrees of the University of Dublin to Women. The Council is the more representative of the two governing bodies, but the above vote inadequately represents the existing feeling in favour of the change. The Board have still a power of veto. The matter rests now to be dealt with by a sub-committee of the Council, which shall arrange what changes are necessary in the courses and other details. The real difficulty lies in the question of teaching. It is thought by the younger men that the professorial lectures and all honour lectures may be left free to women, and be mixed classes; while what are styled "Pass Lectures" may be arranged otherwise as found convenient. Bacon's *Senes omnia metuumt*, fairly expresses the counter-view; and in consequence of the complete ignorance of the results of mixed classes in Ireland, it is likely enough that for a year or two this question of teaching will remain in abeyance.

A parallel difficulty is before the Royal University. The Senate of this University in their "Original Scheme," which is now authorised, decided to appoint a body of Fellows—not of Examiners merely. The Fellows are, however, Examiners of the University. The further objection which the Senate had in view is thus defined by the Statutes:—"Every Fellow shall hold his Fellowship upon condition that, if required by the Senate, he shall give his services in

teaching students of the University in some Educational Institution approved by the Senate, wherein matriculated students of the University are being taught." The historic importance of this clause is shown by its consequences. The appointed Fellows represent equally the Queen's Colleges and the Roman Catholics. Those of the latter party have been almost all drawn together to Dublin; where the "Catholic University," St. Stephen's Green (originated in 1852), has been entirely re-organised and re-named "University College." It starts on its new career with an able staff of lecturers, all of whom, being either Fellows or Examiners, receive salaries from the public funds of the Royal University. A pastoral from the Cardinal Archbishop, recently read in all the Dublin churches, has defined the status and government of this important College.

Now the advantage of being taught by one's examiner is obvious. Hence some of the women students resident in Dublin have applied to be admitted to the College lectures. But this the authorities of the College have not allowed. Three years ago the matter would have rested here; but times are changing. We understand that steps are being taken to lay before the Standing Committee of the Senate a memorial from all the women students of the University on the subject. The Senate and the Fellows themselves are known to be generally favourable; the constitution of the University gives equal privileges to the two sexes. And that teaching shall be provided for the women students, appears to be generally accepted. But it is not sought to have this teaching given at University College.

We may mention that the lectures of the Queen's Colleges, where Fellows are also located, are now open to all matriculated women students. How this has come about at Belfast is worthy of record. The College Board, being desirous of assimilating their courses to those of the Royal University, had passed a resolution that all students who had matriculated in the University would be entitled to rank as having matriculated in the College. The existence of matriculated women students of the University had been forgotten at the time. But Mrs. Byers, of the Ladies' Collegiate School, wrote to the Registrar to enquire whether these women were not now entitled to join the classes in the College. The answer returned must not be mutilated: "There seems to be nothing at all in the Statutes against it. I lecture at 12 o'clock to-morrow; so you may come down at that hour and bring your girls along with you." Mrs. Byers is now preparing to open a House of Residence in Belfast for women students who may desire to attend the classes in the Queen's College.

The annual meeting of the Schoolmasters' Association is to take place at the Gresham Hotel, Dublin, on December 29th and 30th. The President of the year is Mr. R. Rice, M.A., St. Columba's College, Rathfarnham. An invitation has been issued to all members of the Association of Schoolmistresses who are heads of Schools, to join the meeting on the second day. And we hear that many ladies intend to be present, and some to take part in the proceedings.

As some apprehension has arisen that the Senate of the Royal University had adopted a *sliding-scale* by which its Honours were to be awarded, and that whether any candidate was to obtain Honours would therefore depend mainly upon the answering of others, it may be well to state definitely the mode of procedure which has been followed. When an examiner sends in the paper that he proposes to set, he appends to it a statement in percentages of the answering for which, in his opinion, honours on that paper should be awarded. His paper is then carefully considered by the Standing Committee, and his proposed standard is revised as thought fit, being sometimes very considerably altered. It is in accordance with this revised standard that the honours are subsequently awarded. It is clear then that a candidate's success depends entirely on his own performance. Nor is there any other means whereby the Senate can control its examiners and maintain what may seem to it a proper standard.

SCHOOLS.

BRUTON.—Mr. C. A. Evans, of Jesus College, 23rd Wrangler in the last Tripos, has been appointed to the Mathematical Mastership.

CHIGWELL GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—Mr. J. L. Norton, Scholar of Merton College, and Mr. T. G. Wilton, Scholar of Sidney Sussex College, have been elected to Masterships.

CREWKERNE GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—The Rev. F. Waller, Head-master of Amersham Grammar School, has been appointed to the Head-mastership.

DAVENTRY GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—Percy M. Stewart, has been elected to a Clergy Son Scholarship of £20 per annum.

ETON.—The Boy's Literary Society has been fortunate in hearing

three very interesting Lectures in the last four weeks. On Saturday November 25, Rev. W. Wayto, discoursed most amusingly and instructively on Sydney Smith, telling many excellent stories highly appreciated by the audience. On the following Saturday Canon Boyd-Carpenter lectured on Dante. The great eloquence of the lecturer would have been sufficient of itself to delight the audience, even if the matter had been less interesting. On December 9, Prof. Huxley, who is a member of the Governing Body, took as his subject "Unwritten History." The Drill Hall, holding some 200 boys, was crowded, and all listened attentively to the modern man of Science, showing the wisdom and sagacity of the Father of History in his theories respecting the formation of the Nile Delta. We are glad to see that M. R. James has won the Carus Greek Testament Prize; while Crawford, K. S., has obtained a Classical Exhibition at Balliol; and Baring *ma.*, a Minor Exhibition at the same place. The school closed on Friday, December 15, and will reassemble on January 17.

HAMMERSMITH, GODOLPHIN SCHOOL.—The Rev. J. C. Vernon, late Postmaster of Merton College, has been appointed to a Mastership.

KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON.—The Rev. H. B. Swete, has been appointed to the Professorship of Pastoral Theology, in the room of Archdeacon Cheetham.

KING'S LYNN.—On Saturday, December 2nd, the Head-master of the King's Lynn Grammar School, and Mr. E. E. Hitchcock, of Cavendish, Cambridge, were received by His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales at Sandringham, for the presentation of the Gold Medal for the year.

MARLBOROUGH COLLEGE.—*School Prizes*: Latin Prose—E. N. Gardiner; Reading Prizes—G. T. Elliot, H. B. Lawford. *School Honours*: A. D. Davies, Scholarship at Balliol College, Oxford; R. F. Cholmeley, C.C.C., A. H. Hawkins, Balliol, 1st Class Class. Moderations. The following were elected to Foundation Scholarships on December 7. T. D. Davies, Marylebone Grammar School; R. G. Alexander, Rev. J. H. Edgar, East Sheen; E. L. Sale, Mr. J. B. Eden, Rugby; R. C. Abbott, Rev. W. Almack, Bruce Castle; W. L. Kindersley, Rev. S. Hawtrey, St. Mark's, Windsor; F. C. French, Lower v. 2, Marlborough College; R. F. C. de Winton, Mr. Maclaren, Oxford; E. A. L. Moore, Upper iv. b., Marlborough College; F. T. P. Oldfield, Mr. Hewitt, Rottingdean; A. T. Wilson, P. L. Hart-Smith, Mr. Lloyd, Winchfield; F. E. Nixon, Middle iv. b., Marlborough College; F. T. Koelle, Rev. A. S. Grenfell, Parkgate, Chester; A. S. Graves, Rev. J. M. Browne, Hunstanton, Norfolk; C. E. Falkner, Rev. F. Symes, Bancroft's Hospital. *Honourably mentioned*—A. W. Mahaffy, Middle iv. a., G. E. S. Streatfield, Upper iv. a., Marlborough College. The School broke up on Tuesday December 19th, for the Christmas Holidays, after the Annual Concert on the previous evening, which was largely attended by friends and visitors.

ROSSALL.—Prizes &c. gained in the School:—Latin Prose—A. M. Knight. Philology and Grammar—A. H. Davis, T. H. Vines (equal). Latin Elegiacs—A. H. Davis. Class Literature—1st Division, H. S. Jones; 2nd, A. G. Bather. English Literature—1st Division, Lee; 2nd, Wyatt; 3rd, Easton. Geography—1st Division, Calvert; 2nd, Bell; 3rd, Watson ii. Mathematics—1st Division, W. Hall. Science—1st Division, R. Pearson. Divinity—Hastings and Leesmith. Examination Prizes, Lower Monitors General Prize, Composition Prize, and Unseens Prize—H. S. Jones. Class Prizes—A. Harward, T. Vines, B. Leesmith, H. S. Jones. Probationers—Anden, Steel. Upper—A. Calvert. Scholarships, &c., outside the School:—Honorary Fellowship at Jesus College, Oxford, W. Boyd Dawkins. Tutorship at Keble College, Rev. G. W. Gent. Organist at the Cathedral, Oxford, C. H. Lloyd. On December 18th, the Annual Singing Competition was held, and prizes were awarded as follows:—Part Singing. Ormsby's House, Solos, Unbroken Voices—(1) Taylor ii., (2) Cane, Broken Voices—(1) E. St. John Maclure, (2) A. B. Batley. On December 19, the last night of term, a performance of Cox and Box was given by Mr. J. R. White, A. B. Batley, and E. St. John Maclure. The piece was capitally rendered, and reflects great credit on all the performers, and on Mr. White's coaching; the songs were excellently accompanied by Mr. Sweeting. The school will meet again on 23rd January, by which time it is hoped that the new gymnasium and racquet courts will be fitted up for use. The whole building is complete, and is a great addition to the resources of the place. On December 19th, the Annual Football Match, Past v. Present, was played—a victory for the Past by two goals to one.

RUGBY.—English Literature Prize—W. Miller; commended, Thorold, Martly, Watson. Indian Prize—W. Miller. Astronomy Prize—Kingdon. Geology—Griffith-Boseawen. Mathematical Prize, Vith—Kingdon. Scholarships, &c., gained outside the School—H. Townend, Scholarship at Hertford College, Oxford. W. Miller, Exhibition at Hertford College, Oxford. R. I. Simey, First Class

Moderations, Oxford. The term ended on December 20th, and the next term begins January 19th. Dr. Waldstein's course of lectures on Greek Art will be continued in February. It is proposed that there should be a Rugby memorial to Dr. Tait, but nothing has as yet been decided.

SALT SCHOOLS, SHIPLEY.—Tuesday, December 19th, was the Speech Day at the Boys' High School. After an entertainment given by the Governors to past and present pupils, the speeches were given in the Victoria Hall. The prologue was spoken by Duckil, and was followed by the song "Village Chorists," a recitation of the Pied Piper by the juniors, and scenes from "Henry VI." by the seniors. "Young Lochinvar" by Cocksholt, excited warm applause. Mr. S. P. Unwin, on behalf of the Governors, proposed a vote of thanks to Mr. James Lonsdale, the Head-master, and congratulated him on the good work of the past year.

SUTTON VALENCE.—There is a large field of candidates for the vacant Head-mastorship. Among the favourites we may mention Mr. J. Bennett, Head-master of the Plymouth School; Mr. Bampfyde, Assistant-master at Merchant Taylors'; and the Rev. W. E. Bolland, Head-master of the Worcester Cathedral School.

WESTMINSTER SCHOOL.—C. C. J. Webb, Q.S., has gained the Dean's Prize for Greek Testament; A. M. T. Jackson and B. A. James, Q.S., divided the second prize. J. R. Pryce, Q.S., has obtained the Vaughan Scholarship, tenable by natives of North Wales at any College at Oxford. Mr. Germaiu Lavoie has been appointed Sub-Registrar of the Royal Courts of Justice. He was admitted to College in 1850, and elected head to Christ Church in 1854. Mr. W. E. M. Tomlinson, who has just been elected M.P. for Preston, entered College in 1854. The play this year was the *Phormio*. Westerfield, who last year took the part of "Micio," in the *Adelphi* with such spirit, was, unfortunately, prevented by an accident from acting, but Trevor, considering the very short notice he had, proved an adequate substitute in the part of "Geta." For finished acting and admirable by-play, the palm must be assigned to Bethune's "Demipho." He not only spoke, but looked, the cross-grained, sour old miser. The epilogue on *Æstheticism* fell somewhat flat.

WINCHESTER.—Buchanan, Shirley, Haselfoot, and Barker have been elected to Winchester Scholarships at New College.

TRANSLATION PRIZE.

For each month, till further notice, there will be set a passage, generally from a French or German Poet, to be translated into English verse. A PRIZE OF TWO GUINEAS will be offered each month for the best version. Initials or a nom de plume must be adopted by competitors, but the successful competitor is required to send his real name and address to the Prize Editor for publication. Versions must be forwarded to the "Prize Editor" of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, care of Messrs. John Walker & Co., 96 Farringdon Street, E.C., not later than the 15th of the month. Any translation which is sent with an addressed envelope and six postage stamps, will be returned with corrections. A First Class is entitled to a copy of "Prizes and Proximes," which will be forwarded on application. Those who have already received "Prizes and Proximes" may apply for a copy of "Maria Wuz."*

The prize for the best translation of the following passage from Simonides is awarded to "F. W. B."

Ὅτε λάρνακι ἐν δαιδαλέᾳ
ἀνεμος τέ μιν πνέων κινήθεισά τε λίμνα
δείματι ἤριπεν, οὐτ' ἀδιάνταισι παρειάς,
ἀμφί τε Περσεΐ βάλλε φίλαν χέρ', εἶπέ τ' ὦ τέκος,
οἶον ἔχω πόνον·
σὺ δ' ἄωτεις γαλαθνήνῳ τ' ἤτορι κνώσσεις ἐν ἀτερπέϊ
δοῦρατι χαλκεογόμφῳ

* "Maria Wuz and Lorenz Stark; or, English Prints of two German Originals," reprinted from the *Journal of Education*. Crown 8vo, price 4s. 6d. (Longmans.)

νυκτιλαμπῆ κυανέῳ τε δινόφῳ σταλαίς·
αἰάλαν δ' ὑπερθεν τεῶν κόμαν βαθείαν
παριόντος κύματος οὐκ ἀλέγεις,
οὐδ' ἀνέμου φθόγγων,
κείμενος ἐν πορφυρέᾳ χλανίδι, καλὸν πρόσωπον.
εἰ δέ τοι δεινὸν τό γε δεινὸν ἦν,
καὶ κεν ἐμῶν ῥημάτων λεπτὸν ὑπέιχες οὐδας.
κέλομαι δ' εὐδὲ βρέφος, εὐδέτω δὲ πόντος,
εὐδέτω δ' ἀμετρον κακόν·
μεταιβολία δέ τις φανείη, Ζεῦ πάτερ, ἐκ σέο
ὅτι δὲ θαρσαλέον ἔπος
εὐχομαι, τεκνόνφι δίκαν σὺγγνωθί μοι.

By F. W. B.

What time, in the dædal-fashioned ark, upon Danae
There fell the horror of blowing wind and of boisterous sea,
Her cheeks were wet as she flung her mother's arms with
a cry

Over her Perseus: "O my child, sore troubled am I!
But thou, with the heart of a child, in the brass-bound
comfortless hold

Liest asleep, where the light is as night, in the black night's
fold.

Over thy locks luxuriant washes the wave of the sea,
Yet are thy locks unwet, and little it troubles thee,
And little the wind's loud wailing troubles thee, lying hid,
Fair little face, in the folds of thy crimson coverlid.
Surely, if horror were horror to thee, if fear were fear,
Now to thy mother's lament thou hadst lent thine infant
ear.

Nay, sleep on, my babe, for I bid thee sleep! O sea,
Sleep! and sleep for a while my measureless misery!
Oh that some turn of fortune, some fairer turn to-day,
O Father Zeus, would arise from thy presence! And if I
pray
Presumptuously, forgive me, for the child's sake, what I
say.

By E. D. A. M.

What time in carven chest
Lorn Danae shook and shuddered into tears,
Hearing the moaning wind, the washing wave—
With loving arms she clasped child Perseus to her breast
"Ah, child—alas my doom!
Thou art a flower asleep the while—untouched by fears
Thine heart lies, cribbed in joyless brass-bound cell,
Twilight around thee, and the azure gloom.
Though o'er thy sheltered, young, abundant hair
Dashes the surge and the wind's voices rave,
Thou hast thereof no care
Sweet face! in purple robe enwound and slumbering well.
Ah, child, thou knowest not what thing is fear!
Else had my word thrilled thro' thy tender ear.
Now sleep my babe—sleep, Ocean! and, like thee,
Sleep sorrow's boundless sea.
O Father Zeus, from thee let fortune dawn more fair!
And if too bold my prayer,
For this child's sake forgive, whom unto thee I bare.

By J. R. (Harrow).

The day that round her carven coffer lowered
The roaring tempest and the angry spray,
With stricken heart and tearful cheek she cowered,
Fondling her little Perseus whom he lay;—
And thus her rueful lullaby she sang:—
O baby boy, what weary woe is mine!
But thou within thy brazen-bolted ark
Slumberest with ne'er a pang;—
Thy weanling wit all careless to repine
That skies are frowning, or thy dungeon dark.

Sunk in thy purple folds, what heed hast thou
Of piping winds aloft, or scouring sea,
That wets no hair of all thy bonny brow?
Nor ought of fear is fearsome unto thee:—
Else had my babe now hearkened to my moan;—
Sleep on, my pet; and sleep, ye waters loud,
And sleep, thou shoreless misery wide and wild.
Ah! Zeus, from thy great throne,
Some ray, some respite send: or, if too proud
My prayer,—respite, and hear me for thy child!

By MARTEL.

The voice of the wind is wailing,
And the spaces of sea are foam,
And with terror her spirit is failing,
In her cunningly-carven home;
And with dewdrops her soft cheeks glitter,
And her loving hands entwine
Round her boy, and her murmur is bitter—
"My darling, what sorrow is mine!"
Yet in slumber untroubled reposing,
Thy baby heart is light;
While about thee are cruelly closing
Blue mists of a murky night;
And our bronze-girt craft under-presses
The surge, as it joyless whirls,
And the wave washes over thy tresses,
Nor wets thy tangled curls.
Yet nought of the wave thou reckest,
And nought of the wind's distress,
Bnt with crimson coverlet deckest
Thy innocent loveliness.
Though, if terror had terror to move thee,
Then an ear were readily bent
To the labour of lips that love thee,
To the song of thy mother's lament.
Sleep on, then! A mother's devotion
Bids her darling slumber still;
Sleep, measureless spaces of ocean,
And slumber, limitless ill.
And, O Gods, let this trouble be ended,
Make morn of my night of despair.
And pardon, if I have offended,
For it is my darling's prayer.

We class the 144 versions received in the following order:—

First Class.—Proteus, Vannucchio, Nondum, R. Ivey, Asymptotes, Ousel, D.

Second Class.—Kerr, Corouach, Nn., Gk., Veritas, A. L. S., Coritains, Sigil, Patch, Bidge, Theta, J. P., J. E. A., Bonny, B. and M., Henrietta, Lillyblack, Vert-vert, J. T. G., Philellen, Hector, L. A. M., Hellas, Jip, Balliol, L. E. C., Pheres, L. J. S., Standard, M. L. B., Keios, Amyas, B. L. T., E. H. Q., Q. in the Corner, Lethe, E. S. M.

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Fifth Class.—E. J. Dnnlop, S. L. B., Kafir, Steeple, Corncrake, Lionel, Hope told, Combatant, Demeter, F. M. H., Thckla, B. A. D., Boo-Boo, Down, Denise, Morna, Meth, Brema, Chica, Antigonus, Kitty Clover, Vega, Cypher, Neo, Canada, Eryngo, M. F. W., Noon, Eanaceb, Egaplams Semaj, J. L. B.

Sixth Class.—Velox, Oudois, Mac, Rhodope, Union, Juvnis, H. B. G., A. G. H., Carol, Tagetes, Gänseblume, Trinity, Ascot, S. O., Doll, Swan, T. A. P., Sonue.

When I ventured on setting a Greek translation, I was prepared to see the entries reduced to tens, though I hoped to attract a chosen few. My hope has been realised, and my fears have proved idle. The First Class, it is true, is small, but all were worthy to be printed; and the very large Second Class shows how many have realized, and in some measure reproduced, the exquisite original.

This time, I have no positive blunders to record, save one that crept

into the given prize translation. For "calm heart," read "childish heart." Several adopted blank verse; many more heroic couplets. As I gave the choice of a translation or an adaptation, neither of these metres is absolutely debarred, and Kingsley's "Sappho," or Mr. Arnold's "Cadmus and Harmonia," might supply a model; but some lyric measure is obviously fitter, and, for choice, an irregular measure—Pindarics, as Cowley or Gray would have termed it.

Opinions will differ widely as to the respective merits of the versions we print, and many, doubtless, will put the last first; but it seems to me that the prettiness and polish, and even cadence, of "Martel's" lines are the farthest removed from the naked simplicity and the varied harmony of the Greek. Between the first three it was not easy to decide. In "J. R.'s" beautiful version, the "baby boy" and "bonny brow" offend me. Simonides is pathetic (Mr Symonds goes further, and gives as the note of his genius the pathos of romance), but he is not sentimental. "E. D. A. M.'s" is, on the whole, the most faultless copy, but I have followed the judgment of Paris. The inscription, "for the most fair," would certainly award it to "F. W. B." There are subtle harmonies in his rhythm which sound at first like discords; there are words and turns which have the ring of true poetry, and give back the charm of the original—a re-creation rather than a translation. If I may venture to criticize, I would hint that the influence of Morris is too apparent, and that "the dædal-fashioned ark" is an affectation of archaism.

In answer to several inquiries, I beg to state that I do not profess to classify names in order of individual merit.

"A. S.," the winner of the Translation Prize for last month, is Miss Arabella Shore, Taplow, Maidenhead. "Asymptotes," the winner of the Literary Puzzles, is Miss Jane Barlow, Raheny, co. Dublin.

The Prize for Literary Questions is awarded to "Maccabæus."

18 Maccabæus, 17 Macaulay, 15 F. P., 14 I. O., 13 S. A., 13 Mr. Bultitude, 12 Asymptotes, 11 Combination, 11 Canada, 11 Brian Borioimhe, 10 Monte, 10 Altes Haus, 9 Denise, 8 Nemo, 8 The Arabs, 8 The Twa Dogs, 7 Aethelwulf, 7 M. F. L. E., 6 L. P., 6 Castalamare, 5 Unsigned, 5 Lucile.

The figures indicate marks assigned.

ANSWERS TO LITERARY PUZZLES.

1. Lord Spencer and Lord Sandwich.
2. Cortes and Pizarro. From Macaulay's "Essay on Clive."
3. "While I, like the Mogul in Iudo,
Am never seen but in my window."—H. FIELDING.
"We studied hard in our styles,
Chipped each at a crust, like Hindoos;
For air, looked out on the tiles;
For fun, watched each other's windows."—R. BROWNING.
"All in doors and windows
Were open to me;
I saw all that sin does
Which lamps hardly see."—SHELLEY.

Also Kingsley and Butler's "Hudibras."

4. Montaigne. Parrots, and boys who write out Euclid without a diagram, do not know. "Le critérium de toute véritable science est la prévision.

5. "Nay, sir, don't you perceive that one link can't clank?"

6. "Nobles and heralds, by your leave,
Here lies what once was Matthew Prior,
The son of Adam and of Eve:—
Can Stuart or Nassau claim higher?"

"Here lies one whose name was writ in water."—KEATS.

"This is the philosopher's stone."—HOBBS.

"Philip Masseuger, a stranger."

Also the well-known auto-epitaphs of Swift, Franklin, Pirou.

7. Jenkins' ear.

8. (a) Clough's "Say not the struggle nought availeth"; (b) Marvell's "Thoughts in a Garden"; (c) Herrick's "Litany to the Holy Ghost."

9. "Dumosa pendere procul de rupe videbo." Ecl. i., 77.

"Quisque suos patimur manes." Æn. vi., 743.

10. Coleridge. From Wordsworth's "Stanzas written in my pocket copy of Thomson's 'Castle of Indolence.'"

A Prize of Two Guineas is offered for the best translation of the following passage from Théophile Gautier.

Il y a dans tout groupe une individualité pivotale, autour de laquelle les autres s'implantent et gravitent comme un système de planètes autour de leur astre.

Petrus Borel était cet astre; nul de nous n'essaya de se soustraire à cette attraction; dès qu'on était entré dans le tourbillon, on tournait avec une satisfaction singulière, comme si on eût accompli une loi de nature. On ressentait un peu de l'enivrement du derviche tourneur au milieu de sa fustanelle évasée en cloche par la rapidité de sa valse. . . .

C'était une de ces figures qu'on n'oublie plus, ne les eût-on aperçus qu'une fois. Ce jeune et sérieux visage, d'une régularité parfaite, olivâtre de peau, doré de légers tons d'ambre comme une peinture de maître qui s'agatise, était illuminé de grands yeux brillants et tristes, des yeux d'Abencérage pensant à Grenade. La meilleure épithète que nous puissions trouver pour ces yeux-là, c'est: exotique ou nostalgique. La bouche d'un rouge vif luisait comme une fleur sous la moustache et jetait une étincelle de vie dans ce masque d'une immobilité orientale. . . .

La présence de Petrus Borel produisait une impression indéfinissable dont nous finîmes par découvrir la cause. Il n'était pas contemporain; rien en lui ne rappelait l'homme moderne, et il semblait toujours venir du fond du passé, et on eût dit qu'il avait quitté ses aïeux la veille. Nous n'avons vu cette expression à personne; le croire Français, né dans ce siècle, eût été difficile. Espagnol, Arabe, Italien du quinzième siècle, à la bonne heure.

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The Journal of Education.

THE HEAD-MASTERS' CONFERENCE.

(Continued from page 11.)

Mr. PHILLPOTTS moved:

"That it is desirable to consider schemes for providing pensions, or superannuation allowances, for Assistant Masters."

Considering the lateness of the hour, he would move, instead of the Resolution that was down in his name, that a Committee be appointed to gather information on the subject. Some such provision was more necessary than ever, inasmuch as the profession was more crowded and there were more laymen in it. If something was not done, in thirty years time we should either find our schools clogged with obsolete sexagenarians, or else superannuated masters thrown upon the parish. For the schoolmaster himself there was, at present, no obvious method to exercise thrift. Assistant masters have a high sense of duty, and yet they find themselves bound to the ear when they are conscious that they are past work. The first point to decide was, Can the Governing Bodies give any help, or must the scheme be worked by the men themselves? In the Endowed Commissioners' Scheme, there was no provision for pensions; and under the old provisions at the Bedford Grammar School, the funds were so heavily taxed by retiring pensions, that working masters had often to forego part of their salaries. The ladies had already applied to the Charity Commissioners to get the restriction as to pensions removed, but had been refused. He held to the sound principle that we should do nothing to benefit the present at the expense of the future. The only way to secure a provision for old age, and for families after death, was by a system of drawbacks on salaries. The Indian Civil Service offered a close analogy. In 1825 the Company's Directors were shocked by the numerous cases of destitution among the families of Civil Servants, brought to their notice. The Bengal Civil Fund was started, contributions to which were optional for those already in the service, but obligatory for the future. Roughly speaking, members contributed yearly what would produce £500 a year after 20 years' service, and the government added the same amount. Of all professions the teacher's was perhaps the most exhausting, and most required a youthful spirit, if not youth. The feeling of his colleagues was strongly in favour of deferred pay, and many were in favour of making the insurance compulsory from the first. Though it was a question that ought to be met at once, he should be sorry to lay down rules. Existing insurance societies afforded some guidance. Of all societies known to him, the *Scottish Provident Association* gave the most advantages. It offered either deferred annuities not returnable in case of death, or assurance either at death, or on attaining the age of 55 or 60. Thus an annual premium of £8. 11s. 8d. from the age of 22, or of £13. 17s. 6d. from the age of 30, secured an annuity of £100 after the age of 60. An annual premium of £21. 7s. 6d. secured £1000 either at death, or on attaining the age of 60, whichever event may happen first. Another admirably managed society was the *Hand-in-Hand*. In starting a society for themselves, they would have many advantages. They were a large body with fixed domiciles, there would be security of payment, and if the system of drawbacks on salaries were adopted, there would be no cost of collecting payments.

The Rev. J. M. WILSON said that it was hopeless to attempt to discuss details, and, with Mr. Phillpotts' leave, he would move the formal resolution, "That the Committee be requested to report on the subject of pensions or superannuation funds for Assistant Masters, and be permitted to take professional advice on the subject at the expense of the Conference." They could not move in the matter without the advice of experts, and no money could be better spent. If when asked, What has the Head-masters' Conference done?

they could reply, "It has established scholarships for Local candidates, and has founded a system of retiring pensions for Assistant Masters," they would close the mouths of scoffers.

The motion was carried unanimously.

The Rev. A. R. VARDY moved:—

"That the Committee be instructed to press upon the Joint Examining Board the opinion of the Conference that, where such an arrangement is desired by the authorities of a School, Certificates should be awarded simply on the School Examination."

Though he would try to be as brief as possible, he must first digress in order to express his hope that, in moving this resolution, he should not seem unmindful of past benefits, of the willing co-operation of the Joint Board with the Head-masters, the courtesy with which they had listened to suggestions, and the ability of their secretaries. Two results had been attained by these examinations; First, a means had been provided of conducting school examinations without a suspicion of unfairness. One of the Governors of a school which he would not name, once said to the Head-master, "What an admirable report you have got this year! I suppose the examiner was a very old friend of yours." Such a gibe was now rendered impossible. Secondly, the school certificates had set men free from petty examinations at the Universities, and allowed them to pursue more important work. Had they then obtained all they wanted? They were confronted by the serious fact that several important schools, such as Rugby and the City of London, did not apply to the Joint Board for Examiners, and did not present boys for the Certificate. Again, many schools like Marlborough took the examinations only in alternate years. Others, again, who went in regularly, were conscious of inconveniences and difficulties. There was the old difficulty of time. At Birmingham, though they had regularly used the Certificate examination for the annual school examination, they would be unable to do so next year, as their summer holidays, which were fixed by the statutes, overlapped the time fixed by the Joint Board. Then, there was the difficulty of the time-table, a difficulty hardly felt in great boarding schools, where papers of any length could be set, or, if necessary, three papers in a day. But, in a day school, it was almost impossible to break through the regular arrangement of hours, and the examination came at a time of year when boys and masters were fagged and jaded with their work, and least able to endure the extra strain put upon them. Thirdly, the standard fixed for the Certificate examination was not always fitted for the school examination. Dr. Ridding, at Marlborough, pointed out that the papers were so easy, that they wholly failed to discriminate the merits of his best boys. Fourthly, some of the Board's regulations with respect to subjects and the order in which they were to be taken, introduced difficulties in the school curriculum. For instance, in the Mathematical examination of the Board, Statics were put far too early. All these difficulties were caused by the departure of the Board from the intention of the Head-masters who asked for the examination eleven years ago. The Head-masters had asked for one examination that should serve at once for testing the sixth form, and for granting certificates. They had never contemplated a separate examination for certificates. This principle had been laid down in their first petition to the Universities, and clearly confirmed at the Birmingham, Dulwich, and Marlborough Conferences. Could they not take a step backwards, which would be also a step in advance? He was sure that the members of the Board would be anxious to meet their views.

The Rev. E. C. WICKHAM seconded the resolution. The theory of the Board seemed to be, that if they did not have the same papers set at the same time in the various schools examined, a diversity of standard must result which would be fatal to the scheme. He held, on the contrary, that if the Board examiners were instructed not to award the certificate to any who were not well up to the "Little-go" standard, they would secure their object. At present the examination was contrived a double debt to pay. It served at once for a general sixth-form examination, which ought to be an examination in school subjects, and as a substitute for the "Little-go." In fact, it was neither one nor the other. It did not adequately test the sixth form, and it was too high for a simple pass examination.

Dr. ABBOTT said that he had not used, and did not intend to use, the Certificate examination; but, from certain details that had come to his knowledge—Indicous mistakes that had been made by pupils who had yet passed the Little-go—he believed that the standard of the Certificate examination, even for a pass, was far higher than that of the Little-go or of Responses.

The Rev. J. M. WILSON wished to ask a question. Was it not intended that those who had obtained a certificate should be

exempted from the University fees for the examination from which they were thereby exempted? At present they had to pay double toll. This seemed to him an extortion against which they ought to protest.

The resolution was then put, and carried unanimously.

The Rev. E. C. WICKHAM moved:—

"That the Committee be instructed to draw the special attention of the Joint Board to the inconvenience of the present regulations for examining in History."

Those who had followed the regulations of the Board as to History, would see that they were changed from year to year, which change was in itself an evil. The requirements of the Board were reasonable enough when considered separately, but when taken together they were impracticable, and stamped out the study of Modern History. The first regulation demanded an outline and a special period, and by last year's rules the special period must be within the dates of the outline period. Secondly, the length of the outline period had been immensely increased. Last year, it was from 1485—1820 for Modern History. Thirdly, there was the character of the papers set. The paper of last year on "Outlines" might without impropriety have been set in the Final History Schools at Oxford. It had been his habit, at Wellington College, to take Ancient History for the Outlines, and Modern History for the Special period. The distinctions gained in this course had been few and far between. Last year he had taken Ancient History for both "Special" and "Outlines," and had gained a shower of distinctions. He found the perusal of a simple manual quite enough to satisfy the examiner in Ancient History, whereas on Modern History, though the reading had been much wider, the examiner had given him a very bad report.

The Rev. O. W. TANCOCK said that, when he himself passed in History, the Outline period had been from the Norman Conquest to Henry VIII., whereas last year it was from the beginning of English History to the same date—at least a third more—and the papers set were in his judgment at least 75 per cent. harder. This was a serious grievance, as the time devoted to Modern History could not be enlarged. He called attention to the difference between the report of the examiners and the award of certificates. Last year he sent in 10 boys for certificates. In Divinity, to which not much preparation had been given, there were 9 passes. In History, a subject which he taught himself, there were 6 passes. The Divinity examiner reported, "One boy did extremely well, the rest poorly." The History Examiner, "No boy can be said to have failed, I consider that the school compares very well with any school with which I am acquainted." Here was an obvious inconsistency, the more unaccountable seeing that the proportion of marks gained in either subject was almost identical. Every master he had consulted agreed with Mr. Wickham, that a small manual of Ancient History was sufficient for a pass, while for Modern History far more was required.

Dr. JAMES complained that the time allowed for the Special paper was longer than that allowed for the Outlines. The times ought to be reversed. Again, examiners should be instructed to mark for the whole paper, and not for individual questions. At the last examination, far the ablest pupil he had ever had in History did not get a distinction. The examiner reported that he had done far the best in the form, and assigned him 80 marks out of 100 for school purposes, but only 50 for the Certificate. This was absurd. To insist on the "Special" and the "Outlines" being taken from the same period, was a disastrous arrangement.

The Rev. E. W. SOUTH complained of the length of the History paper.

The resolution was carried unanimously.

The Rev. G. C. BELL brought forward the subject of the Finsbury Training College. Not wishing to tax their patience, he would briefly remind them that no question had been so long before the Conference, and on none had there been such *apparent* unanimity as on the training of teachers. In 1871, the Conference had affirmed the principle of training, and since then they had constantly been hammering that nail without driving it very far home. So far, the outcome had been three-fold. 1. The University of Cambridge had instituted the Certificate for Teachers. 2. Lectures on Teaching had been instituted both at Cambridge and in London, but many of them were inclined to think that theoretical knowledge, unless combined with practice, profited little. 3. There was the Finsbury Training College now about to be opened under very favourable auspices, and he hoped that the Conference would look on it as, in a special sense, their child. For their Principal they had appointed Mr. H. Courthope Bowen, a schoolmaster of large experience, whose name would be known to most by his thoughtful papers in the

Journal of Education. As a Practising School they had secured, by the good offices of the Rev. William Rogers and Dr. Wormell, the Cowper Street schools. These excellent schools, numbering 1,100 pupils, would supply an ample field of experience. The immediate prospects of the College were fair, if not brilliant. About forty inquiries from intending students had been received, and Mr. Bowen told him that he hoped to start in January with from six to ten students. Mr. Bowen himself was not anxious to begin with a large number till all the arrangements were in working order. As to the finances of the College, at a public meeting held in May, the Committee stated that they considered £1000 the least sum with which they could safely embark. Of this, only £450 had been promised. The financial condition of the College was not yet assured, and he invited donations from Head-masters (and Assistant Masters) as a gauge of their earnestness in support of the movement. One other point deserved their attention. The question of training had provoked a certain amount of controversy, and they had all read with interest the pamphlets, articles, and letters, that it had called forth. If they would now look at the list of the Council, they would find that the lion had lain down with the lamb,—that Dr. Ridding, Mr. James Ward, and Mr. Browning were combined to give the College their moral and material support. To flourish, the College needed not only money, but moral support, and this Head-masters could give by showing preference to students educated at the College in their appointment of Assistants.

Mr. EVE pressed the financial point of view. From the experience of the Bishopsgate College, it was clear that they would at first be obliged to attract students by offering some scholarships. These scholarships, together with the salary of the Principal, would require £1,000 and something more.

In answer to Mr. ROWE, Mr. BELL said that he did not think it at present advisable that the Committee should ascertain which Head-masters would consider the claims of Finsbury students in making appointments, but the Committee would welcome such assurance from individual masters.

Dr. BUTLER said,—I have been asked by the Chairman of Committee to discharge an office which could not have been committed to me by our Chairman, because it has an obvious target, and that target is himself. All who were present yesterday in this theatre, in the library, in the galleries of the College, must have been moved by the deepest personal feeling of satisfaction at all they had seen, heard, and I may say, imbibed. The institution in which we have been welcomed is one whose prosperity is amply secured. It has been so far untrue to its motto ("Paulatim"), which I see inscribed on these walls, that, instead of growing by degrees, it has advanced by giant strides, and promises to become one of the greatest of our secondary schools. Of Mr. EVE himself, I know there can be only one feeling as regards the kindness with which he has welcomed his guests, and the ability, firmness, and discrimination with which he has discharged his duties as chairman. To his chairmanship, as well as to the admirable self-control which of course each one of ourselves invariably displays, we may attribute the moderation which has marked this Conference, the pleasant warmth of debate without heat, the differences of opinion without disagreement. We owe, too, our thanks to the College Council, who have placed at our disposal this theatre and the beautiful rooms of the College. I should be sorry to strike one discordant note, but if I might for one moment quit my own personality, and hold a brief as an *advocatus diaboli*, I should like, in a quasi-hypothetical manner, to express a misgiving that crossed my mind last night, in consequence of the magnificent manner in which we have been received. I could not help asking myself why we met at these Conferences, and I think that many would answer with me, "We desire not only to take common counsel as to common dangers and general improvements, but still more we embrace an opportunity of seeing much of one another personally, and discussing together our private concerns." And the more the Conference has seen the danger of becoming too executive, the more it has welcomed the occasion of private deliberation. Therefore, I advise the Conference, for once, to look a gift horse in the mouth, that it may not lose sight of that great advantage. If, indeed, we regard only the advantage of others, it bewilders my imagination to conceive, and my sense of modesty to determine, the extent of the beneficial influence that we diffused among the distinguished guests whom we met last night; but I hope I shall not seem discourteous if I say, that I had a sense of missed opportunities, of the lack of the counsel given and taken in privacy. I apologize for striking this discordant note. It does not in the least impair the cordiality with which we all thank Mr. EVE for his reception of the Conference.

Mr. EVE said that, if he might be allowed to recall his youthful

ambitions, two of the three chiefest had been gratified to-day. The first was to be offered a mastership at Rugby, the second that he might for a few hours occupy a leading position among his fellow masters, the third that he should in some way or other obtain the approbation of Dr. Butler. He would add one word about the school. University College belonged neither to the great Tudor era, nor to the Victorian renaissance, but was founded just before the passing of the Reform Bill, and it had always carried with it the principles that were uppermost at that epoch. They had followed the three principles which were laid down by his predecessor Dr. Key, the widening of the course of studies, absolute religious equality, and the minimizing of punishments.

The proceedings were concluded by a voto of thanks to the Assistant Masters proposed by Dr. Abbott.

The Conference accepted Mr. Young's invitation, and will meet at Sherborne in 1884.

JOTTINGS.

HER Majesty has granted a pension of £200 a year to the widow of Professor Palmer, and it is understood that the Admiralty intend to provide for the education of his young family, in recognition of his public services.

MR. WALTER BESANT writes:—"I have undertaken to write a biography of the late Prof. Palmer. I shall be extremely grateful for any letters or information which may be of help in making the memoir more complete. Any letters which may be entrusted to me will be treated with the greatest care. Mr. Besant's address is—The United Universities Club, Suffolk Street, Pall Mall.

THE demand for Rossetti's last published volume is as brisk as ever. Baron Tauchnitz has just issued a reprint of the book. Prefixed to it are a memoir of Rossetti, and a critique of his work, both as a painter and as a poet, by Mr. F. Hueffer. The critique is perhaps the most searching and acute that has yet appeared upon Rossetti, and it is certainly the most honest and outspoken. Mr. Hueffer is of opinion that it is as the inventor of a form of the romantic ballad (unique in many of its qualities), that Rossetti will take a permanent place in the hierarchy of English poetry. "In them there is nothing of that sham mediævalism which depends for its chief effect upon a few archaisms of metre and diction." In the sonnets, however, "the dramatic motive no longer exists. The poet is supposed to utter his individual feelings, and our faith in the genuineness of those feelings is somewhat severely shaken if we find that they are clad in archaic terms, and reiterated symbolisms of Love, Hope, Fate, &c., entirely removed from the simplicity of modern diction,—in a mode of expression, in short, which a poet of Dante's age might have used if he had been able to read Shakespeare. It may be readily admitted that, by means of the language thus created, Rossetti achieved rare effects of sonorous beauty and of word colour, if the terms be permissible. But the stream of pure lyrical feeling does not run in artificial channels. It is for this, amongst other reasons, that the present writer cannot concur in the general opinion that, on his sonnets, Rossetti's claims to immortality must mainly rest."

In answer to this, it may be said, that if—as, judging from Italian models, seems to be the case—the original *raison d'être* of the sonnet was a form for the rendering of emotion after it had passed into the monumental stage, the simplicity of Milton and Wordsworth is an English innovation.—*Athenæum*.

A NEW edition of Liddell & Scott's Greek Lexicon will be issued almost immediately by the Clarendon Press. This edition, which is the seventh, has been carefully revised throughout, with the co-operation of many distinguished scholars, including Principal Gildersleeve, of Baltimore, and Prof. Goodwin, of Cambridge, U.S.

MR. GEORGE BENNETT, late Head-master of the High School, Plymouth, has been appointed by the Clothworkers' Company to the Head-mastership of their School at Sutton Valence. We understand that the choice lay between Mr. Bennett and Mr. Bampfyde, of Merchant Taylors' School.

THE Froebel Society have started a journal of their own—a penny sheet of eight pages. The first number contains a preface by Miss Shirreff, and an article by Mr. Oscar Browning.

To all interested in Art, and to drawing masters and Art students in particular, we heartily commend the *Year's Art*, now in its fourth year of publication. It is a model of full, exact, and methodically tabulated information.

NOTICES.

The Mechanism of the Human Voice. By EMIL BEHNKE. 3rd Edition. (Curwen & Sons. 1882.)

The teaching of singing and the training of the voice have been so generally connected with the wildest hobbies and the most ingrained superstitions, that it is quite refreshing to meet with an author who treats the whole subject consistently as one to which the ordinary methods of science will apply. Mr. Behnke has given, within the compass of little more than a hundred pages, a most thorough account of the human voice from a physiological point of view; and he has done this in a manner so clear and so graphic as to be intelligible even to the reader who has no special acquaintance with physiology or anatomy. For most of the scientific terms, he has substituted plain English terms, and this is, for his purpose, a distinct gain. But it is in the chapter on the differences in the larynx of men, women, and children, and especially in those on the teachings of the laryngoscope, that this book contrasts favourably with others of a pseudo-scientific character,—like, for instance, that of Mr. Lunn, whose crudities would seem almost beneath the notice of a serious writer like Mr. Behnke, were it not that they are perhaps but a fair sample of much writing of the same kind. As an appendix to this (third) edition, the author has given some practical hints for singers and speakers. Like the rest of the book, this chapter is written in a very clear style. There is no mistaking his meaning, or his description of things; yet, as he owns himself, such hints must necessarily treat of typical and general cases only. The defects and impediments in the proper production of voice are often very complicated, and require great caution in the treatment; we have only this fault to find with the book, that in several instances it leaves the reader longing for more full information. A comprehensive hand-book on the voice and its treatment, on the plan of the present volume, is still a desideratum, which, judging from his masterly exposition of the subject within the somewhat narrow limits of this book, could not be undertaken by one more competent than our author, who combines the accurate method of a scientist with the skill of a sound musician. Meanwhile, we are doubly content with the present instalment. No one who has to make the best of his voice, either in singing or in speaking, will lay this book aside unbenefited or uninterested.

The Child's First German Course; being, at the same time, a Treatise on German Pronunciation. By E. SCHINZEL. (Williams & Norgate. 1882.)

The pronunciation of German is not so difficult for Englishmen as that of French; yet even between German and English there are some slight shades of difference in what one might call the timbre of the same vowels, which only few learners of either language entirely succeed in mastering. Some of these are very minute, and almost defy analysis, but others are less indefinable, and afford plenty of scope for the exercise of ingenious representation by writers of books like the present. On the whole, Herr Schinzel has given a fair phonetic account of the German vowels and consonants, but, in the comparison between the German *long* and *short a* he has gone wrong. "A long," he says, "sounds like the English *a* in *far* or *father*; a short like that in *hart*." The words *long* and *short*, as applied to vowels, have been a pitfall to him, as to many other writers on this subject. They are used in two different senses, and hence cause a great deal of confusion. With some vowels, *long* and *short* simply mean the identical sound drawled or cut short, as, e.g., with the long and short *u* in *fool* and *full*. But, in others, not only is the length of the breath spent on it altered, but the short vowel is of a different timbre to the corresponding long one. This is the case in the English long and short *a*, as also in the German. The *a* in *hart*, and in *far*, however, are identically the same as regards timbre. Really, the *a* in *hart* is not a short *a* at all. Had the author only stuck entirely and solely to his own footnote, where he compares the German short *a* to the Scotch as pronounced in *hammer*, he would have been much nearer the mark. Similar objections might be raised against his treatment of the German *au*, which is not exactly equal to the English *ou* in *round*, and of the *ch* after *e*, *i*, *ä*, &c., which, in spite of his assertion to the contrary, remains a guttural, although of a different nature from the *ch* after *a*, *o*, and *au*. To apply the rules on pronunciation, the book contains sixty-six long non-graduated German, and an equal number of English exercises. To those who believe that so much time and trouble is not wasted on learning the pronunciation of the German vowels and consonants, we can recommend the book.

Colloquial Exercises in French Grammar. Specially adapted to facilitate Vivâ-voce Work. By HANBY CRUMP. (Dulau & Co. 1882.)

The writer of this book is evidently a practical teacher, and, as such, he has been struggling in class with the difficulty of correcting exercises. "If they are corrected privately," he says, "the chances are, that the corrections will not be seen, or at any rate understood, by the pupils; if corrected separately, in class, the whole time is absorbed." The first proposition is, no doubt, true, and few teachers, now-a-days, take home their pupils' exercises, carefully correct them, and return them, in the fond belief that much more will be read by the pupils than the number of mistakes. But is the second—the correction separately, in class—the only other alternative? From personal and other experience, we have no hesitation in saying, no. Most teachers, that value the solid basis afforded by the writing of exercises for an accurate knowledge of a foreign language, have hit upon some plan, which secures the greatest amount of attention on the part of the pupils in the smallest possible time. But, waiving any further discussion about the exact *raison d'être* of the book, we think many teachers of French will find it useful, as containing a very good set of Examination Papers, to be used as a companion to a regular grammar and course of exercises. The colloquial exercises, too, are very good, methodically arranged, and covering a great many idioms. The English of these exercises is, generally, the exact equivalent of the French. Instances like *Pour que j'en fasse venir*, which is translated by *That I may get some*, are rare.

Elements of French Composition. By V. KASTNER, M.A. (Hachette & Co. 1883.)

The three Parts of which this manual is composed may be described by the three degrees of comparison,—good, better, best. The First Part is a short French syntax. The rules are short, and the points emphasized by differences of type. Occasionally, there is a want of accuracy and logical precision. "When [in English] the Comparative is used instead of the Superlative, in speaking of two persons or things, that construction is a relic of the dual number," conveys to us no glimmering of sense. "When we say, *a vase of bronze*, the Noun *bronze* abdicates, so to speak, his substantival nature, to play the part of an adjective qualifying the word *vase*,"—an obvious confusion between *a vase of bronze* and *a bronze vase*. "Some *Neuter Verbs* are conjugated with the auxiliary *avoir* instead of *être*, such as *aller venir*, &c.," must be a misprint. "The Indicative Mood expresses *certainty*, the Subjunctive mere *contingency* or *possibility*," is an untenable thesis, which can lead only to confusion. The Second Part consists of short sentences illustrative of the rules. These are well chosen, though the matter is not interesting, and we notice a few Gallicisms. The Third Part contains easy pieces for French prose. These are interesting, carefully graduated, and accompanied by a complete vocabulary. For the sake of this Third Part, we recommend the book to the attention of French masters.

Elements of Physical Geography. By W. LAWSON. With Examination Papers. Ninth Edition. (Oliver & Boyd. 1882.)

For a simple and clear account of the chief subjects that come under the somewhat vague appellation Physical Geography, this little book can be highly commended. The eight editions through which it has already run fully confirm our estimate. There is, however, an inequality between some of the chapters which almost seems the necessary result of the heterogeneous nature of the subject. Few men are, at the same time, astronomers, naturalists, and ethnologists, and these are the least number of qualifications required to write authori-

tatively on Physical Geography. It is, therefore, no matter of surprise that the last chapter on Ethnology is not quite abreast of the latest conclusions of science. The chapters on the astronomical part are the least satisfactory in the book. Now and then, the writer explains difficulties by other difficulties not yet referred to. For instance, the greater heat of summer is rightly explained by the sun's higher position in the sky, and by the greater length of the days. Now, this higher position of the sun in the sky is simply accounted for by his apparent movement within the tropics,—a statement which, without further explanation, is confusing in the extreme. The chapters on the natural phenomena on and round the earth are entirely free from this blemish, and decidedly the best in the book.

Science in a Nutshell. By ALEXANDER WATT. (W. & A. K. Johnston. 1882.)

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VI. No personal canvass of the Governors will be permitted.

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Birmingham, 27th December, 1882. 120

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The Journal of Education,

96 FARRINGTON STREET, LONDON, E.C.

CONGRESS OF FRENCH TEACHERS IN
ENGLAND.

THE Second Annual Congress of French Teachers was held on Jan. the 4th, 5th, and 6th, under the presidency of M. Laroche. The place of meeting, the first day, was Merchant Taylors' School, where the chair was taken by the Count d'Anunay for M. Tissot, the French Ambassador, who had been prevented from attending through illness.

M. DUPUIS, as Secretary, began by reading the report of the meetings of the Executive during the last year. The only important change in the constitution of the Society had been the admission of Governesses and Lady Teachers as members, who, consequently, were more largely represented at this and the subsequent meetings. He also read a letter from M. de Lesseps, expressing sympathy with the objects of the Society. The first speaker, M. JULES BUE, opened his discourse by referring to the deaths of two distinguished compatriots, M. Louis Blanc and M. Gambetta. The Honorary Committee of the Society, which had hitherto consisted exclusively of French members, had been strengthened by the addition of several eminent English members, who had shown an interest in its welfare. The Society's Journal, edited by M. Hamonet, had now been in existence for seven months. He would recommend it to the attention of all the members as the most effective means of furthering the success and progress of their brotherhood.

M. HAMONET read a lengthy paper on the teaching of French in its direct and indirect results. Among the more indirect results of better organised teaching of the French language and literature, would be that of resisting more effectually the spirit of Germanism, which seemed to be spreading so rapidly. There would also be wanted more French teachers in many schools, where, at present, their number was too small compared with that of other masters. Many teachers were incompetent, and taught on bad and antiquated methods, which should be replaced by the natural and logical methods, to explain which there was on this occasion no time. The chief practical points he urged were:—(1) That English should be made the basis of the study of French, so that pupils might have a tolerable knowledge of grammar before beginning French; (2) that in order to discipline the memory and to give greater facility in speaking French, pupils should read aloud and recite choice passages of prose and verse, as well as of comedies of approved morality; (3) that French history should be entrusted to the French master, so as to give him an additional subject for conversational exercises; (4) that

six hours a week should be the minimum devoted to French, of which half should be occupied in oral exercises on orthography, rules of grammar, blackboard demonstrations, &c.; (5) that an end be put to written exercises, and that the grammar be taught by means of the language, and not the language by means of the grammar; (6) that in the competitive examinations a larger proportion of marks be allotted to conversation.

M. G. PETILLEAU then read a paper which dealt chiefly with the questions of conversation and of the nature of the French examination papers. To him these papers, and notably those of the Cambridge and Oxford Local Examinations, seemed utterly unfit as a practical test of a knowledge of French. Too many questions in them dealt exclusively with old French, and several that had come under his notice would fairly puzzle a Membre de l'Institut. Partly this arose from the fact that Englishmen and Germans were often appointed as examiners in French. With Demogeot as a guide, these gentlemen often set papers entirely beyond what could reasonably be expected of lads of eighteen years of age. For all the examinations, dictation, conversation, and grammar ought to have a far greater share. The two great difficulties under which French teachers laboured at present, were the small number of hours set down for French in most schools, and the incompetent brethren of the guild, who ought to be couriers, valets, etc.

At the close of the meeting a discussion took place as to the hours question, some agreeing with M. Hamonet, that nothing less than six hours a week could ensure efficient results in French, whilst others merely wished to ask for an increase on the present hours. The meeting closed with a vote of thanks to the authorities at Merchant Taylors' School for their kindness in granting the use of the hall.

The following day the place of meeting was St. Paul's School. M. BLANCHARD DE FARGES, French Consul in London, took the chair, and opened the meeting with a short address. He pointed out the great value of a knowledge of the French language and literature to Englishmen, with regard to the commercial relations between England and France, but for these very reasons he would recommend the rapidly increasing French colony in London to study English; as a want of a sufficient knowledge of the language, and through it of the customs and usages of this country, often placed his compatriots at a great disadvantage.

After M. DE JOANNIS had read the minutes of the meeting of the previous day, M. TALON referred to a statement which had been circulated in some English papers, reflecting on the morality of the masters in the French lycées. He was happy to say their colleagues in France had found an able vindicator in the Vice-admiral Maxse, who also had kindly given his support to the present Society. Madame HAMONET then read a paper on "French Governesses in Private Families and in Schools in England." She drew a picture of their hard lot, which she attributed to causes partly within and partly beyond their control. In families there was often an utter want of sympathy on the part of the parents, who frequently left to the French governess the entire charge of their children. In schools, the hours of work were unduly long, and the remuneration excessively small. The anomaly of their present position was in a certain measure due to their not being properly qualified as teachers, for many had had no other training than that of the workshop. M. BLOUET read a paper on Colloquial French. Without requiring pupils to speak French with a faultless accent, he maintained that, with the necessary trouble on the part of the teacher, excellent results may be obtained. His own experience was, that English boys could be made to speak French with sufficient fluency, if their natural repugnance to converse in any other language but their own, had first been overcome. He strongly advocated that, as soon as the pupil had gained a sufficient familiarity with French to understand his teacher, the latter should speak to him exclusively in French.

M. BARLET followed up these remarks in his own paper, in which he contended that, if conversational French had hitherto been a failure in most schools, the blame was not to be laid on the teachers, but on the system according to which they had to work. The scholastic programme in England was the root of the evil, and needed reform. In trying to bring about a better state of things, he recommended his colleagues to endeavour to influence public opinion in their favour, but by means which might bend, not break it. Already many movements were tending in their direction. The classics were gradually losing ground in the school-curriculum, and, with three or four more hours given to French, a teacher who used patience and perseverance, might accomplish much. In order to obtain any appreciable results in Colloquial French from the higher forms, he deemed it absolutely necessary that the teacher should begin to lay a good foundation in

the lowest forms, which were so often neglected in this respect. He also agreed that it was best for the Congress not to recommend any particular method of teaching, so as to preserve the individuality of each master. Above all, French teachers must know and speak English well.

A vote of thanks was then proposed by M. Blouet to the Governors and Head-masters of St. Paul's School, for placing the school-building at the disposal of the Congress.

The place of meeting on the last day was the Society of Arts, Adelphi. M. JULES BUÉ, the newly-elected President for the ensuing year, occupied the chair, and addressed the members on the position and progress of the Society. Looking back upon the status of the French master, as he found it 35 years ago, when he commenced to teach, he felt satisfied that it had been greatly improved, and that their Society would be the means of gradually raising it to its true standard. It had already made much progress and done much good work. He believed it would in time become a counterpart of the French Academy, and none would be considered qualified as teachers but its members. M. G. PETILLEAU moved that a joint committee of members of this Society, and of the Scientific and Literary Sections of the *Société Nationale Française* should appoint a committee to consider the practicability of founding in England, with the concurrence of the French Minister of Public Instruction, a *Lycée* or French College, in which students should receive a course of instruction, combining the advantages of a French *Lycée* with those of an English public school. M. HAMONET referred to the sum of money at the disposal of the Charity Commissioners for supporting a school for the children of French residents in London. Such a school had been in existence, but six years ago it had been discontinued.

The Congress was brought to a close by the reading of the resolutions carried during its sitting, and adjourned till next year.

ON THE EMPLOYMENT OF COINS AND MEDALS IN TEACHING ENGLISH HISTORY.

By S. T. PRIDEAUX.

ONE of the most marked improvements in modern education is the recognition of the principle that the eye should be enlisted in the service of learning—that the power of observation should be used as much as possible to assist the mind in the registration of knowledge. No doubt, this is one of the many indirect services rendered us by the advance of natural science. For, in most of the physical sciences, the retention of the vast store of facts necessary for purposes of generalization is only made possible by the help given to the memory in bringing a large proportion of those facts under actual observation.

It rested with the German nation, eminently practical in all that concerns education, to apply this principle to other branches of instruction than the scientific, and in the familiar though too often perverted object lesson, we have the application of it to the most elementary teaching. It is now an acknowledged fact that, by appealing to the senses, we can take off much of the mental strain which the child necessarily endures to whom knowledge is imparted in an abstract way without reference to the concrete side, which is for the young, after all, the only real side. Form and colour and size, the properties of plants and animals, and the changes of structure in the organic and inorganic worlds are all made real and objective through illustrations from nature herself, and we are content to leave the ideas connected with these facts, and their correlations, until the development of the child's powers admits of abstract conceptions.

It is merely for an extension of the application of this recognized principle to History that we are about to plead. When we pass from the Kindergarten to the High Schools and Middle Class Schools and Public Schools, the principle itself seems to be lost sight of, always excepting the department of Natural Science, in which it has a recognized and uncontroverted position.

But, in the teaching of Classics, for example, there is much that might be done in the way of illustrating objectively the different archaeological allusions with which the Greek and

Latin writers abound; and, were the necessity of such illustration once acknowledged, it would be no more difficult to have a classical museum, than it is to have a natural history museum—a room or even a cabinet which should contain models of the objects of domestic use, of the implements, arms, money, the names of which are to be met with in the ordinary school classics, and show the construction of houses, temples, ships, and the like. Many a boy goes through his school course without any conception of the appearance of the things he is daily reading about, and thus the way of life of the nations to whom modern civilisation owes so much is a complete unreality. Now, however, that Classical Archæology has become a possible part of the University course, we may hope to see a second Renaissance, an attempt to make the classical world live again in our Public Schools, and its art and literature become mutually explanatory.

But it is the application of the principle recognised in the object-lessons, to the teaching of History that we are concerned with just now, and to the possibility that exists of introducing it to a limited extent by the use of Coins and Medals.

Some time since, it occurred to Mr. R. S. Poole of the British Museum—with a view to making the Department of Coins and Medals more profitable to the public—to issue guides to the different series, beginning with the select Greek and Roman Coins, exhibited in electrotype, and always accessible, though not hitherto of much practical use from the lack of any such handbook reasonable in size and price. In working through the collections with these guides, in which an historical classification is followed, the thought occurs at once, why are coins not recognised as a part of the necessary stock-in-trade of schools, instrumental as they may be made in the illustration of mythology and of the most important political revolutions in the numerous states and cities of the ancient world, and in giving a reality to both ancient and modern history.

First, then, of Greek Coins, it is not too much to say that to the mythology, history, and geography of the Greek nation they may be made an important auxiliary. The gods and heroes of Greek religion, as they were conceived of in different localities, are represented with their attributes and symbols, and a familiar acquaintance with these alone will do much to explain allusions to their worship. They are of the most frequent occurrence on the money of a place where the cult of a particular god had its chief seat, or one of its many seats, such as that of Nike at Neapolis, Apollo at Clazomenæ, Artemis at Ephesus, Aphrodite at Cyprus and Sicyon, Demeter at Messenia, and Pan in Arcadia. Cities, too, and districts like Phaselis, Lycia, Metapontum, Eubœa, Thessaly, having some special characteristic, are represented on their money by a symbol recalling the special feature that has made them famous.

Nearly all the important legends, such as those of Io, Herakles, Bellerophon, the Minotaur, and the like, are to be found on the coins of the districts with which the heroes were connected.

As regards the representation of definite historic events, we have the leagues of Acarnania, Ætolia, Chalcis, Bœotia, Achæa, and others, the Amphictyonic Councils, naval victories, and national games, while the continuity of Syracuse may be traced throughout her coinage. As an aid to Geography they impress the names, and often in an indirect manner the position, of towns.

Turning to Rome, Latin coinage is perhaps historically more interesting than that of Greece, though of less general importance. Its earliest attempts represent of course the fabulous origin of Rome, and a few legends connected with the mythical period of its government, but it is when we come to the spread of the Roman power in the last century B.C., with its victorious generalship and long line of Cæsars, that the coinage becomes of most interest and importance.

The Roman emperors alone represent an extensive and realistic gallery of portraits, and many of their great leaders were honoured in a similar way after any striking military successes.

Passing on to Modern History, the French and Italian medals have less historic than artistic importance, and this is especially true of the latter, though the Age of Despots, and later on the joint rule of Naples and the Church over Italy, receive ample illustration in a series of remarkable portraits, such as those of the Medici, Storzias, and other heads of princely houses, and an almost complete series of the Popes. On the other hand, in Dutch and English medals the artistic interest is exceedingly small when compared with the historic. For a period of 300 years, from the 15th to the 18th centuries, the history of England in its most important features is to be found on her medals, to which a personal interest is often given by the portraits of sovereigns and of the leading men of the time.

The reign of Elizabeth afforded ample material for the medallist in her struggle with the Church and her policy with regard to the Netherlands and Spain. The period of the Civil War, again, is rich in the production of medals, the Parliamentary series succeeding to the Royalist with the establishment of the Commonwealth. Then came those of the Restoration, and this event, together with the accession of William and Mary, gave rise to a larger number of medals than any other throughout the history of England.

The connection of this country with Holland has always been a fertile subject with both Dutch and English medallists, so that the gaps that occur in the English series may often be filled up from that of Holland.

The stormy events of the reigns of the Stuarts, the Gunpowder Plot, the alliance of England, France, and the United Provinces, the Civil War, the relationship of State and Church, the Trial of the Seven Bishops, the flight of James II., and many others, are all represented. To this period, too, belong mostly the touch-pieces, which, originating in the reign of Edward the Confessor, and prevailing largely in the days of Elizabeth, had been discontinued by Cromwell and revived again by the Stuarts, the Pretenders claiming the power of healing disease.

Of the whole English series the most numerous and complete are the medals that belong to the reigns of William and Mary and Anne, while those of the House of Hanover are the least so. For, as England and Holland ceased to be closely connected, the Dutch artists ceased to make medals for England. Nevertheless the chief events of importance are chronicled throughout the 18th century. The Society for the Promotion of Arts and Commerce issued a series commemorating the conquest of Canada and the establishment of the Indian empire, and the East India Company's Service Medals perpetuate the help given to England in her efforts for the security of India by native troops.

But enough has been said to show what an important aid in the development of historical interest has hitherto been neglected in these series of coins and medals which, as regards the ancient world, throw light on the complex organisation of a country whose religion, hero-traditions, social and political history are inextricably blended, and, as regards the modern world, impress the mind with a reality that nothing else can of the idea of national continuity. There remains only to be added, that the handbooks to the different series are to be had at the British Museum, price 6*d.* each, and that Mr. Ready, Electrotypist of the British Museum, supplies complete sets of coins for the use of schools.

FLORIMEL: A FRAGMENT.

(Continued from p. 24.)

"I feel almost at times as I have felt
In happy childhood; trees, and flowers, and brooks,
Which do remember me of where I dwelt
Ere my young mind was sacrificed to books,
Come as of yore upon me, and can melt
My heart with recognition of their looks."—BYRON.

THIS third letter of X— came as an explanatory postscript to that last printed. However, as will be seen, the post-

script is longer than the letter, and soon it passes into the same vein and manner it attempts to apologise for in the beginning.

"I closed my letter and tried to sleep. But sleep was impossible. Curiosity kept my eyes obstinately open. While scribbling to you of this mysterious woman, I had almost forgotten to wonder about her. There is something soothing to me at all times in the mere mechanical act of writing; and when, as to-night, my theme is so entirely sympathetic as to call for no effort of thought, the involuntary movement has an effect of almost mesmeric intensity. All consciousness, save of what I am describing, is blotted out; I cease to consider to whom I am writing, or with what criticism I shall be read; and—to cut short a period that threatens to grow insupportably long—I have a suspicion that I sometimes make a fool of myself. The point I want to come to, my dear B., is, that I have very little doubt that the letter I wrote to you a few hours ago, will be convincing you, some time to-morrow, that I have gone clean off my head. If it had not been posted ten minutes after it was written, I would destroy it, to save my reputation for sanity. But, unfortunately (as you will be very ready to acknowledge), the post-office is within a stone's throw of this house; and so, whenever I have written a letter, it becomes an excuse for a stroll and a cigar, the last thing before getting into bed. To-night, both stroll and cigar were rendered especially necessary, by the severe attack of curiosity that came upon me the moment I had thrown off the writing spell. A wild impatience seized me to know who and what this woman can be, and sedatives were indispensable to my peace. Obviously, as you have doubtless already concluded for yourself, she cannot be a factory girl in any ordinary sense of the phrase. That she works in a factory I do not doubt, for the excellent reason that she tells me so: the simple seriousness of her manner satisfies me of her truth. But it is equally obvious that there must be some romantic story behind. I wish you to understand this plainly, because, now that the writing-spell is off, I am distinctly aware of the sceptical mind with which you will receive what I have written; and, *amour propre* apart, I am sincerely desirous of bringing it home to you, that my new Florimel is a very singular phenomenon, not of my imagination, but of the civilisation of this district. What she was originally, and how she comes now to be what she says she is, I have as yet totally failed to discover, though, in the course of our walk home, I did all I could—short of being impertinent—to make her tell me. After some rambling talk, I said boldly, that from chance remarks she had dropped, I gathered that in some way or other she taught, and I asked if it was so. She answered, that she hardly knew whether what she did could be called teaching; and I pressed her to tell me what that was. She answered simply,—'I speak of what I know to those who are inclined to hear me. I read with friends. I lend books; write letters. Above all, I try to make all younger people, who come in contact with me, understand that I am very willing to help them.'

"'I understand. You give sympathy, but pretend to no special doctrine. You do not—' I hesitated for a moment; then, encouraged by the kind expression of her eyes, I said,—'Forgive me if I am impertinent, but you have struck me strangely, and interested me more deeply than I can say; and the fancy has come to me, that I have found in you a sort of modern Hypatia, or Catherine of Siena—a saint and a philosopher in one. Am I right?'

"She made no answer, beyond a slight exclamation, in which I caught a note of pain, that made me fear that I had hurt her. I said nothing, however, but waited for her to give an articulate reply. She walked in silence for some minutes, with her head bent down, and once, when I stole a glance under the brim of her hat, I observed that the expression of her face was troubled. After a while she spoke:—

"'Your question goes near to one that I have often put to myself, and to these hills and dales.—From my earliest childhood, I have been accustomed to inquire of the only true oracles—Nature and Experience. I have read many books, and listened to many teachers, and I have learned from all

of them; but never to any have I felt that I could surrender my own judgment. The goodness of one touched me, the wisdom of another gave me repose, the method of a third taught me to put order into my conceptions. But from none could I accept what all offered, a whole philosophy of life. When I was younger, as a child and as a girl, this inability to bow to the wisdom of others grieved me. I thought I must be arrogant, self-opinionated, obstinate. I mourned over these faults, and strove to get rid of them. I refrained from expressing my dissent from the conclusions of established authorities. I held silence as to my own convictions. I spared no pains in correcting my opinions, by comparison with the opinions of others. As far as possible, I evaded responsibility. I courted opportunities of submission, and was thankful when circumstances demanded implicit obedience of me. I put my pride in becoming a mere instrument of the will of others, and chose constantly to be hands and feet to people who set no value on my head and heart.

"I obeyed this rule till I was one-and-twenty; but, arrived at the age of majority, I thought I was not justified in doing so any longer. I considered that it was my duty to take my stand as a mature and responsible human being—to refuse to act on any judgment save my own, and to express my real conviction whenever I was called upon to speak, regardless, beyond what courtesy dictated, of the contrary opinions of others. I found that the result of the strict discipline to which I had subjected myself during my girlhood, made it extremely difficult for me to assume at last the attitude of open independence. It required an even greater effort to speak, than it had cost me before to hold silence. Nevertheless, contradictory as the assertion may seem, it was impossible for me not to act upon my new rule. In this, as in all things, I felt myself constrained by an overmastering sense of obligation. That which I recognised as right dominated me. People talk of free-will. To me the phrase conveys no meaning. As to what controls or directs my will, I am incapable even of speculating. I only know that my sense of truth rules me, and leaves me no more freedom than belongs to the sod forced upward by an internal convulsion of the earth. That which I feel to be true, I must think; that which I feel to be right, I must do. It is the necessity of my nature; I cannot resist it. From the moment I have a conviction, I know that it is only a question of time how long it will be before I am acting in the direction of its tendency.

"I found, at this point of my life, that all the independent convictions I had spent my girlhood in repressing, had but gathered force under silence. I was startled by the clearness with which I found myself deciding upon every circumstance of life that came under my notice. To some this decision gave offence; to others it proved a source of attraction. My friends and fellow-workers formed a habit of consulting me upon their affairs. I endeavoured at first to avoid the responsibility they thrust upon me, for I dreaded it in itself, and I shrank from the pain it involved; for, in almost every case, I found it necessary to give advice contrary to the wish and expectation of those who asked it, and by so doing I gave offence, and became involved in complicated discussions, which consumed my time and exhausted my strength. I lost friends, and gradually realised that the inevitable consequence of mental independence is, in youth at any rate, social isolation. Before long I found myself alone. One after another, the companions of my girlhood fell away from me, declaring themselves deceived and disappointed in my character. Then came the great temptation of my life. I am by nature social. My craving for sympathy is as strong as my determination towards independence. The discovery that I had the power of influencing those around me, had been extremely delightful to me. The discovery that I lost influence through the unaccommodating temper of my mind, was correspondingly desolating. I persuaded myself that it would be better to yield something than lose all, and I endeavoured to effect a compromise between the dictates of my judgment and the requirements of my friends. But again I found myself the slave of my own independence; I could not do that which I wished.

In spite of myself I held to the truth, and spoke that or nothing. For four or five years I lived in almost complete isolation; at the end of that time, an accident of circumstances threw in my way a young girl, who was as dependent as I was independent. A close relation established itself between us; she made me her adviser and confessor. I accepted the position eagerly: it brought me back into social communion, after my long sojourn in solitude. My need of sympathy overcame my dread of responsibility. I became, without reserve, the counsellor and teacher of this girl. She called herself openly my disciple, and gradually, through her agency, others came to me in the same manner. I then realised the truth of a saying that had struck me many years earlier:—"Recognition comes from the generation ten years younger than oneself." This was not what I had desired in the beginning. I had wished to be met sympathetically by those elder teachers of my time whom I most honoured; but circumstances denied me this, and when I thought to find consolation in the satisfaction of influencing my own generation, I was disappointed in that too. Now that this new field of sympathy opened before me, I turned to it thankfully, with a conviction that it could not fail me while I was faithful to it. And so it has proved. For six years now, I have been the centre of a growing society of men and women, younger, poorer, more ignorant than myself.

"I could not refrain from inquiring what satisfaction she could get, for her own soul's needs, out of this constant intercourse with inferior intelligences. It seemed to me that she must be starving herself while feeding others. Her answer was, that she lived alone, 'and for those who live alone,' she said, 'the days are long. I have time to read and to remember. I keep good company in my solitude; moreover I have this place to retreat to from time to time. I come here for refreshment whenever I find that I am growing dull and doctrinal.'

"'Dull and doctrinal?' I repeated. 'You couple the adjectives significantly.'

"'They are connected in fact,' she replied. 'To be doctrinal is to be dull. At best, doctrine is the honoured tomb of a faith once living. The next stage is Dogma.'

"'And Dogma is—?'

"'The dishonoured tomb from which the sacred body has been stolen away, and laid we know not where.'

"'But every faith must have its substratum of dogma.'

"'Of which nobody is aware till the personality that gives it life passes away.'

"'Not even the Teacher himself?'

"'Not even the Teacher himself. He may begin by being conscious of his dogmatic basis. But, so long as the consciousness remains, he is only a learner. He reaches maturity in the moment when his doctrine and his consciousness become so completely one that they are indivisible even in thought. Then his creed becomes incarnate and walks the earth in a living form. It is because our modern philosophers stop short of this mystery of incarnation that they must be denied the name of teacher in its highest sense. They know, but they are not. Their books are full of living words: we meet them in the flesh, and they utter commonplaces. The world they ought to dominate, dominates them and forces them to conform to its lower tone. Ten minutes' conversation with a nineteenth century apostle is enough to dispel the hopes that have gathered during ten years' study of his works.'

"'You are right,' I said, 'right in all things, save in still doubting whether you are born to teach.'

"'Ah,' she said, 'I think we will not talk any more about that.'

"And then she deftly turned the conversation into shallower channels. We chatted discursively during the remainder of our walk, glancing from one topic to another pretty rapidly. But upon every topic she had something to say that was fresh, either in substance or in form. Her remarks were all characterized by that indefinable quality of reality, which is unmistakable when it is before us, though in its absence we easily take a false voice for it. Everything that she said carried to my mind the conviction that it had been learned, or at least verified, in the course of personal experience; and this, even

more when her views were those commonly accepted, than when they wore an appearance of novelty. By this, she confirmed me strongly in an opinion I have always inclined to, that the most original people are also the least eccentric. The true genius of perception shows itself in discovery: invention savours always of charlatanism, and the inventor, oftener than not, is a mere impostor. The truth has been there from the beginning of the world; it is old and constant. New fashions are the vagaries of shallow minds, wanting sincerity. We yield ourselves to them out of weakness and indolence, but we cannot repose in them. Like the leaves that drift upon the autumn winds, we know no rest till we return once more to the earth and are ground into elemental atoms, to be re-formed in the universal womb.

"By the way, one discovery I have made as to her past. In the course of our desultory talk, I expressed my dislike to London society and London culture. She again surprised me by agreeing cordially, and speaking of the world to which you and I have the misfortune to belong, like one who knew it. She answered promptly,—'I, too, dislike the capital. Once, about five years ago, my brother urged me to leave L—, and live with him in London. He is the only relation I have in the world, and we love one another dearly. I wished to please him, and I consented to break my own life and take up his. But, though I tried honestly to be happy in London, I could not. The whole life of its society, at least of that part of its society to which I was introduced, is unsympathetic to me. After an experiment of three months, I begged my brother to let me return to L—.'

"As she seemed inclined to end her communications at this point, I hazarded the commonplace remark that he must have been sorry to lose her. It had the desired effect of starting her again.

"'He came with me,' she said. 'London life is not really more congenial to him than it is to me. We belong to L— from our youth. All the associations of our life bind us to it, —to it, and to these moors, which have a place in still earlier affections.'

"I asked, what it was in London society that jarred upon her. She smiled a peculiar smile which had grown familiar to me during the hour we had walked and talked together, and in which I had come to think that her whole character and almost the history of her life might be read little by little, if one had the good fortune to see it repeated a score or so of times. It is a smile one might be eloquent about. It is a charming smile and an amusing smile at the same time. You seem to see in it an unconquerable independence and a good-humoured tolerance, just verging upon satire, striving with a modest desire to respect opinions and characters that differ from her own. There is clear perception and strong conviction in it, and yet it is too chastened to be presumptuous, and far too kindly to be defiant. The one word which expresses it wholly, is *true*. Her smile is true. You read in it, that she sees only what is fact, and accepts the fact with all its consequences. But you read also that she confines herself to acceptance of the fact: she takes none of the credit of it, and holds it simply —without combativeness.

"Of her experience of London, she said:—'The life struck me as too much one of words and theories; too little one of living experiences. I found learned men and clever women passing whole evenings in anxious discussion of points, which we, in our practical life at L—, consider settled past dispute. But in London society nothing was accepted, nothing was settled, nothing was simple. The commonest emotions of life were either wondered at as new discoveries, or their very existence was called in question. Irrational admiration or grudging doubt were the only permitted attitudes of mind. It mattered not what the subject of conversation was, the treatment was always the same; and, to be frank, it struck me as the treatment of persons who discussed only for the sake of discussion. Otherwise, I cannot conceive it possible that any assembly of well-conducted persons could have borne to canvass, with so much impartiality, interests as vital to morality as those which were the most frequent themes.'

"I asked what part she had taken in these conversations. She replied:—'As little as possible; I would gladly never have spoken at all; but I was, at times, compelled to do so. And then I believe I made myself ridiculous by taking things too seriously.'

"'I suppose you found yourself politely laughed at.'

"'Exactly. My seriousness at first amused my friends, and afterwards bored them.'

"'Then, at any rate, you gave them better than they gave you. For, though I have no doubt they bored you fully as much as you bored them, I would not mind wagering that they never amused you.'

"She laughed pleasantly. And then, as we had come to the farmhouse at the opposite ends of which our respective lodgings are, we wished one another good-night and parted.

"I am impatient for to-morrow afternoon, when she has promised to accompany me in another walk. I have never been so powerfully interested in any human being before. And I think you will admit that the facts are strange enough to rouse curiosity. Stated barely, what I know of her comes to this:—

"She looks not a day more than four-and-twenty, and would pass well for four years younger. And yet she tells me she has had her illuminated Keats for twenty years.

"She works in a factory at L—, and has the manners of a queen, besides the culture of a philosopher and a poet.

"She has a brother who belongs to the same world that you and I do, and she has herself sojourned among the likes of the false Florimel. You and I may have met her, sat opposite to her at dinner,—nay, why not have taken her down and sat next to her, and yet have never known it!

"Once more, what can she be? I shall never have the impudence to question her on personal matters. But, in the course of to-morrow's walk, I will get her to talk to me on every impersonal matter in heaven and earth. She shall be my teacher henceforth, and, if I can only get taken on at her factory, I swear that I will throw up London, and literature, and polite society, and spend the rest of my days at L—.

"You will hear from me again after the walk.

"Your's, X."

"P.S.—I perceive that the spell has been too strong for me again, and this second letter will only convince you that I am further gone in lunacy than you thought from the first. It is useless to fight against the influence of this place; for, after all, it is the place as much as the woman that dominates me. They are alike: large, open, simple. Self-consciousness and false shame cannot live in this air. There is assurance of sympathy in the low vault of the sky, from which the great stars—melting in the dawn—smile down into the valleys and kiss me through the pane. Under their influence I become a child, a woman—a fool, if you will. Ah, believe me, life is good when one has the courage to be a fool and to speak for once out of the heart's abundance. It is true—what she says—that in London one has other things to do than to look at the sunset. Better things, very likely. Be it so. But it is true also that here I can see the sun,—must see it indeed, for there is nothing to come between me and its splendour. And I think I am still drunk with the glory of its last vanishing."

(To be continued.)

AN AMERICAN PROFESSOR ON SCIENCE TEACHING IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

THE, on the whole, excellent paper of the Rev. T. N. Hutchison, in your number for November, induces me to make a few remarks on one or two passages in it, leaving the insertion or rejection of them to your judgment.

I ought perhaps to justify myself for so doing, by the remark that I have been engaged in teaching the Natural and Physical Sciences for more than twenty-five years.

The introduction of this branch of study at Rugby is an improvement of which, and of those who have made it, we cannot speak or think too highly. We can only hope that every

other school in England and elsewhere, will in time follow the example.

There is much, very much, both in the subjects taught and in the order of teaching them, that deserves the highest commendation. Even in many of those respects in which improvement seems to be, or is, possible, the exigency of school practice probably renders such change at present impracticable. The best mode, in theory, must not unfrequently yield to the best mode practicable.

But, in two or three matters, the facts detailed by Mr. Hutchinson betray weakness or misdirection in the teaching of the Natural Sciences. In the first place, let me quote the following words:—

“With regard to school Chemistry, I have come to the conclusion, after an experience of five-and-twenty years, that it is desirable to confine the teaching, so far as lectures are concerned, to the non-metallie elements, and a few of the more important metals. No doubt, some knowledge of the metals is essential to the understanding of the earliest experiments in the preparation of oxygen and hydrogen, but I have not found that it is easy to keep up the interest of a class, in going through a complete course of lectures on the metals.”

Now this passage betrays the presence of the mistake, common in England, and almost universal in this country, of supposing that Chemistry, or any one of the Natural Sciences, can be taught by lectures. Neither lectures alone, nor recitations from a text-book, can be of much value in this department of study, and for this reason a vast part of the labour spent at school and college, both here and in England, is thrown away. I may go farther and say, that such method of teaching is absolutely injurious to the mind. Instead of developing the faculty of observation, and encouraging the reasoning powers to draw conclusions from experiments, and rely upon them, it closes the mental eye, and leads the student to rely on the book rather than on the facts of Nature. A common result of this, and one which I have often observed in students thus taught, is, that they prefer hearing a statement, or reading it in a book, to seeing the fact for themselves, and are thus led into a false confidence, and suppose they *know* what they have only taken on the authority of another. Than this nothing can be more destructive of the real scientific habit of mind which accepts nothing on trust, but asks for evidence, and sifts that evidence carefully when obtained. That scepticism, so valuable in after life, which leads men and women to distinguish bold assertion from logical proof, and to reject the former in favour of the latter, is stifled in its very cradle by this kind of teaching, and the great use of Natural Science, as an engine in education, apart from any subsequent money value, is thrown away. To the greater number of the pupils, who will never devote themselves to scientific work, the training that science can give is the great justification for its introduction into our courses of study. It appeals to many minds—and those not always, as some think, the inferior ones—with a directness and a force that no other subject possesses; and these minds obtain from it, what in many cases they could not obtain through mathematical or classical studies, a training which can fit them for the duties of life. Hence, to teach science so as to fail in attaining this object, is to thwart the purposes of its introduction into school and college, as an engine of mental discipline.

For the purposes of mental discipline, therefore, not less than for those of instruction, using the word in its popular and not in its etymological sense, the sciences must be taught in their own manner—that is, experimentally. The loading of a boy's memory with the facts of Chemistry, will never give him any useful amount of chemical knowledge, while for purposes of discipline it is absolutely mischievous. But the reply will be made, that all the lectures are illustrated with experiments, and that the boys see these experiments performed by the lecturer. True, but this is not teaching Chemistry experimentally. The lecturer tells the boys he is putting something or other into a glass tube, and that such and such results will follow. He puts it in, and the consequences foretold immediately ensue. But the boys are only resting on the word of the lecturer, instead of a book. If the experiment succeeds, they

see the result instead of reading about it, and this is so much gained; but, strictly and logically considered, there is no observation encouraged, and no reliance on nature developed, by merely showing experiments upon the lecture table to a class.

The only way to teach Chemistry, or any other natural or physical science, is by enabling the pupils to perform their experiments themselves. In no other way is it possible to convey chemical knowledge, or to develop scientific habits of thought. Question any ordinary boy of not more than average intelligence, concerning an experimental lecture to which he has listened, and his mental confusion will soon be discovered. Put him in a laboratory, and tell him to repeat so simple an experiment as the making of oxygen gas, after he has gone through a course of lectures on the gases, and the probability is that he will be quite uncertain whether chlorate of potassium, or any one of half-a-dozen other salts which have been used in his presence, should be employed. As for showing any practical acquaintance with the acids or salts concerned, so as to be to some extent independent of their labels, that is altogether out of the question.

But, put this same boy in possession of a few test-tubes, and a little simple cheap chemical apparatus, which may be bought or supplied by the school for ten shillings, and let all lectures be confined for the most part to a description of simple experiments, which he will be required to repeat with his own apparatus, and on his own responsibility; and let the examination consist of such practical work in Chemistry as is within the reach of the hands and brain of an ordinary boy, and there will be no confusion between chlorate of potash and other salts. Most valuable lessons in observation will also be obtained, from noting the reactions of the different substances, as well in failing as in successful experiments. All the sameness of the metallic salts disappears, when their reactions are studied in the test-tube, or before the blow-pipe, and habits of reliance on the deductions from experiment are encouraged, the value of which in after life cannot be too highly estimated.

Of course, there are practical difficulties in the way of doing this. It is a much less striking and showy mode of teaching; it requires prompt and thorough knowledge in the teacher that can be called up on the spur of the moment; it requires a room, and a certain amount of apparatus. But the apparatus and the material required for a single showy lecture, will suffice to supply a whole roomful of boys and girls with all they need at the beginning of a chemical course. In so saying, I speak from an experience of some years, with very inadequate means often improvised for the occasion; but the results have always been highly gratifying. Less ground was, perhaps, gone over, but a more valuable harvest was reaped.

It is not, I think, right to make the laboratory work a tax on a boy's play-hours, even though it is voluntary. This is calculated to keep boys in the laboratory, where the air is never the purest, when they should be in the cricket-field. Moreover, it is likely to draw the very boys who should be most in the playground. Practical Chemistry and Physics should take their place in school hours, as much as any other subject. If necessary, the chemical and physical book-lesson should be given up for this purpose.

All that I have said about Chemistry is equally applicable to Physics. Not an expensive outfit, with which showy experiments may be performed by a teacher before a staring crowd of amused boys, is the thing required, but simple cheap apparatus, much of which the pupils can construct for themselves, and with which they can perform their own experiments on a small scale, under the direction of a competent teacher. In this way less pretentious but more solid work would be done, and a scientific class would have more the appearance of work, and less that of amusement or of wonder.

In this connection, I may note one other paragraph in Mr. Hutchinson's article. He says—“In the far higher work with the Sixth Form and Upper School, when the experimental arrangements for a lecture have perhaps taken hours of previous preparation, there is a marked absence of the spontaneous gratification shown by the younger boys; indeed, it is at times almost provoking to witness the matter-of-course way

in which things are regarded, and to realise how often *nil admirari* seems to be the motto of the senior boys."

It is a mistake to expect from upper-class boys the same manifestation of enthusiasm in the same way as from younger ones. Their *amour propre* stands, to some extent, in the way. But I do not believe, if the teaching is adapted to their mental standing and intellectual attainments, that there will be any want of enthusiasm,—at least, I have never found it so. Very probably, the lectures that required so much preparation, were beyond the scientific reach of the boys, so that they failed to appreciate the full bearing and significance of the showy or delicate experiments performed before them. Elder boys feel a decided objection, if their previous studies have produced their proper effect, to being entertained or amused with a show in which they have no part but that of looking, listening, and wondering. If they had been employed in performing the experiments, or in preparing for them, so that their minds should be ready to comprehend what their hands were able to perform,—in fact, if the work were theirs, and only the oversight left to the teacher,—I do not believe there would be any lack of interest taken, or enthusiasm of a becoming kind shown, in the subject and experiments of the lecture. But, when the professor sits and delivers his address *ex cathedra*, his young audience do not feel the sympathy with him, or his subject, that they would feel and show if *they* did the work and performed the experiments, while *he* did the looking on.

But I have already written more than I intended, and must come to an end. The remarks I have made are chiefly directed to Physics and Chemistry; but their force is greater when applied to the strictly natural sciences, the teaching of which is usually in a yet worse condition. On this, however, I cannot now enter.

Allow me, in conclusion, to say, that in what I have written I allude to the practice as detailed by Mr. Hutchinson, and not to his own views on the subject. These may not, and from one or two remarks in his paper, I judge they do not differ very much from those which I have here expressed.

E. W. CLAYPOLE, B.A., B.Sc. (Lond.), F.G.S.

New Bloomfield,
Perry Co., Pennsylvania.

CORRESPONDENCE.

LONDON UNIVERSITY LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—The question of the examination and inspection of schools by the University of London, and the granting of certificates on the results of such examination, is one in which for many years I have taken so deep an interest that I trust you will allow me to occupy a small portion of your columns in again referring to it. After the lapse of seven years, the consideration of the subject has entered upon a new phase, in consequence of a resolution of a recent meeting of Convocation, to the effect that the Senate should be invited to consider the advisability of instituting local examinations, similar, to some extent, to those of Oxford and Cambridge. This resolution, although carried by a large majority, does not seem to have been favourably received by the Senate, who have not thought it desirable to take any action in the matter. It was suggested that the question should be referred, in the first instance, to the Annual Committee; but Convocation negatived this amendment,—rightly, I think, seeing that the Annual Committee had already considered the question in all its details, and had been unable to obtain more than a small instalment of what had been originally asked for. At a recent meeting of Convocation, held on Tuesday, January 16th, Mr. Spratling, who has now taken the matter in hand, renewed in another form his application made at a previous meeting, and moved for a select committee of six to prepare a scheme of Local Examinations for the consideration of the University. On this Com-

mittee I was requested to act; but, fearing my inability to devote sufficient time to the work, and knowing that I had nothing to add to, and little to alter in, the report on this question presented to Convocation on January 18, 1876, I thought it best to leave the matter entirely to others.

I believe this question was first prominently brought under the notice of the University by Mr. Shaen, now a member of the Senate, who in 1874 presented to Convocation a Report on the subject prepared by the Annual Committee. This report, however, not having indicated in sufficient detail the character of the proposed examinations, nor the manner in which they were to be conducted, the Senate took no action in the matter; and, the question having been again referred to the Annual Committee, a Sub-committee was appointed, of which I had the honour to be Chairman; and at the numerous meetings, in which Dr. Weymouth, Mr. Ely, Mr. Bennett, and Mr. Nesbitt took a prominent part, a voluminous report was prepared, filling twenty pages, and sixteen pages of appendix, in which the entire question, both as regards the examination and inspection of schools, and the conditions on which certificates were to be granted, was fully considered. The report having been received by Convocation, the members of the Sub-committee had a conference with the Senate, which finally resulted in the adoption by the latter of the scheme for the inspection of schools which is now in operation. As this scheme, however, makes no provision for the granting of certificates to individual pupils on the results of the examination, Convocation felt that it would prove almost ineffectual in enabling the University to exert that influence over the secondary education of the country which the advocates of the wider scheme thought desirable; and, accordingly, at the meeting of Convocation held on May 9th, 1876, a resolution was carried, on my motion, thanking the Senate for having so far conceded to the wish of Convocation, but "hoping that the Senate will be able to take yet further steps in the same direction," and empowering "the Annual Committee to confer with the Senate on such conditions and regulations, or on any other matter connected with the examination or inspection aforesaid, in case the Senate should desire such conference." Since then, no further action on the part of Convocation has been taken. The number of schools examined by the University has slightly increased from year to year, but not sufficiently to enable it to be said that the University of London exerts any appreciable influence upon the secondary education of England. This, I have always felt, was greatly to be regretted, believing that the examination of schools falls strictly within the province, if not within the charter, of the University. Time has shown that one difficulty contemplated by the Senate was a real one—the difficulty of finding among London graduates a sufficient supply of competent examiners. Even for the few schools annually examined by the University, graduates of other Universities have occasionally been selected. I see, however, no great objection to this course being followed, provided that the gentlemen appointed examine on the lines laid down by the University. Another difficulty suggested by the Senate was that of obtaining uniformity of standard in the examinations of different schools. But to this I attach little importance, seeing that, practically, uniformity of standard, in examinations conducted at different times, never is attained, and that it is not absolutely essential that it should be. It is no serious disaster, that of two small boys on the border line of the "pass," one should be sent back to present himself after six months, and that the other should be let through. I sincerely trust, however, that the Special Committee appointed by Convocation, will not be content with the proposal to add one more to the number of examinations which already bewilder schoolmasters, and interfere detrimentally in many cases with their teaching, but will show reason for the existence of a new set of Local Examinations, and will endeavour to make them more attractive and educationally superior to those of other Universities.

The original scheme for the examination of schools, presented to Convocation in 1876, contained full and complete details with respect to the qualifications for the two classes of Cer-

tificates which were proposed to be granted; and I cannot help thinking that, if the scheme had been carried into operation, secondary education in this country would have been improved, and the accession of graduates to the University of London would have been greatly increased. That scheme was based on the following principles, which I venture to hope will not be lost sight of by the Committee charged with the preparation of a new scheme:

- 1.—That the Examinations should proceed, as far as possible, on the general lines of the school work.
- 2.—That no Certificate should be granted except on the result of an examination in three branches of knowledge:—I. Language and Literature; II. Mathematics; and III. Science.
- 3.—That within these groups a wide choice of subjects be permitted, so as to render the examination sufficiently elastic to adapt itself to the requirements of different schools.
- 4.—That translation at sight be substituted for prepared work.

This last principle was not recommended absolutely for adoption, seeing that the majority of Head Masters, whose opinions on the subject are given in the appendix to the report, then expressed themselves "in favour of retaining the careful preparation of selected books, but at the same time of making translation at sight an essential part of the examination."

The Report provided for two classes of Certificates; a Senior and a Junior Certificate. It was generally admitted that the objections urged against the Senior Certificate did not apply to the same extent to the Junior Certificate. It was thought that the examination for the Senior Certificate would seriously interfere with the Matriculation, which is always regarded as the foundation stone of the London University system. But, looking at the question from a purely educational standpoint, I see no reason to alter my opinion as expressed in the Report of 1876. The Matriculation of the University of London serves very well as a *terminus a quo*, as the first step towards graduation; but it is becoming daily less serviceable as a *terminus ad quem*, which the Senior Certificate Examination was intended to be. Indeed, no examination specially designed as an entrance examination to a University, can properly serve the purpose of a leaving examination at school, when that examination is intended to be final. However, the recently appointed Committee will probably, and perhaps wisely, restrict their discussions to the consideration of the requisite qualifications for the Junior or Elementary Certificate. Indeed, it was with the view of inducing the Senate to arrange for a public examination, preparatory to the Matriculation, which I had come to regard as inviolable and incapable of being interfered with, that in February, 1879, I addressed a letter to Sir John Lubbock, then Vice-Chancellor of the University, who has always shown great interest in this matter, which was printed by order of the Senate, and from which, in conclusion, I trust you will allow me to quote the following extracts, as bearing very directly upon the question which the Special Committee of Convocation have been appointed to consider:—

"During the year 1877, only three schools were examined by the University, none of which, I believe, have applied to be re-examined; and during the past year this number has not been exceeded. It seems to me that this unwillingness of Schools to be examined or inspected by the University of London is due to the fact that our system of examination establishes no lasting connection between the University and the schools, and has no reference whatever to the subsequent examinations which the pupils of the schools may have to pass. There are many schools which would prefer the curriculum of London to that of Oxford or of Cambridge; but in consequence of the graduated systems of examinations, by means of which the older universities are able to influence secondary education, the connection between these schools and our own University is not maintained. A comparison of the number and importance of the schools inspected and examined by the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge with those examined under our own scheme, can lead to no other conclusion than that we have failed to exert, by means of our system of

inspection, any influence whatever on the secondary education of the country.

"It may, of course, be said that the University of London is not concerned with school education, the direction of which may be left with perfect security and confidence to the older Universities. But it seems to me, that whilst science continues to be so imperfectly taught and tested in the great majority of schools, the influence of the University of London on school education, if it could be made available, would be found serviceable; nor can I help thinking that the strength and development of the University must depend to a great extent on the number of schools which recognise the superintending influence of its examinations over their work.

"It may also be said that the University of London exercises a sufficient influence on secondary education through the means of its matriculation examination. The influence thus exerted is, however, far less than might be supposed from the number of candidates annually examined. To establish the fact that the University exerts an appreciable influence on school education, it is not sufficient to point to the ten or twelve hundred candidates who present themselves each year for examination. It is necessary to show that the curricula of a large number of schools, and especially of those in which these candidates are educated, are determined by the requirements of the matriculation examination. But this is not the case. The number of matriculation candidates is, in itself, very small compared with the number presenting themselves for other school examinations; whilst a large proportion of these are specially prepared either privately at home, or in separate classes at school, which interfere to some extent with the ordinary school work. In fact, *over forty per cent. of the candidates who pass* have received private instruction in addition to, or independently of, their school work; and this percentage does not include those who are prepared by private and separate instruction in their own schools.

"Of those who failed at the recent examination (January, 1879) I am informed that over seventy-four per cent. had received private instruction. Now these statistics might seem at first to indicate that our matriculation examination is badly adapted to school education, and might suggest the necessity of modifying it. But I doubt whether any modification of the examination, consistent with its present standard of difficulty, would enable schools to direct their course of study by its requirements. Nor do I think that any such modification of it is desirable. What is really required is some intermediate examination preliminary to the matriculation, and sufficiently wide in area to embrace the subjects taught in the highest forms of schools below the first grade, and in the fifth forms of higher schools. Such an intermediate examination has already been established by the older Universities, and it is owing to the existence of these "local examinations" that Oxford and Cambridge exert so vast an influence on the secondary education of the country. Our matriculation is too far removed, in point of difficulty, from the capabilities of most schools to make its influence very widely felt; and this conclusion at which I have arrived is fully confirmed by the experience which I have acquired in examining schools.

"On more than one occasion, when I have been engaged in inspecting a school, I have suggested certain changes, either in the time-table or in the course of study, and have recommended the substitution of one text-book for another, or the introduction of an improved method of teaching some special subject. But in each case I have received the reply that these particular books and methods are better adapted to the Oxford and Cambridge Local Examinations than those I may have indicated; and I have found that the course of study in the school is mainly determined by the requirements of these examinations. When I have further suggested that the pupils might be prepared for the London Matriculation, I have been told that the difficulty of passing it is such, that very few boys can attempt it without special preparation, which prevents it from being of any considerable use to schoolmasters. It is a fact that many schools which are unable to send up for matriculation more than two or three pupils can enter twenty or thirty for the Oxford and Cambridge Local Examinations."

"What I have thus far written points to these conclusions:—

"That our matriculation examination exerts very little influence on school teaching.

"That our present system of inspection has failed to augment that influence.

"That the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge mainly direct the secondary education of the country.

"That this influence is maintained by means of the so-called 'local examinations.'

"Now if these examinations did all that was desired, if they

directed education in the course in which the University of London would seek to guide it, if the schools themselves were satisfied with the fetters which these examinations impose, it might be well to leave things as they now stand. But this is not the case. . . . Moreover, if we consider it a good thing that our University should exist, it is well that its influence should extend not only to the higher education of the few, but to the elementary teaching of the many. To bring ourselves into close relationship with the schools of England, and to establish a connection between the pupils of these schools and the University, we should have to institute examinations to test the ordinary school work, and to grant certificates of proficiency to deserving pupils. In arranging the scheme for such examinations two objects ought to be kept in view. First, to direct the school teaching according to certain general principles, recognised as essential by the University; secondly, to leave the greatest possible amount of freedom to the schoolmasters.

"The combination of these two objects would not be found, in actual practice, as difficult as it may appear to be; and I have received from several schoolmasters many useful suggestions on this very point. Such examinations might be held three times a year in different parts of England, under the supervision of someone resident in each place. The questions might be set by a central staff of examiners, and would be the same for all schools choosing the same subjects. In course of time these examinations would form part of the ordinary terminal examinations, and would interfere but very little with the school work. The influence of such examinations in directing the studies of the school, and in giving an impetus to science-teaching would be very great, and there can be no doubt that one effect of such examinations would be to increase the number of schools that would apply to have their entire work inspected by the University."

"What I have been anxious to point out is, that some kind of elementary examination is needed to establish our connection with the schools of England; that an examination might be instituted which would direct, without interfering with, ordinary school-work; that by the granting of certificates an inducement would be offered to schools to accept our examinations; and that by combining these examinations with our school inspection scheme, we should be able to exert a decided and beneficial influence on secondary education. That these examinations would be welcomed by the head-masters of very many schools is beyond doubt; and it is quite certain that they would tend to increase the strength and influence of our own University."

I have quoted these extracts from my letter of February, 1879, because I see no reason to alter my views as therein expressed.

I am, &c.,

43, Gloucester Place, Portman Square, PHILIP MAGNUS.
January 22nd, 1883.

CHEAP BOARDING SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—We frequently see advertisements of cheap Boarding Schools such as the following, which I take from the *Standard*:—

"**E**DUCATION (finishing) for YOUNG LADIES, in the best and healthiest part of Brighton. Established nine years. Terms from 30 guineas per annum; no charge for books, stationery, or ordinary drawing materials. Carefully selected library. Hot and cold baths, and well ventilated bedrooms. Best diet (unlimited). Juniors well cared for. References to parents. Professors in daily attendance. Three music masters. Resident and foreign governesses.—For particulars and results of examinations, address ———."

The proprietress is too modest to put her name and address in print, but gives only a reference to a library where inquiries may be made about certain letters of the alphabet. Here we see the advertisement side of cheap schools. Some time ago an accident brought me in contact with the reality. I was house-hunting, and a landlord told me of a house of his, occupied at the time, but which, as he explained, I could no doubt have at once, as the tenant was in arrears and could speedily be got rid of. "The house is now used as a school," he said, "and you will, I believe, find it a good deal out of repair." Furnished with a letter from the landlord (always an influential person when rent is owing) my wife and I went to the

house, and were shown everything—as far at least as we had the courage to penetrate, for, as we did not go as inspectors of nuisances, we recoiled before some of the stenches. But we saw enough to make us sad indeed. The house was, as the landlord said, "a good deal out of repair." Everything in fact was in ruins, and begrimed with dirt. The rooms were all small, and the house was not suitable for a school, for it was not too large for an ordinary family living at the rate of £300 or £400 a year; but into this house had once been crammed 22 girls as boarders, 15 of whom were there at the time of our visit. We saw the bedrooms. The smallest room, which in most families would be considered too small for more than one servant, contained three beds (for six girls) and a piano. These took up the room entirely, and as there were no drawers or cupboards, the poor girls hung what clothes they had on pegs in the passage. No washing was possible in the bedrooms. What the washing arrangements were I know not, but as the filth and general decay of the place made it unfit for human habitation, washing was probably little thought of.

Behind the house was a dismal yard, tenanted by some mangy fowls. These were great favourites of the girls, we were told, and they lived not only in the yard, but also on the kitchen staircase and in the lower part of the house, which was far fitter for them than for human beings.

I have mentioned that we *could* not penetrate everywhere. The loathsome dirt of the place reached a climax apparently in the scullery and kitchen, and though we went to the kitchen door, we were driven back by the sickening stench it emitted.

We left the house in extreme amazement at two things: first, that the laws of the country, which are so stringent about the children of "the poor," should permit such treatment of children who belong to the "middle class." In France and Germany the government inspects *all* schools, and requires that the buildings be fit for school purposes and kept in proper order. Secondly, we wondered where parents could be found so utterly careless of their children's welfare as to send them to a den like this.

Whoever they were, they were "genteel" people. The schoolmistress, who was evidently engaged in a grim struggle for existence, complained that she could get no day pupils: only tradespeople were near at hand, and the parents of her boarders would not allow her to take the children of tradespeople.

Perhaps the defence made by some parents who send their girls to cheap and bad boarding-schools would be this, that they cannot get them taught at home, and cannot afford any but a cheap boarding-school. For these parents there surely should be a chance of sending their girls, as they can their boys, to good public schools, provided expressly for the middle classes.

After such a narrative one does not feel one's usual pride in calling oneself

AN ENGLISHMAN.

"UNSEENS" IN LOCALS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—The Agenda Paper of the Head-masters' Conference includes, among the subjects for discussion, a proposal by Mr. Eve, for the "abolition of the practice of setting definite books as subjects for Public Examination, and the substitution of unseen passages." Whether Mr. Eve has, or has not, specially in view the Oxford and Cambridge Local Examinations, it is with reference to these examinations that the merits of the proposed change can be best discussed, from the fact that they attract a larger number of candidates than any other Public Examinations, and that they practically determine the subject-matter, and govern the methods of teaching adopted, in a large proportion of the middle class schools of the country.

Mr. Eve's proposal will probably be welcomed by the more competent teachers employed in preparing pupils for the Local Examinations; the present system tends to place good and bad schools on the same level, and distinctly encourages the worst kind of "exam." The Local Examinations have undoubtedly

done good by compelling inferior schools, which formerly did nothing, to do at least something; but it may be questioned whether they are not also doing a certain amount of positive harm, by forcing good middle class schools (which cannot afford to ignore the "Locals"), to spend a whole year in the preparation of "Set Subjects," which ought not to occupy more than one term, or perhaps six months, and to aim at teaching, not the general structure and vocabulary of a given language, but the special constructions and vocabulary occurring in a small portion of a single author. The substitution of "unseens" for set subjects, would undoubtedly be a step towards the removal of these objections; but a practical difficulty would have to be encountered.

In order to secure that the passages set should really be "unseen" to the whole of the candidates, it would be almost necessary to avoid the authors usually read, and to make selections from the less known writers. To this plan there are serious objections: in the first place, the style, say, of Quintus Curtius is sufficiently different from that of Cæsar, to offer some difficulty to candidates who have been nurtured on Cæsar; an additional difficulty would thus be introduced—a difficulty quite distinct from that which is involved in construction, and which is legitimate matter for examination; in the second place, the habitual selection of passages from obscure authors, would inevitably drive teachers to adopt these authors as text-books, instead of those that have been universally adopted as the best models.

Might not this difficulty be met by setting original passages composed for the occasion, and written in the style of whatever authors are thought best for boys' or girls' ordinary reading? It is not, perhaps, too much to assume that examiners could be discovered capable of writing a dozen lines, say of Latin, sufficiently like Cæsar to pass as genuine with Local examinees, and the result of such an examination would show, not who had crammed the 1st or 2nd book most effectually, but who had most thoroughly mastered the Latinity of the whole work.

Yours,

The Beacon, Sevenoaks.

FRANK RITCHE.

OXFORD AND CAMBRIDGE LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—As a Schoolmaster of some experience in preparing boys for these Examinations, I venture to ask for a small space in your columns to advocate two proposals regarding them:—1. *The addition of a third Examination to come below the Junior*; 2. *The abolition of any requirement as to the age of the candidates.*

As to the first, the only question that need be asked is, whether the Examination would attract sufficient candidates to make it pay. This could easily be ascertained; and, personally, I have not the least doubt that many a Head-master would hail this examination as a valuable means of testing the efficiency of the teaching in his Middle and Lower Forms.

Two novelties in the regulations of the Cambridge Locals for 1883 tend in the direction of my second proposal. They are as follows:—(1) Boys and girls between the ages of 16 and 17 "can be admitted to the Examination for Juniors, but they will be placed in a list by themselves, in alphabetical order, not in any class of Honours." (2) Persons who *bonâ fide* intend to become medical students can be admitted above the age of 17, but they will neither be placed in the Class List, nor receive the usual certificate. The Syndicate will inform the General Medical Council and the Royal College of Surgeons of their success."

These concessions are valuable; but, why not abolish the requirement as to age altogether, and let the certificate given to each successful candidate state the age at which it was obtained? The practical disadvantages of the present system are considerable, e.g.,—(1) Boys who have already passed the Junior once or twice, and are still young enough to go in again, have to work in the same class with youngsters going in for the first time. (2) Boys' attainments by no means correspond

with their ages, especially at Middle-class Schools, where there is no superannuating, and where boys often come late in life, with but little previous preparation. Such boys as these have hitherto either not been able to go in for the Locals at all, or else have been put to do work quite beyond them, in a futile attempt to pass the Senior. In short, the present system necessitates a good deal of wrong classification.

I see no reason why the Universities should not do for the Grammar Schools of this country what the Government does for the Elementary Schools, namely, examine them in different standards—three or more, at their discretion—of progressive difficulty, but taking no account whatever of the age of the candidates.

I remain, Sir, Yours faithfully,

R. M. H. J.

SAVING AMONG ASSISTANT-MISTRESSES.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—I have just heard that the proposal to allow others to join the Provident Association of Elementary Teachers has fallen through. It is clear that my proposal for the schools to grant increases of salary *only on condition* that a portion of it should be invested in an annuity, cannot be immediately carried out. Yet many of us feel, that to induce teachers to begin *at once* to make provision for the future is a matter of urgent importance, that the purchase of annuities is the most important, if not the only form of provision for the future that offers any real security, and that there ought to be some simple means of obtaining such annuities upon undoubted securities. The fate of the Albert, the European, and other such societies is fresh in our minds.

The question asked by many teachers is this—Is there any means by which we can purchase Government annuities? The *Private Governesses' Benevolent Society* is not available for us. 1. It is partly *cleemosynary*, and we will not be put upon a charitable list. 2. We are obliged to make a statement to them of our income and property, which we do not choose to do. 3. Neither here, nor in the Post-office Savings' Bank, can we buy an annuity of more than £50.

Is there any reason why the Postmaster-General should not allow persons to buy, through the Post-office, annuities, immediate or deferred, for any amount they please? Were this made easy, I believe the cause of providence among teachers would be much advanced, and that governing bodies of schools would gladly avail themselves of the Government securities offered. If this is, for some reason unknown to me, impracticable, could not the Head Mistresses' Association ask some gentleman, in whom all would have confidence, to undertake the purchase of annuities in the name of any teacher applying to him—to appoint him, in fact, their stockbroker for the purchase of annuities. Teachers sometimes fall into the hands of advertising stockbrokers, with results not pleasant to remember. The Association could print approximate tables, such as are circulated by the *Private Governesses' Benevolent Society*. This would not preclude, but would, I believe, facilitate and lead to the establishment of auxiliary friendly societies for helping those who, from temporary causes, are unable to make their annual payments—or to help in sickness. I am so anxious that we should not, while waiting for a complete scheme, let the years go by, every one of which is adding a heavy load to the burdens of the future.

Ladies' College, Cheltenham,

DOROTA BALEY.

TECHNICAL EXAMINATIONS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—If the point at issue between a Printer and an Examiner in Printing be really one of principle, it is to be hoped that it will not be allowed to drop before some definite answer has been given to the Printer's objections. It is but little use merely repeating general principles, when the application of them, as tested by a particular case, is challenged.

It seems to be allowed that an examination paper has been

set on a certain trade, in which not one question has been asked on the particular kind of work on which the bulk of that trade is engaged. The defence of the Examiner seems to be, that men should be encouraged to direct their minds from their particular branch of trade to anything, or everything, connected with that trade; that Technical Education is not so much concerned with making men use their tools to the best advantage, as to stimulate curiosity as to their properties and structure. If this be so, it is difficult to know how one trade is not connected with any other. If a printer be expected to concern himself (to any practical use) with the founding of his type and the composition of his ink, then may a carpenter be expected to concern himself with the properties of the iron which heads his hammer, and the planting of the trees from which it derives its handle, and so on. To such a seemingly absurd conclusion do we arrive by applying the Examiner's general defence to the particular case he has had to answer.

It may be, that the point at issue is merely a difference in the definition of what is a trade.

The Printer, from his knowledge of how much is required to make a skilful workman, and knowing exactly what is most useful to attain that end, would restrict the term within somewhat narrow limits. The Examiner, perhaps from want of knowledge of the full significance of the terms he has to handle, associates things which have connection only in name, and requires knowledge where a useless smattering, easily acquired and soon forgotten, is all that can be expected.

That question, too, seems worthy of more discussion.

B. O. T. P.

SCIENCE IN THE CAMBRIDGE LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

STR,—Enclosed I forward you a circular letter I have received from the Hon. Sec. Cambridge Local Examinations (Leamington Centre), in which you will see I am asked to sign a memorial to the University to rescind the alteration which has been made in Section 8 (Natural Philosophy), Regulations for Junior Candidates.

This change was a very necessary one, and it appears to me to be inadvisable to return to the old regulations. So long as it was felt desirable to "nurse" Natural Science (Botany and Zoology), it was, perhaps, excusable to allow a boy to pass on a single two hours' paper, and to count this as a section; but, when it became evident that boys who satisfied the examiners in Zoology or Botany, and in one other section, were placed in a higher division than those who satisfied in English and in one other section, then an alteration was necessary. Again, seeing that, in order to pass in Scripture, a boy is compelled to take three papers during an examination lasting 3½ hours; in English, two papers (at least) of 3¼ hours each duration; in Latin, two papers, 4½ hours; in Greek, two papers, 4 hours; in Mathematics (Euclid and Algebra, at least), two papers, 5½ hours; it is manifestly unfair towards those who attempt to pass in these subjects, that an examination in such a subject as Botany or Zoology, which lasts but two hours, should be equally available towards securing a Pass in the minimum number of subjects. Under the new regulations, the Syndicate has very justly insisted that, in order to pass in Science, an equal amount of work shall be done to that required for the other sections.

It may be desirable for me to add that I had not noticed, and knew nothing of, the change, until my attention was drawn to it by Mr. Riches' letter; and I am confident that no one who knows how strongly I have urged the necessity of Science Teaching in schools, and to what an extent I have been engaged therein for the last ten years, will accuse me of Mathematical bias or Classical prejudice.

Faithfully yours,

Albert Memorial College, Framlingham,
Dec. 22nd, 1882.

A. H. SCOTT WHITE.

P.S.—Botany and Zoology, originally forming Section 9, are now placed with Chemistry and the Physical subjects, under the heading Natural Philosophy; the heading, "Science," would, I venture to think, have been more appropriate.

A NEW EDITION OF ARNOLD'S LIFE.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

STR,—I have been reading lately Arnold's Life, and found in it singularly little that is interesting to the schoolmaster—nor much,

save the beautiful description of his death, to anybody now-a-days. Now, Arnold will be remembered as a schoolmaster. It would be, I think, a worthy work if, by publishing this letter, or in any other way, the attention of someone competent to write for schoolmasters, and the world, the life of England's greatest schoolmaster, could be called to this subject before it is too late. There is, perhaps, one pen preeminently fitted for such a task.

Such a work should, with care, avoid the dry-bones of ephemeral theology, and, if Arnold's letters are all upon matters of that kind, should give us less of them and more of his Rugby life.

It is a mistake to suppose that letters are always a reflection of life. Nor would Stanley's work be superseded: there is room for two lives on very different lines of so two-sided a man, so earnest a theologian, and so eminent a schoolmaster.—I am, Sir,

Your obedient servant,
C. S. J.

A CORRECTION.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

STR,—In the review of my edition of Lessing's *Nathan der Weise*, in the last number of your Journal, the writer remarks, that I proceeded inconsistently in my numbering of the lines. Allow me to say that such is not the case. In the first issue of my edition of *Wilhelm Tell*, in which I introduced, for the first time in this country, the system of continuous marginal numbering of German classics—the lines were numbered according to the printing; but this was simply a printer's error, which I discovered too late to remedy the defect in that issue. In the second issue of that drama, however, as well as in all my subsequent editions of German dramas in verse, I uniformly adopted the usual plan of counting the lines according to the metre,

I am, &c.,

King's College, London.

January, 1883.

C. A. BUCHHEIM.

SCHOOL STATISTICS IN HUNGARY.—The eleventh report of Dr. A. Trefort, Minister of Public Instruction, is just issued, and contains the following items concerning the higher schools and universities in 1881-2:—Public schools (gymnasiums and real-schools).—There were 151 gymnasiums (eighty-four of them full with eight classes) and twenty-eight real-schools (twenty-one of them full with eight classes). The number of pupils enrolled in the gymnasiums was 33,679, and that enrolled in the real-schools 4,918, together 38,567. Average in a gymnasium was 289, in a real-school 175.5 pupils. The number of masters and teachers was in the 179 high schools 8,424, average number of pupils to a teacher (in the gymnasium); 17; in the real-school, 10.8. Total expenditure for the gymnasiums, 2,611,130 fl.; and that for the real-schools, 701,356 fl., together 3,312,486 fl. Average expenditure for a teacher (in the gymnasium) 1,157 fl., the real-schools, 1,475 fl., average expenditure for a pupil 67 fl. and 137 fl. According to the character of the high schools, there were State gymnasiums and real-schools 9+17 = 14.5 per cent.; Roman Catholic gymnasiums, 52 = 29.1 per cent.; Lutheran, 25+2 = 15.2 per cent.; Calvinist, 28 gymnasiums, = 15.7 per cent.; Greek Catholic, 3 gymnasiums, = 1.6 per cent.; Jewish, one real-school, = 0.6 per cent., etc. The number of pupils increased in the last ten years by 2,103 in the gymnasiums; on the contrary, there is a decrease in the real-schools of 554. The number of Roman Catholic pupils increased during the last ten years, 25.6 per cent.; that of the Greek Catholic, 6.1 per cent.; that of the Evangelical Lutheran, 9.7 per cent.; and that of the Jews, 160.2 per cent. The number of Hungarian pupils increased 1.7 per cent.; that of the Germans 31.1 per cent.; that of the Roumanians, 8.3 per cent.; that of the Slavs, 21.6 per cent.; and that of the Servian Croats, 5 per cent. Of 1,000 pupils, 691 spoke two languages; the German language was spoken by 451.5 pupils, and but 30.9 per cent. spoke only one language. From every 1,000 pupils were rejected at the examinations 227; in the real-schools, 263. On the average, there is for every 76,700 souls a high school. Universities.—There were enrolled (1) in the University of Buda-Pest, at the commencement of the school year 1882-3, 3,314 students (86 students in divinity, 1,616 in the faculty of law, 1,041 in the faculty of medicine, 324 in the faculty of philosophy (including sciences and mathematics); 183 are apothecary students, and 84 students of midwifery. (2) The University of Kolozsvár (Klausenburg) numbers 430 students in the four faculties (faculties of philosophy, of law, of medicine, and of science). The Joseph Polytechnicum at Buda-Pest numbers 589 students. Increases this year, 113.

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OCCASIONAL NOTES.

ON the principle of *audi alteram partem*, we extract from a recently published *Biograph* of the Archbishop Designate, a remarkable apology for Latin Verse-making:—

"Those who know Dr. Benson intimately will have heard him say, that to have a copy of verses looked over and corrected by Dr. Prince Lee, was a lesson to last for one's whole life. If the copy of verses was worthy of being corrected, no amount of trouble was spared; perhaps the whole afternoon was spent in the correction. The boy's own idea, however much overlaid or misrepresented by blemishes or mistakes, was treated with the utmost reverence; as much as possible, only the materials which he had brought were used; the conception, which he had tried but had failed to express, was patiently drawn out and elaborated, and then at last re-presented to him in as beautiful and as faultless a form as the idea was capable of receiving from the given materials. The process was a masterpiece of education. It is obvious to guess, that Benson's verses probably contained some one or two unmistakable signs of coming power. However this may have been, the lesson so taught to a boy quick, receptive, and sympathetic, reached far beyond the occasion which called it forth. It moulded not the intellect, or the power of making verses only, but the whole character, and we can trace its effect in the after history of the man. For this enthusiastic recognition of a divine idea and plan, to be traced amidst the ruins whether of a character, or a system, or a Church, and this resolve to use the materials at hand, and patiently to build with them until the idea is evolved, have been the guiding principles which have enabled Bishop Benson, first as Head-master of Wellington College, to build a large school from the very beginning; to refound, as Chancellor of Lincoln, an ancient school of theology, and to revive at Truro an ancient see in all its parts."

The profane will possibly be reminded of Dean Swift's "Meditations on a Broomstick," but we should be the last to deny that, with such a master as Dr. Prince Lee and such a pupil as Dr. Benson, the composition of verses was, if not a masterpiece of education, a most valuable intellectual gymnastic and exercise in taste and style. If it is an exaggeration to attribute to it Dr. Benson's success as a head-master and a bishop, it is perfectly true that proficiency in Latin verse was the first rung of the ladder, and scholars still remember the brilliant translation of " 'Twas on a vase's lofty side," which was written in the examination for the Chancellors' Medals. It is hardly necessary to point out, that a single instance, however brilliant, is no argument in favour of universal Verse-making. We need not starve a whole hive, in order to breed a queen bee. Chinese mandarins are trained in Chinese dialectics, and if our schools had inherited the tradition of double acrostics instead of Latin verse, we may be sure that some *a posteriori* philosopher would have

proved that proficiency in double acrostics was the best preparation for an archbishop.

THE Congress of French Masters, the report of which will be found in another column, was in some respects an improvement on that of last year. The same speakers, it is true, traversed almost the same ground, but there was far less of trades-unionism. The cry for more hours and more masters is a very natural one, and we agree with the French masters that two hours a week is insufficient time for learning a new language. But from this to M. Hamonet's minimum of six hours is a wide leap, and to attempt to lay down "a scholastic programme" for all schools where French is taught, without regard to their grade, or the rest of their curriculum, shows a want of judgment. With the depreciation of the historical study of the language and grammar, and the exaltation of colloquial French, we have no sympathy, but we need not repeat what we said last year.

THE *Daily Telegraph*, in a highly complimentary article on the French Conference, has only one fault to find. Their reforms are not radical enough. M. Hamonet postulated six hours a week for French. Our contemporary recommends for our adoption the system pursued in the *Ecole des Pages* at St. Petersburg. "Therein one-half of the cadet's educational time is given up to French and German. On alternate days they must, under severe penalties, speak one or other of these languages, and none else. Whatsoever the nature of their studies may be, the medium of their studies must be the tongue of the Gaul or the Teuton. There is no way out of it, and at the end of his course the cadet leaves his school a complete master of two languages, in addition to his own." Such a result, or something like it (for we agree with Mr. Hamerton, that men who are complete masters of two languages at the same time are rare prodigies), is undoubtedly possible; but the question is, whether the game is worth the candle. The experiment of teaching history and science through the medium of French, has been fairly tried by several competent masters, and pronounced a failure. They tell us, what we should have inferred beforehand, that the strain both on boys and masters is too great. The fundamental rule of attending to one thing at a time, is violated. The cross fire of question and answer, the *argumenta ad puerum*, the joke, the quip, the home thrust, which are the life and soul of a lesson as distinguished from a lecture, are all lost or obscured, owing to the imperfect medium of communication, and the class creeps along like a train in a fog. The Russian system, we fear, would give us, at the best, young Mezzofantis. After all, it is better to make sure of a little in one language, than to risk universal ignorance in three.

ENCOURAGED by the example of their French *confrères*, the Germans are proposing to form a national *Verband*.

We have before us a circular letter addressed to German teachers in foreign parts. The objects of the union therein proposed are—(1) To open discussions on questions of international education in some scholastic organ; (2) to keep German students and colleagues informed of vacancies, &c., and of fluctuations in the educational market; (3) to form a central union with branches for mutual help and conference, and to keep touch with the *deutsche Lehrwelt*. This programme is less ambitious, but not less useful, than the French professors'. Such information as that promised under the second head is greatly needed. London is at present overstocked with German teachers. For a post with the modest salary of £150 a year, which was lately advertised, there were over forty applicants, many of them teachers of long experience and with the highest credentials. We gladly lend a helping hand to this modest and thoroughly practical scheme. Germans in England are requested to communicate with Herr H. Baumann, 52 Acre Lane, Brixton, S.W.

We hope that Mr. Mundella's advocacy, at Birmingham, of the class-room system may convert some School Boards in the country, and that even the London Board may be ultimately converted, and follow the example of Birmingham. The one objection to it is the increased expense; but, as Mr. Mundella said, it is after all the truest economy, for it will economize the time, strength, energy, and temper, both of the teacher and the taught.

MR. CHAMBERLAIN, speaking on the same occasion, was strong in favour of decentralization and the free action of local authorities. If Birmingham wishes to try the experiment of free education, it does seem reasonable that the Department should not forbid it. If the vast majority of the town wish to use their educational endowments in opening secondary schools to the best elementary scholars, it does seem hard that the Charity Commissioners should interfere and oblige them to charge an annual fee of three pounds.

"ACADEMICUS," in the *Times* of Jan. 13th, brings a serious indictment against the Oxford and Cambridge Joint Board Examinations, and urges a sweeping reform. The present Examination is "cumbrous, laborious, and costly"; it wastes the time of distinguished University men, who ought to be employed in lecturing, or in original research; one-fifth of the candidates are examined twice over for certificates; less than one-fifth of these certificates qualify the holder to compete for Honours at Cambridge; and, lastly, there are no safeguards against fraud or negligence. The reform proposed is, in brief, the German *Abiturienten-Examen*, an examination conducted by the staffs of the schools, under the superintendence of University assessors. We think that "Academicus" fully substantiates his charges, and makes out a good case for some such change. On a minor point we differ from him. He would reduce

the subjects of examination to a minimum, and admit none that are not included in "Responsions" and the "Little Go." He apparently overlooks the fact that these examinations are contrived a double debt to pay,—to test the fitness of candidates to profit by a University education, and to gauge the year's work at school. If History, Modern Languages, and Science were discarded, the little that is at present taught of these subjects would be likely to prove a vanishing quantity.

We are glad to see that two physicians, Dr. J. F. Payne and Dr. Farquharson, M.P., have been lecturing on the Hygiene of the Schoolroom. The latter, in his paper read to the Educational Congress at Aberdeen, on 5th January (see *Educational News*, January 20th), urged that all elementary schools should be under medical inspection. We heartily agree with him, and we should go still further and include all the schools in the country. A correspondent has, this month, told us of the state in which he found a "middle class" school, and medical inspection might with advantage go higher still. Dr. Farquharson says,—“The public-school boy, who costs his parents £100 to £300 a year, is, or *ought to be* [our italics], placed amid such carefully-arranged hygienic surroundings that it is quite the exception to find him suffering from the effects of over-work. He is well fed, well housed, well clothed.” What are the facts? We have known public-school boys who did not think themselves well fed, and who spent their pocket money, or got in debt, not for sweets, but for substantial food to satisfy hunger. We have seen public-school boys put to work in places which no inspector in the kingdom would have "passed" in an elementary school. We have known masters' boarding houses found, on a change of tenants, to be in a thoroughly bad condition, in which they must have been for years. As to "well clothed," the parents pay the tailor's bill, and there is now, as far as we can tell, nothing to object to in this description of the public-school boy; but, in days not so very remote, none but the sixth form were allowed to wear overcoats, even in the most inclement weather. There are some important "hygienic surroundings" which we think would at once be suggested by a medical inspector, but we have said enough to prove that Dr. Farquharson is rash in assuming that it must be all right with your boy if you pay from £100 to £300 a year for him.

How much does the average public-school boy spend in "grub"? The amount varies from the Harrow boy, who leaves owing £70 at the "tuck" shop (we can vouch for the fact), to the Haileybury boy, who lives under the strictest sumptuary laws. Though it may be difficult to strike a balance, an experiment that was lately tried in a school of medium expense will afford some data for an estimate. The numbers were about 250. The grub shops

were put out of bounds, and a school store started by one of the masters. In the first year, he turned over £1,300, and, in three years' time, he was enabled to build a racquet court with the profits, which amounted to nearly £1,000. This gives an average of over £5 a year spent by each boy in "grub."

MOST stories concerning the school-days of great men go to show that their masters failed to perceive any spark of future genius. Swift, Goldsmith, Byron, Napoleon, Wellington are obvious instances in point. Gambetta's masters are an exception, and may take to themselves the credit of reading his character, and predicting his brilliant destiny. His first tutors at the seminary prophesied that he would make a great figure in life, "but never," they regretfully added, "as a churchman." In one of their reports he was set down as *un esprit rebelle, turbulent*. This, indeed, was only half the truth, but the bulletin of the Cahors Lycée, to which he was removed, exactly hits the mark,—“Passionate without being vindictive, and proud without arrogance.” The *Times* tells a characteristic story of his Lycée days. In 1855, M. Fortoul, the Minister of Public Instruction, visited Cahors, and Gambetta, as head of the school, had to deliver before him a Latin oration. The speech had been, as usual, revised by the Head-master, but, in delivering it, Gambetta inserted some unauthorised reflections of his own upon the reign of Tiberius, by whom he pretty clearly denoted Napoleon III. What gave piquancy to this escapade was, that M. Fortoul, who had followed the speech as attentively as the Governors at an English Speech-day, patted young Gambetta on the head at the close of the oration, and said, “*Très bien, très bien.*”

OUR contemporary and namesake in New England, in an article headed “Girls should Study the Newspaper,” enforces without reservation Cobden's unfortunate remark, that a single number of the *Times* contains more valuable information than all the works of Thucydides. With an unintentional irony, the writer, who advocates this new educational nostrum, himself supplies the antidote. His speech bewrayeth him. “It (the newspaper) furnishes a *reliable* view of the nation *now*. *Sitting by our firesides*, with this wonderful sheet in hand, history, as it is making now, pours in upon us from every quarter of the habitable globe. We learn . . . whether the Czar of Russia has been on the street within twenty-four hours; how Gladstone and Bright appeared in their seats in the British Parliament this morning; and what is *transpiring* on our Western frontier, and within the Golden Gate.” American schoolmasters will not be tempted to exchange the English of Shakspere and Milton, of Prescott and Irving, for *Journalese* like this; even though Dr. Abbott tells them that two copies of the *New York Tribune* contain as much matter as an ordinary dollar book, and cost only eight cents, and though the *New England Journal of Education*

adds, that this fact alone pushes the newspaper to the front in the civilization of our times.

OUR lively contemporary, the *Illinois School Journal*, devotes many pages to school news; but owing, doubtless, to our ignorance of the language and institutions, we have been much puzzled and perplexed by some of its announcements. From the January number we cull the following items:—“Moultrie county is a small one territorially, but its teachers are as big and saucy as if they lived in McLean. Wm. D. Brandon is winning golden opinions at Bethany. He will be heard from yet, for he is aggressive as well as progressive.” “Annie McGinley is writing in Chicago. Wm. O'Connor, after fifty-two weeks of continuous study, has commenced a school in LaSalle county.” “Miss Julia Scott, late assistant in mathematics in the University, has also fallen a victim to the arts of wily man. The profession loses a mind-awakener; nevertheless, we extend our heartiest congratulations.” “Principal Collins observed the same fault in holding the pen in Chicago, that we have here. The principal of one school he visited being a diminutive lady, he inquired anxiously about the flogging. ‘There is none; scholars are suspended.’ . . . He saw some lively going over the stairs, but they are not steep.” A country district in Rock Island County “wants an experienced male teacher, who can teach well, and is able to knock down and drag out several large boys. They will pay \$5 per month extra for such a one.” Will some of our American subscribers inform us whether these announcements are serious or sarcastic? We should like also to know whether Mrs. Professor Haynie is correct in stating that the words “well,” “ill,” are often used as “adjective modifiers,” *e.g.*, “the well man,” “the ill man”? As the same lady maintained, in the previous number of the *Journal*, that in the sentence, “Build me straight,” &c., *me* was a direct object, and *straight* an attributive object, we imagine that this novel use of *well* and *ill* is not an Americanism, but an idiom of the Frau Professorin.

THE attendance at the German Universities has been increasing of late years to an extent which will doubtless furnish Mr. M. Arnold with a new “wedge to rend the mass of English Philistinism,” but which causes no little alarm to German publicists. The number of students has risen from 15,113 in the summer of 1872, to 23,834 in the summer of 1882, an increase of no less than 57.6 per cent. The German authorities point out that this increase is out of all proportion to the increased demand of the age for men of higher education, and an official warning has just been issued against students taking up the law as a profession, as its ranks are already hopelessly overerowed. The same social problem, though in a less degree, has arisen in England. The older universities have hardly kept pace with the growth of the population, but new universities have risen up, and all the professions, except the Church, are overcrowded. We should like to furnish similar

statistics of the increase of English undergraduates, but, in the absence of a Bureau of Education, such information is a work of time and troublesome research.

A HOUSE-MASTER brings to our notice a book which parents and schoolmasters should be warned against, as he has reason to believe that it has some circulation in schools. This wolf in sheep's clothing is got up like the ordinary Christmas book, and bears an innocent title. In fact, it is an English version of French *fabliaux*, the gross obscenity of which is only equalled by the ribald blasphemy. We forbear giving the title of this precious volume for fear of possibly advertising it.

A GOOD deal is to be learnt from advertisements. Some are well worthy of general consideration, and we shall now and then call the attention of our readers to them. The advertiser cannot complain of our giving him an increase of what he seeks, publicity. We will begin with the following, which we take, without omissions and without comment, from the *Standard*, of January 23rd:—

WANTED, a GOVERNESS for two children; age under 25; she must be a lady, member of the Church of England, a good vocalist and musician, able to teach drawing and impart a sound English education, with needlework; salary £20.—Apply, personally, or by letter, enclosing photograph and references, with stamped addressed envelope for their return, to Lydney House, Westcombe Park, Blackheath, S.E.

POETRY.

ELEGIES.

I.

Ἐτελεύτησε παρθένος . . . ἀπῆλθε δὲ ἐννέα καὶ δέκατις.
Eustath. ad. II. B

II.

Νῦν δ' ἐκτὸς οἴκων, κατὰ γῆς ἄλλης φυγὰς
Κακῶς ἀπώλου, σῆς κασιγνήτης δίχα.
Soph. Electra.

Two jewels lost—Oh, long divided pair!
Backward through time I turn to look for them,
And one I find beneath a cypress-stem
Hid many a summer deep—the other, where?
By time and space so far asunder tost,
That, in a dreamland early casketed,
This, in the after years so wildly lost—
Few miss them now, few count the long since dead.
Yet tost by time and space so far apart,
Brother and Sister! meet within my heart!

ERINNA died, a flame extinguished soon—
For flame she was, of such enchanted fire
As once soared upward on Arabia's noon,
When the last Phoenix vanished from the pyre.
But half a child through all her childish time,
Still half a child in girlhood's strenuous prime,
By Duty's bride ring with such passion worn,
By Fancy's sparkling, flowery, fairy wand,
That wrought grave wonders in her firm young hand—
By Nature's own sweet science at grey morn
Revealed, in wandering woodland-studies dear—
By these inspired, and ancient lore austere,
And the full heart that ever rushed to meet
The Fair and Good, and worship at their feet—

She lived on heights and knew not they were high,
On fire, and knew not other souls were cold;
She would have learnt it all, but was to die,
Ere yet her eaglet-wings she could unfold
For her true mates to search the world, and ask
Her share in their appointed beauteous task.
Some task was waiting for her, so we deem,
Its hopes, its fears, its failures, all untried;
But now her little lifetime seems a dream,
So long ago, and so unknown she died.
Now the red rose-leaf on the pure young cheek,
More childlike as time moves, and leaves her there,
And eyes which sprang up ere the lips could speak,
Melt into shadow through the drooping hair.
Now all that girlhood, now that flushed, intense,
Young fever, are a whisper of the night,
A faint sweet resurrection, a strange sense
Of absence unexplained till morning light.
And whilst her memory in its crystal urn
Gleams fair as silver through the dust of years,
Cold evermore where sky and ocean burn
With azure fire that isle of sepulchres,
'TwiXt purple passion flower and whitest rose,
Where Death a garden's summer queen appears,
She sleeps—but others live for other tears.

II.

Ah, her young darling is not one of those!
His tale for her untold, its stormy close
Rent other hearts, but stirred not her repose;
Ungessed by her the strange and cheerless bed
Where rests, for ever rests, his weary head;
And nothing of *their* haunted life she knows,
For whom an awful star, 'twixt wind and wave,
Still hovers o'er a merciless despair,
Still hovers o'er their treasure hidden there,
Their treasure in a never fathomed grave—
Who dare not look, but feel the ghastly gleam,
While years of silence tell them 'tis no dream—
To whom across the world and waste of sea,
Two mute sad eyes still turn their solemn gaze,
Hopeless of home—"Forget me not," it says:
"I am not lost, while Love remembers me."

Oh, faithful to the bidding of those eyes
Oh, faithful to the tender heart of fire!
Love yearns for thee with unextinguished sighs,
But knows that with *her* death thy memory dies;
And dies with it one sacred sole desire,
To gather up the scattered dust of death,
To charm the long-lost phantom back to light,
And that dear semblance to all time bequeath—
Vain bitter prayer for bitter sweet delight!
In what strange lines of beauty should I draw thee?
In what sad purple dreamshine paint thee true?
How should I make them see who never saw thee?
How should I make them know who never knew?

Beauteous, mysterious, solitary boy,
Awakening slowly to the Poet's joy!
Fire-fountain of young genius, showering rays
Of ruby sparkle through thy blackest days—
Heart in its hardy frame of manhood, ever
Kept fresh and dewy through the stony ways,
And dust of toil, with all its vain endeavour—
O, pathos of the dreaming azure gaze,
Mute mirror of the wonders far away,
That once so witched with its unconscious blaze
The stranger-artist—quenchless to this day,
Like stars burnt out in ages long gone by,
Whose phantoms still are splendid in the sky—
So all with thee, dear love, is dark and blind;
With us, the smile, the flash, the glory, stay behind!
But words tell nothing—How tell half the rest?

The fancy's quaint inventiveness of jest—
Wild, beautiful caprices of a speech
Now long unwritten, mute, and past from reach—
The rebel spirit's freeborn questionings,
Past use and fashion, to the core of things—
But words tell nothing. Dim, how dim, alas!
My painting shows upon no magic glass.

Ah, where to seek him? Many a desert place
Of lovely wonders once had known him well,
And pilgrim fancy follows on his trace;
But, when she seems to find his missing face,
And weeping prays him all his tale to tell—
No word she hears save, "Nevermore! Farewell!"
*Never the freezing forest, which the grim
North-easter sets a-tremble with one sigh,
Through all its plummy pine-tops in the sky,
Then rends with crash and uproar limb from limb—
Shall shut again its cedarn gates on him,
Nor whisper age-long secrets any more
Around the darning, dreaming hermit's door.
Of the gold moon shall climb her midnight stair,
Above drear summits of the hemlock tree—
With pale auroras decked, like streaming hair,
And from her chilly throne shall seek him there—
But her young lonely Poet, where is he?
From his wild prison where the stealthy Death
Went whispering through the trees with poniard breath,
Down thy snow gallery, thou steel-bound river,
Long since that Poet passed away for ever.

Ah, where to seek him? For no longer now
In richer wilds and skied with fiercer blue,
The beauteous frown of sleep upon his brow,
Dreaming he lies, deep in the dawn's chill dew,
No more his flocks their desert pasture roam,
No more he toils, a miner in the wild;
But, ah, for ever, evermore exiled,
For ever lost the solemn hope of home!
Brave, hardy wanderer, still through loss and pain
Athirst for beauty in earth, sky, and sea,
For thee no glaring prize, no vulgar gain
Was destined—but sweet nature wedded thee;
And caught thee up with her to heaven's third height,
And things, by man unspeakable, she told—
Oh, what a soul was swept into the night!
Oh, what a heart in the cold deep lies cold!
What passion buried there its joy and pain!—
Oh sea and storm! Oh homeward bound in vain!
Oh home bereft, what long expectant years
Closed with that darling life in hopeless tears!

III.

Vain broken promise of unfinished lives!
From your untimely ashes what survives?
Who shall fulfil your un-lived half of life?
Who win the crown of your unfoughten strife?
Is your lost future like the dusky shade
The new moon carries in her golden boat?
Ah, no; for in full royalty arrayed
The perfect orb through ether yet shall float;
But neither light nor colour comes to thee,
Faint outline of a life that shall not be!
On that blank page, the student, Fancy, reads
The unwritten story of what should have been,
Sees, mournful paradox, the never seen,
And knows what was not. Yet the grief which needs,
For life's support, a faith and not a dream,
Holds that the spirit in its sigh supreme
With sudden flame shall interpenetrate
Some form unearthly in some unknown state,
A beauteous mystery of meeting bliss,
Reserving for the souls that weep and wait.

* See "Two Months on the Tobique."

But vainly towards that state we strain from this;
The earthly heart, the face, the self we miss,
'Tis that which *was* we fain would re-create.
We talk in earth's old language to our lost,
With our own sighs revivify its ghost;
The form Love meets advancing through the gloom,
Is but the reflex of her own desire,
Flashed on the glass, as in a darkening room
We meet ourselves.—Love once within the tomb,
Shall not that reflex of herself expire?
Can any form our thought may fashion here
Have life beyond this bounding atmosphere?

Yet, long lost sister! can a soul like thine
Drop from the march of Nature's foremost line
So early, so unmissed? Can all her pride
In that rich promise be so cast aside?—
Oh, long lost brother! Shall the myriad years
Make plain to Man this mystery of tears?
Shall light come ever to this blind sad Earth
That knows not what is death nor what is birth?
It will; but not to me. Earth yet shall know,
By a new light, the secret of her past,
Shall ask no more, "Why do I suffer so?"
But smile in one great harmony at last.
And we, with faith in what we shall not see,
May call the dead whose tomb is in our heart,
To rise and take their own unconscious part
Of service in the glory that shall be.
For, could we link their memories to the chain
Of souls whose lights in long procession move
From Past to Future, so might yearning love
Behold their buried beauty live again,
To glide with solemn purifying glow
Along the endless way the ages go;
Might joy o'er something added—casting in
Such jewels—to the world's great treasure heap;
And here and there from living souls might win
Some reverent fellowship with souls that sleep.

Oh perfect Race to be! Oh perfect Time!
Maturity of Earth's unhappy youth!
Race whose undazzled eyes shall see the truth,
Made wise by all the errors of your prime!
Oh Bliss and Beauty of the ideal Day!
Forget not when your march has reached its goal
The rich and reckless waste of heart and soul
You left so far behind you on your way!
Forget not, Earth, when thou shalt stretch thy hands
In blessing o'er thy happy sons and daughters,
And lift in triumph thy maternal head,
Circled the sun with music from all lands,
In anthems like the noise of many waters—
Forget not, Earth, thy disappointed Dead!
Forget not, Earth, thy disinherited!
Forget not the Forgotten! Keep a strain
Of divine sorrow in sweet undertone
For all the dead who lived and died in vain!
Imperial Future, when in countless train
The generations lead thee to thy throne.
Forget not the Forgotten and Unknown!

L. SHORE.

REVIEWS AND MINOR NOTICES.

The Handy Book of Object Lessons. From a Teacher's Note Book. By J. WALKER. First Series (no date), 98 pp. Second Series, 1875, 129 pp. (London: Jarrold & Sons.)
These books, whether in themselves good, bad, or indifferent, have several claims on our notice. The first of them, as its title-page tells us, is in its thirty-second thousand. It is a book for teachers in elementary schools, and such teachers, when they buy a book, use it. In elementary schools the

classes are very large and the children must keep moving. On a modest computation we may assume, then, that on an average, at least one hundred children have been taught by means of every copy sold, so that this work has already affected the instruction given to more than three million children. Perhaps the writer of so successful a book need not trouble himself about the reviewer, but the reviewer should certainly not lose sight of him.

These books about *things* are also very interesting in connexion with the history of school teaching. In the sixteenth century the instruction given in schools was purely formal, consisting of the old *trivium* (grammar, logic, rhetoric) modified by the new passion for the ancient languages. Then the Realists raised the cry of "Not words, but things!" and from that time the study of things has been gradually encroaching on the study of language. The sale of thirty-one thousand of Mr. J. Walker's *Object Lessons* is one of the many signs that this teaching about *things* is becoming more and more the custom in our elementary schools: and when we reflect how little the poor have to do with words and how much with *things*, we are inclined to welcome the change, and to wonder that literary instruction has so long kept its ascendancy.

The chief impediment to *real* instruction (to use the word "real" in its old meaning) is that teachers are accustomed to teach about books and by means of books, and are utterly helpless when called upon to teach about things and by means of things. Perhaps matters may mend when the teachers have themselves had in their own youth a realistic training. Meantime they are often driven to the getting up of "Notes of Lessons" on subjects in which they have neither knowledge nor interest. In such cases the teaching must be miserably bad, for the thing that should be taught has not taken root in the mind of the teacher. If there is no royal road to learning for those who are to receive instruction, still less can there be for those who are to give it. The pupils will not get clearer ideas than their teachers: and if the teacher has no clear ideas, but only shreds and patches of information acquired simply for the "lesson," instead of bread he might as well offer the children a stone; mental starvation must be the result.

In the little book before us we have "notes of lessons" on sixty-six subjects given in less than 100 pages. If the 30,000 teachers who have used the book had previous knowledge of the subjects they must have been dissatisfied with many of the "notes." If they came to the book simply for knowledge to pass on to their pupils, their so-called instruction must have been little better than an imposture.

The plan of a book for teachers seems to us a very good one, and the hints on "method" here given are likely to be useful; but the "matter" of the lessons seems made up of jottings from an encyclopædia, taken down in such awkward English as to be here and there hardly intelligible. If "notes" are to serve any good purpose at all, they should put before teachers, not a condensed account of the "object," but a selection of the teachable things connected with it. Everything that does not conduce to a clear teachable idea simply confuses and bewilders. Yet Mr. Walker in a single page devoted to "tin" informs us that the Scilly Islands were called in "the time of the Romans" Cassiterides. We learn from the preface that Mr. Walker considers this fit "information to be imparted" by "young teachers in country schools"!

The subjects of the lessons seem to us, in the first series at least, to be well chosen; but is the book intended to give information, or just to methodize information which the teacher has gained from other sources? Let us take the very first lesson, that on the elephant, and see which theory of his task the author has adopted. As the whole of this first lesson, including both "matter" and "method," takes little more than a page, we might suppose that the methodizing and suggesting theory had been adopted. And consistently with this we have such clauses as "illus: the tailor of Surat." But other paragraphs attempt to give information and to enable the teacher to seem to know what he does not know. What would young teachers in country schools think about the capture of elephants, after studying the following paragraph: "iv. How

captured—A herd is surrounded by hunters, who drive the elephants into an enclosure. Here they are bound to trees, beaten often by tame elephants, called "decoys," kept without food for a week or a fortnight, after which they generally become docile." (p. 10.)

We have long known what a crammed learner is. In some elementary schools we may now find a still greater monstrosity, viz., the learner who has been taught by a crammed teacher.

We said that Mr. Walker's English is often so awkward that we fail to catch his meaning; e.g., in the second lesson, that on "the Lion," he writes, "iv. Uses. (1) To hunt.—This is done chiefly in Africa. It is a very dangerous sport, horses and their riders sometimes falling victims to their madness." (p. 11.) Goldsmith says: "They swore the dog was mad, To bite so good a man." Does Mr. Walker think that horses must be mad to hunt so dangerous an animal as the lion? Or is it the lions that are mad, those especially which prefer killing to being killed?

We should be sorry to do Mr. Walker any injustice, so we gladly recognize all the merit we can find in his book. We have said that in the first series his subjects are well chosen, and his hints on "method" are no doubt useful. Besides this, he sometimes gives facts interesting in themselves and worth adding to the teacher's store of knowledge, when that store already exists. But, taking the most favourable estimate possible, we cannot see in the book sufficient merit to account for its immense circulation. Is it possible that teachers, more particularly those in West Cheshire, find a special attraction in the announcement on the title-page,—"*REVISED BY REV. H. SMITH, H.M.I. OF SCHOOLS FOR WEST CHESHIRE*"? Teachers whose professional success, whose very livelihood, depends on the reports of the Rev. H. Smith, must think two or three shillings well spent in procuring a book in which the all-powerful Inspector takes such a lively interest. To us Mr. Smith is Mr. Smith and nothing more, and it seems to us that an Inspector of schools strangely abuses the influence derived from his office when he allows his name to appear on the title-page of a school-book. We have good reason for believing that some of the inspectors of inspectors think so too.

Hitherto we have spoken of the first series. The second series seems not to have had the advantage of being revised by an Inspector, and we sincerely hope it will never gain the circulation of the first. Perhaps there are already (horrid thought!) pupil teachers and even "advanced pupils" in our elementary schools who can talk about chymification, chyfication, absorption, and defœcation, and can inform you that two adjacent membranes are enabled to interchange their contents by osmosis, &c. &c. Mr. Walker under the head of "Physiology" has given thirty-eight pages of this sort of thing, and this is followed by about the same quantity of Physical Geography. "The Author" considerably "wishes it to be understood that these lessons by no means embrace the *whole* or even the greater part of the sciences to which they belong" (Preface). Mr. Walker is right. His lessons do not embrace the whole of these sciences. The only thing questionable in his statement is, whether the lessons can be said in any sense to "belong" to them.

Elements of Morality: in easy Lessons for Home and School Teaching. By Mrs. CHARLES BRAY. (Longmans, Green, & Co.)

This is an attempt to make intelligible to children, by simple language and easy illustrations, the meaning of a worthy life. As the foundation of a child's knowledge of right and wrong is laid in the experience of the family and the school, Mrs. Bray appeals to that experience, and makes it show how much one gains by truthfulness, industry, obedience, and pure and unselfish thoughts. From the life that it knows, the child is led on to consider the larger life of the family of mankind, wherein it will still be called upon to exercise the same virtues, and be guided by the same motives. It learns that the spirit of fairness that rules its own play is the same thing as that honesty which forms the basis of all business relations; that obedience to parents differs not in principle from that respect

which the good citizen pays to the laws of his country. Beyond society, again, is the animal world, towards which we have duties similar, though more restricted. Yet another step is taken, for Mrs. Bray rightly feels that our moral nature is elevated by converse with nature, which leaves in every mind, not wholly selfish, some measure of the love and reverence which Wordsworth felt. Nothing could be better than this simplification of the subject, by showing the harmony of its parts; and the design is well worked out. "Because it pleases God," was an argument which satisfied children less than it did their elders, and Mrs. Bray has abandoned it. She is careful, also, to force upon children nothing which their experience will not bear out. She does not, for example, ask them to believe that labour is a thing to be desired for its own sake. She does not insist, indeed, on tracing out everything with rigid logic; yet, without forgetting that her main purpose is to implant a moral feeling, that the emotional thrill, raised by the recital of a generous or brave action, is more powerful than reason itself, she speaks throughout in a spirit of gentle utilitarianism; teaching the plain and intelligible truth that morality pays in the end. The person who is industrious and truthful (though, perhaps, an acute child might question the sufficiency of the proof in the case of truthfulness) brings happiness to himself and to all his neighbours, who, for the service that is done them, will be the more ready to render service in return. Even in the slightest matter, our conduct must have some effect, whether for good or for evil. Again and again, as we might expect from one on whom George Eliot has exercised so great an influence, Mrs. Bray dwells on the fact that every thought, word, and deed is like the stone thrown into the water, sending forth widening circles, whose limits none can see. We prefer such teaching to irritating dogma. The style of the book is marked by a healthy simplicity, of which short but striking testimony lies in the fact that the word "morality" occurs hardly anywhere else than on the title page.

Mrs. Bray's work has been done so well as to double our regret for some defects we are compelled to note. It is unfortunate that it was not subjected, before publication, to a close revision. Inaccuracy and carelessness are faults absolutely unpardonable in a book written for children; yet we meet at every turn with mistakes of grammar, misprints, and misquotations. That there should be a page, containing an example of each of these—calling the sun "the beneficent Opollo," mis-using a tense, and misquoting Wordsworth—is a grave matter; but Mrs. Bray has allowed such a page to remain. A book, admirable in other respects, has been injured by such blots.

One other fault we have to find, but it is of a more venial nature, springing not so much from want of care as from an error in judgment. At the end of each chapter is placed a series of questions, intended to test how far the chapter has been understood; but they have not been so framed as to carry out this intention. Presenting, as they do, simply a number of catch-words, they will show how much the child remembers of what has been said, and, beyond that, nothing. A bolder system should have been adopted. If, in the text, a point was looked at from one side, the question should have approached it from another; if a principle was exemplified in one way, the question should have invited a fresh example; the child should have been called upon for additional reasons to strengthen those already furnished to it. In short, to make the child think, the questions ought not have run parallel with the text.

These defects are, however, not so serious as to lessen materially the usefulness of a book which, in all other respects, we consider admirable.

Clarendon Press Series.—Corneille's Horace. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by GEORGE SAINTSBURY. (Oxford: at the Clarendon Press. 1882.)

The process of evolution with English editions of the standard works of French and German authors has been an exceedingly

slow one. For a long time, one had to be contented with the text, to which a few notes were appended, written without any guiding principle, and setting forth little more than the editor's knowledge of grammar and skill in making an indiscriminate use of biographical dictionaries. Gradually, productions of this kind became a drug in the market, and editions of a superior class made their appearance, first of German and afterwards also of French authors. In these the notes contained information such as could not readily be found in a dictionary, the style and the peculiar period of the language of the text were explained and criticised, and the chapters on the lives and the writings of the authors were satisfactory, if not original. At last we seem to have arrived, in French at least, at a third and higher stage, which may challenge comparison with the best editions of the classics. As a first instalment of this kind of edition, Mr. Saintsbury's "Horace" may be considered as an epoch-making book in its way. The notes, as well as the critical and biographical introductions, are entirely original, and thus his edition presents the unity and completeness of a work of art. Besides the chapter on Corneille's life and writings, there are three excellent essays on the development of French classical tragedy, from the period before Corneille to its final stage after Racine. The place of "Horace" among the other dramas of that period, and its choice as the best representative play of the Cornelian period, are described by a master hand in another chapter. To review the leading points in criticism which the editor has so ably argued, would carry us beyond our available space. Suffice it to observe, in conclusion, that the whole edition is singularly free from slips or misprints. We have only come across one, not of a serious nature. It is in the sixth of the Prolegomena, where the famous line, *Chaque goutte épargnée a sa gloire flétrie*, has *û* instead of *a*. This slip, however, is not repeated in the text.

Algebra. By F. G. LANDON. (Isbister & Co. 1882.)

On subjects which, like the great social or philosophical problems, interest all cultivated people, and where nearly all either think differently, or at least express themselves differently, it is hardly to be wondered at that new writings, from the treatise to the pamphlet or magazine article, are constantly appearing. But, in a subject like Algebra, at once technical and trite, one might expect a comparative immunity from production of second-rate authors. The expectation is groundless; year by year they come, and the critic, as he plods through his weary task, almost wishes that his enemy would not write a book. Since Mr. Todhunter's well-known treatise, we are not aware that any new light has been shed on Elementary Algebra; we do not think the new writers explain the subject any better than the old, if even so far. They explain a deal more, and indeed carry this so far sometimes, that one scarcely sees what there is left for the boy to exercise his own wits upon. In the present volume, the examples are said to be all original, and doubtless are so, yet they don't look much different from other examples. It seems to us that it is a mistake to work out in the text an example of every type. It may be useful for the private student, but it certainly leaves him no higher work than imitation.

The type of the book is large, but rather rough; the indices are often badly printed, and quite difficult to read—vide, *e.g.*, top of page 254.

Without working through a book in class, it is impossible to give an exhaustive opinion on its accuracy or inaccuracy. It is worth while, however to give a sample.

Take page 240. Answer to example 24 is wrong; in question 26 a letter is omitted; in 27 a mistake is made; in 28 the cube roots of 1 and 01 are asked for, without stating to how many places of decimals, and the answer is given to three places, without even the hint commonly given by a few dots, that the result is only approximate. For another specimen, take page 319. The answers to 22, 23, and 26 are all wrong, the last clearly through bad printing.

This ought to be enough. Todhunter's Algebra is, we believe, without a single error.

Landmarks of English Literature. By HENRY J. NICOLL.
(John Hogg. 1883.)

This latest history of English literature has many and just claims to popularity, and is, in some respects, an advance on previous manuals. The plan is good,—to deal solely with the greatest names, and to enlarge the scale as the stream of literature descends. It is a general fault of writers, either to weary of their task, or to fill in their background in such detail as to leave themselves no room for what, to readers at least, is the most interesting part of the picture. Green's "History," and Saintsbury's "French Literature," are glaring instances of a mistake that Mr. Nicoll has avoided. The style is good, easy, unaffected, and fluent, and at the same time epigrammatic, and occasionally racy. The book will impress on the general reader the salient traits of our chief poets and prose-writers. But here our praise must end. Mr. Nicoll's criticism is all, or nearly all, at second-hand. He does not tell us what he thinks of Chaucer, and Shakspeare, and Tennyson, but what Dryden and Mr. Green, and Mr. W. C. Roscoe have thought. It is something to have gathered the opinions of the best critics, and welded them together so skilfully as to conceal the joinings, but there can be no real unity in a book composed in this fashion. It is nothing but a clever *cento*. Occasionally the author, for all his cleverness, betrays himself, as when he gives the Apology for Poetry to Spenser, names Mr. Swinburne's drama "*Atlanta in Calydon*," or writes of Milton's prose,—"*As regards the merely mechanical part of style, literary genius has not much to do; it may, in great measure, be acquired as grammar is acquired. A schoolboy would be ashamed of himself, who could not express his meaning in a form less awkward and cumbersome than that used by Milton in his prose works.*" Milton would seem to have forestalled such criticism when he spoke of being "girded with frumps or curtal gibes by one who makes sentences by the statute, as if all above three inches long were confiscated."

English Grammar. By F. A. WHITE, B.A. (London :
Kegan Paul, Trench, & Co. 1882.)

Mr. E. A. Freeman has recently laid down the proposition, that the greatest enemies of the English language are schoolmasters. We very much wish that we could refute him by pointing to the writer of this Grammar, who appears to be a teacher of a somewhat marked individuality. We fear, however, that Mr. Freeman, were he to get a glance of this book, would at once fall foul of the first page of the preface, where we read of "winnowing the meal from the chaff of language." At p. 22, he would, in all probability, object to the verb *to tea*, as an Americanism. He would shake his head over the startling statement, on the same page, that the verb *to slay*, and the nouns *noun*, *nominative*, *genitive*, and *accusative*, are becoming obsolete. But we dread to imagine what he would say to the assertion on the next page, that the words *twain*, *thrice*, *yon*, *yonder*, and *ought*, and the various compound pronouns, as *henceforth*, &c., are dying out. For aught we know, he might declare that henceforth schoolmasters ought no longer to be trusted with the keeping of such a noble heirloom as the English language. We do not think he would get as far as page 35, and there read of the "*world-width* of our empire, on which the sun never sets."

We will now inflict upon the reader's patience a few specimens of the author's skill in definition, and of his general reasoning powers. "*Nouns*," he says, "are what we perceive, either by the senses, as *thunder*, *food*; or by the understanding, as *virtue*, *truth*, &c." We have for some time been under the impression that, with the general spread of education, even National School children knew that nouns were names, and not things.

In a subsequent chapter, we light upon this definition of Case. "The Case of a noun or pronoun is the place it occupies in a sentence according to the suffix attached to it." "When the action is directed towards some specified object, the verb is termed Transitive," is one of his definitions which we would test by the following example. "The ship is sailing towards the lighthouse." After all this, it would seem mere hair-splitting to comment on such inaccurate statements as—"The Indicative Mood states a fact; the Imperative Mood commands or entreats," &c.

We have already said that Etymology is Mr. White's strong point. "Its value," as he has it, "is enormous," (strong points require evidently strong words,) "since, without knowing the true etymology

of a word, we cannot know its precise meaning, nor when to use it properly." How very improperly Shakespeare and Bunyan must, in Mr. White's eyes, have used the words of the English language! But even Etymology is thrown into the shade by the study of Onomatopœic Etymology, which he considers the true and only key of sound Philology. Our author is not singular in this view, but his exposition of it is unquestionably unique. We can only quote one or two sentences, that would seem to elench the matter:—

"As we may safely conjecture, from the eats *purring*, and from Mrs. General, in Dickens, with her *prunes* and *prisms*, no doubt *pr* is the onomatopœic for calm and contented self-development, such as the blithe parturition of nature in the fields and groves in spring, as opposed to the rotatory action of primeval creation. So *man*, *mental*, *moan*, *monotony*, *permanent*, *mountain*, *moon*, all (with their alien suffixes) contains the dull melancholy *mn* sound of central motionlessness."

The wildest theories of the *bow-wow* school, or the boldest flights of German metaphysics, are mere child's play compared with this phonography "of the rotatory action of primeval creation, and of the sound of central motionlessness." The advice given to the candidates for the London University Examinations, for which the book is more especially prepared, commends itself to us after the perusal of the greater part of it. "How is the examiner to use the following pages to the best advantage?" asks the author. "He must name the text-book he uses, to begin with; and, where author and examiner are at variance, give both sides of the question, if he can; and, if he must differ from his examiner, do so with all due courtesy." Our author feels that he must frequently differ from every well-written grammar, and from every examiner to the London University. Students who have drawn their knowledge from him will be placed in a like predicament, and due courtesy on their part may, perhaps, save them from being suspected of having used a comic grammar of the English language.

Wortfolge; or, Rules and Exercises on the Order of Words in German Sentences, with a Vocabulary. By F. STOCK, D.Lit., M.A. (George Bell & Sons. 1883.)

No one who has had any experience of German teaching will underrate the importance of a sound knowledge of the order of words. It is a subject generally included in German grammars for Englishmen, but the treatment of it is generally perfunctory. On this score, this book leaves nothing to be desired. The faults we have to find with it, are rather a want of clearness in the statement of some rules, as well as a confusion in the terminology employed. What meaning, for instance, is conveyed by the following rule:—"When there are two or more apparent infinitives in the compound verbal expression, the finite verb or copula stands before these infinitive forms even in relative and other dependent sentences"? Only by the aid of the example given in illustration, is it possible to decipher it. The words *accent* (p. 11), *accentuation* (p. 21), and *emphasis* are used indiscriminately, and as if they were interchangeable for *emphasis*. The term *adject* is explained as a "preposition with its case," and the latter phrase is used instead of it (p. 16). This is a ship-shod expression for a "preposition followed by the noun it governs," through the obvious confusion of a noun and its case. Every sentence is split up by the author into *subject*, *copula*, and *predicate*, an analysis which may commend itself for its convenience, if not for its grammatical soundness. But the limits of logic are certainly exceeded when the term *copula* is made to include all the auxiliary verbs. This want of accurate reasoning not only obscures the sense, but in one case, at least, has led to a rule, which a simple reference to the different functions of the same word would have rendered entirely unnecessary. "Some conjunctions have two uses, demonstrative and relative. Such are *do*, *so*, *indem*, *indesz*. Accordingly, we find the copula or copula-containing verb-form sometimes immediately following these conjunctions, and sometimes at the end of the sentence introduced by them." For those who may not at once see the full meaning of the last sentence, we may observe, in passing, that the difference referred to is that of the place of the verb in a principal or in a dependent sentence. We will take the example given in the book. *So weit geht meine Freundschaft* (prin. sent.) and *So weit meine Freundschaft geht* (dep. sent.) But it is obvious that, in the first case, *so weit* is an adverb of degree, and not a conjunction at all.

In the supplementary rules, we read that "page-long sentences are no longer looked upon as a mark of excellence in German composition." This may be, more or less, a matter of opinion, though we doubt whether it is one that is generally accredited by scientific writers or even by most writers of lighter literature. "One result of this is, that in some cases participles, infinitives, and separable particles are placed earlier in the complex sentence than the strict

rules of order would require. It would now be wrong to write :—*Ich habe das Haus, welches ihre Mutter verkauft hat, gesehen.* We must write *gesehen* after *Haus*." This statement is misleading in the extreme, and in this case it is simply untrue. Both orders of words are used in perfectly correct German. It would be difficult to find any principle which would determine one order in preference to the other. If the same sentence were spoken or written by a dozen educated Germans, half might use the one and the other half the other order. The want of taking a slight breath or rest after *Haus* or after *hat*, or the more or less high intonation on *Haus*, might cause a speaker to cast his sentence into the first or the second order. It cannot be denied, however, that sentences after this model might be constructed, to which the rule would fully apply. Only the present instance is not one of them.

With each rule exercises are given, and a good vocabulary at the end explains the difficulties in the German text.

The Four Rules of Arithmetic. For use at Home and at School. With numerous original and graduated Exercises. By W. WOODING, B.A. (London: Longmans, Green, & Co. 1882.)

There was no need, in the preface of this little treatise, for the apology with which the author introduces it to the public. Not only in the ordinary school-books on Arithmetic, but also in class-teaching, the four elementary rules have hitherto been most inadequately treated. In nine cases out of ten, these rules are taught in the most mechanical way, and that purposely. The pupils are assumed to be too young to understand these things; it will be time enough to make a call upon their reasoning powers, after they have learnt them. We concur with Mr. Wooding that this is a scholastic superstition, and one that will die hard. Nothing tends more to produce mechanical work afterwards, than the want of proper insight into Notation, which, if once properly understood, also makes the Four Rules easy of explanation. Likewise, nothing is better calculated to make pupils work intelligently than a thorough understanding of the four Rules and their relation to the scale of Notation. We can therefore recommend this little book to all teachers who feel that their pupils' grasp of this frame-work of arithmetic is not quite what it might be. They will find in it a most excellent exposition of the matter. We should fail in our duty, however, if we did not point out the few points in which the author has been wrong, or less distinct. The definitions in the introductory chapter are not felicitous or concise, nor is his attempt to explain the origin of abstract numbers successful. To broach the subject of the origin of General Notions, even in the remotest degree, is out of place in his little book. The explanation of the process of carrying, in subtractions, where the lower digit is greater than the higher, is excellent, except in one point. He first explains the real process, namely, of borrowing one from the next higher column, and then goes into that of carrying, which makes good the previous borrowing. "This latter process is resorted to," he says, "in order to save the trouble and awkwardness of the top number in its form after borrowing. We prefer to leave this unaltered and make allowance, as we go on," that is, we prefer to alter the bottom number. But he must know, that Continental nations do not subtract in our way. They borrow in the top number and make allowances in this number, without any carrying in the lower number. There may be very little difference between the two ways; but, if there be any, the mental process of our way is certainly not the simpler or the more rational of the two. In the chapter on Division, there are four cases given, the two last being the division of a number by naught, and of naught by any number. These are practically useless, and the first two cases—a number divided by one or by itself—scarcely less so. The real two cases of division—(1) that of a concrete by an abstract number with a concrete quotient, the distributive division; and (2) that of two numbers, concrete or abstract, but assumed to be concrete, by one another, giving an abstract quotient, the division of ratio—are not gone into, and seem to us of great importance. We cannot help, however, referring to the excellent way in which, in this same chapter, the writer explains and illustrates how Long Division is very much a work of guessing, and how to succeed in making the proper guess. Finally, we hold that, at the end, a few easy examples and problems on the Four Rules in different notations from ours would have aided the pupil very much in getting a thorough grasp of that which in this treatise is rightly considered as the basis of all further work in Arithmetic.

A Geography, Physical, Political, and Descriptive, for Beginners. By L. B. LANG. Edited by the Rev. M. CREIGHTON, M.A. *The Continent of Europe.* (Rivingtons. 1883. Price 3s.)

This is the second volume of a geographical series of which the first, on the British Empire, was recently reviewed. Like the first, it is well written, and strikes a happy medium between the dry data and the general

information to which these serve as pegs. The maps interspersed in the text are excellently conceived. They bring out the natural divisions of the different parts of the continent very clearly, by being arranged, where practicable, according to the great river-basins. It would, no doubt, have been an improvement, if, besides these river-maps, a few maps of the chief mountain-systems had been given, to illustrate the great water-sheds of Europe. Likewise, the squares in the corners of the maps of the different countries, given to compare their respective sizes with that of England, would have been rendered more useful if the exact figures of proportion had been placed over them. In the map of the basin of the Rhine, we notice the usual confusion, perpetrated in most maps, arising from the fact that the name Rhine in the delta is retained by a very unimportant arm, whilst the chief arm joins one of the arms of the Maas. In Belgium, we should have liked to have seen both the Flemish and the French names of the chief towns mentioned, instead of the somewhat arbitrary selection that has been made of only one of them. Such small blemishes, however, novise mar the excellence of the work, which we can highly recommend as a class-book.

The Functions of the Brain. By JULIUS ALTHAUS, M.D. (Longmans & Co.)

We have read Dr. Althaus's little essay with very great pleasure. It is exactly what it professes to be, a concise, distinct summing-up of the most important factors of cerebral structure and functions. Dr. Althaus has especially adapted it for the perusal of his lay readers, so far as such a difficult subject can be, by leaving out all those complex and technical details which are apt to render this class of reading repulsive to the majority of readers, whether medical or lay, and has stated the leading points in structure and function with wonderful clearness. The author has the knack of making his subject-matter interesting, and, by a happy mixture of anecdote and facts, carries his reader along with him most agreeably. It would do every one good to read the book, but more especially those who are engaged in education, who would find several useful hints to work upon. The plates are distinct and correctly numbered. We notice that Dr. Althaus divides the cranial nerves into twelve pairs (which is usual abroad), and is, we think, a more sensible arrangement than that common in England of dividing them into nine. We regret that our space allows no more detailed criticism of this useful little work.

Introductory Treatise on Rigid Dynamics. By W. STEADMAN ALDIS. (Deighton, Bell & Co.)

This book gives, in 120 pages, an excellent sketch of the more important parts of this now very extensive subject. It may be recommended to students who, while wishing to learn the principles of the subject, and their application to questions of no great complexity, lack the time, energy, or ability required for mastering Mr. Routh's ponderous tome; or it may with advantage be used as an introduction to that larger treatise. The choice of matter and methods is very satisfactory, and the work is as complete as its size allows.

Jahrbuch der Deutschen in England, 1882. By HEINRICH DORGEEL. (London and Leipzig: A. Siegle, Leadenhall Street. Price 5s.)

A mere glance at this book will convince the reader, that the German-speaking Teutons are by no means wanting in skill in organisation, especially when they are breathing a somewhat freer atmosphere than that of their own country. In this general Guide and Directory, the number of Germans in England is computed at 250,000. In London alone they have ten churches, six elementary schools, one middle-class school for boys and one for girls, several charitable societies, a German Orphanage, a Home for German Governesses, and various other Homes. The German Hospital and the German Gymnastic Society are well known, and have long extended their utility beyond their original limits. The various items of an ordinary directory are treated in this book very exhaustively, due prominence being given to those of special interest to Germans in England.

The French Newspaper Reading Book. Compiled and edited by W. J. JEFFCOTT and G. J. TOSSELL. (Librairie Hachette & Cie. 1883.)

This book may be described as a lucky hit in French Readers. It contains extracts from some twenty modern French newspapers, and these are carefully selected, both with a view to style and interest. The idea of it seems to have been suggested to the compilers by the Oxford Local examination papers in French, in which usually a passage from a French newspaper is set for translating at sight. The book, however, is not solely confined in its use to these examinations. It will be welcomed by many teachers as an ordinary reading-book, or as a book for "unseens." There are no notes on the text, and this somewhat detracts from its merit. Instead of these, we have a set of questions on Grammar and Philology, based on the first part of the text, as well as a set of independent classified questions on Grammar.

The World at Home. A new series of Geographical Readers adapted to the Code of 1882. Standard I. (Nelson & Sons. 1883.)

Each alteration in the Educational Code seems to be keenly watched by the publishers, who at once adapt their publications to its requirements. The New Code requires the children in Standard I. to "copy in manuscript characters a line of print." Hence this Reader contains writing exercises at the end of each lesson. These are very neatly given in white on a black ground. The subject matter is interesting, and the style simple and correct. The illustrations and maps are most excellent.

Blackie's Comprehensive School Series. Geographical Reader. No. V. Europe. By W. G. BAKER. (Blackie & Son.)

This Reader is in all respects worthy of its predecessors, of which we have given notices on former occasions. The matter is interesting, and in part consists of well-selected extracts from standard books of travels. The maps and illustrations are very good, and neatly executed.

Foreign Classics. Picciola. Par X. B. SAINTINE. Edited by Dr. DUBUC. (Whittaker & Co., and G. Bell & Sons. 1882.)

The charming story of Picciola is so well known, both for its intrinsic merits of contents and style, and for its suitability as a school reader, that we only bring it under the notice of our readers, as having been re-published at a reduced price for candidates for the Cambridge Locals. The notes at the bottom of each page are at once copious and exhaustive.

Amateur Work for January contains the first of a series of papers on Relievo-maps and their construction by John Brion. The directions are full, and will enable the teacher to provide himself with a relievo-map for as many shillings as he would pay pounds.

Amateur Mechanics is a new illustrated monthly, conducted by Paul N. Hasluck and published by Messrs. Trübner. The paper on the Art of Turning by the editor is good, and illustrated by good lithographs; but, if this new venture is to succeed, more attention must be paid to style. The editor's English is generally slipshod, and sometimes barely intelligible:—"With number one before him, the reader may infer an idea of the style and scope of the magazine."

New National Poetry Cards (National Society) are clearly printed on stout cardboard. The cards are well named, consisting mainly of ballads of English history. We do not care greatly for the selections from Jane Taylor.

Sonnenschein's Linear Blackboard Maps are widely used in Board Schools; and, now that the Head-masters are awakening to the necessity of teaching geography, they will in time find their way into Public Schools. They are outline wall-maps with blackboard surfaces, which the teacher can fill in, or require the pupil to fill in, so as to illustrate the watersheds, the railroads, the coal-fields, or whatever forms the special feature of the lesson. We would suggest to the Head-masters that they instruct their Committee to investigate and report on the apparatus and plant of the best Board Schools.

Another desideratum of the Head-masters is well supplied by Messrs. Longman's series of *Penny Outline Maps* from the *Public School Atlas*.

We have received a set of diagrams of Insects Injurious to Farm Crops, prepared for the Royal Agricultural Society, by Miss Ormerod, the well-known entomologist. The drawings are admirably executed, and ought to be hanging on the walls of every village school.

SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES.

OXFORD.

All lovers of art and literature will rejoice that Mr. Ruskin has regained health and strength to enable him to accept the Slade Professorship. The fortunate few who fought their way to a seat at the London Institution, when Mr. Ruskin lectured on Cistercian Architecture, can testify that age has not withered his eloquence, *verve*, and infinite variety.

The visit of the Prince of Wales to Oxford for laying the first stone of the "Indian Institute" will take place at some time after Easter; not, as previously announced, in the present term.

Mr. J. S. Lockhart, Fellow of Hertford, and one of the secretaries to the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board, has been appointed Secretary to the Boards of Faculties, shortly to be created under the provisions of the new statutes for the University. His

duties will relate mainly to the organisation of lecturers under the several faculties, with some supervision of University examinations.

ORIEL COLLEGE.—The Fellows of Oriel have chosen as their new Provost, Mr. D. B. Munro, who, since the late Provost's retirement in 1874, has been the acting Head of the College. Mr. Munro's eminence as a Greek scholar is too well known to need comment. He is the third layman who has been appointed within the last two years to the headship of an Oxford College.

CORPUS COLLEGE.—The following elections have been made:—1. *To Classical Scholarships* (in alphabetical order)—C. O. Blagden, Dulwich College; J. G. D. Campbell, Charterhouse; L. T. Hohhouse, Marlborough College; D. McNeill, Charterhouse. 2. *To a Mathematical Scholarship*—H. L. Smith, Bristol Grammar-school. 3. *To Exhibitions* (in alphabetical order)—P. M. Cunnal, Corpus; E. N. Gardiner, Marlborough College.

CAMBRIDGE.

The third part of the Mathematical Tripos presents some curious anomalies, as is natural in a first experiment. Only half of the twenty-nine Wranglers of last June presented themselves. The twenty-second Wrangler has jumped to the first division, the fifth has fallen out, and the fourth, seventh, eighth (two bracketed), and ninth appear in the third division.

The Professorship of Arabic, vacant by the death of Professor Palmer, has been filled by the appointment of the Rev. Robertson Smith. It is only just that the English Universities should take some reprisals for the many professors of which Scotland has of late robbed them.

Professor Huxley has been appointed Rede lecturer for the year.

The Plumian Professorship of Astronomy, vacant by the death of Professor Challis, has been filled by the election of Mr. George Darwin, of Trinity College. The choice lay between Mr. Darwin and Mr. Routh. The Board has undoubtedly exercised a wise judgment in preferring a comparatively young student, who has devoted himself to research, to an *emeritus* coach, however eminent he may have shown himself in that capacity.

TRINITY COLLEGE.—At Trinity the following elections have been made:—To Major Scholarships of £100 each.—Undergraduates of the third year—G. W. Blenkins, Harrow; A. F. Jenkin, Edinburgh Academy; F. A. Kirkpatrick, Wellington; R. P. Brown, St. Paul's; H. M. Elder, Marlborough; J. H. C. Dalton, Marlborough; H. M. S. Malden, Charterhouse; H. Head, Charterhouse, for natural science; M. Miley, Marlborough, for natural science; O. H. Burne, King's College, London. Undergraduates of the second year—L. N. Guillemerd, Charterhouse; H. J. C. Cust, Eton; J. R. Green, St. Ives, for natural science; M. T. Rendall, Harrow. Undergraduates of the first year—H. L. Callendar, Marlborough; A. F. Hort, Marlborough. Student not yet in residence—A. C. Dixon, Kingswood, Bath.

The following Foundation Scholars, elected before coming into residence, are now elected to ordinary Major Scholarships of £100 each:—First year—T. Harkness, Derby; E. O. Pope, St. Paul's; H. B. Smith, Eton.

To Minor Scholarships of £75:—E. H. Askwith, Christ's Hospital; R. R. Otley, Wellington; C. Platts, City of London and University College, London; L. M. Woodward, Harrow. Of £50:—G. E. B. J. Crawford, Dulwich; H. K. S. Sanderson, Shrewsbury; F. C. Brnkitt, Harrow, elected April, 1882.

Recommended for Exhibitions.—Undergraduates of the second year—F. M. Yonng, private. Not yet in residence—A. L. Brown, St. Paul's; A. H. Davis, Rossall; F. E. Rowe, Marlborough; M. Wright, Charterhouse; G. W. Hind, Bradford Grammar School, for natural science; A. E. Kelsey, St. Paul's, for natural science; F. W. Oliver, University College, London, for natural science.

CHRIST'S.—The following have been elected to Scholarships:—For classics—N. Wedd, City of London School, 70l.; R. S. Haydon, St. Paul's School, 40l.; A. H. Bartlett, Eton College, 30l.; J. H. Vince, King Edward's School, Birmingham, 30l. For mathematics—H. M'Laughlin, Cheltenham College, 60l. For classics and mathematics—S. M. Kingdon, Rugby School, 40l.; W. Fisher, Preston School, 30l. For natural science—E. I. Sortain, Bath College, 30l.

EMMANUEL.—The following Scholarships have been awarded:—F. Rosenberg, King Edward's School, Birmingham, 80l.; G. H. Dolby, Clifton College, 70l.; W. Couldridge, Exeter School, 40l.; H. Robinson, Manchester Grammar School, 40l.; A. M. Knight, Rossall School, 30l.; R. H. M. Cooke, Malveru College, 30l., with Ash Exhibition of 50l.; S. S. Wright, Ashby Grammar School, 30l. In election to this exhibition candidates from Ashby School have preference.

CAIUS.—Entrance Scholarships:—For classics—Barry, Haileybury

College, 50l.; Conway, City of London School, 50l.; Robinson, Bath College, 50l. For mathematics—Roberts, Christ's Hospital, 50l. For natural science—Edgeworth, Clifton College, 40l. The following were recommended for Exhibitions:—For classics—Haydon, St. Paul's School, and Dyar, Oundle School, to Exhibitions of 30l. each. For mathematics—Hayward, King's College, London, 30l.

SIDNEY.—The following Open Entrance Scholarships have been awarded:—Marshall, Clifton, 60l.; Owen, Beaumaris School, 60l.; Evans, Sutton Valence School, 50l.; Bickersteth, Highgate School, 40l.; Smith, Wolverhampton Grammar-school, 30l.; Moor, Manchester Grammar School, 30l.; Littlewood, St. Paul's School, 30l.; Hayward, King's, London, 30l.

KING'S.—The Eton Scholarships have been awarded to A. E. Brooks, E. W. Brooks, C. M. Knachbull-Huggessen, E. H. Douglas, and J. W. Headlam. Open Scholarships of the value of 80l. have been awarded to N. Wedd, City of London School, and B. Hill, Christ's Hospital. Exhibitions of the value of 60l. per annum for two years have been awarded to D. N. Pollock, Wellington, and W. G. Cray, Cheltenham.

IRELAND.

The Standing Committee of the Senate of the Royal University met on the 9th and 10th ult. The Committee agreed to recommend to the Senate certain changes in the classical books on the Arts courses, whereby stated alternative books may, at the option of the student, be substituted instead of Terence and Plautus. Notice has been issued for the first meeting of the Convocation of the University to be held on February 1st.

The Committee had also under consideration a remarkable memorial from the matriculated women students, upon a subject to which we referred last month. The Senate having required its Fellows to teach matriculated students in certain approved colleges, it has been found that the authorities of these colleges have, in some instances, refused the women students permission to attend. The memorialists now point out, in simple and forcible language, the peculiar value of this teaching, in that the Fellows are the University Examiners. "It amounts almost to an injustice if it is to be allowed to some students while it is denied to others; and its effect is, practically, to exclude women from the valuable prizes, exhibitions, &c., nominally open to them. We therefore appeal most respectfully to your Committee to consider whether, in cases such as we have mentioned, arrangements could not be made whereby the Fellows would give Honour Lectures at some Institution where women students could attend." This memorial carries 47 names. It has received very remarkable support from the public Press. It has now been referred to a Special Committee for consideration and report; the Committee being, we understand, the Right Hon. J. T. Ball, Dean Neville, of University College, St. Stephen's Green, Sir Robert Kane, and the President of the Queen's College, Belfast.

The examinations for Scholarships in Classics, Mathematics, and Modern Literatures have taken place during the month, having commenced on the 16th ult. Very few candidates have come forward in Classics. Three women entered for Modern Literatures.

The annual meeting of the Schoolmasters' Association, on December 28th and 29th, has, as was anticipated, proved of more than usual importance and interest. The first day was largely devoted to formal business. Dr. R. H. Flynn, of Ennis, was elected President for 1883. Dr. Ewing, of Sligo, was elected on the Intermediate Committee. A change was made in the Rules, which will enable Roman Catholic Head-masters, who are not Graduates, to become members. The important motion, that there should be an unrestricted competition between boys and girls at the Intermediate Examinations, was shelved, the "Previous Question" being carried by a significant majority. And, as we understand, the rule that the Committee should hold its meetings at Dublin—which virtually limited it to the Dublin members—has been modified; in future, some members will meet at Dublin, some at Belfast, there being the same *Agenda* before both sections of the Committee. Finally a paper by Dr. Hime was read.

But the interest of the meeting was centred in the second day, when many members of the Association of Irish Schoolmistresses attended on the invitation of the Committee. The meeting was opened by the address of the President, Mr. R. Rice, St. Columba's College. His subject was the Training of Teachers, a question which has yet received very little notice in Ireland. Unfortunately, Mr. Rice is strongly prejudiced against the movement; his paper, undoubtedly, conveyed much information; but, addressing as he did an audience whose want of acquaintance with the subject made it largely sympathetic with his conclusions, the resulting discussion was

sterile. An essay was then read by Miss A. Oldham upon the place of Physical Science in the School Curriculum. This paper was heard with great interest, and led to much discussion; it gathered much importance from the fact that the schoolmasters have been largely influential in obtaining that "blotting out" of Science subjects which has of late years so marked the programme of the Intermediate Board. After luncheon, Dr. Benson entertained the meeting with a most amusing, and withal instructive, paper upon the teaching of Geography. The meeting concluded with a debate upon a paper sent forward by Miss McKillup, of Londonderry, setting forth very ably the reasons why it was necessary that the girls should still receive a separate examination from the boys, under the Intermediate Board. Upon this subject many representative women spoke, and the view was upheld, with great unanimity, that in view of the condition in which the education of girls had been generally before the introduction of the Intermediate Scheme, it would be unfair to expect the girls to compete with the boys for several years to come.

SCHOOLS.

AMERSHAM GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—The Rev. W. J. Foxall, A., lately Assistant Master at Chigwell, has been appointed Head-master.

ASHFORD GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—Mr. D. Davenport has been appointed second master.

BEDFORD COLLEGE, LONDON.—The Professors' Scholarship has been awarded to Miss Mary Clara Dawes, of Girton College. It is now some years since a candidate of sufficient merit for this Scholarship has presented herself.

BRADFIELD COLLEGE.—The Rev. C. G. Gepp, formerly Head-master of Stratford-on-Avon School, has been appointed to a Mastership.

DULWICH COLLEGE.—The new list of Governors, drawn up by the Education Department, is a strong one, and includes, in addition to the old cooptative Governors, Sir Henry Maine (nominated by the University of Cambridge), Sir William Anson (Oxford), Professor G. Carey Foster (Royal Society). It may be useful to recapitulate the new scheme of the Charity Commissioners, which has now passed into law. The Upper School, to be called distinctively Dulwich College, is maintained as a first grade public school, with an income of £4,000, and an additional sum of £1,700 a year for the maintenance of the fabric. Of the former sum not less than half is to be assigned for exhibitions in the school and scholarships to the Universities. The tuition fees are to be not less than £20 nor more than £30, and the fees for boarders (the number of whom is not to exceed 100) are limited to £70. The Lower School (to be called Alleyn's School) is to be retained, and a capital sum of £12,000 is assigned for new buildings, to be erected somewhere within easy reach of Camberwell. An income of £1,000 is allowed to be increased to £1,500 in ten years. The tuition fees are to range from £4 to £8. The girls at present come off second best, being awarded a capital sum of £6,000 and an endowment of £500 a year, but at some future date it is proposed to found "a college or school of the highest class for girls" somewhere in the South of London. Lastly, the parishes of St. Botolph's, St. Luke's, and St. Saviour's are, in ten years' time, to have "a middle class school or schools," £50,000 being awarded to the two former parishes, and £15,000 to the last, while each of the three schools or sets of schools will receive an income of £500 a year.

ETON.—The School reassembled on the 17th of the month. The number of new boys is about 40, and of those who left at the end of last school-time 44, leaving the numbers of the school at close upon 900. During the vacation A. H. Bartlett was elected to a Scholarship at Christ's College, Cambridge.

LIVERPOOL ROYAL INSTITUTION SCHOOL.—At the annual examination for scholarships, &c., at Trinity College, Cambridge, last December, Alexander Brown was elected to a Foundation Sizarship of the value of 80l. a year.

LLANDAFF CATHEDRAL SCHOOL.—The Rev. Ernest Owen has been appointed to the Head-mastership by the Dean and Chapter. Mr. Owen has been Assistant-master in Mr. Gedge's School at Malvern Wells.

MALVERN COLLEGE.—Scholarships have been awarded as follows:—50l., P. W. O'Brien, Malvern College. 46l., H. Hankin, the Rev. P. Sandilands, Newton Abbott; G. Moberley, Miss Sanderson, Cheltenham; H. Malins, the Rev. W. Bicknell, Henley-in-Arden. 21l., for Classics, B. Bartolomé and H. Frampton, the Rev. E. Priestland, Spondon, Derby; H. C. Hill, the Rev. R. Dnnn, Honiton; for Mathematics, J. P. C. Herbert, the Rev. W. W. Gedge, Malvern Wells;

A. Stevens, the Rev. R. Dunn, Honiton; R. Hutchinson, the Rev. C. E. L. Austin, Cheltenham. Faber Exhibition, P. W. O'Brien.

MANSFIELD.—W. J. J. Morgan, of Jesus College, Oxford, has been appointed English master at Queen Elizabeth's School.

MARLBOROUGH COLLEGE.—*School Honours*.—A. H. Hawkins, Balliol College, R. F. Cholmeley, C.C.C., 1st Class Hon. Mods., Oxford; H. M. Elder (3rd year), J. H. C. Dalton (3rd year), M. Nirley (3rd year), H. C. Callendar (1st year), H. F. Hort (1st year), elected to Foundation Scholarships at Trinity College, Cambridge; F. E. Rowe, recommended for Exhibition at Trinity College, Cambridge; L. T. Hobhouse, Scholarship at C.C.C., Oxford; E. N. Gardiner, Exhibition at C.C.C., Oxford. We have lost Rev. W. M. Furneaux, Headmaster of Repton, and H. W. Simpkinson, who has received an appointment in the Education Department. The place of the latter has been taken temporarily by E. F. Simpkinson, Esq., C.C.C., Oxford, and W. L. L. Giles, Esq., late Scholar of St. John's, Oxford, has also joined us. The School reassembled on Friday, January 19, for the Lent term. Rapid progress has been made with the new buildings, the first block of which is nearly complete, and the second portion is being begun on the ground formerly occupied by the Sixth, the old Museum, and the Upper Fifth. The new class-rooms are ready for use, and the new museum will shortly be fit to receive the collections which Mr. Proston is preparing.

MERCHANT TAYLORS'.—An extra week's holiday has been granted by the Court, not as at Eton, on account of a royal birth or marriage, but of drains. That it should have been necessary to spend some 3,000*l.* on the drainage of a building that has been in occupation less than eight years, reflects little credit on the Company's architect.

ROSSALL.—*School Honours*.—Classical Exhibition, Trinity, Cambridge, A. H. Davis; 41st Woolwich Entrance Examination, T. B. Wood; Classical Scholarship (£30), Emmanuel, Cambridge, A. M. Knight.

ST. ANDREW'S SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.—The School has moved from their old premises in Queen-street to the site hitherto occupied by St. Leonard's College, and takes over with the site the name. The College buildings will, with slight adaptations, furnish admirable class-rooms, and a residence for the Head-mistress. Miss Lumsden, who resigned last Midsummer owing to ill-health, is succeeded by Miss Dove, Certificate of Girton College (National Science Tripos, 1874).

TONBRIDGE SCHOOL.—*School Honours*.—H. E. D. Blakistou, Trinity, Oxford, 1st Class Moderations; A. Baker, H. Marwood, and W. Ayerst have passed into Sandhurst. The School closed on Dec. 25th, and will meet again on January 25th.

UNITED SERVICES COLLEGE, WESTWARD HO!—The Christmas Pastimes included "The Tempest," the success of which was assured by the admirable Prospero (Mr. Evans), supported by one or two exceptionally good voices in the songs of the play. Nearly 400 guests were present at the representation. A concert, previously given by Mr. Bode, did credit to the Choir. The Natural History Society held six meetings during the term, and the papers read included one on the "Andaman Islands," by Lieut. H. Thornton (O. U. S. C.), and one on "A Visit to Lundy Island," by Mr. C. L. Barnes. Considerable additions have been made lately to the Library and Museum. The football match of Past *v.* Present—played for the first time—resulted in the victory of the latter. In the annual swimming test of boys over 13 years old, 76 per cent were declared *proficient*—i.e., could cover the quarter-mile, while 51 per cent. reached the half-mile. S. H. Powell and R. G. Merriman passed direct into Woolwich in December, taking 1st and 17th places; S. B. Grimston into Sandhurst, taking 15th place. G. W. Watson, B.A., late Scholar of St. John's College, Cambridge, has joined the Staff.

WELLINGTON COLLEGE.—*Honours won recently*.—Fellowship, St. John's College, Oxford, Sidney Ball; Foundation Scholarship, Trinity College, Cambridge, F. A. Kirkpatrick; Minor Scholarship (2nd), Trinity College, Cambridge, R. R. Ottley; Exhibition, King's College, Cambridge, D. N. Pollock; Admissions to Woolwich in December—A. W. Medley (10th), A. M. Harris, E. P. Lambert, C. Lyon, H. M. Birley; Admissions to Sandhurst—H. Rose (13th), after one term's private tuition; T. W. Haig (21st), E. M. Dunne. Rev. A. Carr, the senior Assistant-master, has left us, after more than 21 years at the College, to take the living of St. Sebastian's, Wolsingham. Mr. C. Lowry becomes Sixth Tutor, and Mr. E. A. Upcott takes the Lower Sixth. Mr. W. G. Robinson and Mr. A. J. Calais have joined the staff. The Rifle Corps started last term with 120 members, under Captain H. C. Steel, Lieutenant H. A. Bull, Lieutenant H. Awdrey, and Quarter-Master-Sergeant F. J. Tuck. A Singing-room has been added to the Music Cells, which, it is hoped,

will be ready this term. The Sanatorium is being increased by a large wing and rooms for an assistant Medical Officer. D. N. Pollock won the Benson Scholarship, E. A. Mitchell-Innes being *proxime accessit*.

YORK.—Archbishop Holgate's School.—Mr. A. W. Welch, M.A., of Trinity Hall, Cambridge, has been appointed to the Head-mastership.

OXFORD LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.

TEST PAPERS.

SCOTT'S LAY OF THE LAST MINSTREL.

1. Write in your own words a description of the Minstrel.
2. Show, by quotations from the Introduction, the date of the poem.
3. Explain:—(a) The bigots of the iron time. (b) Monmouth's bloody tomb. (c) Security to please. (d) According gliec. (e) Barbed with frontlet of steel. (f) High Duncdin. (g) Mutual pilgrimage. (h) The art that none may name. (i) Arthur's slow wain. (k) The boy should tame the Unicorn's pride, exalt the Crescent and the Star (explain the defective metre). (l) Wer't my neck-verse at Hairibee. (m) The warbling Doric reed.
4. Give meaning of the words *moss-trooper*, *clan*, *morris*, *ban-dog*, *bower*, *embattled*, *slogan*, *diight*, *glint*.
5. Name the places that William of Deloraine passed in his ride.

HINTS FOR ANSWERS.

2. 1. 20—22, 1. 30, The Duchess of Buccleuch, widow of James Duke of Monmouth, beheaded 1685. 1. 80, Charles I. kept Court in Holyrood, 1633.
3. (a) Int. 21; (b) 44; (c) 67; (d) 73; (e) Cant. i. 38; (f) 61; (g) 70. There was a mutual obligation between the Scotts and Kerrs to perform pilgrimages. (h) 114; (i) 170; (k) 207, Scott with his northern burr pronounced "Unicorn" as a quadrisyllable. (l) 258, "Not even the 1st verse of Psalm 51, which criminals who claimed benefit of clergy had to read." (m) 296, Sir Gilbert Elliot, one of the Minto family, wrote pastoral poetry, called *Doric*, because Theocritus, the father of pastoral poetry, wrote in Doric Greek.

LAZARE HOICHE, Ch. i.—iii.

(Pitt Press Edition.)

1. Translate:—
 - (a) Intelligent et adroit, il suffit d'un mois au jeune Hoiche pour passer du maniement de l'arme à l'exercice des manœuvres.
 - (b) Violent et emporté, sa fougue du moins prenait le plus souvent racine dans les sentiments honnêtes et généreux, qui plus tard, mieux réglés, devinrent des vertus.
 - (c) Page 3: Une autre fois — d'autrui.
 - (d) Il y avait dans l'armée deux classes divisées d'intérêts et d'opinions.
 - (e) Page 11: Ce funeste résultat — de 1789.
 - (f) Page 17: Quelle fut sa douleur — chefs d'œuvres.

2. Explain fully:—Pécule de soldat; lettre de cachet; l'Assemblée constituante; Montagnards; Girondins; Jacobins; la Confédération germanique; la première coalition.

NOTES FOR ANSWERS.

- (a) Such was his natural intelligence and skill that in a single month young Hoiche had mastered the manual exercise and begun the study of field drill.
- (b) Violent and choleric as he was, his impetuosity generally sprang from feelings of honour and generosity, which only needed better regulation to form, as they afterwards did, a sterling character.
- (c) *L'affaire fut empoisonnée*, 'The worst construction was put on the matter.' *Injures*, 'wrongs.'
- (d) The army was split up into two castes diametrically opposed in interests and opinions.
- (e) *Et à ce point oubliés, &c.*, 'And so far forgotten that the reign of terror of 1793 was rendered necessary in order to feed the flagging zeal and enthusiasm of 1789.'
- (f) *Mandat d'amener*, 'Order to appear before the tribunal.' *Est-ce donc, &c.*, 'It would seem as if, since, &c.'

2. See Pitt Press Edition, introduction and notes.

TRANSLATION PRIZE.

For each month, till further notice, there will be set a passage, generally from a French or German Poet, to be translated into English verse. A PRIZE OF TWO GUINEAS will be offered each month for the best version. Initials or a nom de plume must be adopted by competitors, but the successful competitor is required to send his real name and address to the Prize Editor for publication. Versions must be forwarded to the "Prize Editor" of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, care of Messrs. John Walker & Co., 96 Farringdon Street, E.C., not later than the 15th of the month. Any translation which is sent with an addressed envelope and six postage stamps, will be returned with corrections. A First Class is entitled to a copy of "Prizes and Proximes," which will be forwarded on application. Those who have already received "Prizes and Proximes" may apply for a copy of "Maria Wuz."*

The prize for the best translation of the following passage from Théophile Gautier is awarded to "Ycsi."

Il y a dans tout groupe une individualité pivotale, autour de laquelle les autres s'implantent et gravitent comme un système de planètes autour de leur astre.

Petrus Borel était cet astre; nul de nous n'essaya de se soustraire à cette attraction; dès qu'on était entré dans le tourbillon, on tournait avec une satisfaction singulière, comme si on eût accompli une loi de nature. On ressentait un peu de l'enivrement du derviche tourneur au milieu de sa fustanelle évasée en cloche par la rapidité de sa valse. . . .

C'était une de ces figures qu'on n'oublie plus, ne les eût-on aperçues qu'une fois. Ce jeune et sérieux visage, d'une régularité parfaite, olivâtre de peau, doré de légers tons d'ambre comme une peinture de maître qui s'agatise, était illuminé de grands yeux brillants et tristes, des yeux d'Abencérage pensant à Grenade. La meilleure épithète que nous puissions trouver pour ces yeux-là, c'est: exotique ou nostalgique. La bouche d'un rouge vif luisait comme une fleur sous la moustache et jetait une étincelle de vie dans ce masque d'une immobilité orientale. . . .

La présence de Petrus Borel produisait une impression indéfinissable dont nous finîmes par découvrir la cause. Il n'était pas contemporain; rien en lui ne rappelait l'homme moderne, et il semblait toujours venir du fond du passé, et on eût dit qu'il avait quitté ses aïeux la veille. Nous n'avons vu cette expression à personne; le croire Français, né dans ce siècle, eût été difficile. Espagnol, Arabe, Italien du quinzième siècle, à la bonne heure.

By "YESI."

Every group has its central figure, round which the rest cluster and gravitate like the planets in a system round their sun.

Petrus Borel was this sun; none of us ever attempted to resist his attraction. No sooner did you come within the vortex, than you spun round with peculiar complacency, as though fulfilling some natural law. You felt somewhat of the rapture of the Spinning Dervish in the centre of his "fustanel," bell-shaped with the swiftness of his waltzing.

His was one of those faces which, once to see, is never to forget. His youthful and grave countenance, with its perfect regularity, its olive skin, with here and there a touch of amber warmth, like the mellow canvas of an old master, was lit up by his large glistening mournful eyes, the eyes of an Aben-

* "Maria Wuz and Lorenz Stark; or, English Prints of two German Originals," reprinted from the *Journal of Education*. Crown 8vo, price 4s. 6d. (Longmans.)

corage thinking of Granada. The best description we can give of those eyes is, that they seemed to belong to other climes, or to years for other scenes. His bright-red mouth shone like a flower beneath his moustache, and threw a spark of life into the impassive mould of a face eastern in its immobility.

The presence of Petrus Borel produced an indefinable impression, the cause of which we at length discovered. He was not of this age; nothing in him bespoke the Modern. He always seemed fresh from the far past, as though he had parted from his forefathers but yesterday. In none other have we seen this expression. To believe him a Frenchman, born in the present century, were difficult. A Spaniard, an Arab, or an Italian of the fifteenth, he might well have been.

We class the 332 versions received in the following order:—

First Class.—H. W., P. P., T. H. Hallard, Ebor, Lucile, Henrietta, R. O. Carpenter, Enid, Theo, X?, Rus in urbe, Clarissa, Marguerite, Up and Down, Carillon, Cigar, Harold Skimpole, Antwerpens Toren, Ulastha, Kittycat, O. G. E. G., Con amore, Bidge, A Practical Joker, Laurustinus.

Second Class.—S. Y. Y., Mouzens, Midge, R. R. G., Richmond, M. F. W., Earthworm, Bess, Constans, Coronach, M. B. G., Nixus, Joe, Paulina Prye, Hugh Branston, Hermes, Parisienne, Bonny, Patch, M. F. K., G. C. C. B., W. Holland, W. A. H., Esor, Nemo, E. L. S. A., Antigonus, Kraus, W. T., Owen Richard, E. M. M., J. Senior, B. L. T., M. L. B., C. J. C. H., Daphne, The Green Widow, M. Fetcher, A., E. S. M., Old Bonnet, Adsum, Georgiana, Mathilde, Venezia, J. M. H., H. A. L., M. M. D., Hector, Pheres, Phœnix, Canada, Gentian, E. H. O., E. M., Unsigned, Ora, E. A. M., Senlac, B., Aimée, John, Standard, Faggot, Owlett, Dinah, L. A. M., Zealandin, J. S., H. C. Bradley, T. Hews, Arbutus, April, W. S. M., Down, Spes, Consuelo, Meg Merrilies, Rab, Fenella, Nondum, Alp, W. Tekay, M. A. T. M. A., T. S.

Third Class.—A. K. X., Quosque tandem, Phaedon, Chittabob, Ebba, Falada, Sigma, N. n., A. A. R., Louise, Brema, La Moet, R. H. W., Mr. Bulb, Agile, Gemini, Erectus non Elatus, Lange Strass, Goneril, M. W. C., Underwood, Theta, Noon, M. J. M., Mab, J. N. E. W., Helen G., Sarai, Hamadryad, R. S. W., Betsy, J. B. H., Eadgyth, E. Pennett, M. R. M., Chica, A. L. S., H. J. W., F. W. H., Argemoue, Red Ink, L. M. C., Parisine, Unsigned, J. N. F., No. Six, Philippi, Silarus, A. W. P., L. G. C., Beta, Bath Bun, Learned Judge, M. J. M., E. G. P., Jim, J. R., Caroline, Kathleen, Belmont, Cou Amore, W. E. S., Tighmora, Anemone, Guingan, Tricolorc, Tilly Slowboy, Pinheiro, Dry Rot, C. T. H., Louise A., Delta, A. G., Esse, Diachylon.

Fourth Class.—Marquise, Aspirant, A. L. St., M. J. B., Kate, Dalliance, J. E. A., M. B. M. S., Frib, Eden, Gadabout, Sattarello, Neleh, Gallina, Loo Loo, Sleepy Hollow, Spes, S. F. S., Esmond, J. W., Gladdiswold, Y. T. T. E. B., Cebus, Apella, Alaric, Ricca, Grotha, E. M. J., J. Junior, Stag, Elpis, Mephistopheles, B. C. T., Viola, Tadpole, Charlotte, Clio, Grana, E. J., Ignarus ignotusque, Philippe de Saint Yon, Comus, Cerberus, Mona, Niobe, Three Lilies, Neo, Aroostock, Castellamare, K. G., C. F. Ealing, T. O. Ealing, I. Benecke, Elise, E. A. C. T., Chèvrefeuille, Blackwater, Fleur de Lys, Krähennuss, Peacock, Excelsior, Warming Pan, Nun, Hart's Tongue, Caruation, Denise, Maia, Doum, Louise Specht, A. M. C.

Fifth Class.—Nellie, Somerset, Cordelia, Cerise, Elise, M. F. T., Hypatia, Wandle, Dessie, F. E. Tattersall, Caddy Jellaby, Nemo (Edinburgh), Zantippe, Engelberg, Una, Mord Averlu, Jeanne, G. Wood, Gobo, Antiquary, Kent, Elaiue, Eryngo, Mother Bunch, Fate, Ipse, Dolores, Clothilde, J. E. B., Miss Marks, Excelsior, Polly, Pheasant, Greenery-gallery, Grosvenor Gallery, Psycho, Kerr.

Sixth Class.—Clara, Dahlia, Ada Bottomley, M. E. J., Circe, Corinne, Birmingham p.m., D'Osson, Rivulet, Britomarte, Kitts, Nagram, Zebra, Juliet, Tilly, Elder, Whist, Tadpole, Whistle, G. G. G., Chiron, June, Adagio, Jehu, Lob, S. A., Query, Rats, Jerusalem, W. O. E., T. A. C., Eheu, T. A. P., Note, Borus, R. I. P., Sta, Ulet, W. W.

The prize version has, in my judgment, one grave flaw, the loose paraphrase of *exotique ou nostalgique*; but, on the whole, it is the best bit of workmanship, and the elaborate notes that accompanied it show how much care and thought have gone to the composition. These notes have furnished me with one or two hints for my comments; but I would not have competitors infer that notes are a necessary or desirable appendage. Generally, they are a confession of doubt or inadequacy on the part of the translator.

Gautier is a stylist, and, next to his exquisite polish, his chief dis-

tion is the extraordinary wealth of his vocabulary, in which he rivals Victor Hugo or Balzac. "To bear out his many quaint metaphors, he draws freely from that store of technical and obsolete words to which he was ever adding, even at the cost of whole days spent in pouring over a lexicon. When he does not find what he wants, he coins it straightway." I will begin with disposing of the initial difficulty as best I can. *Pivotal* is *risqué* in French, and insufferable in English. "Central figure" inadequately represents the *individualité*; "one cardinal personality" is perhaps not too bold. *Fustanelle* (see Littré, Supplement) is the skirt that the modern Greek wears over his trousers. Either keep the word "fustanella," or render "khirka," the special name for a dervish's skirts. *d'Abencerraje*—It is strange how many mistook the Moorish clan for the name of an individual. Châteaubriand's famous romance, *Les Aventures du dernier Abencerraje*, which has been translated into English, ought to have prevented this mistake. *Exotique ou nostalgique*, "alien or homesick," cf. Dryden's—

"The mother plant admires the shades unknown
Of alien trees and apples not her own."

"Exotic" might stand, but "nostalgic" is a dictionary word in English, and so conveys wholly different associations to the French homonym. *S'agatiser*—all the dictionaries I have consulted fail, giving only, "To turn to agate." "Mellowing" seems to me the nearest equivalent possible. It is a choice between approximated brevity and periphrastic accuracy. "Which takes, as it hardens with time, the tones and texture of the agate," would be an intolerable *longueur*. There is not much else to notice. In the first two sentences, mixed metaphors were very common. "Tako root," "magnetic attraction," "whirlpool or whirlwind," are common instances of confusion. *Au milieu de* is something more than "in his robes." I prefer "gyrations" to "waltzing," which smacks of the ball-room; and "but yesterday" to "the evening before," which is needlessly definite. *A la bonne heure*, "if you will," should stand at the end, as in the French order. "That hit the mark," and "he might have been either," were common inaccuracies.

We recommend Gautier's *Histoire du Romantisme*, from which the passage is taken, both as an exercise in French and as a valuable essay in criticism.

The winner of the last Translation Prize is F. W. Bourdillon, Esq., Eastbourne.

The winner of the Prize for Literary Puzzles of last month is H. S. Jones, Esq., St. Andrew's, Ramsbottom, Manchester.

A Prize of Two Guineas will be given for the best translation of the following poem of Pierre Dupont.

Nous, dont la lampe, le matin, Au clairon du coq se rallume; Nous tous, qu'un salaire incertain Ramène avant l'aube à l'enclume; Nous, qui des bras, des pieds, des mains, De tout le corps, l'intonons sans cesse, Sans abriter nos lendemains Contre le froid de la vieillesse, Aimons-nous, et quand nous pou- vons Nous unir pour boire à la ronde, Que le canon se taise ou gronde, Buvons A l'indépendance du monde!	Nous ne sommes que des machines. Nos Babels montent jusqu'au ciel, La terre nous doit ses merveilles! Dès qu'elles ont fini le miel Le maître chasse les abeilles. Aimons-nous, et quand nous pou- vons, etc.
Nos bras, sans relâche tendus, Aux flots jaloux, au sol avare, Ravissent leurs trésors perdus, Ce qui nourrit et ce qui pare: Perles, diamants et métaux, Fruit du coteau, grain de la plaine. Pauvres moutons, quels bons man- teaux Il se tisse avec notre laine! Aimons-nous, et quand nous pou- vons, etc.	Mal vêtus, logés dans des trous, Sous les combles, dans les dé- combres, Nous vivons avec les hiboux Et les larrons, amis des ombres: Cependant notre sang vermeil Conle impétueux dans nos veines; Nous nous plairions au grand soleil, Et sous les rameaux verts des chênes!
Quel fruit tironnons-nous des labeurs Qui courbent nos maigres échine? Où vont les flots de nos sueurs?	A chaque fois que, par torrents, Notre sang coule sur le monde, C'est toujours pour quelques tyrans Que cette rosée est féconde. Ménageons-le dorénavant, L'amour est plus fort que la guerre! En attendant qu'un meilleur vent Sonffe du ciel ou de la terre, Aimons-nous et quand nous pou- vons, etc.

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MATRON.—A LADY wishes to recommend an experienced and reliable person as MATRON in BOYS' SCHOOL. Widow of a schoolmaster, accustomed to boys, motherly, and good manager. Apply to Mrs. J. SPENCE CURWEN, Herne House, Forest Gate, Essex. 126

BRADFORD TECHNICAL COLLEGE.—WANTED, about the MIDDLE of APRIL, a MASTER to teach Mathematics, Theoretical and Applied Mechanics; a Graduate preferred. Applications to be sent to Mr. CHRISTOPHER GATENBY, Secretary, on or before the 6th of March, 1883. 126

THE MANCHESTER HIGH SCHOOL for GIRLS.—The Committee are prepared to receive Applications for the Post of HEAD-MISTRESS, which will be vacant in July. The new Head Mistress will be required to enter on her duties in September.

Negotiations for a Scheme are pending with the Charity Commissioners, under which the Head-Mistress may receive a fixed Salary of £150, and a Capitation Fee of not less than 10s., nor more than £2, on each Pupil attending the School.

The Committee offer for the present a fixed salary of £150 and a Capitation Fee of £1 on each Pupil above the number of 150 and up to the number of 500. There are now about 540 Pupils in the School.

Applications from Candidates should state their age and qualifications, and are to be forwarded, on or before the 15th of March, together with 20 printed copies of testimonials, to Mrs. ROBY, Woodhill, Pendleton, Manchester, from whom further information can be obtained. 127

TEACHER WANTED, for Bermuda.—Required, for the St. George's Grammar School, by the first April next, a Trained, Certificated MASTER (Churchman) under 30 years of age, of good moral character. Salary £120 per annum, to increase if satisfaction is given. A knowledge of Music, French, and Drawing desirable. The expense of passage out, not to exceed £20, to be refunded on arrival at Bermuda, by the School Committee.—Apply, stating experience and qualifications and enclosing copies of testimonials, to Mr. GROVE, 17 Riding House Street, London, W. 128

ENGAGEMENTS WANTED.

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EDUCATION SOCIETY.

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Friday, March 16th.—Lecture on "The Human Voice as a Musical Instrument: its Mechanism and Management." Illustrated by large working models of the Larynx, and by demonstrations with the Laryngoscope. By Herr Emil Behnke.

The Journal of Education,

96 FARRINGTON STREET, LONDON, E.C.

OCCASIONAL NOTES.

THE New Code, which will be in full operation by the end of this month, supplies an additional incentive that is much wanted for whipping-up the school attendance, by making the Parliamentary grant proportional to the average attendance. We doubt, however, whether it will be found sufficient in the case of country schools, and believe that further legislation will be needed to secure that attendance committees do their duty, and to provide some more summary and less precarious method of compulsion than the summoning of recalcitrant parents before the magistrates. It is notorious that some boards of magistrates will not convict, and that members of attendance committees are often themselves law-breakers, employing unqualified children. Again, the licence they enjoy in fixing the standard that qualifies children for employment is far too wide.

THE *Times's* specific against truancy is to offer rewards for the best attendances made in the year. Such a course

seems hardly consistent with the stock argument of the *Times* and other journals who oppose free education; but, apart from the doubtful morality, we doubt the general efficacy of the bribe. In the instance the *Times* quotes, one farthing was offered for every attendance over 300. This would give as the highest prize half-a-crown, and, though the honour may doubtless count for something, yet the class of parents who keep their boys away from school will probably be callous to the honour, and scorn the annual half-crown when the boy can earn double by a week's abstention.

OUR contemporaries, the *School Guardian* and the *Educational News*, are alarmed lest the Elementary Schools should be "over-inspected." "It is a nuisance almost intolerable to the teaching staff, to be continually interrupted by droppers-in, who do no sort of good, who find fault with little or no reason, who bring no experience to their work, who waste time, distract the children, and fret the teachers." The writer of this passage is surely himself wasting time in asserting that schools may have "too much" of such inspection. Oddly enough, both the *School Guardian* and the *Educational News* seem to think that it is a question of much or little, not of bad or good inspection. The visiting managers "might or might not know anything of practical school-keeping," and in either case, their visits, if "periodical," would be "past bearing." No doubt, the ordinary member of a School Board is about as fit to "manage" an Elementary School as the ordinary householder is to manage a steam-engine, or a banking company; and we heartily sympathise with teachers who suffer from the raids of such "managers." But, although our bodily health is likely to be injuriously affected by our taking "too much" prussic acid, there are recognised tonics, stimulants, and correctives in the pharmacopœia; and we venture to think there are modes of inspection which are not so soon overdone, as that which the *School Guardian* has described to us. The inspection of skilled superintendents has been the making of the best schools in the United States, as, e.g., the schools of St. Louis, under Dr. William T. Harris, and those of Quincy (of which we have given some account elsewhere) under Colonel Parker. The English Inspector is a kind of detective, and is no more supposed to improve the school than a thermometer is supposed to warm a schoolroom. But the American "Superintendent" acts as a good fire, and goes on blazing away till the air has reached the proper temperature.

MR. MAGNUS's inaugural address at the opening of the Finsbury Technical College reported good work for the past and gave more promise for the future. In the three years that the Institution has been at work, more than 2000 students have passed through the evening classes. The present College opens with between 70 and 80 regular pupils. The College has a double function. It is a day school for youths between the ages of 14 and 17, in which they will receive

a scientific education immediately adapted to the calling they intend to pursue, and is thus distinct both from the technical high schools of Germany and Switzerland, and the apprenticeship schools of France. It is a night school for those already engaged in practical work, in which they are taught the principles on which their work depends. In neither case is it attempted to make efficient workmen. It is either the preparation for the workshop or its complement.

ONE or two *obiter dicta* of Mr. Magnus are noteworthy, if only as texts for future discussion. "Our middle-class schools still labour under this radical defect—they offer an education the same in kind as the higher-class schools, but inferior in quality;"—a true bill. "Every subject, if properly taught, may be made the basis of a liberal education. Our curriculum is not the less disciplinary because it is technical;"—a doubtful and somewhat dangerous doctrine. "Drawing ought to be added to the three R's as a compulsory subject in all elementary schools. Till this is done, English workmen will not be able to hold their own against foreign competition. There should be taught, beside, some branch of handicraft work, suited to the district." Drawing undoubtedly, as is universally the case in the common schools of America; a handicraft possibly, and we look with interest to the results of the Manchester School Board's experiment.

MR. BARTUM's sub-committee, appointed by the Headmasters to enquire into the working of the Society of Schoolmasters, has been sitting, and has strengthened itself by *coopting* Dr. Wormell and Mr. Merriman. It would be premature to canvass their proceedings, but we may venture to offer them a counsel. The Society, notwithstanding what was said to the contrary at the Conference, is essentially a charitable institution. As such it may be popularized and extended; but it would, in our opinion, be a great mistake to tack on to it any system of superannuation or assurance. That work was confided to the Headmasters' Committee, and had far better be left to them to work out as a separate scheme. Dr. Baker's letter, which was received after this note was in print, confirms the view we have taken.

HAVING started the subject of retiring pensions and life assurance in the *Journal*, we should be sorry to let it drop with Miss Beale's confession of failure. In order to see what might be done through existing offices, we have addressed inquiries to all the principal companies, but the results are so meagre that they may be compressed into a note. Only five of the thirty companies to whom we applied do business in annuities. In the *Standard Life*, to secure an annuity of £100 at 50 years of age, the annual payment is £30. 4s. 2d., if commencing at 25; if at 30, it is £43. 15s. In the *Northern*, the figures are the same within a few shillings. For the same annuity at 60 (the earliest age

given in their tables), the respective payments in the *General Life and Fire* are £12. 18s. 9d. and £17. 0s. 5d. In the *National Provident*, to secure a premium of £1,000 on reaching 50, or at death, whichever event occurs first, the annual payment, beginning at 25, is £38. 3s. 4d., and £48. 5s. 10d. beginning at 30. The corresponding payments in the *Hand in Hand* are £35. 10s. 10d. and £46. 7s. 6d. It would seem, then, that the *Standard Life* and the *Northern* are the only companies that offer annuities in the form that schoolmasters would generally desire; but our investigation is, doubtless, very imperfect.

WE are glad to notice that Messrs. George Bell and Sons' excellent series of Readers, consisting of shilling abridgments of standard works of English literature, suitable for boys and girls, is growing, and in the direction we recommended in our October number. A selection of "Lamb's Tales from Shakespeare" has, we see, been added, as also an abridgment of Parts i. and ii. of "Gulliver's Travels," and, later still, "The Vicar of Wakefield," abridged by Mr. H. C. Bowen, has appeared. Schoolmasters have now a large list of interesting and entertaining books in *standard English* to choose from, and we are glad to hear that they are availing themselves of the opportunity. Reading lessons have thus, at last, a chance of being made cheerful, and of being used to create and foster a real love for books and good literature; while the language in which they are written being of acknowledged classical quality, teachers will be encouraged to take pains with the tone, and manner, and accent in which it is uttered, and thus at length make their reading lessons in some measure *lessons in reading*. H.M. Inspectors of Schools, who are so unanimous in their complaints of unintelligent, ill-pronounced reading, should take this view of the matter into their consideration, and endeavour to get a fair trial for this plan somewhere under carefully-watched conditions. We can assure them, from our experience, that they are not likely to be disappointed in the results. Messrs. George Bell and Sons might, we think, add the first two parts of "Pilgrim's Progress" to their list, and perhaps also "Rasselas," with some of its philosophy abridged.

The Annual Report of the College of Preceptors shows the Institution to be one of the most flourishing in the kingdom. During the past year, it examined over 13,000 pupils, representing over 1800 schools, without counting inspections and examinations conducted for various Medical bodies. The balance sheet shows a surplus of over £2,000, and the building fund stands at £6,600. On the other hand, it can hardly be said that the College is fulfilling the original intention of its founders. There is a falling off of candidates for degrees, and only eighteen diplomas were awarded at Christmas, while no candidate satisfied the conditions of the Doreek Scholarship, for proficiency in the Theory and Practice of Teaching. As the examiners of

middle-grade schools, the College is doing good work and reaping its just reward; but there are now plenty of other bodies equally qualified to perform this function, while there is no other body that professes to be a Guild of Teachers—at once to provide for their training, guard their interests, and unite them in a college or learned corporation. It is something to have conceived such an ideal, but the College of Perceptors did more to realize it when it was struggling for existence than in its present prosperity.

MR. J. A. DIGBY'S excellent pamphlet, entitled *Hothouse Education*, is the text for a somewhat unintelligent article in the *Saturday Review* on the *Examination Mania*. On the extreme peril of overwork for undeveloped brains, the doctors, the *Saturday*, and ourselves are at one; but as to the remedies, we differ widely. The *Saturday* girds at the "mischievous pedantry" of Examiners, and calls for easier papers, not seeing the obvious truth that the pressure of a competitive examination depends less on the hardness of the papers, than on the keenness of the competition. It might on other grounds be desirable to award Eton scholarships and Naval Cadetships on an examination in the three R's, but it would do little to relieve the strain. One other heresy of the *Saturday's* needs refuting, "Might it not be well to lay down a rule, that in future those who conduct the more severe examinations shall be required to pass them—that is, to obtain an average number of marks in subjects other than their own?" Such a test would disbar every examiner for the Indian Civil Service, even polyhistorians like Mr. Max Müller and Canon Farrar. But, not to press this *reductio ad absurdum*, the principle, we hold, is wholly wrong. The student is rightly required to know details that the master has left behind him, and we can conceive the case of a competent examiner being plucked in his own paper.

MISS BEALE writes:—"I must add a postscript to my article on Girls' Dress. Since I wrote it, a little book has come into my hands, 'Fantastic Dialogues for the Instruction and Amusement of Children of Four and Five Years Old.' It has no date, but is printed for John Marshalls, of Aldermanbury Churchyard, and is, I judge, about 100 years old. It contains the history of Jack Wilful, who begins his wilfulness by objecting to the maid's dressing him, and accordingly is left in bed. The consequences are thus described:—"There he lay screaming and crying, Betty, Betty, Betty, you shall come and dress me, I will get up. But nobody heeded him. Jack was so tired of bed that he had tried every way he could think of to dress himself, but *he could not lace his stays.*' Does not this give us hope? Within the last century, half the race has effected its emancipation from stays; will not the other half insist on equal rights?"

THE February number of the *Révue Pédagogique* (a magazine that deserves to be better known in England) has an

admirable article by M. Léon Robert, entitled "Advice on the study of the Classics in Primary Normal Schools." English Modern-school-masters will pick up some useful hints as to the authors best worth reading, and the order in which to read them. But the point to which we wish to call attention is the different meaning assigned to the word "classics" on either side of the Channel. An article with the same title in an English journal would be understood by nine readers out of ten to refer to Latin and Greek, and we should have Lord Norton writing to the *Times* to prove the absurdity of teaching ploughboys Thucydides. The classics in France mean Corneille and Racine, Buffon and Fénelon, La Fontaine and Molière; and M. Robert holds that primary teachers should study the French classics, and teach them to their pupils; not in extracts, not in manuals, but in the texts themselves, the one condition of success being "que les enfants liront les classiques sans ennui, bien plus, avec plaisir." Every method is right but the tiresome method. Our classics for the million are orts and fragments of Shakspeare and Milton, or stuff of this sort, "The Iliad consists of more than 15,000 lines, and the date of the story is about 1,200 B.C. . . . Juno has witnessed the interview, and a connubial dialogue ensues, in which she is silenced by the Thunderer. Vulcan soothes his mother with nectar." We are quoting from the second page of Mr. Grey's popular Classics for the Million.

MR. SILL, in commenting on Mr. Herbert Spencer's "Theory of Education" in the *Atlantic*, says:—"There has hardly been a rash and ill-considered educational notion uttered by the thousand and one uneducated 'educators' throughout the United States for the last fifteen years, that has not based itself on Mr. Spencer's 'Theory of Education.' It has been, and still is, the Law and the Prophets for all the devotees of educationalisms in this country, from those who would turn our schools and colleges into bakeries and blacksmiths' shops, to those who would abolish them altogether." This, he thinks, arises partly from their educational misquotation and misunderstanding of Mr. Spencer's treatise, but mainly from his own constant assumption, that the chief purpose of education is to furnish the mind with a certain set of convenient facts. A purely scientific training is not, Mr. Sill thinks, the one only necessary preparation for all our activities; on the contrary, "the ability to get the full benefit of other men's minds and experience from their written words, and the ability to think, are gifts bestowed by a liberal education worth any amount of a particular set of facts."

EDITORS are jubilant over the verdict in the case of *Watts v. Emmett*, and it is satisfactory, in these somewhat squeamish days, to know that it is lawful to call a spade a spade, and a bad book "stuff." The trial, however, suggests another moral that no editor has yet pointed out. It appeared that the work in question had been favourably noticed in various newspapers, the editors of which were

subpœnaed to testify to the *bona fides* of the judgment expressed in their organs. We should be curious to know how many of the reviewers had read the book. The colourless inanities which appear as "minor notices" in most of our educational journals, and some of our daily contemporaries, may satisfy publishers and authors, but they are an insult to readers and a scandal to journalism.

ACCORDING to the latest modifications in the Educational Code in Prussia, the schools above the purely elementary are classified as follows:—*Gymnasia, Progymnasia, Realgymnasia, Realprogymnasia, Oberrealschulen, Realschulen, and Higher Burgher Schools*. The last are elementary schools with extra subjects, such as modern languages, philosophy, &c. Latin has lost in the *Gymnasia* ten hours a week, French has gained four hours, and history, geography, and mathematics have each had more time allotted to them. The *Gymnasium* has thus become less a special training school for the Universities. The *Realgymnasium* is a *Realschule* with more Latin than the old *Realschule* of the first grade. Students from this kind of school will probably, before long, be admitted to the Universities. In Prussia there are 5,500,000 children of school age, of which 4,800,000 are in attendance. There is, on an average, one teacher to every 78 pupils. In Schleswick there are only 57 pupils to one teacher, but in Posen there are as many as 108.

DEAN BRADLEY'S "Recollections of Arthur Penryn Stanley" is not a book to review, for all that need be said of it is—read it. To our minds, the best chapter is the first, on Rugby and Oxford. We may borrow one short extract to illustrate the change for the better that has passed over Public Schools in the last fifty years—a change that reformers like ourselves are apt to ignore:—

"Once, at a Rugby dinner, he described, with the humour of which he was a master, how, 'as I sat in that study reading Mitford, a stone, thrown at me by a schoolfellow, came through the window, struck me on the forehead here'—striking his forehead as he spoke—and left an almost indelible scar.' The story is characteristic of the involuntary disgust with which the sight of a schoolfellow, sitting at home to read, otherwise than under compulsion, would have inspired nine out of ten of the schoolboys of the day."

WE offer M. Fournier a fresh parallel for the next edition of his delightful *Esprit des Autres*.

"Before a Botticelli, I am mute."—"I wish you were."—*Punch*.

"Un sophiste s'étant présenté à Athènes comme sachant toutes les philosophies. Qu' Aristote m'appelle au Lycée, dit-il, je le suis; que Platon m'invite à l'Académie, j'y entre; si Zenon me réclame, je me fais l'hôte du Portique; sur un mot de Pythagore, je me tais.—'Suppose que Pythagore t'appelle,' reprit Demomax."

It is not likely that *Punch* had read M. Renan, or Lucian, from whom M. Renan borrows the anecdote.

We are compelled by the length of our Correspondence, and other pressure on our space, to postpone Oxford and Cambridge Locals Papers to the Mid-monthly Supplement, and the third part of "Florimel" to the April number of the Journal.

ON THE TEACHING OF VOCAL MUSIC IN GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.*

THE claims of Music as an essential part of education are fully conceded, and practically provided for, in our Public Elementary Schools; and in the schemes which from time to time are published for the reconstruction or the creation of Middle-class Grammar or High Schools, vocal Music often, if not usually, finds a place in the list of subjects. But even where, in schools above the elementary grade, Music is thus nominally acknowledged as a necessary part of education, this particular clause of the scheme often remains a dead letter. And, although some of our great Public Schools, as for example, Harrow, are taking a prominent part in the development and publication of manuals of song for school-boys; and though, in this way, the subject is beginning to attract the attention of our educational aristocracy, and to be somewhat patronized by educational authorities, still, it must be confessed that it does not, as yet, fairly take rank as a genuine part of school routine. It is regarded rather as a refining amusement; as a preparation for the drawing-rooms of after life; as a hopeful resource for boys who are otherwise idle or dull; as something less brutal than football, and more feminine than cricket; a sort of happy medium between the school work and the school sports.

Yet there are at least three weighty reasons why Music should take rank with Greek, Latin, and Mathematics.

One is, that all teachers who have had sufficient practical experience are agreed that what is called a "musical ear" is not the exceptional birthright of a favoured few, but is, on the contrary, a faculty latent in every healthy human being; and one which, where there is no positive organic defect or disease, can always be developed to an almost indefinite degree by a judicious and painstaking teacher, *provided we begin early enough, and persevere*. If Music is only an optional subject, and taught out of the regular school hours, boys who are supposed not to have a "musical ear" will not join the classes, and will thus lose for life the opportunity of acquiring one of the most spiritual and elevating of our faculties. Thus, to fail to make Music an essential item in our school course is as unfair to boys themselves as it would be to allow boys to grow up blind, dumb, deaf, or lame, supposing these infirmities curable by proper school discipline.

A second reason is, that Vocal Music, if efficiently taught, indirectly benefits school discipline. It is easy to see that, when a master has a class of thirty or forty boys, who are all interested in intelligently mastering a difficult but a beautiful piece of music; when, for the sake of the felt beauty of the whole, each set of boys, and each individual boy, performs the allotted part with due subordination to the other parts, and with prompt and instinctive obedience to the slightest gesture or look of the conductor; when thus all sense of self is swallowed up in the delight of a realised unity of harmonious sound, then much more has been learned than a lesson in Music. It is a lesson in the very essence of morality, all the more effective because unspoken.

Lastly, it must be acknowledged that the highest work in which in this world man can engage, is the public worship of God; and in that worship the service of song must always hold a prominent part. Nothing is more fatal to public devotion than the listless indifference or incompetence which is content to do this work by deputy; and it is hardly too much to say that the spiritual life of a parish may be roughly gauged by the extent to which the singing in the parish church is really congregational. "The child is father to the man," and the Public School boy who is encouraged to look on vocal music as the hobby of an æsthetic few, is apt to become the adult who, Prayer-book in one hand and eye-glass in the other, superciliously stares at the professional performance of a surpliced choir.

* A Paper read before the Midland Association of Head-masters of Endowed Schools.

My own experience as a schoolmaster has fully convinced me that, without such an accurate and intelligent rendering of psalms or hymns as can only be secured by making the study of Music compulsory on all, it is impossible to make our school worship really felt as devotional by the bulk of our boys. School prayers without school hymns may be rightly appreciated by a few of our more thoughtful scholars, but, for the generality, they can hope to secure little more than a frigid decorum.

The three reasons above suggested refer only to the practical mastery of Vocal Music, and are independent of the methods or systems by which this mastery is secured. There is, however, a fourth reason why Music should be regarded as essential to a liberal education, which, unfortunately, entirely depends on the method or system by which Music is taught.

As an unskilled amateur, it may seem presumptuous in me to dogmatise on such a subject, but I cannot help a conclusion which has been forced upon me by the experience of more than twelve years' work in teaching elementary singing classes; this conclusion, namely, that the science of Music is as yet unborn, and that intelligent systems of teaching Music are things of the future.

But I am confident that, when Music is properly taught, it will secure this most important result. It will give to the bulk of ordinary schoolboys, within the compass of an ordinary school career, a mental and an emotional education, that will comprise, in one result, the æsthetic culture that is now given to a favoured few by long years of Greek Iambics and of Latin Verse, and the accurate grasp of transcendental truth that comes from an advanced study of Geometry and the Differential Calculus. Music is a language—the language of our sentiments and emotions, not of our intellect; but, unlike all other languages, it is developed and dominated by laws that are as exact and as universal as the law of gravitation: but laws which as yet are 'unrecognised, and indeed scarcely dreamt of, by the musical profession. True musical teaching is Classics and Mathematics made one.

The standard text-books of what is called musical science, written by musical professors, are little more than compilations of traditional rules-of-thumb. So little of intelligence is there in this empiricism that, when these rules come to be formulated for beginners in the art, the common-place school manuals bristle with dogmas that are demonstrably untrue. I have, however, met with one book, written by a practical musician, in which there is a genuinely scientific method, and that is, a bulky and somewhat rare treatise by Prof. Weber. Prof. Weber's whole work consists in the laborious induction of general laws, from a minute analysis and comparison of the extant works of the great classical composers; and it is worthy of note that every chapter, and almost every paragraph, is devoted to the denunciation or the disproof of doctrines that are most certainly believed, and most confidently taught, by the orthodox musical profession.

This is, after all, the main reason why the study of Music does not take the rank it should take in our higher grade schools. The systems on which it is taught are so merely mechanical as to be unworthy of a place in a liberal education. It is as though Geometry were only taught by land surveyors, Astronomy by ships' captains; or as if the subtleties of Greek grammar were the scholastic monopoly of stockbrokers who take in the "Bretannikos Aster."

Another less obvious reason will soon make itself felt, if we attempt to make Music a part of our educational programme. Music, to be really worthy of the name, must be written in four parts—treble, alto, tenor, and bass. But tenor and bass voices are only to be had in mature perfection among our Assistant Masters; while, from the age of fourteen and onwards, a boy's voice breaks, and becomes almost useless.

Thus, not only is it very difficult to sustain all the voice parts required for complete music, but, as soon as a boy gets into the higher forms of the school, he becomes physically incapacitated from taking an active part in the singing classes. Thus Vocal Music is looked on as something meant only for little boys, and beneath the dignity of the Fifth and Sixth Forms.

I can see no escape from this difficulty, except in the introduction of some forms of Instrumental Music. Our chief desideratum is the invention of some simple and cheap musical instrument, that calls for no skill in execution, and that gives a range of notes corresponding to the ordinary range of a bass or a tenor voice. As soon as a boy's voice begins to break, I should put such an instrument into his hands, and make him thenceforward play his part instead of singing it. And, indeed, some slight degree of acquaintance with instrumental music, the ability to pick out a melody from notes on the ordinary keyboard, is a necessary part of musical education, and is of considerable value in after life. Boys who take the trouble to learn the pianoforte or harmonium, always become more exact and trustworthy in their singing; and, if such an instrument as I have described could be invented and manufactured, its use would tend to impress musical truths and sensations on a boy's mind at the age when otherwise he is tempted to neglect and to forget all he has already learned.

But the main difficulty in the way of teaching Music in higher grade schools lies in the unscientific character of the recognised systems on which it is at present taught. Two systems are used by the musical profession: these I will endeavour briefly to describe; and then contrast with them two other systems of recent origin, or of future possibility.

The first system is, strictly speaking, no system at all. Pupils are taught the forms and names of the ordinary notes, and then are set to sing a series of musical selections of graduated difficulty, while the teacher guides and helps them by his voice, and by an instrumental accompaniment. In this way, as matter of fact, the majority of amateurs are taught, or teach themselves. This system corresponds to the method of learning a language by direct translation, with the help of a tutor or of a key, and without troubling oneself about accident or syntax.

If boys were taught Greek and Latin in this way, they might be as well able to make out the sense of an unseen passage as our most carefully grounded pupils. And, if our only object is to teach boys to read music readily at sight, this is probably, on the whole, the best of all systems; but its educational value is almost nothing.

The second system is that which is commonly called Hullah's system, but which, in reality, was merely imported from Paris, and adapted to the use of English schools by Mr. Hullah, under the superintendence of the Committee of Council on Education. It had existed from time immemorial on the Continent, and, with slight modifications, is the system recognised and generally adopted by the musical profession in England.

As regards this system, there are several points that must, at the outset, be frankly admitted.

First, it is the laboured result of long scholastic experience, and is almost absolutely perfect in every practical detail. Hence it has an immense advantage over modern systems, the details of which are as yet comparatively untested.

Secondly, it is so absolutely unnatural that it produces very little real effect on the ordinary schoolboy mind, and the essential falsehoods on which it is based do not take root, and are speedily forgotten. For all practical purposes of school work, it is equivalent to the first described system, the "no system at all," plus a most elaborate mechanical drill, the sole use of which is to enable the teacher to see at a glance that each pupil in the class is really attending to the lesson,—a point, undoubtedly, of much importance.

Thirdly, it resembles the "no system at all" in this, that by means of it people do really learn to sing; and, as matter of fact, Mr. Hullah has, by means of his system, leavened the English nation with a capacity for, and an interest in, music; and he has thus unconsciously paved the way for the development of those modern scientific systems which must, sooner or later, take the place of the traditional system which, by his zeal and enthusiasm, he has popularly identified with his own name.

I will endeavour to justify this criticism by an exact account of Hullah's method.

All European music is formed by selecting, arranging, and combining certain tones, chosen from a set of sounds, that rise by equal intervals of pitch, and regularly recur in what are called octaves, each octave containing twelve distinct sounds, of which seven are denoted by letters of the alphabet, and the intervening notes are considered as altered forms of these, either sharpened or flattened, thus—

C* D* E F* G* A* B C* D* E F* G* A* B C.

Each of these tones has an invariable pitch, and each in our musical notation is known by its assigned place on certain bundles of lines called staves.

Now, a performer on a pianoforte has only to know thoroughly which keys on his instrument correspond to any tones marked down from the above set of notes, and to press down those keys, and he will play correctly whatever music may be set before him. This process is purely mechanical, and implies no knowledge of musical laws or relations.

But, though only twelve distinct tones are given by the pianoforte or organ in each octave, yet, in musical reality, hundreds of tones are used instead of twelve, and, although these tones differ imperceptibly in pitch, in musical meaning and effect they differ immeasurably. And the only way in which the various tones that are thus confounded together under the common symbols of the instrumental scale can be discriminated, is by understanding their musical relations and meaning. The pianist need know nothing of all this; but those minute shades of intonation, upon the accuracy of which the beauty of vocal music depends, are made by the singer, in virtue of his instinctive perception of these musical relations.

Now, Hullah's system is an elaborate drill, which excludes all reference, *in the act of singing*, to these musical relations, and insists only on a mechanical reproduction of absolute pitch. Its highest aim is to turn the singer into a vocal pianist.

It is true that in each lesson there is more or less reference to the simpler musical laws and relations; but these are given as matter of abstract theory. The theory stops as soon as the singing begins. By common consent on all sides, the essential principle of musical education is the habitual association of a name or a syllable with a corresponding musical idea. Mr. Hullah compels his pupils most religiously always to sing each note to an assigned syllable. The whole controversy hinges on this question,—What is that syllable to represent?

In Hullah's system, each syllable represents *only* absolute pitch. *Do* is a mere equivalent for C; *Re* for D, *Mi* for E, &c. And, being thus used, they cannot have any correspondence with musical relations or laws. The same name, *Sol*, may stand for a dozen distinct and contradictory musical ideas in the course of a morning's lesson. The only thing it invariably represents is the fixed absolute pitch of the pianoforte note G,—*a thing which has nothing whatever to do with the essence of music or its scientific laws*. The note G is a mere dead brick, which may form part of a house; and no real knowledge of music is implied in being able to reproduce it with the utmost accuracy.

But, indeed, no human being can be taught to remember and reproduce *absolute* pitch with anything like the requisite degree of accuracy. Mr. Hullah, himself, admits this in the preface to his last published manual. In the system he first published (adapted from Wilhelm's method), and through which his teaching has chiefly made its mark, he allowed the same syllable to stand for three distinct tones (*e.g.*, *Re* for both D flat, D natural, and D sharp), and thus virtually confessed that the use of these syllables is no practical help to the *exact* reproduction of absolute pitch. In his last published manual, he has remedied this anomaly; but, in the second paragraph of the appendix, he admits that the chief use of the altered forms of the *Sol-fa* syllables, by which sharps and flats are distinguished from naturals, is to fix the pupil's attention on the notes before him, rather than to help him to sing.

In practical school work, the teacher never expects his pupils to sing their notes by bare memory of absolute pitch. He

always sounds the first note on an instrument, and then expects them to sing the succeeding notes *by noticing the length of each step upwards or downwards from note to note*; or by measuring and reproducing with his voice the *intervals*, as these steps are called. The greater part of Hullah's book is taken up with the study and practice of all the different *intervals* that occur in simple music, beginning with the shorter and easier steps, and ending with the longest jump, that of an octave.

So, at the outset, the system changes front, and practically abandons the principle of *absolute pitch* for the principle of *relative pitch*, or of *interval length*. This, the doctrine and the practice of calculating and reproducing *interval-lengths*, is undoubtedly the real mainstay of Hullah's system.

But this is, if anything, a still more complete illusion. By long habit, it is possible to acquire a roughly approximate memory of absolute pitch; but no truth is better established by practical experience than this, that the human ear, however finely cultivated, is unable to form any sort of direct measurement of the length of musical intervals. Any child can be taught to sing the common scale correctly, but no one, left to his own direct and unaided sensations, would ever find out the relative length of the different steps of that scale. Try a simple experiment. Mr. Hullah begins his system by teaching his pupils to sing up and down the common scale, after carefully pointing out and measuring the length of each step. He then goes on to teach them to take longer intervals, two steps at a time, then three steps, and so on, always insisting most carefully upon noticing, in each case, the length of the step that is taken, and raising the voice proportionately. The length of each step is made plain to the eye by the relative height of the lines in a diagram that represents the scale.

Now, prepare a false scale, with the intervals shifted into the wrong places; make the intervals as ridiculously untrue as possible. Take a class of untaught Board School children, who know nothing about music, and teach them to sing with the false theory and false explanations involved in this scale. They will sing just as correctly as Hullah's own pupils. The notion that, when we sing, we are influenced or guided by estimating the length of the intervals we take is the merest illusion.

Such a statement may seem startling to those who are not experienced in the actual teaching of Vocal Music. But a few facts will help to illustrate its truth.

First, the majority of professional musicians are ignorant of the demonstrable fact that the common scale does *not* consist of tones and half-tones, but, when accurately sung, contains steps of three distinct kinds, the lengths of which are mathematically incommensurable. This fact is verifiable by calculation and acoustic experiments, but no one ever yet found it out by direct musical consciousness. Thus the imaginary case we have above supposed is an actual fact. Mr. Hullah's own diagram contains false intervals, with corresponding falsities in his explanation of intervals,—falsities which seriously affect the theory of harmony and musical composition. And yet, so long as we confine ourselves to the scale of C major, there is no practical difference to be noticed between pupils taught from his false diagram, and pupils taught from the accurate diagrams of modern systems.

Another equally striking illustration of this apparent paradox, is to be found in professional theories of certain ornamental tones called "chromatics." The exact length of these intervals can be easily calculated and experimentally demonstrated; there is no uncertainty or difficulty about them whatever. And yet professional musicians are at variance among themselves as to the comparative lengths of these chromatic intervals, and Mr. Hullah frankly admits that the generally received belief of the musical profession on this point flatly contradicts the results of acoustic science. Plainly, then, it follows that a highly cultivated musical ear is no guide to ascertaining the exact length of intervals; and, conversely, a knowledge of the exact length of intervals, is no help whatever to correct singing. The truth is, that the notions of "interval length"

and "height," as applied to musical sounds, are merely metaphorical; they are useful for scientific calculations, but represent no musical reality.

Thus Hullah's system resembles the system of a professor of swimming, who places his pupils in the water, and compels them to recite a sentence from the Koran before each particular movement of the limbs. Such pupils might learn to swim in spite of the Koran, just as Hullah's pupils learn to sing, in spite of the system by which they are illusively trained. Or it resembles a method of teaching children to read by means of ivory letters, on each of which its exact weight is inscribed; thus—"C, seven-sixteenths of a grain; A, eleven-sixteenths of a grain; T, three-eighths of a grain; total, one grain and a-half, C A T." Such pupils, with patience and perseverance, might learn to read, just as Hullah's pupils, with patience and perseverance, learn to sing. They might even become enthusiasts for the system of weighted letters. It may be pertinently remarked, that the orthodox method of teaching children to read by spelling is really this absurdity in disguise.

It is; however, when we come to the second part of Hullah's book, that the essential fallacy of the system becomes most strikingly prominent.

All music is based upon one ultimate physiological or psychological fact, the consciousness of what is called *key-relationship*.

Musical sounds heard by an unprepared ear, differ in pitch and in quality of tone, but they are all alike meaningless, and in the strictest sense unmusical. But, by certain devices well known to the practical musician, the ear can be thrown into a special state, which we might describe as being "polarized in a particular musical plane." When the ear is thus tuned, every musical tone that falls upon it is heard in its relation to the governing tone by which the ear is tuned, and assumes life and character from that relation. That governing tone is called the keynote. Until the ear is tuned, music is non-existent, and is no better than a smooth noise. Suppose, for example, we are listening to a person singing an accompanied song in one room, and suddenly the door opens, in a pause of the song, and admits the full sound of a sonata of Beethoven that is being played in an adjoining room. If the keynote of the sonata happens to be the same as that of the song, we shall be conscious of an interruption in the song, but the new sounds will appear harmonious and pleasant in themselves. If, however, the keynote of the sonata be of a different pitch, the new sounds will for a few moments seem as harsh and unmusical as the noise of emptying a cartload of coals into a cellar.

Thus the very essence of music is the consciousness of key-relationship, and true musical training is the careful education of that sense of key-relationship. Hullah's system, not only from first to last, in actual singing, ignores this, the all-essential element of music, but in the Second Part it does all it can to destroy or blunt it.

The common scale consists of seven tones, each of which bears a simple and distinctive musical relation to the keynote. Each tone has, therefore, a distinct character and musical meaning of its own. The merest child can be taught to recognise each tone by its special musical character; and if a pupil be trained to notice these specific characteristics, a few years of such work will make each tone have a face as familiar as that of an old friend.

Now, in the First Part of Hullah's book, the keynote is always C, and that note is always called and sung as *Do*. Thus the pupil who has gone through the first part, has habitually associated the musical sensation of the keynote with the name *Do*, the special musical sensation of the second tone of the scale with the name *Re*, and so on with the other tones of the scale.

But, in the Second Part, the pupil is taught to sing exercises in other keys than that of C. There is no difficulty in doing this. Hullah himself says (chap. xlv., § 183), "Transposition (*i.e.*, change of key) adds nothing to the difficulty of vocal music. So long as a passage lies within the compass of a singer's voice, he can as easily perform it in one scale as another, when the idea of the keynote is once fixed in the mind."

And he cautions the teacher, before transposing a vocal exercise from one keynote to another, first, as a prelude, to sing up and down the common chord of the new keynote, that being the simplest way of *tuning the ear in the new key*.

Suppose, then, we take a simple scale exercise, which the pupil has learned to sing in the key of C, and ask him to sing the same exercise in the key of D; all we have to do is to tune his ear to the new keynote, and he will at once sing it, without any sense of difficulty; indeed, he will probably be unaware that any change has been made, if his ear is tuned to the new keynote at the outset of the lesson, since not one boy in a hundred would be able to recognise from memory the difference in absolute pitch between C and D. There will be no difficulty at all, supposing the pupil merely vocalises the notes, and does not call them by any distinctive names. But our pupil has been accustomed to sing the keynote as *Do*, the second tone of the scale as *Re*, &c., &c.; and thus the musical effect of each tone of the scale has become instinctively associated with these names. If he were allowed to call the new key note *Do*, and all the corresponding tones of the scale by corresponding names, he would at once sing the passage without difficulty or hesitation, guided by a musical instinct with which these names have become entwined. But no: Hullah's system compels him to call the new keynote *Re*, the new second tone of the scale *Mi*, &c., &c.; and, in addition, he is compelled to recapitulate and point out on his fingers all the sharps required to make up this scale; viz., *Fa* and *Do*.

Scale of C major.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
C	D	E	F	G	A	B	C
Do	re	mi	fa	sol	la	si	do

Scale of D major.

Re	mi	fa	sol	la	si	do	re
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Do	re	mi	fa	sol	la	si	do

Thus, in this and other changes of key, habitual musical associations of the *Sol-fa* syllables are thrown completely out of joint, and the pupil is burdened in addition with a useless and a misleading calculation of sharps or flats; for when, in the above example, we sing the third or seventh tones of the scale of D, those tones are, in musical sensation, just as *natural* as the third and seventh tones of the scale of C; to call them *sharpened* notes, is to contradict one's musical consciousness. These sharps and flats are merely mechanical devices for extracting a new scale out of the wooden levers of a pianoforte keyboard, but they have no real existence in music itself.

Thus, in the second part of Hullah's system, the simplest and easiest music is made indefinitely complicated and difficult, and what little true musical feeling the pupil may have hitherto spontaneously acquired, is distracted, disjointed, and at last smothered out of existence. A strong musical genius may survive the process uninjured, but ordinary pupils either give it up, and fall back on the "no system at all," or else, as matter of fact, do acquire a hard, dead, unsympathetic, and meaningless intonation. Their musical sense is stultified and stifled.

Nor is this the least evil that results; for the habit of calling the tones of the common scale in different keys by names that are taken from the scale of C, necessarily leads the pupil to believe that the scale of C is in some real sense the source from which other scales are derived. He cannot conceive of the scale as a real musical whole, independent of absolute pitch: he imagines that C, D, E, &c., are really *natural* notes, that F sharp, C sharp, &c., are really sharp tones, and B flat, A flat, &c., are really flat tones; and he is dimly conscious of a mystery, almost as inscrutable as the mysteries of the Athanasian Creed, in the paradox that E sharp is the same as F natural, and his intellect bows itself down in hopeless puzzlement before the dim vistas of double flats and double sharps. To a mind in this state, musical science is simply impossible, and the slavish adherence to this nomenclature, which is a mere transcript of the dead mechanism of the organ keyboard, is the real reason why the musical profession has hitherto

shown itself incapable of inaugurating even the rudiments of a real musical science.

This point admits of a simple illustration. Music may be compared to Geometry, and absolute pitch in the one corresponds to absolute measurement in the other. An engineer who makes a crank one-eighth of an inch too long, an astronomer who makes a mistake of half a degree in observing the altitude of a star, and a public singer who is a quarter of a tone too sharp or too flat—all three are alike examples of the practical importance of correct absolute measurement of space or of pitch. But who would dream of teaching boys Geometry out of a Euclid, in which every proposition was proved by measuring with the diagonal scale or the protractor; and to talk of pianoforte *sharps*, *flats*, and *double-sharps*, in musical science, is as irrational as to classify triangles into those which have or have not an even number of inches in each side.

(To be continued.)

EDUCATION À LA MODE.

IT has been justly remarked, that "*Vice Versa*," happy skit as it is, owes its popularity largely to its antiquated character. Mr. Bultitude's city friends might read it, and chuckle over the reminiscences of their own school life which it would call up, but we fancy that the young guests who accepted Master Dick's invitation to that memorable evening party, though they might be amused by certain of the episodes, would regard the story as a work of pure fiction, connected with real life only by the light which it throws on the unpleasant habits of grown-up people in general.

Fashionable private schools of the present day have very little in common with Dr. Grimston's establishment, and we may, perhaps, suspect that the character of the Doctor himself is founded quite as much on reminiscences of Dickens as on any actually existing model. The proprietor of a preparatory school, now-a-days, is a very different person. Parents who go to make enquiries, find themselves face to face with a tall, dignified man in clerical dress, whose stately stature is made less terrible, though not less imposing, by a slight bend of the neck, and an air of gracious condescension. His voice is soft, and his face lacks that "Now-sir-are-you-going-to-answer-me-or-not" expression, which lay persons usually associate with the idea of a schoolmaster. He talks little of the school, he casually refers to a duchess or two, whose sons he is preparing for Eton or legislative duties, and invites his visitors to see the new chapel which he has just built. He might easily pass for a bishop, in mufti. If the schoolmaster is not a clergyman, he probably regards himself, and wishes others to regard him, as a country gentleman. His desire is to be included in that respectable, if rather dull circle, known as county society, and he is only a schoolmaster in the indirect way in which M. Jourdain père was a tradesman.

When the anxious parents have decided upon a school for their son, they are astonished—good simple folk—by the extent and variety of a schoolboy's wants. He must be supplied with tall hats and Eton jackets; the comfortable tunic and knickerbockers, which he has hitherto worn, are not fit costume for him now; a surprising number of shirts is included in the list of necessaries, for the young gentlemen dress every day for dinner. The fond mother wonders why six pairs of boots should be required, she has always found two pairs enough at home. However, the boy must be in keeping with his new surroundings, and all the appointments of the school are luxurious, even to extravagance. In some places each boy has his own room, which he is allowed to decorate as he pleases. He has pictures on the walls, and china on the shelves, and no doubt some prestige accrues to him whose room looks as if it had cost most. There is every appliance which can be devised for the boys' amusement—fives courts, gymnasium, swimming bath, and the like; at one school, at any rate, a pack of beagles is kept,

and we have heard, though we repeat the statement with all reserve, of a billiard-room for use in wet weather. The consequence of all this is, that when a boy goes on to a public school, it has little that is new to offer him. He has exhausted the experiences of school life. When he goes home for the holidays, he is helpless. He has not been required, or even encouraged, to have any resources of his own, everything has been done for him. The consequence is, that he is incapable of amusing himself, or of giving pleasure to any one else. Eating sweets, and teasing his younger brothers and sisters, seem to be his main diversions indoors. He expects amusements to be provided for him, on the most luxurious scale: grumbles at the want of variety in the food set before him at breakfast; sneers at the little economies of home life, and is miserable because his mother only provides claret-cup for supper at the annual juvenile party, whereas champagne was given at the house of one of his schoolfellows, to which he went the week before. When first he comes home, his mother hears with pride the exclamation, "How Charlie is improved!" which her female friends base upon his Eton jacket and easy assurance of manner. Perhaps, at the end of a month, she has her doubts. The boy used to be happy in the society of herself and his sisters, which he now seems to avoid. He speaks with contempt of most professions, and of all form of "business," his father's included, and proclaims his intention of going into the army—a cavalry regiment, not infantry. This seems poor preparation for his work in life, but the mother consoles herself with the fond thought, that he will grow wiser as he grows older; so she and her husband follow the advice of the schoolmaster, which has accompanied the boy's report, and write to enter his name at the very public school which of all others is calculated to foster the ideas whose formation they regret. The advice of so distinguished a man must be good, and whatever may be the effect of school upon their boy's character, at any rate he is receiving a thoroughly good education. Of that there can be no doubt. The success of the school is proof enough of its excellence.

Thus parents are wont to argue within themselves, and indeed the list of subjects which their boy is studying is enough to carry conviction with it. He is reading Virgil and a Greek play, he writes Latin prose and verse, he has reached the second book of Euclid, and can work equations in Algebra. But why does he write so badly? How is it that, in his letters home, common words are constantly misspelt? Why cannot he answer a simple question in history or geography, or translate an easy French sentence, or solve a problem involving a little ingenuity in applying the simple rules of arithmetic? Far be it from us to suggest that some of the junior masters are rather uncertain in the matter of orthography. It may be true, as we have heard, that in some schools they owe their appointment to the fact that they have played in the Oxford or Cambridge eleven, and have failed a reasonable number of times in the pass examinations of their University; but it does not follow that they cannot spell. The real reason of this neglect of the most necessary points in elementary education is to be found in the entrance scholarships at the public schools. The master of a private school depends for his prosperity, in a great measure, upon the success of his pupils in gaining these scholarships, and, as the competition is very severe, he is obliged to neglect subjects which do not "pay" in the examinations. The paying subjects are, of course, Latin and Greek, and, in a less degree, mathematics. Different headmasters have different opinions—our reverence forbids us to call them whims—as to the most important subject. One has a special fondness for Latin elegiacs, another for the intricacies of Greek Syntax; we never heard of any who regarded a good knowledge of English subjects as a matter of much importance in a scholarship examination. Of course, headmasters of public schools may shift the responsibility by saying that the Universities put the same pressure upon them as they upon the private schools. The reputation of a public school depends mainly upon its success at the Universities, and there Latin and Greek are of the first importance. Without stopping to discuss the many points of difference which undoubtedly exist

between the two cases, we may say that the head-masters have shown themselves quite capable of resisting pressure when it did not suit them to yield to it; whereas, the proprietor of a private school risks his prosperity, and his very means of subsistence, by venturing on such a step. So all his boys are taught on the same dreary plan; all are forced to read Greek and Latin authors, whose works are to most of them mere wearisome lessons in Grammar; a score or so write miserable doggerel that will, or will not, scavenge, in the hope that one or two may come in time to write a decent copy of elegiacs, and they grow to the age of fourteen without having the least knowledge of the literature of their own country, or the scantiest information about the most ordinary subjects of everyday life. The vast majority who fail to be interested in their school work have not those other interests to fall back upon which make home life—life in a happy well-ordered home—an education in itself; the only thing left to them is the cricket field. What wonder that they become entirely absorbed in its affairs, and too often grow up mere healthy, stupid animals!

But the boys who do get scholarships, who learn to write Latin verse with some fluency and grace, and who find in a book of Virgil, or a play of Euripides, something more than a mere series of grammatical puzzles—surely in their case the system succeeds? To answer this question rightly, we must first see how such precocious facility is acquired. Those who have seen the process know what infinite labour and pressure is needed. The young brain is being constantly forced to do things not natural to it. Can it be right that a child of twelve should be taught, while so much of greater importance is left untaught, to produce such Latin verse as is in a public school only expected of boys of sixteen or seventeen in the fifth form, or that he should take up a range of subjects almost as wide as would suffice were he six years older and going in for a scholarship at Oxford or Cambridge? Of course, here and there, an exceptionally gifted boy is able to do with a light heart all the work required of him to get his scholarship, and to rise rapidly to the highest place in his school. But such cases are rare. The testimony of public schoolmasters goes to prove that, when a boy has won a scholarship, a reaction sets in. The field that has been overcropped must lie fallow for a year or two. Some boys never recover from this reaction, never fulfil their early promise. Others, after making little or no progress for a time, seem to revive, and, when they have reached the age of sixteen or seventeen, they are pretty much where they would have been if their education had been carried on in a sensible manner throughout. In fact, if we leave out of consideration those brilliant boys whom no system could spoil, the chances seem to be tolerably even whether a boy will, or will not, recover mentally and physically from the strain necessary to gain a scholarship. Something might be said, too, about the differences in character brought about by a happy or an unhappy childhood, but we fear to be tedious.

AN AMERICAN EXPERIMENT.

JUST two years ago, the Schools Committee of Quincy, Mass., came to the conclusion that the education of the town had fallen into a state of what they termed immobility—"had reached a point which is near the natural term of such force as our present system of school training is calculated to exert." Their report for the year stated that most of the pupils who had finished the grammar course neither spoke nor spelt their own language very perfectly, nor read and wrote it with that elegance that is desirable. "The ever-present object in the teacher's mind is to pass a creditable examination; and, to insure this, he unconsciously turns his scholars into parrots. Certain motions have to be gone through; for real results he cares nothing. In a word, it is all smatter, veneration, cram." Like wise men, instead of tinkering up the old system, they determined on a wholly new departure; and, being amateurs themselves, they engaged the services of an expert. Having advertised for a school superintendent,

they "chanced across one who had not only himself taught, but, in teaching, had become possessed with the idea that teaching was a science, and that he did not understand it." Accordingly, he had quitted his desk, and gone to Germany, to learn in the land of pedagogues the principles of pedagogy. Such was the man they elected as superintendent, and, having elected him, they gave him a free field, and let him put his theories into practice. These theories we need not here recapitulate. They seemed to the Quincy Committee radical and quite original, but they were, in fact, nothing but the theories of Froebel. It is, however, worth while to summarize the changes that they wrought. First, the old dame-school disappeared. "In place of the old lymphatic *school-marm*, dinning into the minds of tired and listless children the mystic significance of certain hieroglyphics by mere force of over-laying, as it were, young women full of life and nervous energy found themselves surrounded at the black-board by groups of little ones who were learning how to read almost without knowing it—learning, not by rule and rote, and by piecemeal, but altogether and by practice." Such instruction, with diversified hours, games, and physical exercises, made the school a place of recreation instead of imprisonment with hard labour. Secondly, there was a simplification of subjects. The seven elementary subjects, before attempted were reduced to the three "R's," but these were really taught. Thus grammar was "hustled out," with the following result, as reported by an examiner after three years' trial of the system. "I doubt if one scholar in ten knew what a noun, a pronoun, or an adjective was, or could have parsed a sentence, or distinguished the subject and the predicate. They could, however, have put their ideas into sentences on paper with correctness and facility; and, though they could not define what they were, they showed that they could use nouns, pronouns, and adjectives in writing just as well as they could in speech." The comment of Mr. Charles F. Adams, Jun. (to whose interesting pamphlet we are indebted for our information on the Quincy Schools), is also worth quoting. "The faculty of easily writing an ordinary letter on a business topic, correctly spelled and properly expressed, is a valuable faculty of every-day utility. A knowledge of the rules of grammar may be useful to critics and scholars, but, in the lives of ordinary men and women, it can be regarded only as a useless accomplishment. The complete expulsion of the grammar from the schools seemed to take away the breath of the old-time masters"—as it will of "My Lords" and our old-time inspectors. The evidence we have quoted as to the effect of expelling grammar from Elementary Schools may be suspected of partiality, and we therefore add the testimony of a thoroughly competent and not altogether favourable critic. Dr. Northrop writes in *Education*:—"In Quincy, daily exercises in talking and writing took the place of grammar. The result is, that the children write English earlier, write more, and write it better, *throughout all the schools of the town*, than is the case in *all the schools of any other town within my knowledge in our country*. The pen or pencil continuously in hand has made the Quincy scholars facile and felicitous in expression. They learn words by using them, phrases by making them, and sentences by writing them. Conversation is one of the attractions of the Quincy schools, as it is of the well-regulated home. Conversation is cultivated as an art, as it should be in every primary school." We may, in passing, note another point in the Quincy schools that the same critic commends. "Now, her schools are justly regarded as good enough for the sons of the richest, and yet none too good for the children of the poorest." We fear that a candidate who held up such schools as an ideal to the London ratepayer would stand little chance of election on the London School Board. He would seem either a visionary or a communist.

We must dismiss very briefly the other points in Mr. Adams' pamphlet that we had marked for notice. "Education," he says, "is now a science—even common-school education. Being a science, it must, like all other sciences, be carried forward by specialists, and not experimented on by amateurs." This, it seems to us, is a lesson we have yet to learn in England. Read our Blue-books, read the speeches on

the annual grant, and it is obvious that our education is organised and administered, not by specialists, but by amateurs. Not many years ago, in days when we thought ourselves above learning from the Germans, we allowed our whole system to be revolutionized by Mr. Lowe, who was not only ignorant, but with disastrous self-confidence maintained that "what he knew not was not knowledge," and refused an old schoolmaster's offer to endow a professorship of the science and art of teaching. We take a nobleman who has done good journeyman work in the Treasury, a young subaltern in a crack regiment, who has served his party in debate; or a successful manufacturer with a turn for finance, and we make him our Minister of Education. We take an Oxford First Class man, or a Third Class man if he has been tutor to a Cabinet Minister's sons; or even a pollman, if his father has been a clerk of the closet, and we set him, with a fortnight's training, to examine and inspect our schools. One superintendent, we have seen, who knew his business and had full power, was able to reform and reorganize the Quincy schools. But Quincy is a town of 10,000 inhabitants; in England, we allot less than an inspector to every 200,000. He pays one visit a year to each school, and, in five or six hours, he has to determine the individual merits of some hundred scholars, to test the pupil teachers, to go through the log book, to report on the premises and plant. What time has he left for the higher work of inspection, for criticizing the organization and methods of teaching, for suggesting more excellent ways, and exemplifying them by model lessons? All this, which is impossible for an English Inspector, has been done by Superintendent Parker in the Quincy Schools. To quote once more Dr. Northrop:—"The simple fact is, that, frequently meeting his teachers, and imbuing them with his zeal, he has become in all schools omnipresent with his enthusiasm, magnetizing every teacher and scholar, suggesting improvements, correcting errors, and giving unity and efficiency to the whole system." By organizing the body of inspectors, Mr. Mundella has done his best to unify our system of Primary Education, but, to give efficiency, he must treble or quadruple his staff. He must appoint men who can direct as well as inspect. This, of course, will cost money, and we shall be told that we have already reached the extreme limit of taxation. On this head, we may quote from Mr. Adams one significant fact. In Massachusetts, the education rate exceeds one-fifth of the total taxation, in England it is less than one-twentieth.

DR. HILLEBRAND ON THE TEACHING OF THE MOTHER TONGUE.

IN a treatise by Dr. Hillebrand, of Leipzig, "Vom deutschen Sprachunterricht," some suggestions are made with regard to the teaching of German, which may be of use in helping us in England to improve the teaching of our mother tongue. He speaks of the lessons on the German language itself being formal and dull: the pupils do not feel at the end that anything definite has been gained, or that anything new and interesting has been learnt, as in other lessons. Contrasting the small interest and power the children show in the German lessons with the interest and power they show in using the language over their own little affairs, their games or their disputes, in school or home life, he writes thus:—"How ready to hand children have this, both as to substance and form (*i.e.*, a view of life, of their own, and power of expressing it)! How eagerly they chatter, between lessons, or in the playground, of some incident that has occurred among them! How eloquently they dispute as to who is right, and who wrong! How fluent is the German speech then; the most dumb in the class are often here the most talkative. They have word and phrase, syntax and construction—and one thing they have, and, moreover, in a degree of perfection that in school is scarcely found among the best in the highest classes—a just intonation, in great variety and power. Then comes the teacher, and gives a German lesson. So they are

now to learn German, which they know so well already, and learn it through material which certainly interests them much less than what they have just discussed among themselves. Ah! if the teacher could at once seize upon the interest that just now they were all so full of; take up the subject they were discussing; get at the questions of logic, morals, or justice which are involved in every dispute; and, gradually questioning, modifying, rectifying crude judgments, at last, with their help, set forth clearly what the children dimly thought and felt, and say much better than they could what they wanted to say, so that they should feel that they had helped to find out and express clearly what had to be said,—the teacher, at the same time, little by little, leading from the dialect into good high German, so that at last they themselves are satisfied, 'Yes, that's just what I meant; that's quite right!'—would not that be also a German lesson?" I have quoted the above passage at length, because it appears to me to be the kernel of the whole subject, as Dr. Hillebrand deals with it—the necessity of having material for the German lesson, which is really a part of the children's own lives—something that comes out of their minds to be clothed in words, not something strange and new, about which their feelings and perception cannot be acute and real. The picture here given of a *lesson* is, perhaps, rather daring,—the writer admits it. It is one that would require a very skilled and sympathetic teacher. Yet, how real a lesson it would be, in thinking, reasoning, and expressing thought.

And, with regard to questions of grammar and construction, the germ of the philologist's interest is in the child's mind too, only not yet in the same form as in that of the philologist. The teacher must seize this germ and develop it, not expecting the young mind to possess this interest at first, in its later stage. The child likes words that express its meaning clearly; he likes to see a clumsy statement of his own improved and simplified by his teacher's aid. In short, *form* is interesting to him too, if the idea to be clothed in words is one that he grasps distinctly.

But these questions of language form, or grammatical truths, can only be made vivid if the child is led to find them out for himself. It seems almost a truism that the teacher should tell the child nothing that he can find out for himself; but it is a truism to which the definition, a neglected truth, may well be applied. The examples by which Dr. Hillebrand illustrates his meaning, deal with questions of German grammar, and show how he would have the pupils led to *feel* the grammatical rule, just as they learn naturally the elementary construction of the language in learning to speak. Then, at the right moment, the teacher can give expression to the rule, or get some of the pupils to put it into words themselves. The rule would thus appear, not as a threatening command, as something that *must* be so, with no more to be said about it; but as a natural law that they have discovered themselves—a friend, and not a master.

The children, too, will be much interested, if they are made to examine figures of speech that they constantly use. Take, for instance, the sentence, "The work was going forward briskly." Going! Has the work legs? does it walk? The pupils are all attention; they begin to ask how people could talk of work as *going* forward. Yet the quicker pupils begin to catch the idea of personification which originally gave rise to the expression.

Dr. Hillebrand insists also that, though the ultimate aim of the teacher should be to improve the language the child speaks, and to lead him to be able to speak and write in good High German, rather than in his dialect, yet this dialect should not be treated as something having no place in school life; and, above all, when the child first begins to write, let him not aim at a *bookish* style, but to write quite simply, as nearly as possible as he would speak. As his mind grows, his style will grow too; for the present, let him simply learn to express himself clearly and truly. The best exercises are descriptions of some little experiences of his own—an excursion, or an adventure—which, though small in itself, to him seems of great importance. Children will write best when their

minds are full of their subject, as older people write most forcibly, thinking but little of the form itself, their minds being so full of matter they have to deal with, that the thoughts flow on in a continued chain, clothing themselves in words as naturally as in fluent speech. If this simplicity and directness of expression were more strenuously aimed at, we should not have such frequent examples of the grotesque mingling of high-flown expressions and utterly ungrammatical language that is often seen in the writing of half-educated persons, who do not *feel* as they write the meaning of the language they use.

It may justly be urged, that the subjects which appeal directly to boys and to girls are limited, and will soon be exhausted. This is a decided difficulty. We may, to some extent, meet it, perhaps, by introducing something that is new to them, and discussing it with them till they really feel and think about it themselves. I have sometimes found, in a class of girls in their earlier teens, that a subject taken from history, in its social aspect, on which a lesson has been given orally by the teacher, and to some extent discussed in class, has given rise to intelligent and interesting papers. I have just looked over some on the subject of the Black Death, in which the tone of Nineteenth Century condescending superiority towards the Flagellants, "who might have spent their time so much better," was quite amusing. The feeling had to be criticised as faulty, but it was genuine, and naively expressed. There is, of course, a danger that this kind of lesson may degenerate into a passive reproduction of a lecture given by the teacher.

CORRESPONDENCE.

SCHOOL PUNISHMENTS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Your correspondent, "E. W. H.," in the December number of the *Journal of Education*, and your two correspondents in the January number, have re-opened a question which cannot fail to be of continual interest and importance to all schoolmasters and schoolmistresses,—the question of *punishments*. I should like, with your permission, to give some of the results of my own experience in this matter, in the hope that they may prove of use to others.

When, some seven years ago, I was entrusted with the management of a large day school in a London suburb, I very soon found that one of the many matters which called for immediate and very careful consideration, was that of *school punishments*. I do not mean, in any sense, that the ill-behaviour of my pupils forced this upon my attention; but rather, that my new position of general arbiter and lawgiver, and the personal responsibility of having to make final decisions, kept me constantly, and more keenly than ever, alive to the clumsiness and ineffectualness of the ordinary methods of correction. Sometimes, indeed, more harm than good seemed to be done by their application. For the boys, I felt it was essential that their bodily health should not be made to suffer, that their general school work should not be interfered with, and that they should not be rendered callous (and correction deprived of its power) by a hopeless accumulation of penalties. I saw that one of my colleagues looked upon an offence as a slight transgression, while another treated the same offence as almost a crime; that one regarded that punishment as slight which another considered severe; and I knew how very differently the same punishment affected different boys. The first thing I set about, with the help of my colleagues, was a rough classification of offences. We did not attempt to be too precise, for the circumstances under which the offence was committed, and the general character of the offender, had, of course, in every case to be taken into consideration—and a rough guide was therefore all that was necessary. Our next step was, to decide on the penalties to be attached to each offence, and the method of recording them. Those penalties which had anything peculiar about them I shall mention below. We strove to

make them of as short duration as possible, and, wherever possible, of a useful bearing on the offender's general work—rejecting "lines," and all such vain oppressions. To avoid accumulations, we arranged a system of reports,—to the *Head-master* whenever a tide of ill-behaviour or idleness had decidedly *begun* to set in, and to *parents* as soon as that tide became *persistent*. Our method of recording behaviour was a system of "conduct marks"—20 for each day, or 100 for a week—a certain number being lost for each particular offence, independently of the severity of the punishment inflicted. In the cases of some boys—those of general good conduct especially—the loss of marks was often in itself a sufficiently severe punishment. The term's reports on *conduct* were made up from these marks, so as to insure the reports being on the *whole* term, and not merely on the *last few weeks*; but a safety valve was provided in the shape of a column in which the Form-master or Head-master could add an extenuating remark, if such had been deserved. In any case, a certain percentage of loss of marks always gained a corresponding letter, the value of which was printed at the foot of the report. Let me now quote from our Code, if so humble an attempt may be dignified by so august a name. Few of our boys, it should be stated, were over fourteen years of age, and the majority were of ten or eleven years or under; hence the childish nature of many of the offences mentioned. I shall confine my quotation to that part which relates to the ordinary offences of a class-room, for which, for the most part (except 5 and 6), a loss of marks was punishment enough.

"Conduct marks are a record of behaviour, and the loss of them is only so far a punishment as any record of ill-behaviour is so.

Marks to be lost.

- "1. For omitting to perform any of the duties of School routine (such as leaving books in cloak-room, dawdling, &c.) 1
- "2. For breach of class rules (such as talking, fidgeting, getting out of place, &c.) 2
- "3. For disturbing class-fellows (by pushing, jogging, pinching, &c.) 5
- "4. For wilful or premeditated disobedience (as looking at answers, repeating a minor offence after distinct warning, &c.) 10
- "5. For unfairness, reading a story book in class, &c. ... 20
- "6. Direct insubordination (such as refusing to obey, manifest impertinence, &c.) 25

"A young boy (Forms I. to II.) should lose the same number of marks for each repetition of a minor offence during a lesson *up to three times*; after three times the loss should be doubled. Older boys (Forms III. to V.) should lose double the number of marks for the first repetition of an offence, treble for the second, and so on.

"All cases of losses of more than a day's marks (20) in a day, if repeated within the week, should be at once reported to the Head-master.

"In taking off conduct marks, no difference should be made because of the character of the offender; only the severity of the punishment is to be affected by this."

Then follows a list of the punishments, with the offences they were attached to, and the regulation loss of marks for each. With this list I shall not trouble your readers, but shall restrict my remarks to one or two only of its prominent features. Before passing on, however, I must say that every Monday morning a list of work marks, and conduct marks for the past week was placed up in a prominent position in each class room, and regularly inspected and remarked on by me.

For neglect of "home work," we had a mid-day "detention" of half-an-hour under care of a master. Class-work ceased at 12:55, dinner began at 1, and was over by 1:15, and school opened again at 2:15. The detention was from 1:25 to 1:55, leaving a short interval of 10 minutes before, and of 15 minutes afterwards, for a run in the play-ground. I was never quite happy about this, but, as it concerned mainly the younger boys, I thought it better than keeping them after 4 o'clock. They were required to do a certain part of the neglected work in the time. Four such detentions in ten days gained a "detention card" (see below). I became convinced, later on, and often put my conviction into practice, that for young boys, in whose case the omission of a lesson is not so heavy a drawback as it

is for their elders, it was generally better to make them do their home-work for the *next day* properly before they left school, rather than to set them to do their neglected work. Indeed, for the youngest class, the last half-hour (3 to 3:30) was always set apart for "home-work," leaving for the duller only a quarter of an hour's work to be done at home. We all agreed, my colleagues and I, that it was absolutely necessary that work set to be done again should be carefully tested and examined.

Of course, we had the regular gradations of a reprimand by the Head-master in private, before the class, and before the whole school. But these are, I fancy, common to all schools. The last is, perhaps, somewhat hazardous, and should be used as a last resource before a "request to withdraw." After it, the Head-master should take special care of the culprit, and try in every way to prevent his becoming hardened. But we had two other penalties, which I think are not nearly so generally used as they deserve to be. I have said that, when a tide of ill-behaviour had distinctly begun to set in, my attention was always called to the fact—by the Monday morning lists, or by the Class-master; and that, when the tide became persistent, the offender's parents were communicated with. This was managed by means of a weekly report of work and conduct brought up to my room by the offender on Friday afternoon, after school, remarked on and signed by me, and sent to the parent. On Monday morning, it was brought back to the Class-master, with the parent's name on the back, "merely as a proof that the report had been read." In extreme cases, the report became *daily*. The offences which most commonly incurred this penalty were bad "home-work," persistent disobedience, and constant unpunctuality—the first being the most common. The other penalty was the "detention card" already mentioned—three of which in one term gained a "request to withdraw,"—sometimes, but only very rarely, commuted at the request of the offender's father, into a sound caning. This "card" was given for obstinate long-continued idleness, or gross misbehaviour. A book was kept, in which the particulars of the offence and the date were written and signed by the master, and an exact copy of the entry was written on the card, and signed by the master,—the number of the card, first, second, or third, being added. This card was sent to the father on Wednesday, and brought back, signed by him, "as a recognition merely that he had read it." On Thursday, between schools, the offender and his card were brought up to the Head-master; and I need scarcely say that the Head-master had some talk with the offender in consequence. I have never known any punishment more disliked by a boy, or more safe and salutary in its effects. It used to be employed at the City of London School by Dr. Abbott, and I believe still is so, but I never heard for what offences. I do not know of its existence elsewhere.

With respect to the vexed question of "caning," or "whipping," I will merely say that this punishment was used as sparingly as possible, and was restricted entirely to the younger boys. It was inflicted (by the Head-master only) for "gross misconduct, gross insubordination, indecency, lying, and, in the case of very young boys, for very obstinate idleness."

I am afraid I have already trespassed too far on your space, and on my readers' attention; so, though there is a good deal more which might be said on this very important question of *school punishments*, I will bring my letter to an end here.

I am, Sir,

Finsbury,

December, 1882.

Your obedient servant,

H. C. B.

P.S.—Let me add that punishments were not *very* common in the lower part of the school, and were rare in the upper part, inasmuch as we all acted on the principle that "prevention is fifty times better than punishment." Every master took one school subject at least, in at least one other class besides his own, so that every master had a wide field of experience, and every boy was known by more than one master; and my col-

leagues and I constantly talked over the characters and work of our pupils, whilst I myself visited *every* class-room at least once a day.

FRENCH TEACHERS, AND TEACHERS OF FRENCH.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Your account of the Congress of French Teachers has interested me greatly. The gist of the discussion seems to be, that French has been and is badly taught in England. Those who have had any experience in the matter will acquiesce in this opinion. At the same time, I fancy few will agree with one of the speakers, who thinks, that a more effectual resistance to the spirit of "Germanism" would remedy the matter. The German-speaking Teutons have not only taken the first rank as a military power, have not only produced the most profound philosophers, but also the most clear-sighted and thoughtful pedagogues. I can speak from personal experience of the advantages of the German training and German method, and my knowledge may perhaps be of use to others.

To begin with the girls' school. The curriculum is intended to embrace nine years, the first three of which are passed in the elementary department, where the instruction is exclusively German. With the sixth class the girl enters the high school, and here four hours a week are set apart for French, and the language is taught by means of an elementary grammar. This plan is continued during the next five years, the instruction book being followed by a systematic grammar, and two out of the four lessons being taken up for reading, recitation, and translating *à viva voce* and in writing, one written exercise weekly is the minimum. The aim in German schools is thoroughness; they make the scholar conversant with the grammatical peculiarities and idioms of the language she is studying, and when, at the end of the six years' course, a girl leaves school, she has a well-grounded knowledge of the French grammar, and a fair acquaintance with the literature.

English is added to the subjects of instruction in the fourth class, and four lessons a week devoted to it for the four last years of a girl's school life.

For ambitious pupils, or such as have chosen the profession of teaching, the training college offers more advanced instruction. The course extends over 2 years for the Junior, and 2½ or 3 for the Senior examination. During this time 4 lessons a week are set apart for French and English, but 6 for those preparing for the Senior examination. The grammar and literature are carefully studied, 2 hours weekly are devoted to lectures on literature, the candidates repeating, in the following lesson, in a condensed form and in fluent, correct French or English, the substance of the master's address. English and French compositions on a literary subject chosen by him are given every fortnight. The standard for both examinations is equal to that of Cambridge or Oxford, with one marked difference. The German Board of Examiners very properly considers a knowledge of Old French and Middle High German to belong to the province of Philology; but it requires an essay on any given literary subject in well-expressed modern English, French, and German, from every candidate for the Senior examination.

So much for the girls' schools; in the different departments of the boys' school most weight is laid on Modern Languages in the mercantile schools. After a boy has finished his three years of elementary instruction, he enters the lowest class of the upper school, the course is intended for a year, the number of lessons is 34 a week, six of these being devoted to French; grammar, translations, written exercises, dictation, and a monthly or quarterly examination paper (*Extemporalia* they call them) form the base of instruction during this period. In the following year they have five lessons a week, and reading and recitations are added to the grammatical instruction. From the third school year, the lessons are reduced to four weekly. Thus, through a course of seven years, the minimum of lessons in each foreign language is four weekly.

I could instance many proofs of the excellence of the method pursued, but one may suffice. A young Anglo-German, brought up at this school, left, while still in the second class, and went to a town in French-Switzerland, where he was to perfect himself in French. Within a short time he won the place of honour in the corresponding class there, and carried off the first prize at the end of the year. In Bremen his teachers had been exclusively Germans, and the books used for his instruction were compiled by Germans; yet his success among French-speaking people proves beyond a doubt that both the matter and manner of his instruction were sound. Why should not English boys and girls be equally well taught? Was it not Jacotot's favourite theory, that "*all men have the same natural*

powers"? Did he not also assert, that "the mind of the teacher makes the method"?

It has yet to be proved that English people are incapable of learning languages; the development of their linguistic talent has been retarded hitherto by bad teachers, indifferent schoolbooks, and the want of a system. Neither German nor French teachers will ever make linguists of us: we must help ourselves. It rests with us to apply the eminently practical system of the former, and to modify it to our own needs.

Some of the most enlightened German pedagogues long ago promulgated the doctrine, that the teacher of a foreign language must be a native of the same country as his pupils. What led them to this conclusion? Years of patient observation, the superficiality of the instruction given, the useless books in vogue, the incompetency of very many of the foreigners and their ignorance of the language of their scholars, and their incompetence to maintain discipline.

With that steady perseverance which characterises Germans, they set to work and studied all the modern languages; and, eliminating what was unnecessary, produced on the principle of strict analogy the excellent schoolbooks now in use. Not only are English, French, and Spanish taught by Germans, who bring to the instruction of each foreign tongue a thorough knowledge of their own language and literature, but the grammars and handbooks of literature are also compiled by them.

Not until we possess a thorough system of general education, in which each branch is duly considered, and dovetailing the one into the other forms a systematic and harmonious whole, shall we make true progress. When we give pedagogic training its due weight, and have trained English teachers who have completely mastered the grammar of the French and German languages, we shall cease to be classed with the French as the poorest linguists in Europe.

The Germans will employ neither English nor French teachers, of either sex, in their schools and colleges. Observation first convinced them of the inadvisability of so doing, and experience has confirmed them in this opinion. But what is the state of the case in England? I read, in another column of your journal, that "London is at present overstocked with German teachers." It would be worth finding out how many of these have the qualifications and special training without which no situation in their own country is open to them. On the other hand, many German teachers go over to perfect themselves in English—that is, in the idiomatic and conversational part of it. The inducement to do so is a very strong one. German teachers, even of the highest attainments, are but poorly paid, 5—6000 M. a year being considered a handsome salary for the director of a gymnasium. A teacher who can give good instruction in English, French, or Spanish, can command a better salary than those who are not able to do so. It is the same in girls' schools, and this is the reason why such numbers of German women flock to England.

I am, Sir, yours faithfully,

Bremen, Feb. 11, 1883.

A. LEONARD.

THE SOCIETY OF SCHOOLMASTERS, AND THE HEADMASTERS' CONFERENCE.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—As I was unfortunately prevented from attending the recent Conference of Head-masters, will you allow me, through the medium of your Journal, to correct several very serious errors in Mr. Bartrum's speech, with reference to the Society of Schoolmasters, as contained in the official Report of the proceedings, which has just been distributed.

1. Mr. Bartrum endeavours to prove the decline in popularity of the Society of Schoolmasters, by contrasting (a) the amount of general subscriptions; (b) the amount of relief granted; and (c) the number of Assistant-masters subscribing to the Society in 1875 and 1881.

Mr. Bartrum is reported as saying,—“In 1875, the subscriptions amounted to £246, and in 1881 to £187 only. In 1875, £460 was spent in relieving necessitous cases, and in 1881, £437 only was so spent. In 1875, the number of Assistant-masters who subscribed to its funds was 16, and in 1881 the number was reduced to 12.”

On referring to the Treasurer's book, I find that, as a matter of fact, (a) the amount of subscriptions in 1875 was £201. 15s. 6d.; (b) that in 1875, £427 was spent in relieving cases, which is £10 less than the amount expended in relief in 1881, in which year the amount thus expended was larger than in any other previous year, with the exception of 1874, when £460 was granted, and 1876, when £444 was granted. Further (c) I find that, in 1881, 50 Assistant-masters (instead of 12, as stated by Mr. Bartrum) were subscribing to the Society; and this does not include a number of ex-Assistant-masters, and

Assistant-masters who have become members by subscriptions and donations, to the amount of at least five guineas, in former years.

2. Having established the fact of the unpopularity of the Society, especially with Assistant-masters, Mr. Bartrum goes on to account for this in two ways:—(a) the constitution of the Committee; (b) the absence of an Insurance Fund, to meet the case of temporary disability from work.

(a) With regard to the Committee, Mr. Bartrum complains that only two Assistant-masters are privileged to attend its meetings, and thinks that the Society should “summon to its councils” a fair proportion of Second and Third-grade Masters. By referring to the last report, Mr. Bartrum would have found the names of five Assistant-masters, and of two ex-Assistant-masters in the list of the Committee. I can assure Mr. Bartrum, that the Society will be only too glad to discover amongst its members Assistant or other Masters, who will give up four or more half-holidays a year to attend meetings of the Committee; and that I shall be very pleased to second, at the earliest opportunity, any names that he will propose, of Members who will consent to give up their time to the business of the Society. I would point out, however, that the Society summons all its members to its councils; the election of officers and the entire management of the Society being in the hands of the General Meeting, the business of the Committee being simply the distribution of relief.

(b) Mr. Bartrum quotes, as a hard case of one precluded from applying for temporary assistance, the case of a Master temporarily disabled from work. Mr. Bartrum is here again wrong in his facts. Only last year, such an application was made by a Master at one of the large London schools, who was so disabled, and the Committee, finding his case to be an urgent one, made him a grant of £25, though he had never contributed a penny to the funds of the Society. If Mr. Bartrum had said that the Master to whose case he refers would not have been entitled, by virtue of his accident, to a grant from the Society, he would have been perfectly correct. And it is to make this point clear that is the principal object of this letter. The Society is a purely charitable society, and not a Mutual Benefit Society. It appeals for support to the benevolence of those who are not likely to look to it for pecuniary relief; and it appeals, as a matter of prudence, to those Masters who have but a limited and precarious income, who have just this advantage over non-subscribers, that, in case of falling into distressed circumstances, their cases are entitled to a prior consideration, and to a larger share of relief, on their necessity being established to the satisfaction of the Committee.

Of course, it is open to the general body of the Members of the Society to alter the constitution of the Society if they choose to do so. That a Benefit or Insurance Society should be established for Schoolmasters, may be a point well worthy of consideration; but, for my own part, I doubt very much the expediency of mixing up the two things. What, however, I wish to point out is, that to introduce such a principle would be entirely to alter the existing object of the Society of Schoolmasters, which is simply the relief of distress.

May I briefly add to this explanation that, in deference to the wishes of many Masters, the Society of Schoolmasters is, I believe, prepared to throw open its membership to Masters of all recognised and properly constituted schools above the Elementary, and in this sense to become “more popular”; and also to take into consideration the question of the working expenses of the Society, especially with regard to rent of chambers and printing, and, without prejudice to the just and exceptional claims of the present Secretary, who has worked so long and laboriously to promote its interests.

Yours obediently,

Merchant Taylors' School,
Feb. 20, 1883.

WILLIAM BAKER,
Treasurer to the Society of Schoolmasters.

PUNISHMENT IN SCHOOLS.

SIR,—With regard to the question of Punishments, which has been mooted in your journal, I think those who have written thereon have made a mistake in attempting to discuss the question as a whole. Quite young boys require to be dealt with in a manner differing from the elder ones. I will leave it to others to speak of seniors, but I should like to say a word about the punishment of young boys at Public Schools, as my work has brought me much in contact with them. And, in the first place, I would lay down as a general rule that, as far as possible, young boys should not be kept in out of school hours. The hours they have to themselves are comparatively few, and, if they are frequently deprived of these, they become dull and peevish, their work suffers, they succumb to impositions entirely, and spend a miserable existence in ink and tears. The first

great thing a master has to do is, to keep his boys in good humour, and I have often found that, in cases of small delinquencies or temper, the object aimed at by an imposition may be gained by a good pointed story or harmless banter. But to come to details. *Punctuality* is the first rock on which they split. Many of them have not been away from homo before, and find it difficult to conform to regular hours; they are late for First-school, they are late for Roll-call. In this case, it is well to deal gently with new boys; but, when it comes to punishment, let the boy call the master a quarter of an hour before first-school, or, if otherwise irregular, give him five lines to write, which shall be brought to the master at a certain time, when he will tell the boy what the next five lines are to be, and whither they are to be brought—to the master, either in his room, or at the five courts, or on the cricket-field, and so on for the whole afternoon, or for as much time as he shall see fit. The boy does not thereby lose air and exercise, though it is unpleasant for him, and I have often found one dose an effectual cure for irregularity.

Then comes the question of *form discipline*. They will come in without pens, or without books, or ink; this is aggravating at times, I admit (I have even known a boy lose ten pens in a week); but it is a difficulty which may be very soon got over, if the master will only devote himself to study the particular boy, and stimulate him with chaff or reproof accordingly as the case demands, which will bring about more desirable results than twenty-five lines for each offence, though possibly it may give the master himself more trouble for the time. With regard to other matters, little boys sometimes get fidgety at the end of long hours, but this need not be met with impositions; it is in great part the master's fault, and he may often secure the attention of his boys by mingling just a little nonsense with the dry husks of knowledge. Other difficulties, such as talking or lolling on the desks, the class can manage for itself. Make a rule that, if a boy talk or put his arm on the desk, the two below him go above him without more ado, always reserving a right of appeal to the master; it will be found that the order of the class is thereby secured, and the master need not interrupt the lesson to speak to a boy.

In cases of prolonged idleness and real naughtiness, I believe there is nothing better than two or three good cuts with the cane; but I would not lay this down as an universal rule; the master, after he has had the boy a short time and studied his character, should know how he can best influence the boy.

To sum up, therefore, if the master be in good health, and take a real interest in his work, I believe it is rarely necessary to confine small boys out of school hours, unless it be in a case where some breach of discipline has been committed by one of the form and the offender's name is not given up; then I would keep in the whole form for a certain time to write out work, in order that they may learn the meaning of corporate responsibility.

J. L. B.

MATHEMATICAL PAPERS IN CAMBRIDGE LOCALS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—We shall be glad if you will allow us to bring before your readers some suggestions as to the Mathematical Papers of the Cambridge Local Examinations. We feel sure that many of those who prepare girls for these examinations, will agree with us in the complaints we would make concerning the requirements of the examiners.

Under existing circumstances, it is so difficult to pass, even without distinction, in the Mathematical papers, that the study of Mathematics is apt to be discouraged in those schools which aim at having many names in the list of successful candidates.

Girls, too, find that "it pays" better to limit their attention to other subjects, if they are preparing for the "Local." As we consider that there is no other subject which affords such an excellent mental training as Mathematics, we feel that this is to be regretted.

Especially with regard to the Algebra in the Senior papers, so much knowledge of the subject is required, that even a girl who has read carefully up to the Binomial Theorem, and knows well what she has read, has a slender chance of being successful, unless she has exceptional abilities. In the Higher Local papers much less is required; according to the regulations, questions are not set beyond Logarithms, while in last year's Senior paper, the range extended to Theory of Numbers.

In the Senior Trigonometry papers, questions are set up to, and even beyond, De Moivre's Theorem (last year's paper had questions on Exponential Values and Summation of Trig. Series), while Solution of Triangles is the limit for the Higher Local.

Again, the grouping of the subjects in the papers is very distracting

for a girl who has read more than Euclid and Algebra. Euclid and Trigonometry are given in the same paper, and Algebra and Geometrical Conics are also together, and each paper is so long that no one can be expected to answer all the questions in it within the given time. This prevents the girl who has read both subjects having an advantage over her who has read only one. The Applied Mathematics paper, too, is a most comprehensive one; the candidate is expected to answer several questions on each of three subjects (Statics, Hydrostatics, and Astronomy) in two hours. In addition to these difficulties, the Mathematical papers are always set in the late afternoon hours—the time in which the brain is least inclined to activity.

There is not so much to object to in the Junior papers, but we think it is open to discussion, whether it would not be advisable to allow a candidate to take Euclid, without necessarily taking Algebra as well.

Hoping that those interested with us in the subject, will make an attempt to effect an alteration,

We are, yours faithfully,

THREE CERTIFICATED STUDENTS IN MATHEMATICAL
HONOURS, GIRTON COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE.

February, 1883.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

CERTIFICATES FOR KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS.

SIR,—In the last number of the *Journal*, you drew attention to a remarkable advertisement for a Governess, — a paragon of varied accomplishments for the salary of £20 a year. You may, perhaps, like to hear of another, exhibiting, in a different way, the same state of mind as regards education. I cannot, unfortunately, quote the advertisement, as the paper was not sent to me, but it is addressed to young teachers wishing to undertake Kindergarten work, and promises a Certificate of Proficiency after *six weeks' training!* Now, the really melancholy part of such a silly imposture is, that it would not be put forth without considerable, and probably well-grounded, confidence that it will be successful; that young women intending to devote themselves to the noble office of teacher, will be found capable of believing that they can fit themselves for a most important branch of the work by means of a shorter apprenticeship than would be required for the meanest of handicrafts; and that mistresses of schools will be forthcoming, ignorant enough to accept a certificate so given, without warrant of any kind that those who give it have the faintest knowledge of the subject on which they venture to issue judgments.

It were much to be desired that there should be one standard of training and examination for Kindergarten teachers under the guarantee of recognised authority. It is towards this that the Froebel Society has perseveringly laboured, and it is a matter of rejoicing that the number of candidates who come up to the examination for its Certificate of Proficiency increases yearly; but to obtain this Certificate long and serious preparation is necessary, and so long as the public is ignorant, numbers will, of course, find it pleasanter and much cheaper to go in for a mechanical apprenticeship of a few months or weeks, as the advertisement in question offers them the possibility of doing. It would be well if all private establishments whose own work is careful and honest, and who would look with scorn equal to our own on such mendacious appeals to the ignorant, would remember that they do, nevertheless, give direct encouragement to the evil when they give certificates on their own responsibility to the students they have trained. It requires care and knowledge to distinguish between one private certificate and another; but, if all earnest workers upheld the efforts of the Froebel Society, a true and uniform standard of proficiency might at no distant period be made to prevail. No external authority can be appealed to in England against such abuses; all the more does it behove all lovers of the good cause to hold and work together against them.

Hotel du Louvre, Rome,

I am, Sir,

February 9th.


EMILY A. E. SHIRREFF.

THE GERMAN SOCIETY FOR THE HIGHER EDUCATION OF WOMEN has postponed its meeting until May, 1883. The subjects to be then discussed will be—1. The wages of women. 2. The centralisation of the women's progress movement. 3. The duties of the Society in small towns and country districts. 4. The extension of nursing beyond the limits of religious societies. 5. Women's protection societies like those existing in London, Paris, and Berlin. 6. The position of the secondary schools for women in Germany and their too-exacting organisation. 7. Women's clubs.

SCIENCE TEACHING IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Essays on Science Teaching, by the following Authors, have appeared in recent numbers of the *Journal of Education*.

- I. By SYDNEY LUPTON, of Harrow (August, 1882).
- II. ,, Rev. EDWARD HALE, of Eton (September, 1882).
- III. ,, A. M. WORTHINGTON, of Clifton (October, 1882).
- IV. ,, Rev. T. N. HUTCHINSON, of Rugby (November, 1882).
- V. ,, Dr. WORMELL, of Cowper Street Schools, London (January, 1883).
- VI. ,, Prof. CLAYPOLE, of New Bloomfield, U.S.A. (Feb., 1883).

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ON SCIENCE AND ART IN RELATION TO EDUCATION.*

BY PROFESSOR HUXLEY.

WHEN a man is honoured by such a request as that which reached me from the authorities of your Institution some time ago, I think the first thing that happens to him is like that which occurred to those who were bidden to the feast in the Gospel—to endeavour to begin to make an excuse; and probably all the excuses suggested on that famous occasion, crop up in his mind one after the other, including his "having married a wife," as reasons for not doing what he is asked to do. But, in my own ease, and on this particular occasion, there were other difficulties of a sort peculiar to the time, and more or less personal to myself; because I felt that, if I came amongst you, I should be expected, and morally compelled, to speak upon the subject of Scientific Education. And then there arose in my mind the recollection of a fact, which probably no one here but myself remembers; namely, that some fourteen years ago I was the guest of a citizen of yours, who bears the honoured name of Rathbone, at a very charming and pleasant dinner at the Philomatic Society; and I there and then, and in this very city, made a speech upon the topic of Scientific Education. Under these circumstances, you see, one runs two dangers—the first, of repeating oneself, although I may fairly hope that everybody has forgotten the fact I have just now mentioned, except myself; and the second, and even greater difficulty, is the danger of saying something different from what one said before, because then, however forgotten your previous speech may be, somebody finds out its existence, and there goes on that process so hateful to members of Parliament, which may be denoted by the term "Handsardisation." Under these circumstances, I came to the conclusion that the best thing I could do was to take the bull by the horns and to "Handsardise" myself,—to put before you, in the briefest possible way, the three or four propositions which I endeavoured to support on the occasion of the speech to which I have referred; and then to ask myself, supposing you were asking me, whether I had anything to retract, or to modify, in them, in virtue of the increased experience, and, let us charitably hope, the increased wisdom of an added fourteen years.

* The substance of this Address was delivered at the Liverpool Institute, on February 16th.

Now, the points to which I directed particular attention on that occasion were these: in the first place, that instruction in physical science supplies information of a character of especial value, both in a practical and a speculative point of view—information which cannot be obtained otherwise; and, in the second place, that, as educational discipline, it supplies, in a better form than any other study can supply, exercise in a special form of logic, and a peculiar method of testing the validity of our processes of inquiry. I said further, that even at that time a great and increasing attention was being paid to education in physical science in our schools and colleges, and that most assuredly that attention must go on growing and increasing, until education in these matters occupied a very much larger share of the time which is given to teaching and training, than had been the case heretofore. And I threw all the strength of argumentation of which I was possessed, into the support of these propositions. But I venture to remind you, also, of some other words I used at that time, and which I ask permission to read to you. They were these:—"There are other forms of culture besides physical science, and I should be profoundly sorry to see the fact forgotten, or even to observe a tendency to starve or cripple literary or æsthetic culture for the sake of science. Such a narrow view of the nature of education has nothing to do with my firm conclusion that a complete and thorough scientific culture ought to be introduced in all schools."

I say I desire, in commenting upon these various points, and judging them as fairly as I can by the light of increased experience, to particularly emphasize this last, because I am told, although I assuredly do not know it of my own knowledge—though I think if the fact were so I ought to know it, being tolerably well acquainted with that which goes on in the scientific world, and which has gone on there for the last thirty years—that there is a kind of sect or horde of scientific Goths and Vandals, who think it would be proper and desirable to sweep away all other forms of culture and instruction, except those in physical science, and to make them the universal and exclusive, or, at any rate, the dominant training of the human mind of the future generation. This is not my view—I do not believe that it is anybody's view,—but it is attributed to those who, like myself, advocate scientific education. I therefore dwell strongly upon the point, and I beg you to believe that the words I have just now read, were by no means intended by me as a sop to the Cerberus of culture. I have not been in the habit of offering sops to any kind of Cerberus; but it was an expression of profound conviction on my own part—a conviction forced upon me not only by my mental constitution, but by the lessons of what is now becoming a somewhat long experience of varied conditions of life.

I am not about to trouble you with my autobiography; the omens are hardly favourable at present for work of that kind. But I should like, if I may do so without appearing, what I earnestly desire not to be, egotistical,—I should like to make it clear to you, that such notions as these, which are sometimes attributed to me, are, as I have said, inconsistent with my mental constitution, and still more inconsistent with the upshot of the teaching of my experience. For I can certainly claim for myself that sort of Horacian mental temperament, which can say that nothing human comes amiss to it. I have never yet met with any branch of human knowledge unattractive, which it would not have been pleasant to me to follow, so far as I could go; and I have yet to meet with any form of art in which it has not been possible for me to take as acute a pleasure as, I believe, it is possible for men to take. And with respect to the circumstances of life, it so happens that it has been my fate to know many lands and many climates, and to be familiar, by personal experience, with almost every form of society, from the uncivilised savage of Papua and Australia, and the civilised savages of the slums and dens of the poverty-stricken parts of great cities, to those who, perhaps, are occasionally the somewhat over-civilised members of our upper ten thousand. And I assure you that I have never found, in any of these conditions of life, a deficiency of something which was attractive. Savagery has its pleasures, I assure you, as well

as civilisation, and I may even venture to confess—if you will not let a whisper of the matter get back to London, where I am known,—I am even fain to confess, that sometimes in the din and throng of what is called "a brilliant reception," the vision crosses my mind of waking up from the soft plank which had afforded me satisfactory sleep during the hours of the night, in the bright dawn of a tropical morning, when my comrades were yet asleep, when every sound was hushed, except the little lap-lap of the ripples against the sides of the boat, and the distant twitter of the sea-bird on the reef. And when that vision crosses my mind, I am free to confess I desire to be back in the boat again. So that, if I share with those strange persons, to whose asserted, but still hypothetical existence I have referred, the want of appreciation of forms of culture other than the pursuit of physical science, all I can say is, that it is in spite of my constitution, and in spite of my experience, that such should be my fate.

But now let me turn to another point, or rather to two other points, with which I propose to occupy myself. How far does the experience of the last fourteen years justify the estimate which I ventured to put forward of the value of scientific culture, and of the share—the increasing share—which it must take in ordinary education? Happily, in respect to that matter, you need not rely upon my testimony. In the last half-dozen numbers of the *Journal of Education*, you will find a series of very interesting and remarkable papers, by gentlemen who are practically engaged in the business of education in our great public and other schools, telling us what is doing in these schools, and what is their experience of the results of scientific education there, so far as it has gone. I am not going to trouble you with an abstract of those papers, which are well worth your study in their fulness and completeness, but I have copied out one remarkable passage, because it seems to me so entirely and completely to bear out what I have formerly ventured to say about the value of science, both as to its subject matter and as to the discipline which the learning of science involves. It is from a paper by Mr. Worthington—one of the masters at Clifton, the reputation of which school you know well, and at the head of which is an old friend of mine, the Rev. Mr. Wilson—to whom much credit is due for being one of the first, as I can say from my own knowledge, to take up this question and work it into practical shape. What Mr. Worthington says is this:—

"It is not easy to exaggerate the importance of the information imparted by certain branches of science; it modifies the whole criticism of life made in maturer years. The study has often, on a mass of boys, a certain influence which, I think, was hardly anticipated, and to which a good deal of value must be attached—an influence as much moral as intellectual, which is shown in the increased and increasing respect for precision of statement, and for that form of veracity which consists in the acknowledgment of difficulties. It produces a real effect to find that Nature cannot be imposed upon, and the attention given to experimental lectures, at first superficial and curious only, soon becomes minute, serious, and practical."

Ladies and gentlemen, I could not have chosen better words to express—in fact, I have, in other words, expressed the same conviction in former days—what the influence of scientific teaching, if properly carried out, must be. But now comes the question of properly carrying it out, because, when I hear the value of school teaching in physical science disputed, my first impulse is to ask the disputer, "What have you known about it?" and he generally tells me some lamentable case of failure. Then I ask, "What are the circumstances of the case, and how was the teaching carried out?" I remember, some few years ago, hearing of the head-master of a large school, who had expressed great dissatisfaction with the adoption of the teaching of physical science—and that after experiment. But the experiment consisted in this—in asking one of the junior masters in the school to get up science, in order to teach it; and the young gentleman went away for a year, and got up science and taught it. Well, I have no doubt that the result was as disappointing as the head-master said it was, and I have no doubt that it ought to have been as disappointing, and far more disappointing too; for, if this kind of instruction is to

be of any good at all, if it is not to be less than no good, if it is to take the place of that which is already of some good, then there are several points which must be attended to.

And the first of these is the proper selection of topics, the second is practical teaching, the third is practical teachers, and the fourth is sufficiency of time. If these four points are not carefully attended to by anybody who undertakes the teaching of physical science in schools, my advice to him is, to let it alone. I will not dwell at any length upon the first point, because there is a general consensus of opinion as to the nature of the topics which should be chosen. The second point—practical teaching—is one of great importance, because it requires more capital to set it agoing, demands more time, and, last, but by no means least, it requires much more personal exertion and trouble on the part of those professing to teach, than is the case with other kinds of instruction. When I accepted the invitation to be here this evening, your secretary was good enough to send me the addresses which have been given by distinguished persons who have previously occupied this chair. I don't know whether he had a malicious desire to alarm me; but, however that may be, I read the addresses, and derived the greatest pleasure and profit from some, and from none more than from the one given by the great historian, Mr. Freeman, which delighted me most of all; and, if I had not been ashamed of plagiarising, and if I had not been sure of being found out, I should have been glad to have copied very much of what Mr. Freeman said, simply putting in the word science for history. There was one notable passage,—“The difference between good and bad teaching mainly consists in this, whether the words used are really clothed with a meaning or not.” And Mr. Freeman gives a notable example of this. He says, when a little girl was asked where Turkey was, she answered that it was in the yard with the other fowls, and that showed she had a definite idea connected with the word Turkey, and was, so far, worthy of praise. I quite agree with that; but what a curious thing it is that one should now find it necessary to urge that this is the be-all and end-all of scientific instruction—the *sine qua non*, the absolutely necessary condition,—and yet that it was insisted upon more than two hundred years ago by one of the greatest men science ever possessed in this country, William Harvey. Harvey wrote, or at least published, only two small books, one of which is the well-known treatise on the circulation of the blood. The other, the “*Exercitationes de Generatione*,” is less known, but not less remarkable. And not the least valuable part of it is the preface, in which there occurs this passage, “Those who, reading the words of authors, do not form sensible images of the things referred to, obtain no true ideas, but conceive false imaginations and inane phantasms.” You see, William Harvey's words are just the same in substance as those of Mr. Freeman, only they happen to be rather more than two centuries older. So that what I am now saying has its application elsewhere than in science; but assuredly in science the condition of knowing, of your own knowledge, things which you talk about, is absolutely imperative. I remember, in my youth, there were detestable books which ought to have been burned by the hands of the common hangman, which contained questions and answers to be learned by heart, of this sort, “What is a horse? The horse is termed *Equus caballus*; belongs to the class Mammalia; order, Pachydermata; family, Solidungula.” Was any human being wiser for learning that magic formula? Was he not more foolish, inasmuch as he was deluded into taking words for knowledge? It is that kind of teaching that one wants to get rid of, and banished out of science. Make it as little as you like, but, unless that which is taught is based on actual observation and familiarity with facts, it is better left alone. There are a great many people who imagine that elementary teaching might be properly carried out by teachers provided with only elementary knowledge. Let me assure you that that is the profoundest mistake in the world. There is nothing so difficult to do as to write a good elementary book, and there is nobody so hard to teach properly and well as people who know nothing about a subject, and I will tell you why. If I address an audience of

persons who are occupied in the same line of work as myself, I can assume that they know a vast deal, and that they can find out the blunders I make. If they don't, it is their fault and not mine; but when I appear before a body of people who know nothing about the matter, who take for gospel whatever I say, surely it becomes needful that I consider what I say, make sure that it will bear examination, and that I do not impose upon the credulity of those who have faith in me. In the second place, it involves that difficult process of knowing what you know so well that you can talk about it as you can talk about your ordinary business. A man can always talk about his own business. He can always make it plain; but, if his knowledge is hearsay, he is afraid to go beyond what he has recollected, and put it before those that are ignorant in such a shape that they shall comprehend it. That is why, to be a good elementary teacher, to teach the elements of any subject, requires most careful consideration, if you are a master of the subject; and, if you are not a master of it, it is needful you should familiarise yourself with so much as you are called upon to teach—soak yourself in it, so to speak—until you know it as part of your daily life and daily knowledge, and then you will be able to teach anybody. That is what I mean by practical teachers, and, although the deficiency is being remedied to a large extent, I think it is one which has long existed, and which has existed from no fault of those who undertook to teach, but because, until within the last score of years, it absolutely was not possible for anyone in a great many branches of science, whatever his desire might be, to get instruction which would enable him to be a good teacher of elementary things. All that is being rapidly altered, and I hope it will soon become a thing of the past. The last point I have referred to is the question of the sufficiency of time. And here comes the rub. The teaching of science needs time, as any other subject; but it needs more time proportionally than other subjects, for the amount of work obviously done, if the teaching is to be, as I have said, practical. Work done in a laboratory involves a good deal of expenditure of time, without always an obvious result, because we do not see anything of that quiet process of soaking the facts into the mind, which takes place through the organs of the senses. On this ground there must be ample time given to science teaching. What that amount of time should be is a point which I need not discuss now; in fact, it is a point which cannot be settled until one has made up one's mind about various other questions. All, then, that I have to ask for, on behalf of the scientific people, if I may venture to speak for more than myself, is that you should put scientific teaching into what politicians and statesmen call the condition of “the most favoured nation”; that is to say, that it shall have as large a share of the time given to education as any other principal subject. You may say that that is a very vague statement, because the value of the allotment of time, under those circumstances, depends upon the number of principal subjects. It is *x* the time, and an unknown quantity of principal subjects dividing that, and science taking shares with the rest. That shows that we cannot deal with this question fully, until we have made up our minds as to what the principal subjects of education ought to be. I know quite well that launching myself into this discussion is a very dangerous operation; that it is a very large subject, and one which is difficult to deal with, however much I may trespass upon your patience in the time allotted to me. But the discussion is so fundamental, it is so completely impossible to make up one's mind on these matters until one has settled the question, that I will even venture to make the experiment. A great lawyer-statesman and philosopher of a former age—I mean Francis Bacon—said that truth came out of error much more rapidly than it came out of confusion. There is a wonderful truth in that saying. Next to being right in this world, the best of all things is to be clearly and definitely wrong, because you will come out somewhere. If you go buzzing about between right and wrong, vibrating and fluctuating, you come out nowhere; but if you are absolutely and thoroughly and persistently wrong, you must, some of these days, have the extreme good fortune

of knocking your head against a fact, and that sets you all straight again. So I will not trouble myself as to whether I may be right or wrong in what I am about to say, but at any rate I hope to be clear and definite; and then you will be able to judge for yourselves whether, in following out the train of thought I have to introduce, you knock your heads against facts or not.

I take it that the whole object of education is, in the first place, to train the faculties of the young in such a manner as to give their possessors the best chance of being happy and useful in their generation; and, in the second place, to furnish them with most important portions of that immense capitalised experience of the human race, which we call knowledge of various kinds. I am using the term knowledge in its widest possible sense; and the question is, what subjects to select, by training and discipline in which, the object I have just defined may be best attained. I must call your attention further to this fact, that all the subjects of our thoughts—all feelings and propositions, our sensations (as leaving aside the mere materials and occasions of thinking and feeling), all our mental furniture—may be classified under one of two heads—as either within the province of the intellect, something that can be put into proposition and affirmed or denied, or as within the province of feeling, or that which, before the name was defiled, was called the æsthetic side of our nature, and which can neither be affirmed or denied, but only felt and known. According to the classification which I have put before you, then, the subjects of all knowledge are divisible into the two groups, matters of science and matters of art; for all things with which the reasoning faculty alone is occupied, come under the province of science; and in the broadest sense, and not in the narrow and technical sense in which we are now accustomed to use the word art, all things feelable, all things which stir our emotions, come under the term of art, in the sense of subject-matter of the æsthetic province. So that we are shut up to this—that the business of education is, in the first place, to provide the young with the means and the habit of observation; and, secondly, to supply the subject-matter of knowledge, either in the shape of science or of art, or of both combined. Now, it is a very remarkable fact—but it is true of most things in this world—that there is hardly anything one-sided, or of one nature, and it is not immediately obvious what, of the things that interest us, may be regarded as pure science, and what may be regarded as pure art. It may be that there are some peculiarly constituted persons who, before they have advanced far into the depths of geometry, find artistic beauty about it; but, taking the generality of mankind, I think it may be said that, when they begin to learn mathematics, their whole souls are absorbed in tracing the connection between the premisses and the conclusion, and that to them geometry is pure science. So I think it may be said that mechanics and osteology are pure science. On the other hand, melody in music is pure art. You cannot reason about it; there is no proposition involved in it. So, again, in the pictorial art, an arabesque, or a “harmony in grey,” touch none but the æsthetic faculty. But a great mathematician, and even many persons who are not great mathematicians, will tell you that they derive intense pleasure from geometrical reasonings. Everybody knows mathematicians speak of solutions and problems as “elegant,” and they tell you that a certain mass of mystic symbols is “beautiful, quite lovely.” Well, you do not see it. They do see it, because the intellectual process, the process of comprehending the reasons symbolised by these figures and these signs, confers upon them a sort of pleasure, such as an artist has in visual symmetry. Take a science of which I may speak with more confidence, and which is the most attractive of those I am concerned with. It is what we call morphology, which consists in tracing out the unity in variety of the infinitely diversified structure of animals and plants. I cannot give you any example of a thoroughly æsthetic pleasure more intensely real than a pleasure of this kind—the pleasure which arises in one's mind when a whole mass of different structures run into one harmony as the expression of a central law. That is where the province of art overlays and embraces the province of intellect. And, if I may venture

to express an opinion on such a subject, the great majority of forms of art are not in the sense what I just now defined them to be—pure art; but they derive much of their quality from simultaneous and even unconscious excitement of the intellect. When I was a boy, I was very fond of music, and I am so now; and it so happened that I had the opportunity of hearing much good music. Among other things, I had abundant opportunities of hearing that great old master, Sebastian Bach. I remember perfectly well—though I knew nothing about music then, and, I may add, know nothing whatever about it now—the intense satisfaction and delight which I had in listening, by the hour together, to Bach's fugues. It is a pleasure which remains with me, I am glad to think; but, of late years, I have tried to find out the why and wherefore, and it has often occurred to me that the pleasure in musical compositions of this kind is essentially of the same nature as that which is derived from pursuits which are commonly regarded as purely intellectual. I mean, that the source of pleasure is exactly the same as in most of my problems in morphology—that you have the theme in one of the old master's works followed out in all its endless variations, always appearing and always reminding you of unity in variety. So in painting; what is called “truth to nature” is the intellectual element coming in, and truth to nature depends entirely upon the intellectual culture of the person to whom art is addressed. If you are in Australia, you may get credit for being a good artist—I mean among the natives—if you can draw a kangaroo after a fashion. But, among men of higher civilisation, the intellectual knowledge we possess brings its criticism into our appreciation of works of art, and we are obliged to satisfy it, as well as the mere sense of beauty in colour and in outline. And so, the higher the culture and information of those whom art addresses, the more exact and precise must be what we call its “truth to nature.” If we turn to literature, the same thing is true, and you find works of literature which may be said to be pure art. A little song of Shakespeare or of Goethe is pure art, although its intellectual content may be nothing. A series of pictures is made to pass before your mind by the meaning of words, and the effect is a melody of ideas. Nevertheless, the great mass of the literature we esteem is valued, not merely because of having artistic form, but because of its intellectual content; and the value is the higher the more precise, distinct, and true is that intellectual content. And, if you will let me for a moment speak of the very highest forms of literature, do we not regard them as highest, simply because the more we know the truer they seem, and the more competent we are to appreciate beauty the more beautiful they are? No man ever understands Shakespeare until he is old, though the youngest may admire him, the reason being that he satisfies the artistic instinct of the youngest and harmonises with the ripest and richest experience of the oldest. I have said this much to draw your attention to what, to my mind, lies at the root of all this matter, and at the understanding of one another by the men of science on the one hand, and the men of literature, and history, and art, on the other. It is not a question whether one order of study or another should predominate. It is a question of what topics of education you shall select which will combine all the needful elements in such due proportion as to give the greatest amount of food, and support, and encouragement to those faculties which enable us to appreciate truth, and to profit by those sources of innocent happiness which are open to us, and, at the same time, to avoid that which is bad, and coarse, and ugly, and keep clear of the multitude of pitfalls and dangers which beset those who break through the natural or moral laws.

I address myself in this spirit to the consideration of the question of the value of purely literary education. Is it good and sufficient, or is it insufficient and bad? Well, here I venture to say that there are literary educations and literary educations. If I am to understand by that term the education that was current in the great majority of middle-class schools, and upper schools too, in this country when I was a boy, and which consisted absolutely and almost entirely in

keeping boys for eight or ten years at learning the rules of Latin and Greek grammar, construing certain Latin and Greek authors, and possibly making verses which, had they been English verses, would have been condemned as abominable doggerel,—if that is what you mean by liberal education, then I say it is scandalously insufficient and almost worthless. My reason for saying so is not from the point of view of science at all, but from the point of view of literature. I say, the thing professes to be literary education that is not a literary education at all. It was not literature at all that was taught, but science in a very bad form. It is quite obvious that grammar is science and not literature. The analysis of a text by the help of the rules of grammar is just as much a scientific operation as the analysis of a chemical compound by the help of the rules of chemical analysis. There is nothing that appeals to the æsthetic faculty in that operation, and not only is there nothing that appeals to this, but I ask multitudes of men of my own age, who went through this same process, whether they had ever a conception of art or literature until they obtained it for themselves after leaving school? Then you may say, "If that is so, if the education was scientific, why cannot you be satisfied with it?" I say, because, although it is a scientific training, it is of the most inadequate and inappropriate kind. If there is any good at all in scientific education, it is that men should be trained, as I said before, to know things for themselves at first hand, and that they should understand every step of the reason of that which they do. I desire to speak with the utmost respect of that science—philology—of which grammar is a part and parcel; yet everybody knows that grammar, as it is usually learned at school, affords no scientific training. It is taught just as you would teach the rules of chess or draughts. On the other hand, if I am to understand by a literary education the study of the literatures of either ancient or modern nations—but especially those of antiquity, and especially that of ancient Greece; if this literature is studied, not merely from the point of view of philological science, and its practical application to the interpretation of texts, but as an exemplification of and commentary upon the principles of art; if you look upon the literature of a people as a chapter in the development of the human mind, if you work out this in a broad spirit, and with such collateral references to morals, and politics, and physical geography, and the like as are needful to make you comprehend what the meaning of ancient literature and civilisation is,—then, assuredly, it affords a splendid and noble education. But I still think it is susceptible of improvement, and that no man will ever comprehend the real secret of the difference between the ancient world and our present time, unless he has learned to see the difference which the late development of physical science has made between the thought of this day and the thought of that, and he will never see that difference, unless he has had some practical insight into some branches of physical science; and you must remember that a literary education such as that which I have just referred to, is out of the reach of those whose school life is cut short at sixteen or seventeen. But, you will say, all this is fault-finding; let us hear what you have in the way of positive suggestion. Then I am bound to tell you that, if I could make a clean sweep of everything—I am very glad I cannot, because I might, and probably should, make mistakes,—but if I could make a clean sweep of everything and start afresh, I should, in the first place, secure that training of the young in reading and writing, and in the habit of attention and observation, both to that which is told them, and that which they see, which everybody agrees to. But, in addition to that, I should make it absolutely necessary for everybody, for a longer or shorter period, to learn to draw. Now, you may say there are some people who cannot draw, however much they may be taught. I deny that *in toto*, because I never yet met with anybody who could not write. Writing is a form of drawing; therefore, if you give the same attention and trouble to drawing as you do to writing, depend upon it, there is nobody who cannot be made to draw, more or less well. Do not misapprehend me. I do not say for one moment, you would make an artistic draughtsman. Artists are not made; they grow.

You may improve the natural faculty in that direction, but you cannot make it; but you can teach simple drawing, and you will find it an implement of learning of extreme value. I do not think its value can be exaggerated, because it gives you the means of training the young in attention and in accuracy, which are the two things in which all mankind are more deficient than in any other mental quality whatever. The whole of my life has been spent in trying to give my proper attention to things and to be accurate, and I have not succeeded as well as I could wish; and other people, I am afraid, are not much more fortunate. You cannot begin this habit too early, and I consider there is nothing of so great a value as the habit of drawing, to secure those two desirable ends.

Then we come to the subject-matter, whether scientific or æsthetic, of education, and I should naturally have no question at all about teaching the elements of physical science of the kind I have sketched, in a practical manner; but among scientific topics, using the word scientific in the broadest sense, I would also include the elements of the theory of morals and of that of political and social life, which, strangely enough, it never seems to occur to anybody to teach a child. I would have the history of our own country, and of all the influences which have been brought to bear upon it, with incidental geography, not as a mere chronicle of reigns and battles, but as a chapter in the development of the race, and the history of civilization. Then with respect to æsthetic knowledge and discipline, we have happily in the English language one of the most magnificent storehouses of artistic beauty and of models of literary excellence which exists in the world at the present time. I have said before, and I repeat it here, that if a man cannot get literary culture of the highest kind out of his Bible, and Chaucer, and Shakespeare, and Milton, and Hobbes, and Bishop Berkeley, to mention only a few of our illustrious writers—I say, if he cannot get it out of those writers, he cannot get it out of anything; and I would assuredly devote a very large portion of the time of every English child to the careful study of the models of English writing of such varied and wonderful kind as we possess, and, what is still more important and still more neglected, the habit of using that language with precision, with force, and with art. I fancy we are almost the only nation in the world, who seem to think that composition comes by nature. The French attend to their own language, the Germans study theirs; but Englishmen do not seem to think it is worth their while. Nor would I fail to include, in the course of study I am sketching, translations of all the best works of antiquity or of the modern world. It is a very desirable thing to read Homer in Greek; but, if you don't happen to know Greek, the next best thing is to read as good a translation of it as we have recently been furnished with in prose. You won't get all you would get from the original, but you may get a great deal; and to refuse to know this great deal because you cannot get all, seems to be as sensible as for a hungry man to refuse bread because he cannot get partridge. Finally, I would add instruction in either music or painting, or, if the child should be so unhappy, as sometimes happens, as to have no faculty for either of those, and no possibility of doing anything in any artistic sense with them, then I would see what could be done with literature alone; but I would provide, in the fullest sense, for the development of the æsthetic side of the mind. In my judgment, those are all the essentials of education for an English child. With that outfit, such as it might be made in the time given to education which is within the reach of nine-tenths of the population—with that outfit, an Englishman, within the limits of English life, is fitted to go anywhere, to occupy the highest positions, to fill the highest offices of the State, and to become distinguished in practical pursuits, in science, or in art. For, if he have the opportunity to learn all those things, and have his mind disciplined in the various directions the teaching of those topics would have necessitated, then, assuredly, he will be able to pick up, on his road through life, all the rest of the intellectual baggage he wants. If the educational time at our disposition were sufficient, there are one or two things I would add to those I have just now called the essentials; and perhaps you will be surprised to hear, though I hope you will not, that I should

add, not more science, but one, or, if possible, two languages. The knowledge of some other language than one's own is, in fact, of singular intellectual value. Many of the faults and mistakes of the ancient philosophers are traceable to the fact that they knew no language but their own, and were often led into confusing the symbol with the thought which it embodied. I think it is Locke who says that one half of the mistakes of philosophers have arisen from questions about words; and one of the safest ways of delivering yourself from the bondage of words is, to know how ideas look in words to which you are not accustomed. That is one reason for the study of language; another reason is, that it opens new fields in art and in science. Another is the practical value of such knowledge; and yet another is this, that if your languages are properly chosen, from the time of learning the additional languages, you will know your own language better than ever you did. So, I say, if the time given to education permits, add Latin and German. Latin, because it is the key to nearly one-half of English and to all the Romance languages; and German, because it is the key to almost all the remainder of English, and helps you to understand a race from whom most of us have sprung, and who have a character and literature of a fateful force in the history of the world, such as probably has been allotted to those of no other people, except the Jews, the Greeks, and ourselves. Beyond these, the essential and the eminently desirable elements of all education, let each man take up his special line—the historian devote himself to his history, the man of science to his science, the man of letters to his culture of that kind, and the artist to his special pursuit. Bacon has preface'd some of his works with no more than this: *Franciscus Bacon sic cogitavit*; let "sic cogitavi" be the epilogue to what I have ventured to address to you to-night.

ON SPELLING REFORM.

AZ on a former occasion you printed a paper of mine on this subject you will perhaps allow me to rite a few words in the system which I now advocate, that of Victórian Glosic. Dhe ónli simbolz uzde in dhis sistem which ar unfamiliar to us ar dhoze ov *dh* (for *th* in "that") and *zh* (for *si* in "vision"). Dhe use ov unfamiliar simbolz in dheze too instansez iz unavoidable az dhe soundz cannot udherwize be difereñsiáted from dhoze ov *th* in "thin" and *si* in "scansion." For aul udher soundz, dhoze leterz ar uzde which an eesamináshon ov our prezent spelling proovze too be moste fréquent in eurent orthografi. Hens it foloze dhat no dificulti can be eespérienst in réding wurdz so speld by ani wun hoo can pas in dhe second standard. Ov no udher sistem ean dhis be sed. Mani planz hav bin propoze and sum, for sertain purposez, ar ov grate valu. Amung dhe later, thre in particuár (Mr. Sweet's Romie, Mr. Ellis's Glosic, and Mr. Pitman's Phonetic), ar eeselent, eche for its one end. Rómie az an instrúment for filolójical reserch, Glosic az afording a practical notáshon ov provinshal speche, Fonctie az a básis for shorthand riting, in which wun sine for wun sound iz a desiderátum. But nun ov dheze can be red at site bi a person familiar widh dhe prezent spelling ónli; and dhárfor, for populár use, must be pronounst fárlurze. Rómie béng baste on dhe Italian vouel soundz, ecreate too grate a gap betwene dhe olde and dhe reformd spellingz. Glosic introdúscz wide discrepansew betwene Latin wurdz and dhe English wurdz derivde from dhém. Fonctie iz impracticabil for economic rézonz, az introdúscing nu tipe. Dhare iz no nu tipe reewirde in Victórian Glosic; éven *á, é, í, ó, ú, óo*, ma be printed édher az in Dieshonariz widh dhe acent on a separat tipe, or widh acented leterz, at dhe opshon ov dhe printer; its udher merits or defects ar best sene in its use. I apend dhe rulze ov dhis sistem, and conclude bi eespresing mi firm beléfe dhat so long az spelling reformerz persist in disregarding dhe past histori ov orthographi, iu thro'ng aside dhe esenshal prinsipel ov continuiti, in ateming a fúture progres independentli ov eesisting order, so long ar

dha doomde too internal disenshonz and too dhe contentúos negleet ov dhe jeneral pubis.

Rulze.

1. *X* iz uzde for *e* before *e, i*.
2. Mute *e* repláscz acent on dhe ultima, but iz omited in monosilabelz ending widh a vouel.
3. Dhe vouelz in "*a, dhe*" ar left unalterd.
4. Dhe grave acent (´) iz uzde when not caring strcs.
5. Dhe printer úscz separat acent tipe (*á*), or acented leter (*á*), at hiz convéniens.
6. Acentz ma be dropt in correspondens, &c., wherever no ambigúiti wood arize.

ALFABET.

<i>a</i> az in cat.	<i>h</i> az in hot.	<i>p</i> az in pot.
<i>á</i> " páper.	<i>i</i> " fin.	<i>r</i> " rent.
<i>ah</i> " cahm.	<i>i</i> " miner.	<i>s</i> " set.
<i>au</i> " caul.	<i>j</i> " jct.	<i>sh</i> " shame.
<i>b</i> " bat.	<i>l</i> " let.	<i>t</i> " take.
<i>c</i> " cat.	<i>m</i> " met.	<i>th</i> " thin.
<i>k</i> " kin.	<i>n</i> " net.	<i>u</i> " sun.
<i>ch</i> " chat.	<i>ng</i> " sing.	<i>ú</i> " únion.
<i>d</i> " dad.	<i>o</i> " pot.	<i>ú</i> " impútáshon.
<i>dh</i> " dhis.	<i>ó</i> " bóding.	<i>w</i> " wct.
<i>e</i> " let.	<i>ó</i> " boil.	<i>wh</i> " when.
<i>é</i> " éven.	<i>oo</i> " foot.	<i>y</i> " yet.
<i>f</i> " fat.	<i>óó</i> " fóoling.	<i>z</i> " zcle.
<i>g</i> " get.	<i>ou</i> " out.	<i>zh</i> " zhon.

F. G. FLEAY.

EDUCATION SOCIETY.

ON THE MAXIMUM UTILISATION OF EXAMINATIONS AS AN AID TO SCHOOL WORK.

EXAMINATIONS may be either internal or external. Internal examinations, it is generally admitted, constitute, in one form or another, a very necessary adjunct to the work of direct teaching. It is, however, by no means so generally held,—and, indeed, by some it is denied theoretically, though not practically, and by others practically, though not theoretically,—that external examinations are any such essential, or even subsidiary, adjunct at all. This is not my own opinion; but, opinions apart, I propose to lay before you this evening some considerations respecting the use that the teacher, at the worst, may make of the most unpromising external or public examiner; and, further, the use that, at the best, the examiner might allow to be made of him, if he were as perfectly fitted for his functions as the teacher is supposed to be for his.

We have to deal, therefore, in this instance, with external examinations mainly—with a dual relation of reciprocity between the one who teaches and the one who tests, rather than with either of the other relations of teacher to taught, or examiner to examinee. Thus, putting aside formally that third important person, the learner—and, as a constant quantity in the whole matter, we may do so without any disrespect to him—there are the functions of two distinct agents to be considered in the question of maximum examination use, *i.e.*, the teacher and the examiner.

I. Let us first consider the teacher's part. On the one hand, is his class of pupils, various in their degrees of knowledge and of power; on the other hand, is the examination, a year hence, more or less according to circumstances, its list of subjects, its pass and honours standards, and, if you will, the personal equations of its ordinary examiners. What ought he to do, so that his pupils may reap the full benefit of the ordeal they have to go through, and of the preparation for that ordeal?

We will stipulate, in the first instance, that there has been, for the pupils, a considerable pre-examination period. This is essential in most cases for the individuals, and therefore quite essential for the members, of any body, such as a school, taken collectively. In the pre-examination period, the average scholar has laid in stores of faculty and learning in a comparatively easy-going sort of way, and is therefore now somewhat in the condition of the would-be athlete, who has bones and sinews more or less, but stands in need of training. Even the idlest and the most scatter-brained have, no doubt, gained something, and for them the examination has a special function, to be noticed presently.

At a certain stage in the scholar's career, a stage which comes not suddenly, but looms by degrees more and more large in the distance

before it comes, a definite public examination has to be passed; and, with due notice, the work of the class of future examinees is brought to bear more definitely on the subjects of the said examination.

The examination necessitates preparation in a certain set of subjects. We may regret to see some subject, which we prize, left out; but, if our class is well in hand, it need not be left out of their work at all, or not till the last term of preparation. And, if the class is not well in hand, a year's concentration on some few subjects (even though not perhaps in themselves the very best) is no harm at all.

(a) The first part, then, of the teacher's work in "maximum utilisation," is the utilisation of the "preparation for examination." What gains, other than success in the result, may he hope to obtain from this, if he be wise?

1. He will not talk very much about the impending ordeal, but he will take very good care that its requirements are realised by his pupils at an early stage, with some tolerable distinctness. He and they have undertaken certain pieces of work, which *must* be finished up to time, and he will do well to see that they are finished some time before time, so that an interval of preliminary testing, general recapitulation, and final making sure of all the loose ends and badly-fastened knots, may be allowed before the final test. Now, this *definiteness of aim* for a perfectly definite result is invaluable, both to the teacher as such, and to the learner as such. Like every other educational lever, it has no less a moral than an intellectual efficacy. When examination comes in at the door, dilettantism goes out of the window, the individual "fads" of the teacher follow, and all idea of playing at work rapidly vanishes from the minds of pupil and teacher both. On the teacher who is behind the times, the examination acts as a guide and a stimulant. The teacher with or before the times uses it as such on the wills of his pupils.

2. The method of preparation I take to be a special combination of teaching, directed reading, and frequent testing this latter, especially towards the end. Thus, progress is made, and stock of the progress taken, for the information of pupils as well as teacher. This helps to keep the definiteness of result before the learners' minds. But the chief point is, that in this way the examination is used as a special aid in *securing accuracy of result*. The teacher, in dealing with these test examinations, should always be more rigid than the examiner. As examining in this relation, he is the subordinate; and, like all subordinates, cannot help supporting himself in extra accuracy by a mental reference, more or less explicit, and in various ways expressed, to the future overseer of his work. Inaccurate knowledge may do in some things; but it is almost a contempt of authority, and certainly a want of self-respect, to lay any such before the cool and critical judgment of a chosen examiner from an important University.

3. With accuracy goes *method*, though the two are quite distinct. Accurate minds (of ordinary accuracy, I mean) are often not at all *methodical*. The thought may be accurate when it comes, but the means of arriving at it far from methodical.

Now, the comparative barrenness of unmethodical thought becomes very evident with an examination in view, and, as before, all the motives for curing it are in that case likely to have full sway.

4. Hand in hand with methodical thought goes *methodical expression*. In this, the training of the examinee's preparation is indeed invaluable. The University examiner is certainly not to be irritated unnecessarily by troublesome arrangements of work as to form, and cannot be expected to follow with over-anxious care the devious windings of an unmethodical exposition. If he do so, it is certain that, at least, he deserves better treatment. Besides, there is a degree of self-respect and *esprit de corps* involved in sending up a paper with an appearance that does not belie its merit; and all this comes out forcibly in the course of preparation.

5. I will go so far as to say that a good preparation of this kind is a *training in a certain valuable kind of honesty*. The examinee learns to look facts—the disagreeable facts of idleness, of inaccuracy, of slovenliness, of guilty ignorances, of wasted opportunities, of past carelessness and inattention, and insincerely done work,—he learns, in a very special manner, to look such facts in the face. No sham knowledge, no unreal work, no haze of words, no—or very few—random guesses, will pass muster at examination. He must be judged as what he is, and there is no escape from the judgment. The good teacher will see that, in most cases, he finds all that out beforehand, and amends.

Thus, we may sum up, in the preparation for an examination, there are many special means by which idleness may be made ashamed and industry stimulated, indefiniteness may be corrected, and the powers of the too diffuse mind brought to concentration; while all may profit more or less, even where none of these faults are prominent.

(b) In the second place, the teacher should utilize to the utmost the Examination results. This may be done in three ways at least.

1. As a correction to faults in teaching, and oversights in the mat-

ter taught; in short, as a check on the "personal equation" of the teacher.

2. As a check on the judgment of the teacher with respect to his pupils, and, by a repetition of checks, as an education of that judgment.

3. As a similar check on the judgment of the pupils with respect to themselves.

II. Just as the teacher's function with respect to examinations is twofold, so is the examiner's. He has to prepare for the test in the setting of his papers, and he has to hand over the results of the test to the teacher afterwards, for utilisation in the manner above described.

(a.) The first business of the examiner is to set his papers. Now this, we all know, is frequently done very well by individual examiners, who have consciously or unconsciously worked out or stumbled upon a fairly scientific theory of what an examination paper ought to be. But, as yet, there seems to have been very little systematic thought on the subject, very little attempt to reduce the setting of examination papers to a satisfactory theory, as has been done more or less for a great number of other educational functions. Examination is still the region of non-science in education. Now, I do not mean to attempt a theory of the subject this evening, but rather to point out the need of such a theory, and perhaps the directions which, to some extent, it should take.

According to my view of the examiner, he is as much an educational functionary as the teacher is; though, unless he have a psychological turn of intellect or sympathetic turn of disposition, he is much more likely to make mistakes. All that knowledge of intellectual development, therefore, and that faculty of comprehending mental facts outside his own mind, in their variety and complexity, which are so essential to the teacher, are no less essential to him, at least within the range of his special examination work. If he is to examine boys and girls of seventeen in Geometry or Algebra, he should be able to represent to himself with some degree of accuracy the normal mathematical capacity of healthy and not precocious boys or girls of seventeen, the kind and the quantity of faculty to be expected, in the normally clever, the normally average, and the normally stupid subject, respectively. There is a difference, in entire character, as we know very well, between the work of fifteen and that of seventeen, and between seventeen and twenty, a difference dependent on the stage of mental development, not merely on the quantity of knowledge gained. Probably the main points of difference lie in the growing power of the intellect to deal with the abstract, and with the complex, and to invent means towards its ends in thinking. And of these three faculties, the development of which distinguish the more from the less adult mind, I should be inclined to look for power in dealing with the abstract earliest, with the complex next, and originality in devising intermediate steps of thought last.

But the clever young examiner, learned perhaps in the modes of thinking habitual to University *men*, be they clever or the reverse, has no inward vision of the school-boy's simpler mode of thought, his only half-grown control over general truths, his but slightly involved adaptation of means to ends. Often, he fails wholly to realize that the school-boy is not merely half-educated, but that he is also only half-developed. So, being of a generalising turn of mind, he deals too largely in interesting generalities; or, being of an analytic turn of mind, he gives his examinees charmingly complex questions, involving several separate issues which they mostly attempt to deal with in the lump; or, being ingenious, he proposes, in over large measure, the kind of mathematical problem, for instance, that will not yield to careful thought, except by the aid of an accidental happy thought, or the constant inspiration of an inventive imagination. And, in any of these cases, should some one suggest that his papers are too hard for the proposed class of examinees, the only remedy offered is "more book work." "They cannot complain, you know, if half the paper can be written straight out by those who know their books." As if the only use of an examination were to get through it somehow, or even to get through it well.

The most wrongly enthusiastic examiner will improve with experience of examining, unless he be indeed peculiarly obstinate and unsympathetic. His first attempts create irritation among the examinees and those who speak for them. He thinks that he is right perhaps, but, nevertheless, an effect is produced. He observes the practice of others possibly, and probably he begins to think to some purpose on the subject himself. And so, by-and-by, he will do better, having bought his experience at other people's expense in the usual way.

Or, he may learn improvement by actual teaching. This is a means of training examiners, much insisted on now by some, and pro-

bably it is as good as any mere empirical means can be. But no mere empirical training is sufficient. There is a theory, and the man who practises should know it.

The examiner, then, should have a knowledge of the *psychological sequence* of his subject, *i.e.*, its order as faculty, just as the teacher should. Besides this, he ought also to see clearly and consciously its *logical sequence*, *i.e.*, its order as knowledge. This would enable him to know the difference between an elementary and an advanced paper, the questions which belong to the first stage, and those which belong to the second stage, of the examinee's knowledge. To the examiner in himself, there is no difference between the two; to the examinee the difference may be enormous.

(b.) Having devised the test, the examiner's next business is to estimate the results. As this is the subject of "Marking," I will merely refer to it here. One point only should be mentioned. The most fruitful source of error in estimating results, as in devising examination papers, are no doubt—(1) the prejudice of the examiner in favour of his own mental peculiarities; (2) his incapacity to place himself in true mental contact with the examinee. If he cannot see, either through being blinded, or through being blind, the best system of marking cannot atone for this defect.

(c.) The results having been estimated, it only remains to publish them. Happily, for this last duty, no art is required,—only some conviction. At present, the results are not published to almost any useful extent at all. The fact of success or failure, and a certain limited variety of degrees of success, is made known, a few general remarks are perhaps made, and there the subject rests. Over all particulars an impenetrable veil of mystery is drawn, and there is a sort of general feeling abroad, that something very terrible and uproarious might happen if the mystery were dispelled. Now, I hold that there should be no mystery, that in all ordinary examinations all the marks in the separate subjects should be published in the most complete and open manner. In the Examinations which are used educationally, such as the Oxford and Cambridge Local Examinations, the London University Examinations, and others, there is absolutely no sound reason why this should not be done. That reasons are alleged, I know. It is said that the examinees and their teachers would keep up a constant fire of quarrelling with their marks, that a good deal of heart-burning on the one hand, and annoyance on the other, would be occasioned, and so on. But surely it is manifest to every one, that our Universities can set themselves above all this, and refuse to take the slightest notice of it; and to me it seems no less manifest that the very opposite result would really occur, if not in the very first instance, at least soon. The defeated candidate who is bold enough to write and say that there must be some mistake somewhere and so on, as defeated candidates sometimes do, would have to be a good deal bolder, if he did so with the published marks lying open for his inspection beforehand. There would be something very calming, if not soothing, in the sight of those perfectly definite figures, showing that his case had been examined, and the examiners had publicly committed themselves to a definite opinion concerning it,—an effect which the mere word "failed" could never work.

But argument is scarcely necessary to prove this. I will appeal to facts. It may be that the inhabitants of the sister island are less inclined to quarrel with their fate than their neighbours here, though that is not the usual opinion. At any rate, all the marks are published in the various Irish Public Examinations. I have here the lists of published results of the examinations held this year under the Intermediate Education Act, and they contain, in black and white, the particular marks given in each subject to each successful candidate. The absolutely defeated candidates are, I believe, supplied with their marks on application. Here is also the list of successful candidates in the honour subjects for the First University Examination of the Royal University, with the marks gained by each. This, as you see, is published in the daily newspaper. The publicity is therefore at its very maximum. I have never heard, however, of the slightest inconvenience to the examining authorities having been occasioned by the system, though its standing in Dublin University has lasted long enough. And, indeed, as I suggested before, when A. B. sees that his marks are definitely bad, he is likely to feel inclined to quiet submission rather than to the reverse.

Having answered the objections, let us turn now to the uses that may be made of the published marks by the Teacher. He is put in possession of an elaborate criticism of his pupils' work, a complete report. If he be wise, he will be able pretty well to determine how far their failures from excellence are his and how far their own.

1. He will study the results as a criticism on his teaching.
2. He will study them as a corrective to his judgment.
3. He will go through them carefully with the candidates themselves, elucidating a theory of how they came to be what they are;

and his pupils will thereby learn to see themselves and their defects more clearly, and have imparted to them at the same time a definitely detailed impulse towards improvement.

The publication of the marks tends towards the cultivation of a disposition to look the facts of fault and failure straightforwardly and openly in the face. Truth, honesty, and courage are thereby encouraged in a very effective manner. Of all the lessons that large Schools, Universities, Public *Competitive* Examinations, and life itself can teach, there are few more valuable than the lesson of finding one's level. The man who knows his level, and accepts it with well-balanced humility and self-respect at once, is raised above a thousand petty faults and irritations, to which he might otherwise be only too liable. And there is nothing in our present educational system, more especially for girls, that seems to me more full of happy promise for our social future, than the ample means secured in Public Schools and Public Examinations, for enabling every girl to find her own intellectual level in a certain (not, of course, a complete) sense. The process is not always pleasant. It would be agreeable to imagine oneself first, but one is only second, or third, or fourth, or below the numbers that one cares to count. But, to the strong self-confident nature, no process is more healthy, and to the under-confident, though in an opposite sense, its healthfulness is no less evident.

Now, the advantage of finding one's level in an examination is much increased by the publication of particulars. The strong find out that they had weak points, and the weak that they had strong ones. The level is known in detail through the process of being brought fairly face to face with all the facts in detail.

* * * * *

Much art has certainly been expended on the abuse of Examinations. Cram-teachers and cram-books have had, and still have, their day; and the blame has been laid very heavily at the door of the Examinations. Some teachers prefer that their pupils should pass by way of cram, and some candidates prefer to palm off ill-gotten knowledge on examiners if they can, rather than acquire the necessary amount properly. It seems so much cleverer to cheat than to earn;—it is not casier.

It has been my endeavour, this evening, to show—not that Examinations are capable of being abused grossly—but that they are capable of being used efficiently; not that they sometimes are made to encourage dishonest, *i.e.*, sham knowledge—but that they may be employed as an encouragement to increased honesty of work and reality of knowledge. And I have tried, however ineffectively, to point out the various kinds of use that the teacher may make of the examiner, and the conditions that the examiner should fulfil in order that this use may be the greatest possible.

REVIEWS AND MINOR NOTICES.

English Men of Letters.—(1) *Sterne*. By H. D. TRAIL. (2) *De Quincey*. By Professor MASSON. (3) *Macaulay*. By J. C. MORISON. (Macmillan & Co.)

It is not easy for any reviewer to keep touch with this admirable series, now in its thirty-first volume; and, in a journal which assigns to literature a limited space, it is impossible to do more than call attention to the most remarkable of these literary sketches, many of them masterpieces, and not one, except perhaps "Dickens," a failure.

For Mr. Trail's "Sterne" we have nothing but praise. It is a finished work of art, the ideal of what a monograph should be. The task was, indeed, comparatively easy, the field limited, and the materials all to hand; yet it required no little skill to condense Mr. Fitzgerald's voluminous "Life" into a hundred pages, without omitting a single fact that sheds a gleam of light on Sterne's life and character; and, in the critical portion of the work, a cool head and a calm judgment were needed, not to be misled by Thackeray's brilliant caricature, and to hold the balance between the greatness of the writer and his moral obliquities, which throw a dark shadow (though it is only a shadow) over all his works. As Voltaire said of him in the *Dictionnaire Philosophique*, "Il ressemble à ces petits satyres de l'antiquité qui renferment des essences précieuses." On the two standing charges against Sterne, plagiarism and indecency, Mr. Trail sums up with what, in spite of a recent trial, we may still call judicial impartiality. On the first count, the verdict must undoubtedly be, Guilty of petty larceny. Nor can Sterne plead the royal privilege of Molière

and Shakspeare, "Je prends mon bien où je le trouve." Rather he reminds us of a broad-acred nobleman now living, who is said to have a weakness for silver spoons. On the second plaint, it is more difficult to pronounce. Mr. Trail's summing-up does not lean to mercy's side, and we may add, in Sterne's favour, that though the "Sentimental Journey" is not a book that we should, as a modern authoress has done, recommend for school girls' reading, yet we should not put either this or "Tristram Shandy" on the *Index expurgatorius* of a school library. Sterne's own plea, that he was reproducing the age of infantine innocence, is ludicrously lame and untrue; but we may urge in his behalf, that at the worst his indecency is only the *polissonnerie* of a vulgar schoolboy, repulsive but not dangerous. The gases, as doctors tell us, that poison, are those we cannot smell. But enough of an unpleasant subject, which, unfortunately, no critic of Sterne can avoid.

Mr. Trail has made one curious slip in his chrouology. Describing Sterne's first visit to Paris, in 1762, he writes—"Among his great acquaintances were . . . the Duke of Orleans (not yet Egalité) himself, 'who has suffered my portrait to be added to the number of some odd men in his collection.'" Egalité was at this date a boy of fifteen, and Sterne's friend was, of course, the father.

Mr. Masson's "De Quincey" is, in miniature, as thorough a piece of work as his colossal group of statuary that bears the name of Milton. In this case the field to be traversed was narrow, though tangled. To borrow a phrase of De Quincey's, which Mr. Masson admires, there were "discs of light," with which every scribbler has sought to dazzle the reader, and "interspaces of gloom," which not even Mr. Masson has succeeded in penetrating. What sums De Quincey borrowed, what he earned, and what he inherited; how he lived in London on absolutely nothing, where he lived in Edinburgh when he flitted from flat to flat, are mysteries that no man has known, and, since Mr. Masson is ignorant, we may safely add that no man will know. Nor need this ignorance trouble us greatly. It requires no great stretch of the imagination to fill in the blanks of the life, and in spite of all the *bizarrieries*, the character is comparatively a simple one. Carlyle gave the clue to it, when, with a flash of genius, he exclaimed, "*Eccovi!* look at him! this child has been in hell." Mixed with a singularly kindly nature, there was a Mephistophelic element; but De Quincey was always a childish Mephisto, a Robin Goodfellow, or rather a Queen Mab, playing mad pranks, the wildest and least justifiable of which are but the fierce vexation of a dream.

The story of De Quincey's boyhood and youth is well told, and we wish we had room for extracts. The picture of his mother is delicious. "A stately woman, every inch a lady, moving in the best county circles, and with her feet on the Rock of Ages." We may agree with Mr. Masson, that in the majority of cases, the wisest plan for parents and guardians in the education of a boy, is to find out the best routine of public schooling for boys in his circumstances, and to stick to that inflexibly through all its stages. It is strange he should not add, that with boys of genius our public school system has almost invariably failed. Either they have kicked over the traces, like De Quincey, and his contemporaries Byron and Shelley, or they have grown and thriven in spite of it, living separate lives, like Coleridge and Wordsworth.

In the later portion of the biography, the interest somewhat flags. We should like to have heard more of De Quincey's wife, who is still a mere *nomini's umbra*, and of his daughter, who had a strain of her father's genius, without his eccentricity. We could have spared the list of Edinburgh celebrities, whom De Quincey might have known and chose not to know, and the *catalogue raisonné* of his works, which a reference to Lowndes or Allibone would have supplied. The critical estimate of his writings which follows is appreciative, and at the same time temperate. In one point alone Mr. Masson's picture seems to us over-coloured. As a *littérateur*, De Quincey is confessedly supreme; "he has taken his place in our literature as the author of about 150 magazine articles." But the editor would go further, and claim for De Quincey a

niche in the "literature of knowledge" as a metaphysician, an historian, and a political economist. It is true that, in each case, he rather hints at possible claims than seeks to substantiate them, but, as far as we have been able to test them, they must in each case be disallowed. De Quincey has added no more to our knowledge, in the narrower sense of the word, than Sir Thomas Browne or Charles Lamb. We cannot stay to argue the point, but we would ask the reader to compare the passage on Greek Literature, quoted on p. 166, with that on "the three ladies of sorrow," p. 197. The first might have come from the note-book of a clever coach, the second is of imagination all compact, unique, inimitable.

The third name on our list presents by far the hardest task, and it was doubtless with a consciousness of the difficulty that Mr. Morley selected for Macaulay the most stalwart of his knights. To Trevelyan's life of his uncle there was nothing to add, and Mr. Morison has wisely declined the ungrateful task of copying a masterpiece in miniature. Instead of this, he has given us a critique, or rather a number of *causeries* on Macaulay as an historian, an essayist, a rhetorician, and a poet. On all these points Mr. Morison has found something new to say, and that without any straining after paradoxes. Sometimes he seems to us captious, but he is always suggestive, and there are few books of the size so full of pregnant hints.

The outcome of the book, to sum it up in a single word, is that Macaulay is no historian. "He contributed nothing to our intelligence of the past." Such an opinion sounds brutal, and we must apologise to Mr. Morison for blurting out a verdict that he has hinted with exquisite delicacy and toned down with all sorts of extenuating circumstances. With the verdict itself we substantially agree. Macaulay was not one of Virgil's blest, to whom it is given to know the causes of things. Yet, while we fully admit that Macaulay lacked the true historical spirit, we think he is something more than the sensational novelist that Mr. Morison, catching up an *obiter dictum* from the Letters, depicts. The coming historian will doubtless combine the qualities of Livy and Herbert Spencer without their defects, but at present we cannot dispense with either, nor judge one class from the other's point of view. Thus, to take a single instance, such criticism as the following seems to us unprofitable:—

"The whole of his famous Third Chapter on the State of England is one long poem over the superiority of the nineteenth century to the seventeenth century, as if an historian had the slightest concern with that. . . . Macaulay's constant preoccupation is to show how vastly the period of which he treats has been outstripped by the period in which he lives."

This is a hard saying, and a reference to the essay on the Athenian Orators will incline Mr. Morison to modify the concluding sentence. The least satisfactory *causerie* in the book is that on Macaulay as a poet. The *Lays*, indeed, receive full justice—in some respects they are preferred to Scott's,—but we miss the clear vision and sure touch of the historical expert, and behind the praise there lurks the *arrière pensée* that no genuine historian would degrade himself by turning ballad-monger. We may take two instances of several we have noted, where Mr. Morison's criticism seems to us at fault. The line "So spun she, and so sang she" is gibbeted as a strangely harsh concourse of sibilants, whereas "So he spake, and speaking sbeathed" is picked out for its graphic force. Again, the "Lines written in August, 1847," are made the text for a sermon on self-deceit. Macaulay is shown to have had no part or lot in the blessings of the Fairy whom he feigns to have stood by his cradle. Mr. Morison says this fairy was the queen of knowledge, and proves at length that Macaulay's mind was wholly unscientific. Now, the context clearly shows that "the glorious lady, with the eyes of light and laurels clustering round her lofty brow," represents not science, but literature. The three names of Bacon, Hyde, and Milton would, indeed, be "oddly chosen," if Mr. Morison's interpretation were true; whereas, according to our view, these three and the fourth, Raleigh, whom Mr. Morison has strangely

overlooked, are most apposite instances of the consoling power of the muse of literature. She "stood by each in their dark hour," and when Macaulay, after his Edinburgh defeat, recalls their example we cannot deem him either self-deceived or arrogant. The verses themselves, we agree with Mr. Morison, are ambitious and wordy, but they are not conceited. In contrast to them, he might well have noticed the "Epitaph on a Jacobite," in our judgment the most perfect of all Macaulay's poems, and perhaps the most pathetic passage in all his writings. But it is as an historian that Macaulay must stand and fall, and, though we have ventured to differ from Mr. Morison on several points, we own that, as an historian, he is far more competent than ourselves to judge him.

Select Letters of Cicero. Edited for the Use of Schools.

G. E. JEANS, M.A. (Macmillan & Co. 1882.)

This little book contains a selection of nineteen letters of Cicero, with explanatory notes. As a means of awakening an intelligent interest in Roman history, there can hardly be any study more valuable for boys than a reading of Cicero's letters, as presenting them with a life-like picture of the manner in which men lived and thought at a time which they are apt to regard as removed from human interest altogether. The difficulty, however, of the letters to beginners, and the want of a suitable edition of convenient size, has hitherto often proved an obstacle in the way of reading them at school, and Mr. Jeans has done great service in meeting this want. In a selection from more than 700 letters, there must of course be great differences of opinion as to the best specimens to choose; but that before us is executed with great taste and judgment, and includes most of the various aspects of Roman life and manners with which Cicero's letters present us. The notes, moreover, are lucid and to the point, and, without being diffuse, provide sufficient explanation wherever any difficulty might reasonably be felt by the reader. In a few places we are inclined to think that Mr. Jeans's renderings, in the attempt to preserve the colloquial character of the original, approach somewhat too nearly to the verge of slang; e.g., "ohndcere Curium," "to run Curius against them" (surely an inadmissible Americanism); "prolixa," "swimmingly"; "latentem," "if it (i.e. wealth) stopped at home"; "Servius allisus est, ceteri conciduntur," "Servius has been smashed, and we are now making mince-meat of the rest." But these are only occasional blemishes in what should prove a most serviceable and instructive book.

Album Poétique de la Jeunesse. By AUGUSTUS MANDRU, M.A.

(Williams & Norgate. 1883.)

The author, in his modest preface, offers to his old pupils "a choice of pieces, of which the style and the morality are always irreproachable," and excuses the admission of his own poems, on the ground that they will keep in memory an old master. No such apology is needed for M. Mandru's graceful *vers d'occasion*, which are fully on a level with the average standard of poetry which this selection sets. It is true that this is not a high one; but mediocre poets, whatever Horace may say, have their use in the school-world. Delille's *Magister* and *Curé de Village* are but tame adaptations of the "Deserted Village"; and even De Vigny's *Fille de Jephthé* will not stand beside Tennyson's and Byron's; but all three pieces are easy, and well adapted for beginners in French. Even a beginner is likely to be bored by such a poem as *La Pitié*, of Andrieux (a French Martin Tupper), and second-rate French poetry has a tendency to run to moral platitudes. A few notes to introduce the speeches from plays and other extracts, would be a welcome addition.

Latin for Little Folk. By W. J. SPATLING. (London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co. Price 1s.)

In judging a Primer like this, the first point is the type. If declensions and conjugations are presented so as to fix the eye, half the battle is won. This preliminary test Mr. Spratling fully satisfies. Next in importance is the arrangement. Both of the parts of which the book consists are well ordered, but the grammar and the exercises are not correlated. Thus, as early as the fifth exercise, we have verbs of the second and third conjugations. To pass to the matter. Mr. Spratling adopts the crude-form system, but in a very tentative fashion. Thus we have "ov-is" but "dens," "mare" but "ret-e," on what principle we fail to see. Mr. Spratling's Latin is not immaculate. *Dū* is an impossible plural; the genitive of *filius* is *filii*, not *filiū*; *ferox* does not mean *fierce*. *Pater unius optimorum hominum* is dog Latin. The punctuation is most erratic; thus, in Exercise xxvi., "Quid, sit futurum cras fuge querere." "O matre, pulchra filia pulchrior." Such slips and misprints are a serious drawback to a useful little book.

Shakespeare's Julius Cæsar. Edited by THOMAS PARRY. (Longmans' Modern Series. 1883.)

This is one of the numerous new Readers which Mr. Mundella's Codo has brought into being; but, unlike most of its congeners, it is the mature work of a practical schoolmaster, who knows the wants of elementary scholars, and how much their shoulders are able to bear. The notes are sufficient for a proper understanding of the text, they leave all questions of text and minute criticism, and they are not cumbered by etymological surpluses. There are a few slips which call for correction: "Beware is not a verb, but a verb joined to an adjective" (p. 104), is nonsense as it stands; "woe the while—alas, that at the same time" (p. 108), should be "alas for the time"; "et tu Brute!—and thou Brutus" is not an apt rendering; and "plucked me ope—me dative, governed by 'for' understood," is an exploded explanation. There are, however, very few of such mistakes.

Questions in Pure Mathematics, proposed at the B.A. and B.Sc. Pass and Honour Examinations of the University of London, with Complete Solutions. By J. E. A. STEOGALL, M.A. (John van Voorst. 1883.)

The papers worked out in this book cover the First B.A. and B.Sc. Pass Examinations from 1877 to 1881, the Second B.A. Pass Examination of 1881, and the Second B.Sc. Pass Examinations of 1879, 1880, and 1881; also the First and Second B.A. and B.Sc. Honour Examinations of 1880 and 1881. The questions, except those which are pure book-work, are solved in full, and frequently in different ways. The solutions are invariably clear, and rendered valuable by excellent hints, such as would suggest themselves to a practical teacher. The book will, no doubt, be useful to most students, and particularly to those preparing for the London University course. Of its kind it is a very good specimen.

Water and its Teachings in Chemistry, Physics, and Physiography.

A Suggestive Handbook by C. LLOYD MORGAN, F.G.S. (London: Edward Stanford, 55 Charing Cross.)

This book is intended to be used as "Notes of Lessons" on Water, for which purpose it is admirably adapted. An immense amount of information has been collected, which, in the hands of a good teacher, may be made the basis of an excellent series of lessons on this important subject. The author is evidently well abreast of the latest discoveries in science bearing on his subject, and very few of his statements are open to question. Chapter xxxii. seems somewhat irrelevant, but on the whole we can thoroughly recommend the book for the purpose for which it is intended. He hopes that it will make its way among primary teachers, and supplant some of the flimsy and inaccurate "Notes on Object Lessons."

Helps for Latin Students. By W. T. JEFFCOTT and G. J. TOSSELL. (Longmans, Green, & Co. 1883.)

Notwithstanding the prefatory "puff direct" of George Wharton Robinson, M.A. Oxon., which is worthy of Mr. Puff himself, the book is not a bad one. The title is no guide to the contents, which are (1) Selections, which make up a hook of Unseens; (2) Examination Papers on Accidence, &c., such as are set in Oxford Responses; (3) Etymology. Of the Third Part one specimen will suffice:—"Coelum, κοῖλος, hollow."

Shakespeare and Milton Reader. (Moffatt & Paige. Price 1s. 4d.)

With those who like extracts (we are not of the number), the book will be justly popular. The extracts are well chosen, and the notes short and simple. We do not care much for the miscellaneous lessons at the end, and the "Lamb's Tales" should surely have come before the selected scenes.

Johnston's Shilling National Atlas, and Bacon's New Shilling Atlas are not really rival publications, the titles notwithstanding. The former is well adapted for first lessons in Geography. The names are few and well chosen, and the mountain ranges clearly marked by lines instead of shading. The latter is a wonderful production, considering the price. The maps are larger and more complete than in several atlases which still sell at ten shillings or over. Naturally, with such a reduction, there must be some drawbacks. These are a paper binding, and advertisements instead of an index at the end.

LAW COPYING OFFICE FOR THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN.—This office was established in 1860 in order to open out a new branch of remunerative occupation to women. When we state that it has proved self-supporting, we need add nothing further in its favour. The office only needs greater publicity to extend its operations, and we gladly testify to the excellence of the work it turns out. Those who wish MSS., &c., copied should apply to the principal, Mrs. Sunter, 3 Portugal Street, Lincoln's Inn, W.C., who will supply estimates.

TRANSLATION PRIZE.

For each month, till further notice, there will be set a passage, generally from a French or German Poet, to be translated into English verse. A PRIZE OF TWO GUINEAS will be offered each month for the best version. Initials or a nom de plume must be adopted by competitors, but the successful competitor is required to send his real name and address to the Prize Editor for publication. Versions must be forwarded to the "Prize Editor" of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, care of Messrs. John Walker & Co., 96 Farringdon Street, E.C., not later than the 15th of the month. Any translation which is sent with an addressed envelope and six postage stamps, will be returned with corrections. A First Class is entitled to a copy of "Prizes and Proximes," which will be forwarded on application. Those who have already received "Prizes and Proximes" may apply for a copy of "Maria Wuz."*

The prize for the best translation of Dupont's poem is awarded to "A Lancashire Lad."

Nons, dont la lampe, le matin, Au clairon du coq se rallume ; Nous tous, qu'un salaire incertain Ramène avant l'anbe à l'enclume ; Nous, qui des bras, des pieds, des mains, De tout le corps, luttons sans cesse, Sans abriter nos lendemains Contre le froid de la vieillesse, Aimons-nous, et quand nous pou- vons Nons nmir pour boiro à la ronde, Que le canon se taise on gronde, Bnvons A l'indépendance du monde ! Nos bras, sans relâche tendus, Anx flots jaloux, au sol avaré, Ravissent lenrs trésors perdus, Ce qui nonrrit et ce qui pare : Perles, diamants et métaux, Fruit du cotean, grain de la plaine. Pauvres montons, quels bons man- teaux Il se tisse avec notre laine ! Aimons-nous, et quand nous pou- vons, etc. Quel fruit tirons-nous des labenrs Quicourbent nos maigres échines ? Où vont les flots de nos sneurs ?	Nous ne sommes que des machines. Nos Babels montent jusqu'au ciel, La terre nous doit ses merveilles ! Dès qu'elles ont fini le miel Le maître chasse les abeilles. Aimons-nous, et quand nous pou- vons, etc. Mal vêtus, logés dans des trous, Sous les combles, dans les dé- combres, Nous vivons avec les hiboux Et les larrons, amis des ombres : Cependant notre sang vermeil Coule impétueux dans nos veines ; Nous nous plairions au grand soleil, Et sous les rameaux verts des chênes ! Aimons-nous, et quand nous pou- vons, etc. A chaque fois que, par torrents, Notre sang coule sur le monde, C'est toujours pour quelques tyrans Que cette rosée est féconde. Ménageons-le dorénavant, L'amour est plus fort que la gnerre ! En attendant qu'un meilleur vent Souffle du ciel ou de la terre, Aimons-nous et quand nous pou- vons, etc.
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By "A LANCASHIRE LAD."

We're them 'nt when th' fowls awake
Loight up agen eawr toiny lamp.
We're them 'ut e'er th' day con break
Fnr a fickle wago to th' anvil tramp.
We stroive wi' arms an' hounds an' feet,
Wi' eawr loife th' ceaseless war wo wage,
Wi' pain eawr comin' days we greet,
We're welly safe to clem i' age.
Then let us howd together, lads,
An' drink a round if drink we may,
Let th' stroife be woid or hushed th' fray,
We'n drink, owd lads,
To "Independence some foine day."

Eawr arms stretched cawt i' endless toil,
Their treasures hid wi' pain wo tear
Fro' th' jealous seas an' greedy soil,
Booath food to eat an' cloas to wear,
Di'monds an' pearls an' spoils o' th' moine ;
Grains o' th' plain, fruit o' th' hill !
Poor silly sheep ! what mantles foine
Wi' eawr wool are woven still.
Then let us howd together, lads, &c.

What fruit o' labbur do wo get ?
'Tho' cawr poor backs aw crooked bc.
Wheer be th' rivers o' eawr sweat ?
What better than machines be wo ?
We'n built eawr Babels to th' skoies,
'Thro' us th' woide earth th' wonders sees ;
Soon as i' cells th' honey loies,
Th' measter hunts away th' bees.
Then let us howd together, lads, &c.

Ill-dressed aro we, an' lodged i' slums
Neath roofs, i' rubbish-holes we're laid,
Noight-birds an' rascals are eawr chums,
An' such-loike feawk 'ut love th' shade.
Bu' ne'er-the-less eawr crimson blood
Rushes impetuous i' eawr veins,
We tak' deloight i' th' green wood,
An' i' free air an' open plains.
Then let us howd together, lads, &c.

An' every toime yon crimson blood
I' streams upo' th' world is shed,
'Tis fur some cruel tyrant brood
Th' fertilizin' dew is spread.
I' comin' toimes eawr loives we'n sparó
Sin' love must be more strong than war,
Still waitin' 'till some sweeter air
Shall waff fro' earth or Heaven afar.
Then let us howd together, lads, &c.

Sic vos non vobis.

By G. E. D.

We whom the cock's reveillée wakes,
Our scarce-cold lamp to light once more ;
Who back to forgo or bench, ere breaks
The dawn, for some vague pittance pour ;
We who with hands, arms, feet,—nay, all
Our bodies,—strife unceasing wage,
Yet for the morrow ne'er can call
A shelter ours 'gainst frosts of age :
We friends should be, and whether sink
To peace the guns, or round us roar,
We oft will gather, o'er and o'er
To drink
To Freedom's march from shore to shore !

From jealons wave, from niggard earth,
Our sinews, ever strained and torn,
Drag forth whate'er of diverse worth
They hide, to nonrish or adorn,
Gems, metals, pearls, from ont the deep,
The hillside's grape, the valley's grain.—
Ah ! thinc the fleece is, thine, poor sheep,
That wraps man warm 'gainst wind and rain !
But, friends, &c.

What profit drew we ever yet
From toils that leave us bowed and lean ?
Ah ! whither flows our brow's fierce sweat ?
We are but as a mere machine.
Our Babels tower amidst the sky,
To us her wonders Earth too owes.—
The master drives his bees to die,
When rich with sweets their comb o'erflows !
But friends, &c.

* "Maria Wuz and Lorenz Stark ; or, English Prints of two German Originals," reprinted from the *Journal of Education*. Crown 8vo, price 4s. 6d. (Longmans.)

Halk-naked, housed in kennels foul,
Close garrets there, heaped refuse here,
We darkling lurk with thief and owl,
Those birds to whom the night is dear.
And yet our blood as yours is bright,
And thro' our veins it flows as free:
We would make merry in broad daylight,
Or dream beneath your greenwood tree!
But friends, &c.

Ah! many a time has earth to tell
How blood in torrents drenched her sward;
A fruitful dew! yet where it fell,
It did but feed some tyrant lord!
Let such vain waste henceforward cease,
For mightier far than Hate is Love!
There's yet, we trust, some fairer breeze
To blow from Earth or Heaven above.
So friends, &c.

We class the 122 versions received in the following order:—

First Class.—G. E. D., E. H. O., E. S. M., Cuthullin, S. Y. Y., Prospero.

Second Class.—Mabel, Big Big D., C. R., R. Ivch, Delta, J. Senior, Annie Matheson, Elm, P. P., Antigonus, L. A. M., Brema, Cypher, A. G. H., Nondam, C., Tyro, Theta, T. T. J., Enid, C. J. C. H., William, Bessie Holland, Canada, Rus in urbe, G. E. A., Henrietta, Hector, Dis, C. C. P., F. W. H., Alp, Neo, Celia.

Third Class.—Duedame, Jim, Daphne, X Her Mark, Sabrina, E. E. S., Q in the Corner, Charlotte, Clarissa, Antiquary, J. M. L., Watch, Bamba, Law, J. E. A., Libertas, E. C. D., Noon, Stoker, Odd Fish, Argemone, E. M., Eadgyth, F. S. M., Mathilde, T. H. I., J. N. F., Caddy Jellaby, A. L. S., Recca.

Fourth Class.—E. G. P., Kùgelehen, W. L. P., A-Imogen-B, Renard, M or N, Ephah, F. M. H., Kismet, E. A. O'D., Kent, Ouvrier, Denier, London, Lyckpenny.

Fifth Class.—Béarnais, A. H. S., Wintersthorpe, Gänseblume, Don Cal, Dum Sisto Vigilo, Marsyas, T. A., Noskaj Trauts Duam, Kraus, Beaver, Zeuxis, Top Cy, Phœnix, Pyrgopolinices, Down, Tit, Sluggard, F. T. S., Laura Leigh, Pansy.

Sixth Class.—Amœba, Nil desperandum, Jacobite, Oxbridge, Fantail, Outlet, Nonsuch, F. A. T., T. U., Altes Haus, Ave, Quin, Viola, Bottom, O. K., Brownie.

The prize version is rough, but it has the fire, if not the polish, of the original. "G. E. D.'s" is correct, and evenly good, but a little tame. Instead of inflicting on my readers the monthly commentary of which they must have grown somewhat weary, I have taken the version of "E. H. O.," revised, and in part rewritten it. It only wanted more of the *linæ labor* to make it not only first, but first-rate. I trust that he will pardon me for the thefts on liberty I have taken, and not pronounce on me Macaulay's verdict of "stolen and spoilt in the stealing."

N.B.—The cockney rime of "morning—dawning" was very common, and thinned the numbers of the first class.

We, whose scarce extinguished lamps must be rekindled
At the bugle call of chanticleer each morn;
For a pittance, out of which we oft are swindled,
Must return to bench and forge ere day is born;
We whose backs and feet and hands must strain and swelter,
Whose carcases from toil no respite know,
Yet can earn for our to-morrows no safe shelter
'Gainst the winter of old age, its frost and snow.
Let us love one another, and link
Hand in hand, with healths round, when we can;
Be it war, be it peace,
Cannons roar, cannons cease,
Let us drink
The independence of man.

From jealous waves of ocean, without leisure,
From flinty-hearted fallows, without truce,
Our thews of iron wrest all hidden treasure,
The rich man's banquet, gems for beauty's use,
Pearls, diamonds, ore, we pile the store together,
Corn from the plain, grapes from the hill-side reft;
Poor sheep! what famous mantles for cold weather
Wealth weaves him with our wool for warp and weft!
Let us love, &c.

What wages from our labours are we earning?
From the tasks that bow our backs and leave us lean?
Where go the streams of sweat to earth returning?
Workmen? We're naught but wheels in a machine?
The Babels we have built the stars are raking;
Earth's miracles, our handiwork are these;
But no sooner have we ended honey-making,
Our masters drive away the honey-bees.
Let us love, &c.

Up in attics, down in cellars, on the midden,
We huddle, clad in tatters, stiff and stark,
We harbour among thieves who would be hidden,
We nestle with the owls who love the dark.
Yet the red blood in our veins runs hot and madly,
And our pulses throb and beat like hammer strokes;
We could bask in the broad sunlight, oh how gladly
Or lie beneath the shade of giant oaks.
Let us love, &c.

On many and many a crimson field of slaughter,
We have fattened earth's broad acres with our blood,
And still that ruddy rain has served to water
The ground whereon some tyranny has stood.
Henceforward let us husband it, well knowing
Love and Peace are stronger far than Hate and War,
Let us wait, a fairer wind will soon be blowing
From earth whereon we toil or heaven afar.
Let us love, &c.

"Yesi," last month's Prize-winner, is I. H. B. Spiers, Esq., 117 Cambridge Gardens, W.

A Prize of Two Guineas will be given for the best translation of the following passage of Heine.

Du sublime au ridicule il n'y a qu'un pas, Madame!
Aber das Leben ist im Grunde so fatal ernsthaft, dass es nicht zu ertragen wäre ohne solche Verbindung des Pathetischen mit dem Komischen. Das wissen unsere Poeten. Die grauenhaftesten Bilder des menschlichen Wahnsinns zeigt uns Aristophanes nur im lachenden Spiegel des Witzes, den grossen Denkerschmerz, der seine eigene Nichtigkeit begreift, wagt Goethe nur mit den Knittelversen eines Puppenspiels auszusprechen, und die tödlichste Klage über den Jammer der Welt legt Shakespeare in den Mund eines Narren, während er dessen Schellenkappe ängstlich schüttelt.

Sie haben's Alle dem grossen Urpoeten abgesehen, der in seiner tausendaktigen Welttragödie den Humor aufs Höchste zu treiben weiss, wie wir es täglich sehen:—nach dem Abgang der Helden kommen die Clowns und Graziosos mit ihren Narrenkolben und Pritschen, nach den blutigen Revolutionsscenen und Kaiseraktionen kommen wieder herangewatschelt die dicken Bourbonen mit ihren alten abgestandenen Spässchen und zart-legitimen Bonmots, und graziöse hüpfet herbei die alte Noblesse mit ihrem verhungerten Lächeln, und hinderein wallen die frommen Kapuzen mit Lichtern, Kreuzen und Kirchenfahnen,—sogar in das höchste Pathos der Welttragödie pflegen sich komische Züge einzusehlichen, der verzweifelte Republikaner, der sich wie ein Brutus das Messer ins Herz stiess, hat vielleicht zuvor daran gerochen, ob auch kein Hering damit geschuitten worden, und auf dieser grossen Weltbühne geht es auch ausserdem ganz wie auf unsern Lumpenbrettern, auch auf ihr giebt es besoffene Helden, Könige, die ihre Rolle vergessen, Koulissen, die hängen geblieben, hervorschallende Souffleurstimmen, Tänzerinnen, die mit ihrer Lendenpoesie Effekt machen, Kostüme, die als Hauptsache glänzen—Und im Himmel oben, im ersten Range, sitzen unterdessen die lieben Engelein, und lognieren uns Komödianten hier unten, und der Erzengel sitzt ernsthaft in seiner grossen Loge und langweilt sich vielleicht, oder rechnet nach, dass dieses Theater sich nicht lange mehr halten kann, weil der Eine zu viel Gage und der Andere zu wenig bekommt, und Alle viel zu schlecht spielen.

SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES.

OXFORD.

The death of Professor Henry Smith, on February 9th, has deprived the University not only of its most brilliant son, but of one of the centres of its intellectual and social life. We need add nothing to the full and appreciative obituary notice that appeared in the *Times*, and the able *résumé* of his mathematical work and achievements in the *Academy*, of Feb. 17th.

The Hertford Scholarship has been awarded to Mr. A. H. Crnickshank, Scholar of New College. Distinguished, Mr. H. D. Leigh, New College; Mr. J. H. F. Peile, Corpus Christi College.

The Boden Sanskrit Scholarship has been awarded to C. N. E. Eliot, Scholar of Balliol; honourably mentioned, M. P. Kharegat, Balliol. Mr. Eliot obtained the Hertford Scholarship in 1881.

TRINITY COLLEGE.—The following have been elected Scholars:—Mr. H. E. Fowkes, Dulwich College; Mr. M. H. M. Wood, Eton College; Mr. W. Rogers, Clifton College. *Proxime Accessit*—Mr. E. M. Hobart-Hampden, Clifton College.

EXETER COLLEGE.—The following elections have been announced:—*Classical Scholarships*—A. H. Lemon, Merchant Taylors'; J. H. Sargent, Rugby; H. G. Smith, Charterhouse; A. C. Redding, Winchester; and J. G. B. Sutherland, Fettes' College. *Classical Exhibition*—L. R. Stert, Cheltenham. *Modern History Exhibition*—P. Badham, Merchant Taylors'. *Honorary Exhibition*—H. H. Cox, Aldenham School.

CAMBRIDGE.

The event of the month is the confirmation by the Senate of a Special Examination in Modern Languages, proposed by the Board of Studies. The Board is now engaged in making arrangements for a Modern Language Tripos. We understand that the following principles have been agreed on:—1. French and German are both compulsory. 2. A knowledge of the classical languages—*e.g.*, of Goethe and Molière—is to be the basis. 3. The Examination will include composition, philology, literary history, old French, and Mittel-hoch-Deutsch, and *viva voce*. It is to be hoped that modern schoolmasters will be stimulated to start a new crusade against compulsory Greek in the Little-Go.

The University Scholarships have been adjudged as follows:—The *Craven*, to H. V. Maenaghten, Scholar of Trinity, and the *Porson* to J. Strachan, Scholar of Pembroke. J. Adam, Scholar of Caius, was honourably mentioned.

The first *Chancellor's Medal* has been gained by W. R. Inge, Scholar of King's, and the second by W. E. Barker, Scholar of Trinity. The names of M. Dimsdale, King's; A. Macnamara, Trinity; and A. G. Pearson, Christ's, were honourably mentioned.

TRINITY COLLEGE.—The Rev. Joseph Prior has been elected by an overwhelming majority to the living of Ovington. The joke of the present Chief Secretary for Ireland, describing the election to fellowships as proceeding "by *a priori*," I may say by a *Joe Priori* argument," has been long forgotten, and undergraduates will mourn the loss of one of the most popular and sympathetic of tutors.

MAGDALENE COLLEGE.—The following have been elected:—Taylor, Aldenham Grammar-school, and Arnold, City of London School, to scholarships of £50 each; Clapton, Merchant Taylors' School, and Knight, Rossall School, scholarships of £40 each. A Milner scholarship of £80 has been awarded to Berry, of Haversham School.

SIDNEY SUSSEX COLLEGE.—The following have been elected to Open Scholarships:—Marshall, Clifton College, £60 a year; Owen, Beaumaris Grammar-school, £60 a year; Evans, Sutton Valence Grammar-school, £50 a year; Bickersteth, Highgate School, £40 a year; Smith, Wolverhampton Grammar-school; £30 a year; Littlewood, St. Paul's School, £30 a year; Moor, Manchester Grammar-school, £30 a year; Hayward, King's, London, exhibition of £30 a year.

KING'S COLLEGE.—The Eton Scholarships have been awarded to A. E. Brooke, E. W. Brooks, C. M. Knatchbull-Hugessen, E. H. Douglas, and J. W. Headlam. Open Scholarships of the value of £80 per annum for two years have been awarded to N. Wedd, City of London School, and B. Hill, Christ's Hospital. Exhibitions of the value of £60 per annum for two years have been awarded to D. N. Pollock, Wellington College, and W. G. Clay, Cheltenham College.

IRELAND.

The Examinations for Women at the University of Dublin commence on Tuesday, 13th inst. The number of candidates, which had fallen off last year to 61, does not promise to be large, but applications will be received up to the 10th inst. The only Scholarship

offered is that for first place in the Junior course. No further steps have hitherto been taken with reference to the abstract resolution passed by the Council on November 29th, that it was desirable to open the Arts Degrees of the University to women.

The Academic Council meets on March 7th. Nominations will be made to three Professorships which have fallen vacant—*viz.*, Arabic, Ecclesiastical History, Jurisprudence, and International Law.

The results of the recent Scholarship examinations under the Royal University, were issued on January 31st, and have on several accounts excited much interest. Thus it appears that the second Scholarship in Classics, and the first in Modern Literature, have both been taken by the same student, Mr. Michael F. Dwyer, a noted name in Irish scholastic circles. But upon the general question, whether the same student can hold both Scholarships, the Senate, it seems, has reserved its decision, and will consult legal opinion. It is rather late in the day now to raise the question, seeing that students had been allowed to attempt the double scholarship last year, as well as on the present occasion. Again, the second Scholarship in Modern Literatures has fallen to Miss Mary T. Hayden, of the Alexandra College, who thus achieves the honourable distinction of being the first woman scholar of the University. The first unsuccessful candidate for this Scholarship is also a woman, so that it is open to Mr. Dwyer to do a gallant thing, if the Senate should decide against his claim. There were six women candidates.

The first meeting of the Convocation of this University was held on February 1st. A Clerk of Convocation having been appointed, the meeting proceeded to the discussion of Rules. Some changes having been suggested in the Rules of the Queen's University, particularly as to the election of representatives to the Senate, a discussion arose, and some attempt was made to charge the Senate with interfering with the independence of Convocation, but upon no obvious grounds. Ultimately it was agreed to adopt all Rules of the Convocation of the Queen's University, with the exception of those relating to the Standing Committee. The Fees are the same as in the Queen's University.

N.B.—In our remarks, last month, upon the meeting of the Schoolmasters' Association, it was stated that the Rules had been altered, so as to allow Roman Catholic Masters, who are not Graduates, to become members. This was not so; the proposed change did not meet with adequate support, and was withdrawn. Dr. Parker, of Belfast, and Dr. Ewing, of Parsonstown, were both elected upon the Intermediate Committee. Mr. Rice has also very properly written to us, in reference to our remarks upon his Presidential Address, "On the Training of Teachers." Upon this subject Mr. Rice holds a decided opinion, and one not favourable to the movement. But we much regret having inadvertently used a term which implied that he was prejudiced upon the question. Indeed, Mr. Rice is honourably distinguished among Irish schoolmasters, for the attention with which he has followed the movement during the last eleven or twelve years, and which was fully borne out by his Address.

SCHOOLS.

BEDFORD COLLEGE (London: 8 and 9 York Place, Baker Street).—The Courses of Lectures on Biology and Physiology are given on Monday and Saturday afternoons, by C. Stewart, M.P. S., F.L.S., Lecturer at St. Thomas's Hospital.

BRADFORD GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—*Recent Successes*.—H. de B. Gibbins, an open Classical scholarship, Wadham College, Oxford; H. W. Appleton, an open Classical scholarship, University College, Oxford; W. Hird, an open Science exhibition, Trinity College, Cambridge; G. Hudson Sbow, exhibition, Balliol College, Oxford; F. Wood and W. R. Baker, matriculated with honours, London University. This term's President of the Oxford Union is a Bradfordian, Mr. G. H. Shaw, of Balliol.

BROMSGROVE SCHOOL.—The new buildings were inaugurated on January 30th. A full account of the interesting proceedings, including a sermon by Dr. Blore, the late Head-master, has been published in a dainty little volume, by the present Head-master. The subscription has nearly reached the required sum, £1,500.

CHARTERHOUSE.—*Prizes, &c., gained in the School (since October last)*:—Latin Verse Prize, H. E. Smith; Greek Iambic Prize, J. Campbell; Latin Prose Prize, J. Campbell; English Verse, J. Campbell; Leech Prize (original drawing), C. E. Webb Ware. *Scholarships, &c., outside the School*:—Open scholarships—Corpus College, Oxford, J. Campbell; Exeter College, Oxford, H. E. Smith; Balliol, Oxford (Classical exhibition), H. T. Bowlby; St. John's College, Cambridge, S. A. S. Ram; Trinity College, Cambridge, H. M. S. Malden, and L. N. Guillemard. Foundation scholarships (2nd year)—H. Head, Natural Science Schol., 2nd year; H. E. Wright, Exhi-

bition (Mathematics, commencing). T. W. Bnssell obtained a First in Moderations at Oxford. The new swimming bath, near the Racquet-courts, is making rapid progress, and will probably come into use in the present term. The plans for the extension of the present library, by the addition of a large hall, have been approved by the Charity Commissioners, and the work will be begun shortly. By this addition the present building will be more than doubled in size, and a number of new class-rooms will be included in the plan. A new picture has been added by Mr. G. J. Allen to the collection of works by old and recent masters, already presented by him to the school library. The picture is by Danby—a night effect, representing the Children of Israel led by the Column of Fire. A collection of casts from antique statues and friezes (chiefly in the British Museum) has been purchased by the museum. The following papers have been read this winter before the Science and Art Club:—"On Comets," by J. W. Marshall; "The Pencil-work of John Leach," Rev. G. S. Davies; "The Adaptations of Plant Life," by W. S. Gibson; "Homeric Art," G. H. Robinson; "Parasites," by W. H. Poole. The school has lost two of its governors, by the death of the Archbishop of Canterbury and of Gordon Whitbread. The first of these two vacancies is filled by Dr. Benson, *ex-officio*.

CLIFTON COLLEGE.—Recent honours gained are:—F. H. Edgeworth, Science Scholarship, at Caius College, Cambridge; G. H. Dolby, Mathematical Scholarship, at Emmanuel, Cambridge; W. Rogers, Classical Scholarship, Trinity College, Oxford; R. P. Baker and G. J. Kennedy, Prizes in the London University Matriculation. H. H. Turner (Schol. Trinity College, Cambridge) was in the first class in the Final Mathematical examination at Cambridge, and also obtained the second Smith's prize. At the recent examination at Woolwich of those passing out, G. A. W. Stone was first in the list, obtaining the Pollock medal and sword, and other prizes; J. W. Pringle was second, and H. V. Kent fourth.

DULWICH COLLEGE.—February 24th was the day for sending in testimonials for the Head-mastership. The following are the principal candidates, as far as we have been able to ascertain them:—Mr. Colbeck and Mr. Glaizebrook (Harrow), Mr. Cotterill (Fettes College), Mr. Courtney (New College, Oxford), the Rev. H. Kynaston (Cheltenham), the Rev. J. M. Marshall (Under-master of Dulwich College), Mr. W. G. Rutherford (St. Paul's School), Mr. Welldon (King's College, Cambridge), and Mr. L. E. Upcott (Marlborough College). Any comments on the candidates or prognostications would be improper—*νικᾷ δ' ὁ πρῶτος καὶ τελευταῖος δραμῶν*.

ETON.—For the last fortnight the school has been very much inconvenienced by the floods. On Wednesday, the 14th, the water had risen higher than has been known since 1852, rushing over the Slough-road, between Willow-brook and Eton, and filling the High Street beyond Barnes Pool Bridge. The College was thus entirely insulated; and Mr. Warre's and Mr. Merriott's houses have even been obliged to be broken up. The water is now falling rapidly, and, as Eton stands on gravel, no bad consequences need be feared. M. Wood has obtained a scholarship at Trinity College, Oxford.

GATESHEAD HIGH SCHOOL.—The Rev. Thomas Adams, mathematical master in St. Peter's School, York, has been elected to the head-mastership of this middle-class school, which has just been opened for the Tyneside district.

HAILEYBURY COLLEGE.—Prizes obtained at Christmas, 1882:—*In the school*—Upper VI., C. E. Brownrigg and J. K. Batten. Lower VI., H. F. Fisher. Modern Languages, Set I., Modern Side, E. H. Young. Mrs. Argles' Prize (Botany), H. D. Hinde. *Outside the school*—G. D. Barry, Open Classical Scholarship at Caius College, Cambridge. E. M. Hill, Balliol College, Oxford, 1st Class Moderations. C. G. Watson, 23rd, P. H. Cooper, 29th, and St. J. L. H. Du Plat Taylor, 46th, in R. M. A. Examination. The school has lost the valuable services of the Rev. F. J. Hall, who, after being on the staff for 13 years, has married, and commenced a private school at Wymondley, near Stevenage, Herts. His post has been filled by H. C. F. Mason, Trinity College, Cambridge. The school met for the Easter term on January 26th, and the full complement of new boys presented themselves for examination. The numbers are now about 500, of whom 95 are on the Modern Side. An examination for the following Scholarships will be held at Haileybury on March 28th and 29th:—Three Senior, of £40, and two of £30 each, for boys either at the school or not, between 15 and 16, on January 1st. Four Junior, open to boys under 13, not yet members of the school, of £30 each, tenable for three years. One Senior and one Junior are tenable on the Modern Side.

HARROW.—All Harrovians will have heard, with sorrow and sympathy, of the death of Mrs. Montagu Butler, in the 45th year of her age. One who knew her well, writes in the *Harrow Gazette*,—"The

continual, steady effect of her brightness, her welcomes, her counsel, her insight, her indefatigable kindness, both in times of joy and of sorrow, must be looked upon as a cumulative influence, such as ladies can but seldom have either the opportunity or the ability to exercise."

IPSWICH.—The Governors met on Ash Wednesday to interview the four selected candidates for the Head-mastership—the Rev. W. E. Bolland, Head-master of the Worcester Cathedral School; the Rev. E. G. Hardy, Head-master of Grantham; the Rev. H. R. Verry, of Dulwich College; and C. H. Gibson, Esq., of Merchant Taylors' School. By a unanimous vote they agreed to offer the Head-mastership to Mr. Gibson. We hear that Mr. Gibson has since declined the offer.

NEWCASTLE HIGH SCHOOL, STAFFORDSHIRE.—G. B. Green has won a Classical Scholarship at University College, Oxford. Seven boys passed the London Matriculation Examination, one (F. R. Tennant) being in Honours.

OUNDE SCHOOL.—The Rev. H. St. John Reade has issued a circular to the parents of his pupils, announcing his resignation at the end of the summer term. Mr. Reade, who was an Assistant-master at Haileybury College, has held the Head-mastership for seven years, and the school has risen in numbers (the boarders from 40 to 160) and importance under his rule.

RADLEY COLLEGE.—The examination for four Junior Scholarships takes place in June. *Prizes gained in the School*:—James Scholarship, C. V. Bagot; Heathcote Classical, L. J. S. Wood; Heathcote Mathematical, S. H. Cooke; Gibbs Scholarship, Theo. A. Cook; Prize for Greek Iambics, C. E. Johnstone; Worsley Prize, L. J. S. Wood. We did not mention that T. F. Hobson, Junior Student of Christ Church, got a 2nd Class in Final Classical Schools in December. Mr. J. F. Hickens, late Science Scholar of Queen's College, Oxford, has taken Mr. Leighton's place as Science Master. All who offer themselves for examination after the Ambulance Classes, gained Certificates, 24 in number. These will be distributed by the Honourable Mrs. Talbot, wife of the Warden of Keble College. The boys propose to organize an Ambulance Corps. Some progress has been made with the Hardy Memorial in Chapel.

RUGBY.—Prizes gained in the School:—Horace Prize, (1) Simey, (2) Miller; Queen's Medal (Preliminary Examination) Vaughan. Scholarships &c., outside the School:—O. H. Stoehr, Fourth in Examination for Woolwich; S. M. Kingdon, Scholarship at Christ's College, Cambridge; J. H. Sargent, Scholarship at Exeter College, Oxford. Dr. Waldstein, of Cambridge, has delivered the two concluding lectures of his series upon Greek Sculpture. The subject of these last was the transition from Pheidias to Praxiteles, and the later period. The attendance of boys in the school is not at all large, but the lectures have been followed with great interest by a fairly large audience of others connected with the school. The Exhibition in the Art Museum consists of the complete series of Arundel Society Prints, which are the gift of Mr. Lee Warner; and also of a number of Water Colour Paintings of Landscape in Australia and New Zealand, the work of Mr. Rawworth, who is at present residing in Rugby. A portfolio of Alpine Photographs by Mr. H. Donkin has also been added to the Museum. The room of the Natural History Society has been completely rearranged, and made both more interesting and more comfortable by the efforts of Mr. Morice, who has lately become President.

WESTMINSTER SCHOOL.—W. C. Dale has been elected to a Foundation Sizarship at Trinity College, Cambridge. The house adjoining the school, occupied by the late Organist to the Abbey, is now being pulled down, and the rebuilding will be at once proceeded with. There is to be a large Lecture Room and a Drawing Room, as well as Class Rooms and Offices, which have been much needed.

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The Journal of Education,

96 FARRINGTON STREET, LONDON, E.C.

PHYSICAL SCIENCE IN SCHOOL EDUCATION.*

By ALICE OLDHAM,

Hon. Sec. Association of Irish Schoolmistresses.

IN considering whether any branch of study should form a part of education, we should be guided by one fundamental principle, namely, that no subject should be admitted into the school curriculum, unless it fulfil one of two conditions—either it should afford a means of mental discipline, or it should furnish knowledge so important that its omission would entail serious disadvantage in after life. Applying this principle in weighing the value of Physical Science in education, we must therefore inquire, whether it afford information of great value, or whether it can be used as an effectual instrument in mental training. First, of what value is the knowledge it gives?

It will be admitted, that to every one life itself, and, secondly, that health, without which happiness and activity are impossible, is of primary importance. Yet, hitherto, any knowledge of the structure of the human frame, or of the conditions on which complete life can be maintained, has been considered unnecessary. It has been tacitly supposed that we can regulate this complex machine, and obey the laws of health without any knowledge of either. Is this a correct supposition? We have only to consider the information as to the appalling shortness and loss of human life given by statistics, the presence among us of disease, spreading through communities and descending from father to son, the prevalent ill-health among all classes, to convince ourselves that we have been acting on a fallacy terrible in its consequences. When we know that disease and premature death, perhaps the most potent causes of human suffering, can only be removed or lessened by a knowledge of the laws of life, and a profound sense of the sacredness of health, acquired from the study of one branch of Physical Science, we must admit that such study deserves attention from its intrinsic value.

The gaining of a livelihood is a secondary form of self-preservation. Of what value is scientific knowledge here? A moment's thought will show us, that nearly every branch of productive industry, which is the means of living to the bulk of the population, depends on the knowledge and application of scientific truths. We have scarcely a want which is not supplied by chemical processes and by machinery, and these require Mechanics, the laws of Physics, and of Chemistry. On one or all of these sciences also depend naval and military arts, engineering, building, architecture, all kinds of manufactures, and the modern means of locomotion and communication. Mining and Agriculture depend, in addition, on Mineralogy and Geology; Medicine, and every industry which subserves the production of food, on Biology. It may be said, that we cannot teach trades and professions in schools, and that is true; but, at least, we should not send forth girls and boys from school so ignorant of the elementary principles of science, so unaccustomed to practical scientific work, that a long preliminary training is required before technical teaching can be begun. When we remember that the material advancement of a nation in modern times depends on its use of scientific knowledge; when we consider how immensely he who possesses a knowledge of the scientific principles on which his special occupation rests, has

the advantage of the man who merely knows empirically the details of his own work, we can understand the opinion expressed some years since by the Commission on Technical Education, that "the state of Science-teaching in our schools is little less than a national calamity."

But we require knowledge for purposes other than the securing of physical existence. There remains the higher spiritual life. What are the characteristics of the intellectual world of our day, into which every boy and girl, on leaving school, enters as into an inheritance. In future ages, our century will be looked back to as an era of the most extraordinary development of human power in one special direction; an age when, after centuries of groping, man, by the methods of observation and experiment, triumphed over the secrets of nature, and spread light into every department of knowledge. When we read the summary of scientific progress given by Sir J. Lubbock, at the British Association, 1881, we feel that no such stupendous record of intellectual activity could have been given of any previous fifty years. Nor are scientific methods now confined to the material side of things. The studies of mental philosophy, of history, and of politics, have received extraordinary impetus from the application of inductive methods. It is recognised, that the power which governs the physical world by fixed principles, rules in the spiritual by law also, and the difficult problems of mental and social life are now studied from the standpoint afforded by scientific discovery. From this intellectual world, those untalented in elementary science are, in a great measure, shut out. They cannot follow scientific progress. They cannot grasp the larger conceptions of things, the wide outlooks afforded by fruitful discoveries, for they are ignorant of the facts on which such ideas rest. To them many of the greatest men of their day are but names, for they cannot understand the value of their work. They are unstirred by that elevating influence—in itself an education—which such men should exercise on the young. It may be said, that such knowledge can be acquired after the school period. But, practically, it is rarely then acquired. At the entrance of every science is a mass of fact to be assimilated, a number of technical terms to be mastered, which offers a barrier to its easy pursuit. It is almost as difficult to commence the study of Physical Science late in life, as the study of the dead languages. Surely, though we can only teach rudiments in schools, we should at least give the *elements* of the best knowledge of our day, so that the barriers may be removed, which prevent the following and enjoyment of it in after life. And such omission may be even dangerous; for he who is ignorant of the facts, cannot weigh the evidence for the conclusions drawn from scientific discovery, and, helpless in the conflict of opinion, may fall a prey either to the brilliant magazine writer, who puts forward wild guesses and unverifiable hypotheses in the name of science, or, on the other hand, to the bigoted opponent, who denies or misrepresents established scientific truths.

It may, perhaps, be conceded, that Physical Science is of value as knowledge. It remains to consider briefly its value as discipline. It seems to me we have in it a valuable instrument for training in observation, and in all those mental operations by which we draw conclusions from what we have observed. Let us see in what a practical lesson in Science consists. Suppose the subject to be the Laws of the Refraction of Light. The teacher places a glass vessel on a table in a darkened room, and allows a pencil of light to fall obliquely on the surface of the water. He asks his pupils to describe what they see—the rays deflected from their course on entering the water. But they must observe accurately. The amount and direction of the refraction must be noted, the ratio which the sine of the angle of incidence bears to the sine of the angle of refraction, and that the incident and refracted rays are in the same plane. Then the direction of the pencil of light is altered, and made to fall successively in more or less oblique positions, and the pupils are made to observe with equal accuracy the result in each case. Finally, they are asked to sum up what they have discovered, and they will be found to have arrived, by their own efforts, at the Laws of Refraction. But this is for one medium only—water. The vessel is now emptied, and successively filled with other liquids, alcohol, oil, &c. Observation being again employed, the pupils find for themselves the various results, and especially that the denser liquids are the more refractive. They are now asked, what will happen if the light be placed so that the rays pass *from* the water into the air. They will probably guess rightly, and a candle placed beneath the vessel confirms their deduction. And now they are asked to watch the effect of moving the candle, so that the rays fall more and more obliquely. They see that at last the rays emerge parallel to the surface, and there is no refraction. Thus they discover a new phenomenon—the limit of refraction.

* This paper was read at the Annual Meeting of the Schoolmasters' Association, Dublin, December 29th, 1882.

tion, and total reflection; so that, by the processes of observation and experiment, combined with inference from, and reasoning on, the facts, the pupils have arrived by their own powers at the Laws of Refraction. Using these principles, the teacher can now exercise his pupils in another direction, in deductive reasoning, by proposing various cases, and asking them what *must* happen in each in consequence of the known laws; also, he can require them to explain many familiar examples—the apparent rising of a body placed in the bottom of a vessel, as it is gradually filled with water, the bending of a stick in water, &c.

It is obvious that all this could be taught by other methods. We might set a portion of a text-book to be learnt off. In that way a certain amount of valuable information would be gained, but the peculiar discipline of practical scientific study would be lost. I know it is usual for a teacher to *give a lecture first*—"telling" his pupils what they have to learn—and then to illustrate it by experiments and specimens. But I think this should be avoided if possible, inasmuch as all previous "telling" lessens the necessity of the pupil's using his own observation and reflection. The teacher should think, "I am teaching these children how to observe accurately, and draw correct conclusions, not merely to learn off a certain set of facts." He should lay the phenomena to be studied before his pupils, and ask them to describe all they see in them. Where the observations made are faulty, they should be again and again referred to the facts. The teacher should ask constantly such questions as—"What do you see here?" "Comparing these two things, what are their differences?" "What do you think is the cause of that?" "If this be so, what must follow?" "That is one explanation, think of another." "If I alter the experiment thus, what will occur?" Where false conclusions are reached, he should lead his pupils to perceive that there are other facts which contradict their theory. So, by what may be called the "Socratic" method, by a system of questions designed to guide the train of their thoughts, the learners should be allowed to find, by their own continued exertions, the central principle which explains the facts.

Now, the value of such exercise lies in this, that it is identical with the mental operations which we are forced to use daily in after life. Whether we are conducting a law case, managing a business, ordering a home, dealing with our fellow-men—we are perpetually and necessarily observing certain facts, putting our observations together, reasoning on them, drawing conclusions, applying the theories so formed to numerous other cases, and, what is most momentous, acting on them. It is plain that all our "success in life"—using the term in its best sense—depends on the right performance of these operations, on our power of observing and reasoning correctly. Every error in the process leads to evil consequences. How important, then, it is to strengthen and develop faculties which we must constantly use in after life, while the mind is growing and pliant, and to form right methods of thought which will persist always to our incalculable benefit!

But it is not only an intellectual training which Science can be made to give, but also a moral culture. Are they not high emotions which are called forth, when, in studying physiological processes, almost we seem to see the Divine "hands from out the darkness shaping man"; when we dwell on the cosmic poem written on the strata of the earth; when we deal with those incomprehensible properties of matter which, in Carlyle's words, "bring us to the very edge of the Infinite, and bid us look over." There is a moral discipline in the habits of thorough work enforced by the careful observation of details, in the perpetual necessity of testing all our conclusions by fact. But, above all, Science alone gives us the conception of the universal Reign of Law. In Science we are "thinking again the thoughts of God," and reading a revelation which none can doubt, and that revelation shows us a universe ruled by immutable laws—physical laws of force and matter, spiritual laws of causation and sequence, of right and wrong inherent in the very nature of things. Hence we *must* imbibe a spirit of awe and reverence, a sense of the need of self-control before an external power, in whose hand we are as nothing, in obedience to which lies all our good, against which we oppose our own wills vainly and with awful retribution.

If Physical Science is not only good as knowledge, but also as a training, which Mathematics and Languages, however valuable in other ways, cannot give, how are we using it in the education of this country? A glance at the programme of the Intermediate Examinations, which largely represents the standard of our Middle-Class Schools, will give us a test. In 1879, the first year of these examinations, the following subjects appear on the programme:—Physics, Chemistry, Physical Geography, Botany, Zoology, Geology, and Astronomy. *Taking all the grades together*, the number of marks

allotted to Languages, was 16,500; to Mathematics, 5,200; to Physical Science, 3,600. In 1880, Astronomy, Zoology, and Geology were removed entirely, and Physiology substituted in one grade. The marks given to Languages were the same as in the previous year; 5,400 were given to Mathematics, 4,450 to Physical Science. In 1881, the marks given to Languages were raised to 18,300; those given to the other subjects remaining the same. In 1882, the marks given to Languages and Mathematics continuing the same; only 3,000 was given to Physical Science, Botany and Physiology being entirely removed from the programme for boys. We believe it is in contemplation to still further reduce the marks allotted to the only two remaining sciences, Chemistry and Physics. In these facts, we must note first the enormous disproportion of the number of the marks given to Languages, in comparison with those given to either Mathematics or Physical Science. This shows a tendency to a one-sided system of education, for, however great the value of the training given by Language and Literature (and it is indeed of profound value), it must be a training of only one order of thoughts and faculties. Secondly, in the gradual elimination of Science subjects from the programme, we see an inability to recognise Physical Science as a valuable means of education, no more to be discarded without loss than either Classics or Mathematics.

It may be said, there are practical difficulties against teaching it—a want of skilled teachers, a want of apparatus, the problem of the multiplicity of subjects. As to the first, we may say that the demand would create a supply. Our best scientific men have shown us how to teach Science, and, did we make it possible for teachers to live by teaching Science, they have every means of studying how to teach it rightly. As to the expense of apparatus, it is often exaggerated. In Botany, Physiology, Zoology, or Geology, the specimens required for elementary teaching are inexpensive, and could be provided by the teachers themselves. In Chemistry, £40 would supply a serviceable laboratory. In Physics lies the chief cost; and here, where money is needed, I believe with a little exertion it could be obtained. We see how energetic clergymen can raise funds to enlarge and beautify churches and schools. This year, the Masonic body raised several thousands of pounds, to fit up their new Girls' School. Were similar exertions made by the heads of schools, I am sure, among parents of pupils and friends of education, adequate sums would be supplied. As to the multiplicity of subjects, I think confusion would be obviated, did we clearly recognise that *there are three great branches of education*—Mathematics, Language and Literature, and Physical Science,—each of which supplies a training which neither of the others can give, and which, therefore, in any complete education, must each be adequately represented. An education which discards one or two of the three, leaves some important mental activities untrained. It may be said, that men of fine character and intelligence have been turned out by such one-sided education; but so we may point to men like Faraday, who received little or no school-training at all. Such men are rather examples of the triumph of rare powers over great obstacles. Did we insist that no one of these three branches should encroach on the others, the conflict of studies would lie rather among the special departments of each,—what languages we should teach, what sciences, how much mathematics. And here, again, it seems to me, we should choose those affording the best discipline. Useful information may be acquired afterwards; but the opportunity of training, while the mind is flexible and developing, once lost, can never be regained. Thus, suppose we must choose between French and Greek—the one useful in after life, the other affording incomparably the finer culture; I think, except in peculiar cases, we should not hesitate in preferring Greek.

Practically, as to Physical Science, I do not think we should attempt more than two branches simultaneously; and as to time, seeing that there are at least twenty-four hours a week at our disposal in Irish schools, I think that at least five or six hours weekly should be given to Physical Science, a study of the highest value, whether as discipline or as knowledge.

In conclusion, let me point out how great is the responsibility of deciding that any important study should be discarded from the Intermediate Programme, or discouraged by the allotment of a small number of marks. Except in peculiar cases, all our schools must enter into the Intermediate system, and, having done so, must model all their teaching on it. In the conflict of studies, it is hopeless to expect that any subject not appearing in the programme will receive due attention. Hence subjects which, had we no Intermediate, might have won their way by their own intrinsic merits into our curriculum, will be effectually blotted out, if not recognised in the examinations. And let us remember how large a class is affected by the Intermediate system. It is not merely the few who go on to the

universities and to professions, but the whole middle and upper classes of this country, from the boys and girls who are able to pass upwards from the National Schools, to those who will fill the highest positions in the state. The Intermediate system must supply the needs of individuals who will live in every variety of social condition—in farms, in factories, in offices, in professions, behind the counter, in the public service, in workshops. Remembering that on the character of this heterogeneous class depends the prosperity and progress of the country, and mindful of the incalculable influence of early training on character, we must feel that the question whether we adopt or reject a subject, which may be an indispensable instrument in that training, is one of national importance. On us teachers rests the great task of producing a people with faculties disciplined and symmetrically developed, and possessing the knowledge they most need for their day. On the extent to which this is accomplished depends the future of Ireland, and the happiness of innumerable individuals. Surely, therefore, we should weigh well every separate action, which may, perhaps, fatally hinder the attainment of these momentous consequences.

ON THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY.

BY REV. E. HALE.

[Paper read at the Head-masters' Conference, Dec. 22, 1882.]

I HAVE been asked to write a few words on my experience in the teaching of Geography.

I propose to describe, in the first place, the two most successful classes I have had. The one was a class which originally consisted of 41 boys, and in the end numbered 32. I taught the class, for a year, Physical Geography, very much on the same lines as Huxley's Physiography, but before the publication of that valuable book; but I illustrated by examples all the natural phenomena much more fully than is done in "Physiography," each boy in the class having a Keith Johnstone's School Atlas of Physical Geography before him. I also gave the boys constant references to Lyell's "Principles," and Reclus' "La Terre," both books being in our School library. After one year's teaching, I was able to continue with the same class for six months longer, and the subject for the Royal Geographical Society's Medals being British India, I took this, with the Head-master's permission, for the subject of my lectures. Each boy brought into school an outline map of India, with Great Britain drawn in outline on the same scale in the corner of the map, so that relative distances should be always before the boys' eyes. This map had been prepared for me by Mr. Lamprey, a late Librarian of the Royal Geographical Society. After each lecture the boys filled in the names, &c., of the districts and places mentioned by me. In these lectures I dwelt much more fully on the descriptive than on the political geography. My class had two lectures of three-quarters of an hour each, weekly, and an abstract of the two previous lectures had weekly to be written out.

In the second class, which I found successful, I also taught Physical Geography for a year, and then for two school terms I again took the subject chosen by the Royal Geographical Society, the British Isles. This class was not as large as the former one I have mentioned, and was less mixed as regards the capacity of the boys. In these lectures I dwelt much on the physical features of the country as affected by its geology, using as a basis Ramsay's "Physical Geology of Great Britain" (first edition); then I traced the growth of towns and industries partly to this cause, and I also spent some time on the development of the railway system. This class also had two lessons weekly, and were required weekly to show up an abstract.

As the result of my experience, I venture to make a few remarks as to the manner in which I think Geography should be taught. I think that Political Geography should not be taught to children before the elements of Physical Geography have been mastered by them. They should first learn what the earth, on which they live, is, what is its position in the solar system, something about the atmosphere, and how clouds, rain, snow, winds, &c., are caused, and what work they do. Then they should be taught the great natural features of the earth. Until they have learnt these, they cannot properly understand a map, and cannot certainly appreciate the influences which physical causes have exercised on the history of nations. Then they should be introduced to Historical Geography, following for instance at first the admirable first chapter of Freeman's "Short Sketch." Afterwards they might learn thoroughly the Geography, both descriptive and historical, of some one country or group of countries. As, in History,

that pupil is the more likely to become the better historian, who knows thoroughly some one epoch of History, so the pupil is likely to be the better Geographer who is thoroughly acquainted with the Geography of some one part of the earth, even if that part be only his native country.

One great drawback to efficiently teaching Geography is the lamentable lack of appliances. The wall-maps as yet published are not such as schoolmasters most need. Without criticising in detail, I may say that, of those in general use, Ramsay's Orographical Maps are drawn of about the same size for each continent, and are therefore each on very different scales. An obvious remedy for the difficulty pupils find in having to bear in mind the relative proportions of the countries represented in each map, would be by placing in the corner of each map an outline of Great Britain drawn to the scale of the map. The wall-maps published by Murby, and reproduced from the German, are effective but very inaccurate. If German wall-maps such as Kiepert's are used, the pupils are distracted by finding their Geographies differ from the maps as to meridians of longitude. We have for the use of our schools no map of equal excellence and cheapness to that of Switzerland, supplied by the Swiss Government to the primary schools. Still more are we in need of diagrams to illustrate Physical Geography. The Council of the Royal Geographical Society fully recognized the fact that the schools of England were behind those of other countries in this respect, and were willing to superintend the preparation of such maps and diagrams as it appeared to them that the majority of the teachers of Geography required. They however found, in answer to their enquiries, such a remarkable absence of any consensus amongst those in charge of Geographical instruction at the principal schools, that they were unable to take any steps in the matter. But, even now, I feel confident substantial aid would be afforded by the Society if any six or eight upper and middle class schools would unite in saying what maps and what diagrams are badly needed. All such diagrams should, in my opinion, be reproductions by mechanical means from photographs or bas-relief. Such diagrams have been produced in Paris by L. J. Bardin, mostly photographs, to illustrate the topography of France. I may mention the photographs from bas-reliefs of the Puy de Dome district, and the "massif" of Mont Blanc, as admirable examples. I would add that Geographical teaching, to be effectual, should be as much as possible removed from a task set to exercise the memory, or from a series of questions to be answered on paper in order to afford occupation for idle hours. I feel certain that the fixing the physical features of a country in a pupil's mind is much more important than making him remember lists of towns and the numbers of their inhabitants.

JOTTINGS.

MR. J. R. GREEN, though not one of us, was a teacher of many, and his early death demands from us a passing tribute. A born student, he lived laborious days, and, though he had already burst out with sudden fame, yet the thin-spun life was snapped before a tithe of his intended work was accomplished. The facts of his life may be shortly given. Born at Oxford in 1838, he was sent to Magdalene College School till he was fifteen. He then read with private tutors till he gained a Scholarship at Jesus College. The regular university curriculum had no attraction for him, and he was content to take a pass degree in 1860. The papers, however, that he published as an undergraduate, on Oxford in the 18th century, proved that these years had not been wasted. Ordained by the Bishop of London to the Curacy of St. Barnabas's, King's Square, he was appointed in 1862 to the sole charge of Hoxton, and shortly afterwards to the Vicarage of St. Philip's, Stepney. This cure he held for six years, devoting himself mainly to his parish, but employing his leisure in historical research and in writing for the *Saturday Review*. His resignation in 1868 was determined partly by ill-health, but more by the consciousness that his opinions were drifting farther and farther away from those of the Church of England. In the Lambeth librarianship he found a congenial retreat, and it was at Lambeth that the "Short History" was conceived and carried out in a marvellously short time, though it was not given to the world till 1874. The nine remaining years were a gentle but fatal decline, though his intellect was as vigorous as ever. The "Making of England," was written during his summer visit to London in 1881, and up to the day of his death he was engaged on the revision of the sequel volume "The Danes in England."

Of his rank as an historian, and his worth as a man, we need add

nothing to the faithful and loving memorial in the *Athenæum* of March 10th. *Multis ille bonis febilis occidit, nulli febilior quam tibi!*

THE LONDON SOCIETY FOR THE EXTENSION OF UNIVERSITY TEACHING held its annual meeting at 22 Albemarle Street. The report of the council, which was adopted by the meeting, showed that the Society's progress during the past year had been very satisfactory. The number of entries for the lectures had increased from 2,489 to 3,214, while 50 per cent. of the students had been in the habit of staying after the lectures for class teaching, and about 20 per cent. of them had written weekly papers for the lectures. The number of centres is now twenty-six, and it was pointed out that the Society had established itself in almost all the outlying districts of London. The "inner circle," so far as it includes any residential population, is served by such agencies as King's College and University College; but elsewhere the University Extension scheme is the only organisation for promoting "higher education." The report concluded with an urgent appeal for funds, which are required both for the maintenance of the central organisation and the supplementing the fees in poorer districts. The society starts the new year with a deficit; and it was stated by Mr. Goschen that, unless an additional £500 could be raised, the council would be unable to embark on a fresh session. Such a collapse would be not only a misfortune, but a disgrace to the citizens of London. The influential meeting at the Mansion House two years ago ought to have been a sufficient advertisement of the work and claims of the society, and names like Sir Stafford Northcote, Sir John Lubbock, and the Bishop of Peterborough, might have been expected to carry weight in the City; but, except for a donation of £50 which Lord Rosbery paid in as his forfeit for non-appearance, the meeting did not produce one penny for the coffers of the Society.

THE first examination of the University of London for the Teachers' Diploma, was held on the 6th, 7th, and 8th of this month. There were eight candidates, seven men and one woman. The Diploma differs from that given by the University of Cambridge in two respects. It is only open to Graduates, and Practical Teaching is an integral part of the examination. Each candidate was required to give one or more lessons, and classes for this purpose were arranged at the Cowper Street Middle Class Schools. We publish two of the four papers set, and intend to give the other two in our next number.

DULWICH COLLEGE.—The Council meets to-day to appoint to the Head-mastership. The following six are the selected candidates:—Mr. Colbeck and Mr. Glazebrook (Harrow), Mr. Cotterill (Fettes College), Mr. Courtney (New College, Oxford), Mr. Welldon (King's College, Cambridge), and the Rev. J. M. Marshall (Under-master of Dulwich College). We have reason to believe that the choice virtually lies between the two Harrow candidates and Mr. Marshall.

CAMBRIDGE.—On the 10th inst., the Senate adopted the report of the Fitzwilliam Museum Syndicate, containing a detailed scheme for erecting a new archaeological museum and purchasing materials for study therein at a cost of £10,000. Towards this sum £2,000 have already been voted from the University chest, and it is proposed to draw for the remainder upon the reserve fund of the Fitzwilliam Museum. Professor Colvin has undertaken himself to select the casts of ancient sculpture from Paris, Rome, Athens, and Vienna. Mr. Basil Champneys is the selected architect, and it is expected that the new museum will be in working order by next Michaelmas Term.

A LECTURESHIP of English Literature is to be founded at Trinity College, Cambridge, from the endowment bequeathed by the late Mr. W. G. Clark. We rejoice not only at the recognition of a new study, but at the commemoration of a name justly endeared to old Trinity men. Mr. Clark was an elegant scholar, a genial tutor, and the best of friends. The public avowal of his religious convictions, which severed his connexion with the Church of England and the University, was a shock from which his sensitive temperament never recovered, and a dark shadow fell upon his later years, but the Clark Lectureship will keep green the memory of the most popular Trinity Tutor and Lecturer of the last fifty years.

At the meeting of the Cambridge Antiquarian Society, Feb. 19, Dr. E. K. Bennet exhibited a M.S. commonplace-book of the sixteenth century, the writer of which was Richard Wilton, of Topcroft Hall, who died in or about 1630. It contains minute entries of

the expenses of education both at school and college. The annual costs of education at Wymondham Grammar School, where R. Wilton's three sons were placed for three years, average for board and lodging, £20, for tuition £6, and another £6 for extras; total £32 per annum for the three boys. The cost of education at Cambridge at the same period was about three times as much. If we multiply these sums by four to represent present value, we find that the cost of a boy's education must have more than doubled in the last three hundred years.

Mr. SWINBURNE, in the *Athenæum* of March 10, points out a remarkable literary coincidence. In the *Tragedy of Sir John van Olden Barnavelt*, printed by Mr. A. H. Bullen, and supposed by him to be the work of Fletcher and Massinger, there occur these lines:—

"Read but ore the Stoics
Of men most famed for courage or for counsalle,
And ye shall find that the desire for glory
(That last infirmity of noble minds)
Was the last frailty wise men ere putt of."

Now the *Tragedy* was written somewhere between 1619, the date of Barnavelt's death, and 1622, when it was licensed. *Lycidas* was written in November, 1637. Did Milton borrow from the *Tragedy*? Mr. Swinburne thinks this impossible, and supposes some common Italian original. We fail ourselves to see the impossibility, or, allowing it, the need to look for an Italian origin. Tacitus has—"quando etiam sapientibus cupido gloriae novissima exiit,"—evidently the source of the lines in Barnavelt; and Todd quotes from Milton's friend, Sir H. Wotton, "I will not deny his appetite for glory, which generous minds do ever latest part from." This and other quotations show that the idea had become a commonplace in English literature, and the identity of expression, though strange, is a coincidence that might be paralleled. After all, Milton has not scrupled to borrow half lines, why should he not in one instance have appropriated a whole line, especially when that line is a translation?

ST. PAUL'S SCHOOL.—Following the good example of Merchant Taylors, this school intends publishing its registers. The Rev. R. B. Gardiner has been engaged in the task for several years, but as the regular lists begin only with the year 1748, it is a work of time. Mr. Gardiner will be glad of any information concerning distinguished Paulines of an older generation.

SINCE our last note on Assurances, we have received returns from two offices, both of which deserve the attention of teachers. In the *Scottish Provident Institution*, to secure an annuity of £100 at 50 years of age, the annual payment is £27. 10s. 10d. if commencing at 25; if at 30, it is £39. 11s. 8d. These figures are considerably lower than the corresponding ones of the *Standard Life* and the *Northern*, which we gave in our last number. The second office, the *Church of England Assurance*, has special provisions to meet the needs of teachers. Thus, it offers deferred annuities, by which the assurer can suit the amount of premium to his means, and can increase, diminish, or discontinue the payment at any time. In the last case, the annuity paid is in proportion to the number and amount of premiums paid. Again, in this office a master commencing at 25 years of age with a premium of £36. 11s. 8d. can secure a payment of £1000 at 50 years of age, or in case of death before reaching that age; and in the former case he can, if he chooses, convert the £1000 into an immediate annuity of £74. 11s. 8d. Add to this that there is a special reduction of premium in the case of Schoolmasters and Schoolmistresses, and we doubt whether the Head-masters' Committee will be able to recommend or devise a better means of assurance.

CORRESPONDENCE.

THE SOCIETY OF SCHOOLMASTERS.
To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—It seems a great pity that some one of the many members constituting the Committee of the Society of Schoolmasters, was not prepared to discuss the merits of the present regulations when the Conference was assembled. Any errors I may then have made could have been corrected at once, and a wordy warfare in your columns between Dr. Baker and myself would have been altogether out of place.

I. I explained to Dr. Baker, at the second meeting of the Sub-Committee, that I could not hold myself responsible for the printed Report of what I said at the Conference. The proof was not submitted to me for correction; and in one passage, particularly, the omission of a few words has entirely altered the sense.

II. With regard to the subscriptions, it appears that I assigned the amount contributed in 1874 to the year 1875. The latter date is given on the outside of the Report for the former year on the title-page, and on more than thirty other pages. I submit, then, that the mistake was a very natural one, and that the blame, if blame there be, must rest in some degree on those who put 1875 on the Report for 1874. I might, however, have selected other years equally well to illustrate my argument that the Society is not popular in the profession.

III. I am quite ready to admit that my argument with regard to the decline in the amount of relief granted, loses some of its force under the light of the additional facts brought out by the paper which was circulated at the Conference, some of which are also mentioned by Dr. Baker. I stated that the amount given in relief in 1875 (*i.e.*, 1874) was £460, and in 1881, £437. The inference was surely a fair one, particularly as in 1880 the amount so expended was £377; in 1879, £417; and in 1878, £387. It appears, however, that 1874 was an exceptional year. As I explained at the Conference, and also to Dr. Baker, I selected 1874 because it was the earliest year of which I had a Report. The total amount granted in relief in the years 1872-3-4 was £1,300, in 1879-80-81, £1231, so that here again we have a decrease.

IV. Dr. Baker states that he finds 50 Assistant Masters were subscribing to the Society in 1881, instead of the 12 mentioned by me. After the explanation given to Dr. Baker, to the Sub-Committee, and to the Committee of the Conference, he ought not to have made such a statement without also adding my explanation. I pointed out to him that I was arguing against Rule VI., or rather that part of it which requires an Assistant Master to subscribe not less than 10s. 6d. annually for *ten successive* years in order to become a member, and so acquire some "claim" (Rule I.) upon the Society for relief, but that the amount (10s. 6d.) was omitted from the printed Report.

A closer examination of the Reports brings out the fact that the number of Assistant Masters who subscribed 10s. 6d. per annum was reduced in 1881 to 15, of whom 14 represent only one school. In 1874 the number of Assistant Masters who subscribed 10s. 6d. to its funds was 18. Does not this decline in the number subscribing this sum prove that the Society has very little hold on the class who ought to be interested above all others in its work and progress?

V. With regard to the number of Assistant Masters who are on the Committee, I find, in the Report dated 1882, the names of three Assistant Masters, and not two as I stated at the Conference. I ought, moreover, to have noticed that the Auditors are also members of the Committee. As a matter of fact, at the time when the Conference met, the number of Assistant Masters on the Committee was four, including the two Auditors.

VI. To turn from these details to the general question. Can the Society of Schoolmasters be made more popular and useful? I would urge the following considerations:—Admitting, for the sake of argument, that the Society has been a purely charitable Society, let me ask, Cannot its area of usefulness be enlarged? Almost all institutions of a purely charitable character are suffering from want of funds; the tendency of the day is rather to encourage thrift and self-support, and this tendency I take to be a good one. Encourage masters to ensure their lives against death, accident, decay, or disease; offer them, if you can, exceptional advantages in this respect, and you at once attract a large class, who at present are altogether outside the Society. For years I have endeavoured to induce my colleagues to subscribe to the Society, but almost always in vain. There is nothing to attract them—no insurance, no annuities, nothing (according to the view of some) to "entitle" them to claim relief in case they should require it,—and from charity pure and simple they naturally shrink. A Schoolmasters' Benevolent Society should, as far as possible, help those who help themselves, and encourage thrift by assisting the thrifty. Many Head-masters think such a Society should be "pure benevolence" or "pure business," but this view seems to me to be a mistaken one. Let me take an example from my own neighbourhood. Ten years ago, the lower orders, as a rule, resorted in illness to an infirmary supported simply by charity, or else to the doctor paid by the parish. Now a Provident Dispensary is in full and most useful operation; almost all the poor subscribe to it, the upper classes also contribute a sufficient sum to meet any small deficit there may be, and thus assist those who assist themselves. Is not this infinitely better than a purely charitable system? And, if so, why should not a similar plan be adopted in the scholastic profession? The richer members would gladly help those who have done their best to help themselves; the poorer members

would not feel that sense of degradation that is so often connected with the receipt of charitable relief.

In conclusion, I would entreat the members of the Committee of the Society of Schoolmasters, not to let slip a golden opportunity of forming a thoroughly good Schoolmasters' Benevolent Fund, worthy of the very useful work already done by their Society, worthy too of the greater future that lies before the scholastic profession. I venture also especially to commend to their notice the diversified and remarkable work done by the Railway Benevolent Institution as recorded in their Report, a copy of which could probably be obtained on the receipt of a small payment from Mr. W. F. Mills, 57 Drummond Street, Euston Square, N.W.

King Edward VIth School,

Berkhamsted, Herts.

March 10th, 1883.

Yours truly,

E. BARTRUM.

REVIEWS AND MINOR NOTICES.

Myths of Hellas. Translated from the German of Professor C. Witt by FRANCES YOUNGHUSBAND. (Longman, Green, and Co. 1883.)

Lemprière is no more—Peace be to his ashes. He died in a good old age, having done his work, no doubt, and fulfilled that for which he was sent.

His work was no small one. To many generations of school-boys, more particularly of public schoolboys, he was the chief source of a wonderful knowledge of all subjects relating to the mythology of Greece and Rome—a knowledge more wonderful, indeed, for its extent than for its accuracy, but even in accuracy unsurpassed but by their knowledge of "As in presenti" or "Propria quæ maribus."

Purists may tell us that his influence was not wholly good—be it so. He, at all events, made familiar to boys who had been brought up on him hundreds of facts which, but a few years ago, were supposed to be familiar to all educated men, to be their common property, and the most distant allusions to which raised inevitably a host of familiar thoughts and associations in the mind of all who had received a liberal education.

No doubt, this feeling of common property was, in a great measure, owing to Lemprière himself. The assumption that all educated men would at once catch the allusion was owing to the fact that all educated men, with very few exceptions, were educated on the Greek and Latin classics, to a familiarity with which they were, without question, helped by a previous or collateral acquaintance with the Myths or Legendary Histories, which form the background or foundations of the great literatures of antiquity; for it was, even in those days, impossible to any schoolboy, even to the most earnest, to pick up more than disjointed fragments of the great Myths to which allusion is constantly made in Greek and Latin literature from the books which he was reading—time was too short, and the labour was too great.

Cultivated, then, to a marvellous extent, in all the outward forms of literary expression, capable of rendering into any form of Lyric verse required of him—let alone the Latin prose or Elegiacs, and the Greek Iambics to which he attained—any English poem by any English writer, the more intelligent boy, not content with the mere outside of his books, had recourse to his Lemprière, and, having once tasted, returned again and again.

For in that book was a store of poetry—hidden, it may be, under a rough outer crust—and of morality, the schoolboy's morality of the victory of the right and the punishment of the wrong.

But all this is changed. "As in presenti" and "Propria quæ maribus" mean nothing to boys of the present day—sad truth to many middle-aged fathers! The Public School Primer is responsible for this, as probably is Smith's Smaller Classical Dictionary largely responsible for the disappearance of Lemprière. But there are other causes at work, at which all must rejoice. A liberal education now no longer means a

"classical" education exclusively, for Physical Science has asserted its rights successfully, and it is recognised, on all hands, that there are other literatures besides the Greek and Roman.

And so it has come to pass that boys spend less time—Heaven be praised!—at Sapphies or Iambies, and less time at the Classics, while many leave Public Schools from the Sixth Form who do not even know the Greek alphabet.

Yet, it is not all pure gain. The change has taken place so rapidly—showing, indeed, it is true, how sorely it was needed—that it is quite as much a break as a transition. The result has been, that much has been lost to the educational power of our own and of foreign literatures. No one can deny this; it is unnecessary to bring examples forward to prove it. Who can so much enjoy and appreciate our own poets, from Chaucer to Tennyson, as the man trained in the literature of antiquity? It is true that a man, knowing no language than his own, may love and value, to an unspeakable extent, the literature of his own language; but no literature stands by itself, and the pleasure and profit derived from reading any literary work are inversely proportionate to the labour bestowed on the merely mechanical task of learning the alphabet and vocabulary of the language in which it is written. To take an illustration from a totally different subject. How many people are repelled from Botany by the enormous number of technical terms unfortunately introduced into most text-books of the science? And why is it that Geology is a so much more popular science than Botany? Not because—by a long way—it is simpler and more intelligible, or more interesting in itself, but because the terms used by Geologists are so much simpler than those used by Botanists.

And if there is one part of ancient lore which more than another may be called the Alphabet and Vocabulary of Poetical Allusions, it is surely the great Myths of Greece. Keats himself is our witness—a witness of far more than this indeed—for he, a man who knew no Greek, yet knowing his Lemprière, wrote *Hyperion* and *Endymion*.

And what Lemprière was to the older generations of school-boys, we may hope that Miss Younghusband's translation of Witt's "Myths from Hellas" will be to those who are to come. We have no book which can compare with it in its uncompromising straightforward way of telling its stories, in its simplicity of plan, and in richness of detail. The familiarity of the author with all the minute points of old Greek life reveals itself on every page, and adds a wonderful sense of reality to those stories; nor is the sympathy, which belongs to no time or place, with all forms of joy or sorrow less remarkably displayed. The carefully compiled index, and the exhaustive accuracy of the book, place it far in front of any of the other books mentioned in the preface by Mr. Arthur Sidgwick, even if we consider it merely as a book of reference.

There is, no doubt, a higher and far more important point of view from which this book ought to be considered,—one which, however, it is impossible here to discuss fully, namely, the moral effect on a boy of familiarity with the Greek myths.

Happily, there are now very few who deny their elevating tendency, or who will be disposed to quarrel with them—at all events as presented in this book—on moral grounds. Indeed, most people who have any knowledge of the very gradual way in which young people grow into moral beings, will value very highly anything which helps to form, or strengthen even, the most rudimentary desire for the victory of the right and the punishment of the wrong. It is true that the moral in these tales is not "very explicit or obtrusive," as Mr. Sidgwick, in his preface, phrases it; but it is not hard to find, and can scarcely be missed, though the flavour is not strong.

But it is by no means sure that a little stronger flavour would not have added to the delight with which the book will certainly be received by the young people to whom it is dedicated.

It is, indeed, to older readers somewhat insipid; and, reading it alongside of Cox's *Tales of Greece*, one cannot but miss the high poetical level to which, in the last-mentioned book, the whole series is kept up by the often unseen, but ever felt, presence of the relentless Ate.

Northern tales, above all others incontestably rich in imagination, may dispense with this moral thread, and suffer little in consequence; but, if we attempt to draw it out of the Greek web, it at once loses much of its beauty and unity, and is in danger of falling to pieces.

The whole book suffers greatly from this defect, and the result is that we have a book of prose just as emphatically as in Cox we have a book of poetry. Compare, for instance, the two descriptions of the Last Days of Oedipus, or of the Death of Herakles, and the difference will be seen at once. This feeling of prose and poetry penetrates even into the language. The prose of Miss Younghusband's translation, unfortunately, sometimes degenerates into a style which is less than literary.

Mr. Sidgwick expresses a hope that this book may confer, in a humbler way, a benefit something like that which Pope's "Homer" has given to so many generations of school-boys. It will not be their Pope's "Homer," it will be their Lemprière; and its chances of attaining to so honourable a place are greatly increased by its excellent index, and by the sense of the translator, who has, in nearly all cases, retained those originally Latin forms of the Greek proper names which are now the English form, and for this we cannot thank her too much.

Stories from English History for Standard III. History of England. Part I., for Standard IV. The British School Series. By A. H. DICK. Edited by THOMAS MORRISON, D.D., Rector, Free Church-Training College, Glasgow. With Maps and Illustrations (London and Edinburgh: Gall & Inglis.)

The first of these books tells the story of English History, from the days before the Romans, to the completion of the Norman Conquest, and it tells it very well. The narrative is pleasant and easy; the language is simple and good; there is plenty of the detail that helps children (and not children only, as is too often forgotten by the champions of the broad and philosophical methods in History) to realise and remember what they read about. It is only to be regretted that the book has not been made to cover, however incompletely, the whole ground between the days of the Britons and our own day. This can be done within the allotted space, and that without sacrificing any of the points we have just insisted upon. It is not necessary to tell everything that happened; all that is wanted is such a selection of events and characters for treatment, as will give a child an idea (in the course of its first year of reading History) of the connection between the beginning and the end. If this is not acquired at the outset, it is very often never acquired at all, and the child may spend years in the study of periods, without having a notion of the relation of any one period to the whole. The second book, for Standard IV., which begins again with the Britons, and carries the story down to the death of Edward II., is even better than the first. Its explanations of constitutional arrangements are good in themselves, and they are well introduced into the narrative. The book is well written, and is altogether calculated to interest children, and to teach them a good deal of English, as well as History.

Belt and Spurs. Stories of the Knights of the Middle Ages, from the Chronicles. With Sixteen Illuminations. (London: Seeley, Jackson, & Halliday. 1882.)

We have so much sympathy with the general idea of borrowing stories from the old chroniclers, that we should like to be able to praise this book more than we feel justified in doing. The style is monotonous; it is the style of the chroniclers, with the freshness of spontaneity taken away; and the stories want point in themselves, and connection one with another. For example, the first chapter tells about the landing of William the Conqueror, and the second about the Battle of the Standard, and no account is given of the time between. We leave Duke William picking himself up from his stumble on the Sussex coast, and find King Stephen making ready to fight the Scots. If a real story, with a beginning and a middle and an end, were made out of either situation, we would not complain of the gap. But there is no story, only some pages of picturesque detail, illustrating an historical event. As an accompaniment to a continuous narrative of English history, the book will be useful in the hands of teachers endowed with tact. But, before it can stand alone, it must be enriched with some pages of connective information. A brief argument, in a crisp style, might also with advantage be prefixed to each story. The illuminations, taken from MSS. in the British Museum, are good, and the volume is very prettily "got up."

Milton's Tractate on Education. Edited by OSCAR BROWNING. (Cambridge University Press. 1883. Price 2s.)

A separate reprint of Milton's famous letter to Master Samuel Hartlib was a desideratum, and we are grateful to Mr. Browning for his elegant and scholarly edition, to which is prefixed the careful *résumé* of the work given in his "History of Educational Theories." The preface gives a delightful Eton anecdote of five-and-twenty years ago: "I had opened negotiations with the school bookseller for executing a reprint which I intended to scatter broadcast in pamphlet form through the public schools of England. My theories received a rude shock. One of the senior masters set Milton as a subject for a Latin theme to his division, and told his boys that they were to prove that Milton, like Burke, went mad in his old age. I had never heard of this idea before, and I asked the master on what grounds it rested. He replied, 'Did he not write a crack-brained book about education in his old age?' Milton was by no means in his old age when he wrote the Tractate, but that did not matter. I concluded that my scheme was useless, and gave it up."

Three Lectures on Subjects connected with the Practice of Education. (Cambridge University Press. 1883. Price 2s.)

The first and third of these Lectures by Mr. Eve and Dr. Abbott, are reprinted from the *Journal of Education*; but we recommend our readers to purchase the volume, if only for the sake of the remaining essay by Mr. Arthur Sidgwick, "On Stimulus." Like one of Bacon's Essays, it handles those things in which the writer's life is most conversant, and it will come home to men's business and bosoms. Like Bacon's Essays, too, it is full of apophthegms:—"The teacher should always remember, that it is his business, not to make boys attend when they are bored, but to make them attend by not boring them." "Boys think satire unfair, and they are right. I knew a boy who said to a master in a moment of intimacy, 'Oh, Sir, I'll tell you a story which will amuse you, as you are so fond of bullying.' It is difficult to imagine a bitterer thing, said by an unconscious boy to an earnest master, as he was, and I know that the man felt it deeply." "An unprepared lesson is a dull lesson; it is teaching at half-steam power." These may serve for specimens, and the whole essay is full of like wit and wisdom.

New Light Through Old Windows: a Series of Stories illustrating Fables of Æsop. By GREGSON GOW. (London: Blackie & Son. 1883.)

This book deserves great praise. Eight stories, illustrating eight fables of Æsop, are told in terse and homely English; and, though the stories are obviously constructed to serve the morals, they are never sacrificed to them. The fault lies indeed in the other direction; in two or three cases, the illustration does not quite cover Æsop's point. The stories are laid in many scenes. "The Cock and the Jewel" carries us to the South Coast of Australia; "The Wolf and the Crane" is an adventure among the mountains of Spain; "The man who could jump at Rhodes" is a rhodomontade of African travel. Other stories are set in surroundings of English and Scotch domestic life. In every case, the text of the fable is given as a heading to the story, and every opportunity that offers of communicating ideas of the scenery, vegetation, or animals of foreign countries, is made the most of, but always in a natural and easy way. The characters in the stories have much more individuality than is usual in works of this class, and a crowning merit of the little volume is derived from the presence of an unobtrusive, but very genuine flavour of humour.

The Globe Readers. Illustrated. Compiled and edited by ALEXANDER F. MURISON, M.A., Author of "First Work in English," &c. (London: Macmillan & Co. 1882.)

The Globe Readers are constructed upon the usual plan of such books, but they are considerably above the average in the quality of their contents. The language of the selected pieces is almost always excellent; the type and paper are particularly pleasant, and the illustrations are very good and well chosen. The two little Primers which make the first and second part of the series deserve especial praise for the variety of strong useful monosyllables they introduce to the learner at the outset. Much ingenuity has been well spent both in collecting these elementary words, and in working them up into stories. Here, too, the square and very black type is to be commended. A feature of these books that we do not like, is the system of marking pronunciation, adapted, as the prefaces explain, from Professor Bain's Higher English Grammar. Pronunciation of the mother tongue can only be learned by ear; and so, by all means, let us endeavour to procure teachers for elementary schools who can pronounce their language properly; but, in the meanwhile, let us not increasingly confuse the tongues of those who already halt a little, by such odd suggestions as *fierce* (*fîrs*), *staunch* (*stönch*), *wrought* (*rôt*).

Goethe's Select Poems. Edited by E. A. SONNENSCHNEIN and A. POGATSCHER. (W. S. Sonnenschein & Co. 1883.)

We can praise this little book without reserve. The selection is good and the notes excellent. The short life of Goethe in German, written expressly to illustrate the poems, is a happy thought. We miss, indeed, some of Goethe's choicest lyrics—"Nahe des Geliebten," "Mailed," "Nachtgesang,"—but doubtless the editors thought it advisable to restrict the number of love lyrics; but they might, we think, without any impropriety, have admitted "Alexis und Dora," which holds the quintessence of Greek poetry and Greek art. The few poetical renderings in the notes are, as far as we have noticed, taken exclusively from Martin, a popular but unscholarly translator.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

EXAMINATION IN THE ART, THEORY, AND HISTORY OF TEACHING: 1883.

Tuesday, March 6.—Afternoon, 3 to 6.

METHODS OF TEACHING AND SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

Examiners.—REV. T. W. SHARPE, M.A.; FRANCIS STORR, Esq., B.A.

[It is recommended that half-an-hour be devoted to the last question.]

1. A schoolroom has to be planned for 200 scholars between the ages of 9 and 16; describe such a building, with a particular description of a properly fitted class-room for a class of 40 scholars.

2. Schoolrooms are commonly ventilated by open windows or other apertures near the ceiling of a room; according to Tobiu's method, a supply of fresh air is admitted through apertures near the ground; under what conditions is either system consistent with true theories of ventilation?

3. Name the principal articles of a set of apparatus suitable for teaching some science with which you are acquainted, and give examples of two or three subjects which would require the use of one or more of the articles you have named for experimental illustration.

4. Explain, physiologically, the evil arising from ill-lighted rooms; distinguishing the bad results from excess, or deficiency, or faulty incidence of light.

5. What use would you make of the black-board in a first lesson (1) on Fractions; (2) on the Analysis of Sentences?

6. Sketch a Time-table for a middle-class day school of 200 scholars; ages 10 to 16; staff, a head-teacher and 5 assistants.

7. Discuss the following apportionment of 24 hours weekly, devoted as follows — to Latin 6; English 6; Mathematics 4; Science 4; Drawing 2; Singing 2—in the upper classes of a large school.

8. Discuss the appropriateness of the following scheme of Science-teaching for a school of 300 scholars between the ages of 10 and 18:—the elements of Physical Geography to a large lower division; the principal laws of Elementary Physics to the middle division; and Chemistry to a select class of older scholars.

9. What are the advantages and disadvantages of Place-taking? What practical corollary should you draw as to the limits within which it should be used?

10. What is meant by the Socratic method of teaching? How would you apply it in teaching (1) the meaning of an abstract word such as "Constitutional"; (2) the rule for Compound Addition? What points should a teacher bear in mind in framing questions?

11. In writing or supervising the terminal reports or characters of pupils, what are the chief considerations that should guide a Head-master?

12. Show how school punishment differs in principle from legal punishment. Is it possible, in inflicting punishment, to distinguish between moral offences and breaches of school discipline?

Wednesday, March 7.—Morning, 10 to 1.

HISTORY OF EDUCATION.

1. Give illustrations showing the relation of Locke's "Shorter Treatise" on the "Conduct of the Understanding" to the larger Essay.

2. Explain fully Locke's views of the study of Mathematics, as a valuable training in the art of reasoning.
3. Locke says:—"Facts are of three sorts," and "in that three consists, as it seems to me, that which commonly has the name of learning." Enumerate these three classes, and explain the distinction drawn by him between study and knowledge.
4. Illustrate, from your own experience, Locke's directions as to a gradual proceeding in developing the exercise of the mental faculties.
5. Write out Locke's definition of "distinction" and "division" as applied to individual objects or classes of objects; and illustrate the confusion arising from equivocal division.
6. Explain Locke's phrase, "The undesigned sophistry which creeps into most of the books of argument," and state how he suggests that the reader may guard himself against the evil influence of such sophistry.
7. Show the force of Locke's denial of the statement, "Nothing is so free as thought," and give some of his suggestions as to the acquisition of free power of thought.
8. Show how the higher schools of Germany have a better claim to the title of Public Schools than those that bear the name in England, in respect of (1) the curriculum; (2) the status of masters; (3) the regulations for the supervision by external authorities.
9. Define the terms—Probeyahr, Unbedingte Facultät, Simultananstalten, Freistellen, Studentag, Privatdozent, Staatsprüfung.
10. Enumerate, without discussing, the reforms in our National System of Education suggested by Mr. Arnold.
11. Point out any corrections or modifications of Mr. Arnold's statements that are required in order to bring the account of German education down to the present time.
12. What was new in Ascham's method of teaching Latin? What parts of his system have found their way into modern class-books? Quote three of Ascham's directions or precepts that in your opinion are specially instructive to the modern schoolmaster.
13. Enumerate the six branches into which Ascham divides the study of a foreign language, and the authors that he recommends as text-books.

OXFORD LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.
TEST PAPERS.

I. LAZARE HOCHÉ, CH. IV.—VI.
(PITT PRESS EDITION.)

Translate:—

1. Ch. iv., p. 22: C'est ainsi que ... tyrans.
2. Ch. iv., p. 27: Il en est peu ... température.
3. Ch. v., p. 29: La popularité de Hoche ... ni sa constance.
4. Ch. vi., p. 36: Il cherchait ... commune misère.
5. Ch. vi., p. 37: Dans le mémoire qu'il rédigeait ... fait trembler.
6. Ch. vi., p. 39: De quelle stupéfaction ... ses oreilles et son cœur.

HINTS FOR ANSWERS.

1. *C'est ainsi que Hoche écrit*—"Hoche wrote in the following terms." *Si j'en crois*—"If I may trust." *Qu'il batte*—"Let them call out their last reserves."
2. *Il en est peu = Il y en a peu. Reposés par un sommeil, &c.*—"After a night's repose, which is sure to act as an opiate on enthusiasm."
3. *Avant de l'abattre, &c.*—"Before overthrowing him, they heaped on him mortifications; yet they failed to shake either his loyalty or his constancy."
4. *Il cherchait à la Conciergerie, &c.*—"In the Conciergerie he endeavoured to allay his griefs, and to forget his personal injuries, in the society of a choice few, and in communion with men and women distinguished in various ways."
5. *Hoche descend au fond de sa conscience*—"Hoche lays bare the innermost workings of his conscience." *Quoi qu'il n'en puisse coûter*—"At any cost." *N'a point envie d'entreprendre*—"Feels no desire for active operations." *En présence de l'occasion, &c.*—"When face to face with an opportunity not to be lost, I have never recoiled from acting upon my own responsibility."
6. *Douleur indignée*—"Grief and indignation." *Ferait école*—"Would find followers." *Ramassait ses dernières forces*—"Gathered up her ebbing powers." *Eût versé d'interissables larmes*—"Would have shed floods of tears."

II. GRAMMAR.

1. Give the future tense, first person singular, of the verbs *envoyer, mourir, faire, revoir, prévoir, and pouvoir*.
2. Give the two participles, and their meaning, of *bénir, résoudre, and absoudre*.
3. Give the infinitives, and meanings, of *je repars, je répare, and je répartis*.
4. Distinguish between *un vrai conte* and *un conte vrai; un maigre dîner* and *un dîner maigre; une fausse clef* and *une clef fausse*. State the principle underlying these and similar distinctions.
5. Explain the agreement of the past participle in *Les pommes que j'ai vues mûrir*, and its non-agreement in *Les pommes que j'ai vu manger*.
6. Distinguish between *avant, devant, and auparavant*, and give one example of the use of each.
7. Which is the only French preposition requiring a present participle after it? What construction is used after all other prepositions?
8. What is the difference between *plaindre* and *se plaindre, attendre* and *s'attendre, défer* and *se défer*? and place the proper prepositions after the pronominal forms.
9. Give the verbs which require the subjunctive with *ne*.
10. Translate:—*Il recommence de plus belle. C'est un gros bonnet. C'est bonnet blanc and blanc bonnet. Battre la campagne. Je n'en fais aucun cas. De qui tenez-vous cela? J'y tiens beaucoup.*

VIRGIL, ÆNEID XI., 1—445.

Translate:—

1. Ll. 59—71. Explain mood of *tolli, comitentur*; the construction of *solacia, florem*; and the meanings of *défevit, honorem, toros, obtentu*.
2. Ll. 112—118. Explain mood and tense of *veni*, form of *venit*.
3. Ll. 152—163. Give the alternative renderings of the second line.
4. Ll. 266—270. Explain the allusion, the force of *subsedit*, and the construction of *ut viderem*.
5. Ll. 399—407. Distinguish *cesso* and "cease," *crimen* and "crime." Explain the genitive *artificis*.

NOTES FOR ANSWERS.

See "Books xi., xii." in Rivington's Edition.

1. *Comitentur* after *rel.* in final clause; *tolli* poetical license, in prose *ut tollant*. *Solacia* is either *nom.* or *accus.*, either in appos. to last clause, *ut intersint, ÷res solacia, or* to the general notion of principal sentence. *Florem* after *alut*, in l. 71.
2. See Rivington's edition, *huic morti*, "the fate your countrymen have met."
3. *Primitiæ*, "O valour blighted in the bud, O grievous prelude to the war that is closing on us." *Vici*, "have outlived."
4. The adulterer Ægistheus lay in wait for conquered Asia, *i.e.*, the conqueror of Asia, Agamemnon. *Ut viderem, Petitio obliqua*, object of *invidisse*.
5. *Cesso*, to be idle, never = *sisto*, to cease. *Crimen*, "charge," only in late Latin = *scelus*, crime; here "he aggravated his scandals by feigning fear of me." *Artificis* appositional genitive; *cf.* "that rogue of a boy," *ce greûin de cocher*.

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OXFORD LOCAL EXAMINATIONS. (LONDON CENTRE.)

FORMS of application for Candidates desirous of being examined at the London Centre will be ready early in March, and may be obtained until Saturday, 7th of April.

The forms are distinct for Senior and Junior Candidates; they must be returned duly filled up by Saturday, April 14th.

The Examinations will commence on Monday, June 4th.

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TECHNOLOGICAL EXAMINATIONS, 1883.

Examinations in Technology will take place at the different provincial centres throughout the kingdom on Wednesday evening, May 30th, 1883, at 7 o'clock.

Secretaries are informed that the latest date for sending in returns of Candidates who wish to be examined in May next is Saturday, April 28th, after which date no application can possibly be received.

Individual candidates who are unable to arrange to be examined at a provincial science centre can, on application to the Director and Secretary, be examined in London at the Finsbury Technical College, Tabernacle Row, E.C.

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96 FARRINGTON STREET, LONDON, E.C.

OCCASIONAL NOTES.

Two circulars have been issued by the Committee of the Head-masters' Conference, one to collect opinion on the use of Unseen Translations in Public Examinations of boys and girls, the other announcing the Scholarships to be awarded to boys distinguished in the Local Examinations. Seventeen schools in all have offered Scholarships, and the list includes all the great Public Schools, with the notable exceptions of Eton, Harrow, and Rugby. The Scholarships generally are awarded for two years (renewable if conduct and progress are satisfactory), and are of such a value as to reduce the total school expenses to about £25 a-year. This is the best stroke of work that the Head-masters' Conference has yet done.

THE University of Oxford, in the matter of Local Examinations, of University Extension, and generally of Educational Reforms, has allowed the sister University to take the lead; but, for once, Cambridge will have to follow in the wake of Oxford. A lady has been appointed Examiner for the Taylorian Scholarship of next year. The number of Spanish scholars in England is limited, and it would be difficult to find a man who knows the language and literature so thoroughly as Mrs. Humphry Ward. In another branch of teaching, we hear that women's claims are at last being considered. The Education Department is at present considering the appointment of women Inspectors in Needlework. Some of H.M. Inspectors have been bold enough to confess that they are not omniscient, and to suggest that women may be found more competent to apprise hemming and herring-boning.

THE distribution of prizes by the Princess of Wales to the girls of the Public Day School Company, on March 16th, was a pretty sight. The Royal Albert Hall was filled to the ceiling; the prize-winners occupied the parterre, the singers and other pupils were ranged on either side and below the organ, and with their white fichus and bright badges produced a quaint and pleasant effect. The songs went excellently under Mr. Farmer's admirable conducting, and the speeches had the great merit of brevity. The girls had been well drilled in their parts, and the long distribution of prizes, so graciously undertaken by the Princess, proceeded without a hitch. No movement in our time has been so complete a success, and no words could speak so eloquently as the figures quoted by the Prince of Wales. In ten years' time, the Company has opened 27 new schools (ten of them within the postal district), and the total number of pupils is now more than short of 5,000.

THE election of Mr. Welldon to the Head-mastership of Dulwich College was a surprise to us; yet we should hesitate to say that the Governors have not made a fit choice. It was no easy task to decide between so many good candidates, and, in some respects, Mr. Welldon was undoubtedly the most distinguished. A brilliant Senior Classic, he has gained, what is far more important in a master, a reputation for wide knowledge, sound judgment, and weight of character. His one disqualification, which seemed to us fatal—total want of experience—is, unfortunately, hardly considered a drawback by the English public. The Head-masters of Eton, Harrow, and Wellington College, for instance, had none of them served an apprenticeship. One, at least, of these instances may seem to make against our arguments; but those Head-masters who have so succeeded would allow that their success has been dearly purchased. One of them, at least, has echoed Mr. Wickens' confession—"We learn our business by ruining the orphan and the widow." It is possible that Lord Russell might have distinguished himself as Admiral of the Channel Fleet, if he had managed to escape a court-martial for the first six months, and over shipwrecked talents and poisoned characters there are no inquests or court-martials.

REJECTED candidates are usually ignored, like Beau Brummel's failures, but we may be allowed to cast one lingering look behind. The Head-masters, Mr. Kynaston and Mr. Stevenson, were not in the running. It was, doubtless, felt that the post required new blood and fresh energy. Mr. Marshall was strongly supported by the local Governors; but his age, and the well-founded prejudice against appointing one of the Assistant-masters, turned the scale against him. Yet his past services to the College would have fully justified an exception in his favour, and if the election had lain with old Dulwich men he would certainly have been elected. He has borne himself with wisdom and moderation in the most trying cir-

cumstances in which a man can be placed, and has won the respect and esteem of many generations of pupils. One other candidate invites a remark. Mr. Colbeck sent in only four testimonials, from men who were the most intimately acquainted with his work. In the interest, both of writers and readers, we hope that his example will be followed, although, in this case, it has not met with success.

"MUCH has been said on the subject of Newspaper Education," so we are told by our youngest contemporary, the advertising organ of Messrs. Bisson & Co. The reference is not, as might be supposed, to the general influence of newspapers, but to the use of extracts from newspapers as reading books in Elementary Schools. There is much to recommend this plan, and we have ourselves pointed out some of its advantages; but the strongest argument against it is unconsciously supplied by the *Scholastic Gazette*. "If the glowing articles, which adorn the columns of the *Times* and other leading journals, were the only things read; then, indeed, could we wish nothing better than such a course of mental training for the youthful mind as a systematic study of those *chef d'œuvres* (sic) of literary work." A systematic study of *Times* leaders (Heaven save the mark!) could result in nothing but idiocy or suicide. The *Scholastic Gazette* recalls the opinion that we once heard expressed by an Arcadian friend of ours: "You may dislike," he said, "the politics of the *Daily Telegraph*, but you must allow that in literary style it is unapproachable."

THE same journal contains some equally intelligent remarks on the Training of Teachers. Mr. James Sully, as our readers were informed in our advertisement columns, has been delivering, before the College of Preceptors, a course of lectures on Mental Science. The audience, we regret to learn, was composed of about a dozen, mostly women. (The same course at Birmingham is attracting an audience of 250, which shows that the paucity of hearers is not the lecturer's fault.) These are the facts, now for the fiction. Mr. Sully is giving "a course of lectures on the Science, Art, and History of Education," "an important and interesting, though abstruse subject," and one that requires "much psychological observation to render it at all appreciable to an ordinary audience." But Mr. Sully's is not an ordinary audience. It consists of "men and women who are devoted, heart and soul, to the cause of Education, and who will be likely to catch the ideas thrown out in these lectures as something of more than ordinary value to them in their exalted vocation." Why do we waste powder and shot on such snags? It is because this ignorant tall talk does infinite harm to the cause we have at heart, and furnishes the enemies of Training with weapons that they are not slow to use.

THE following complaint reaches us from Oxford:—"I

wish to call your attention to the latest instance of the lengths to which the tutors up here, in other respects presumably reasonable men, are led by the rivalry between the different Colleges. A friend of mine, a Scholar of his College, obtained recently a First Class in Mathematical Moderations, after a year-and-a-half's residence at the University. He then wished to take up Classics for his Final School. He intends to read for the Bar, and so he naturally wishes to obtain as broad an education, and as wide a development of his powers, as possible. Inasmuch, too, as he was considered a very fair classical scholar at school, and as he had two-and-a-half years to read for his school, instead of the ordinary two years, the request seemed reasonable enough. As soon, however, as he mentioned the subject to his college tutor, he was met by a refusal to allow him to read anything but Mathematics. 'You are perfectly certain to obtain a First Class in the Mathematical Final School, whereas it is by no means as certain that you will get more than a Second Class in the Final Classical Schools. You are a Scholar of the College, and the College has therefore the right to insist that you shall take up that school in which you will get the best class and do the College the most credit.' When my friend still insisted on his wish to read Classics, he was met by a threat to take away his scholarship. I leave these facts to speak for themselves."

THERE was a lively debate last month, at the Somerville Club, on the subject of corporal punishment in schools. A motion was carried by a large majority, that no change in law or custom is at present called for, and many of the speakers spoke strongly of its virtues in the cases of infants and young boys. The most remarkable speech of the evening was that of a London School Board mistress. In opposition to a previous speaker, she insisted on the difference of treatment required in the case of children of the lowest class. Persuasion and softness at first were thrown away on them; "reason with them and they will laugh in your face, or, more probably, turn a somersault before your eyes. It must be a blow first and then words." Her two bugbears were Miss Helen Taylor and the *Daily Telegraph*; but, in spite of them and the risk of appearing in the police-court, she meant to maintain corporal punishment, without which the school would be a bear-garden.

THIS lady's case is, doubtless, an exceptional one, and her views are expressed in a trenchant manner; yet, to some extent, they command our sympathy. Flogging, as Canon Farrar tells us, is almost obsolete in Public Schools, and we wish it were wholly abolished. The effect it produced on the author of "Seven Years at Eton," is instructive. Of the first flogging he witnessed, he says,—"I turned almost faint. I felt as I have never felt but once since, and that was when seeing a man hanged." But when his turn came to be flogged himself for a purely technical

offence—not “shirking” a master met out of bounds—“I rose from my knees completely hardened as to any sense of shame, either in the punishment I had undergone, or in the others of the same kind which I might have to suffer thereafter.” But in the case of Board Schools, with children of lower age, and a lower type, and over whom no control can be exercised out of school hours, we doubt whether the cane can be dispensed with.

LOOKING OVER *Vauvenargue's* Maxims to set for the translation prize, we lit on the following:—“Il ne faut point juger des hommes par ee qu'ils ignorent, mais par ee qu'ils savent, et par la manière dont ils le savent.” Substitute boys for men, and we have a golden rule for examiners.

MR. BRYCE, in discussing in the *Fortnightly* the changes lately made by the University Commissioners, says that, while some new Professorships have been created, some others increased in stipend, the tenure of Fellowships shortened, the restriction of celibacy withdrawn, and both Headships and Fellowships, with some trifling exceptions, thrown open to laymen, the Commissioners have introduced a cast-iron system in place of one that was fairly flexible; and by the minute and highly complicated Constitution given to each College, have made the establishment of cooperation and combination between different Colleges, and between the Colleges and the University, less attainable than ever. The Cambridge system, he thinks, leaves more freedom and more room for growth than the Oxford, but is still behind the needs of the time in giving preference in election to Fellowships to members of the College, bestowing them instead of throwing them open to all the members of the University. How to make the Universities, with their immense wealth and unequalled authority, serviceable to the whole nation, instead of only to the upper classes, and how to give in abundance the highest teaching through the ablest teachers on all subjects, says Mr. Bryce, are problems still unsolved by either University.

MR. BRYCE suggests that the Colleges should be subordinate to the University throughout, that their educational functions should be restricted to the giving of private and personal help and advice to their junior members, and that they should largely increase their contributions to the University Funds. The teaching of the University, he thinks, should be in the hands of the University, not the Colleges. Lecturers and lectures should be given in every department of human knowledge, especially in professional subjects, Law, Medicine, Engineering, &c., while, to attract students who do not intend to take a degree course, but only to pursue some one subject or group of subjects, they should be allowed to come up at sixteen or seventeen. Of the first half of Mr. Bryce's suggestions we heartily approve, but these latter reforms seem to us dangerous. A University is neither a *universitas studiorum*, a Polytechnic, nor an *école supérieure*, as in Scotland.

A FAMOUS barring-out at the historic Lyceé of Louis le Grand, recalls scenes of fifty years ago in English Public Schools, the memories of which are preserved in Miss Edgeworth's, Canon Farrar's, and Ascot Hope's novels. The immediate occasion was the expulsion of a pupil who had taken part in the Louise Michel demonstration; but the smouldering mutiny was fanned into a blaze by an unpopular *pion*, who tried to disperse a meeting of the young republicans, and was looted. On the Head-master's interfering, the whole school betook themselves to the dormitories, barricaded themselves in, and proceeded to smash the windows and crockery. But a pinch of dust, in the shape of a few gendarmes, soon stilled these angry buzzings; the dormitories were cleared, and the whole College “sent down.” We fear that the usher system is too deeply-rooted in French schools for the authorities to draw the obvious moral that the tale points.

WE promised our readers that we would select some advertisements that might serve as “Pictures for Posterity.” But, not having the imaginative powers of our friend *Punch*, we confine ourselves to actual advertisements, given without alteration or omission. The following are from the *Guardian* of 21st Feb. :—

TWO PARENTS of GOOD POSITION.—Principal of first-rate Preparatory School (Graduate in Orders, high honours), now in healthy and popular S.E. county, but removing to fine sea-side premises, will fill TWO VACANCIES at half charges (usual fees 80 to 100 guineas). Very favourable terms made with parents who will help to enlarge a growing aristocratic connection.

LADY-HELP WANTED, immediately, as a NURSE to five children—two girls, aged one and three years, and three older boys, partly in schoolroom. Charge of two rooms, including fires. Church of England. Must be experienced, fond of children, methodical, and an early riser; good needlewoman. Salary £15 and laundress.

DEATH has cut off, at the early age of thirty, one of the most distinguished of the younger Fellows of Balliol. Mr. Arnold Toynbee, a son of the well-known aurist, had established a reputation as at once a sound and original political economist. All who were present at his crowded lectures on *Progress and Poverty*, at Newnham Hall, must have been impressed by his eloquence and earnestness; but his friends noticed, with sad forebodings, the signs of nervous excitement and an overwrought brain.

MR. SWINBURNE has discovered the most delightful mare's-nest that we have heard of for many a long day. In a learned letter to the *Athenæum*, he discusses various theories to account for “a most remarkable literary coincidence,” the occurrence of the line in “*Lyeidas*” (“That last infirmity of noble minds”) in the tragedy of “*John Barnvelt*,” recently printed by M. A. H. Bullen, and suspects an Italian original. Mr. Bullen now writes to regret “a printer's error at once ludicrous and deplorable.” The line was written in the margin of the proof-sheets, and incorporated into the text by the printers. It is instructive to see before our eyes the way in which glosses creep

into Latin and Greek texts. If such things are done in the days of printing presses, what must have happened in the scriptorium of the monastery when proofs and revises were unknown?

Figaro devoted a whole number to the twenty-fifth anniversary of February 24th, and, among other interesting souvenirs, gave a fac-simile of Louis Philippe's Act of Abdication. We should be curious to know how this was procured, as, according to *Figaro*, the document was stolen and sold to an English nobleman for 80,000 francs. But what interests us most in it, as fellow-pedagogues, is a strange blunder in syntax—the more strange, as we are told, and should judge from the calligraphy, that it was written slowly and deliberately. Here is the text:—"J'abdique cette couronne que la voix nationale m'avait appelée à porter, en faveur de mon petit fils, le Comte de Paris. Puisse-t-il réussir dans la grande tâche qui lui échoit aujourd'hui. 24 Fevr. 1848. Louis Philippe."

ON THE TEACHING OF VOCAL MUSIC IN GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

(Concluded.)

WE have, lastly, to glance at the rival systems of modern origin.

There are two such systems, or rather one fully elaborated system, and, scattered about here and there, incipient germs of another system that may be developed in the future.

This first is the method of the Tonic Sol-fa Society.

The principle of this system is simple enough, and has virtually been explained in the foregoing paragraphs. As matter of fact, we sing music by an instinctive recognition of the musical relationship of each tone to the keynote in which the ear is tuned. The Tonic Sol-fa system gives an invariable name to each of these musical relations. The keynote, whatever its absolute pitch, is always called *Do*; the dominant of the scale is always called *Sol*, the subdominant *Fa*, and so on for all other tones of the scale. However much we vary the absolute pitch of the keynote, each scale-tone retains its invariable name; and thus, by the principle of habitual association, these names become a most real help to the pupil. If he strikes on the wrong note, he at once feels that something in the sound of the note jars with the name to which he sings it; and, on the other hand, when he sings correctly, the use of the *Sol-fa* names intensifies his recognition of the musical characteristics of each tone, and gives to his intonation a firm grip, a sharp, clear-cut ring. A genuine Tonic Sol-fa pupil always sings intelligently, with feeling and expression, and never can sing out of tune.

Space forbids me to dwell in detail on the manifold merits of this system; and it is interesting to know, that (according to Mr. Chappell's "History of Music") in its essential principle it was, in ancient days, the system adopted in training church and cathedral choirs in England, so that it is historically orthodox, as Mr. Hullah himself admits.

But this system labours under two fatal defects.

First, it aims at abolishing the old musical notation in favour of a new Tonic Sol-fa notation, invented by Mr. Curwen. This notation closely resembles the phonetic system of spelling: like that system, it is essentially anti-historical, and invented chiefly for the sake of making the acquisition of music easy for uneducated people. But it is a notation that is not only unhistorical, but also unpicturesque. Any one can, in a rough way, follow the track of a melody up and down in music as ordinarily printed, but the Tonic Sol-fa notation is

a mere hieroglyphic to the uninitiated. It is useless for instrumental music. Worst of all, it can only express music by analysing it; it forbids a composer to write down any passage by pure inspiration, untrammelled by intellectual calculations. Some of the divinest passages of Beethoven or Gounod are precisely those which defy scientific analysis, and are, therefore, untranslatable into Tonic Sol-fa; for, while it is true that key-relationship is the essence of music, it is equally true that a change of key is one of the chief resources of the musician; and the chief beauty of a change of key lies in the ambiguity of the transitional chords. And, besides this constant source of musical uncertainty, it is also true that the absence of recognisable key-relationship, or, at any rate, the conscious uncertainty of key, is the musician's method of expressing darkness and doubt, of which the overture to "Faust" is a splendid and typical example. But the most serious defect of this system is, that as soon as we advance beyond the simpler kinds of music, it abandons its own distinctive principle, and becomes even more false and misleading than Hullah's system itself.

There are two kinds of music. All easy, commonplace music is written in the *major* diatonic scale. But music of a higher kind is almost always, more or less, written in the *minor* diatonic scale. This scale was originally invented by mere accident, and to this day the explanations given of it in the professional text-books are demonstrably false, as Professor Weber has most fully shown.

If we start from the note C and play upwards on the white keys of the pianoforte, we obtain the *major* scale. If we start from the note A, we obtain from the same set of white keys the *minor* scale. Thus the notes of the scale of C major are identical with those of the scale of A minor. But, though the notes are the same, the musical effects are wide as the poles asunder, simply because in the one case the ear is tuned to the keynote C, and in the other case it is tuned to the keynote A.

As matter of historical fact, the scale of A minor was formed by a mechanical necessity and a mere accidental empiricism from the keyboard of C major. In the Middle Ages there were no black keys, there was no harmony, there was no clear consciousness of key relationship; musical art was strapped in a go-cart, and musical science was not only non-existent, but impossible. People felt about after music, and blundered into some beautiful results. And the notions which were thus developed about the nature of "modes" and "keys" have survived the improvements of modern art, and still cling more or less to the text-books of to-day.

For the sake of definiteness, let us consider the scale of A minor, and the way it is reudered by Tonic Sol-fa teachers, premising that whatever is said of this particular case is applicable to all other pairs of "related" major and minor scales.

	1	2	3 4	5	6	7 8	C Major
A	B C	D	E F	G	A	B C	
	2 3	4	5 6	7	8		A Minor
La	Si Do	Re	Mi Fa	Sol	La	—Tonic Sol-fa Notation.	

In the above diagram, we see at a glance the difference between the intervals of the major and minor scales, reckoned from the keynote. Only, however, by actually listening to the music, or by examining the structure and sequence of the chords, can we feel and understand the diametrical contrast between them—a contrast resulting simply from the difference in the tone by which the ear is tuned in each case.

In the scale of A minor the keynote is A. Tonic Sol-fa writers themselves admit this fact. The essential principle of their system is, that the keynote is always to be called *Do*, and every other tone is to be named from the musical relation in which it stands to the key-tone. Hence, for music in A minor, A should be called *Do*. But, no; chiefly for the sake of saving trouble, and partly misled by the rude and barbarous notions of those ages in which minor music was first invented, they persist in using the same names for A minor as for C major—in exactly the same way as Hullah's system uses the same names for C major and G Major. Thus,

every tone in A minor is called by a name that is a musical falsehood. *Do* is not the keynote, but the third of the scale; and the keynote is not *Do*, but *La*.

Plainly, if we adhere to rational principles, we must, if we adopt the essential principle of Tonic (or keynote) Sol-fa, adopt it uniformly, for A minor as much as for C major. Comparing the two scales, we see that the 2nd, 4th, and 5th tones are identically related to the key-tone in C major and A minor; but that the 3rd, 6th, and 7th are flatter in relation to the key-tone in the minor than in the major scale. Hence, the corresponding names, *Mi*, *La*, and *Si*, must be correspondingly altered.

Now, in his latest manual Mr. Hullah gives the Italian vowel sounds, I and E, as *sharp* in quality, and A, O, and U as flat. This statement agrees with the general usage of other teachers who use vocal syllables as aids to musical intonation. The syllables, *Mi*, *La*, and *Si*, should therefore be flattened by using one or other of the latter vowels.

Scientifically, we can prove that these three tones (3rd, 6th, and 7th) of the minor scale are cognate to the tone *Fa* of the common (or major) scale. We can best express this important musical fact by using the vowel sound A to inflect these syllables.

Thus we obtain *Ma* and *Sa*. We cannot, however, flatten the syllable *La* in this way without destroying its similarity to the cognate tones, *Fa*, *Ma*, and *Sa*. The new syllable *Na* sufficiently resembles *La* to show a correspondence between them, and, at the same time, expresses in sound the musical character of a minor tone.

Thus, on scientific and genuinely Tonic Sol-fa principles, we arrive at the following vocables for the minor scale:—

A	BC	D	EF	G	A	BC
1	2 3	4	5 6	7	8	
<i>Do</i>	<i>Re Ma*</i>	<i>Fa</i>	<i>Sol Na*</i>	<i>Sa*</i>	<i>Do</i>	

I have for many years used these syllables in class teaching, and with the best results. For one important point, they at once explain to the pupil that the accidental G-sharp so common in A minor is really the natural seventh (*Si*) of that scale; and they at once clear up the meaning of those parallelisms of major and minor phrases that often constitute one chief beauty of musical composition.

The above notation for the minor scale answers another end. As Professor Weber has laboriously demonstrated, in opposition to the universal *dictum* of the musical profession, the essential tone of the minor scale is the minor 6th, and the variable tones are the 3rd and 7th. On scientific grounds, this doctrine is easily demonstrable; and in the above list it is the 6th tone alone that has a distinctive and uninflected name, *Na* (a happy accident), while the names of the 3rd and 7th—*Ma* and *Sa*—can be varied at will to *Mi* and *Si*. As matter of fact, the normal minor scale is *not* that of the white keys of the pianoforte (for A minor); the normal minor scale is—

Do Re Ma Fa Sol Na Si Do;

and Professor Weber urges, with great cogency, that the signatures of minor scales ought to be written accordingly; thus, the signature of A minor should be *F natural, C natural, and G sharp*, thereby showing its affinity with the scale of A major. Such a reform would be a great step in advance, and would help to dissipate the popular confusion of ideas about the minor scale, which are unfortunately stereotyped in the existing Tonic Sol-fa notation.

Lastly, I would sketch the main principles on which musical education in schools ought to be conducted.

To begin with, there are two elements in music—absolute pitch, and key-relationship. The former is a matter of practical detail, the latter of essential science. The latter ought, therefore, to dominate our system, but the former ought not to be neglected.

Absolute pitch may be compared to printer's type, paper, and gaslight; key-relationship to poetry itself. Hullah's system spends its strength on the type, paper, and illumination, and then leaves the poetry unread. The Tonic Sol-fa Society spends its strength in an intense enforcement of the beauty of

simple ballads, recited orally and in the dark, only it insists on reading Tennyson and Wordsworth backwards. Absolute pitch may be compared to the dead pipes of an organ; key-relationship to the playing that puts breath into them, and makes them a living whole. Hullah's system polishes up and voices every pipe with a martinet's precision, and then leaves them silent; the Tonic Sol-fa Society is content to play on a somewhat slovenly diapason, and compels the player to throw all the loveliest reed-stops hideously out of tune.

A true system should secure the following requisites:—

(1) Impressing an *approximate* sense of absolute pitch on the eye, by always using the ordinary notation of clefs and staves.

(2) Developing the sense of key-relationship, by invariably naming and singing all musical tones from the keynote, in all changes of key, longer or shorter, and in all "modes," major or minor.

This, of course, costs trouble. It is undoubtedly easier to fall back upon the "no system at all," or even on the "immovable *Do*" of Hullah's own system; just as it is far easier to allow boys to construe Greek and Latin, without troubling them with grammatical questions. But, if our object is to teach musical truths, and to lay the foundation for a real musical science in future ages, we have no alternative. We must take the trouble to be accurate, thorough, consistent, and scientific.

(3) Securing the sense of key-relationship, by never allowing a scale or other exercise to be sung, without first tuning the ear in that key by suitable chords on a harmonium (a *sine qua non* for school singing-classes); and by always accompanying each scale-tone by its own characteristic chord, until the musical meaning of a phrase is clearly established; and never otherwise allowing a tone or phrase to be sung bare and unaccompanied. Unaccompanied singing is necessary to complete the learning of an exercise; but the teacher should make sure that the pupil *imagines* the true harmonies all the while. For exercises in the common scale, a steady tonic and dominant drone on the harmonium is very useful.

(4) Beginning the scientific study of chords as soon as possible; and as soon as possible making every tone sung to be mentally regarded as a constituent of a chord. Hence, hymn-tunes in compressed score should constitute a large part of the school course. Never allow boys to sing from a single-voice part unless the chords have been underscored in shorthand.

(5) Assigning to every musical fact its physical basis. In this way alone can we pave the way for a true science of music. In this way alone can the study of music ever become anything better than an arbitrary empiricism. Every musical fact *has* a physical basis, though we must be careful to avoid the materialistic and anti-musical errors of the school of Helmholtz, and remember that a physical basis is not an exhaustive explanation. For example, all consonances that involve the number 5 in their vibration-ratio, are tender, graceful, and sweet—are, in short, *feminine* consonances; while all consonances that involve only the numbers 3 and 2, are strong and rich, but hard and somewhat bald or bare by themselves; in a word, they are *masculine* consonances. In musical composition *masculine* consonances must be treated differently from *feminine* consonances, by reason of this tendency to become bald and hard; this is the scientific statement of the musical technicalities about *perfect* and *imperfect* consonances. But to attempt to do what Helmholtz has done, to attempt to explain consonance in itself as the result of comparative freedom from the mechanical jarring of "harmonies," is not only absurd, but leads to results that diametrically contradict universal musical consciousness.

The five points above enumerated represent the essential principles of scientific musical education in schools. One item has been omitted, viz., the study of the time element in music, which ought to occupy a prominent place, especially in the earlier part of the school course. But on this point there is, fortunately, no difference of opinion among teachers, so far as general principles are concerned,

whatever varieties there may be of actual detail. But an instructive illustration may be drawn from this part of the subject. Time, like tune, depends upon two factors—absolute time and relative time, or rhythmical measure. The same measure may be played *largo*, or *andante*, or *allegro*, just as the same sequence of chords and tones may be played in C, or in E, or in G. Indeed, there is more than a mere metaphorical analogy between the two cases, for the strings or reeds that execute the music in the latter case create their sounds by performing an infinitely rapid rhythmical measure, first slower, then faster, then faster still. But, fortunately for learners, no one ever yet conceived the idea which would be the exact analogue of Hullah's system for tune, the system of teaching time by absolute metronome rate, calculated from some fixed standard. Imagine a conductor who should always beat common time *andante*, and make his pupils reckon the same identical notes taken *allegro* or *presto* as fractional parts of the standard beat; so that a bar of four crotchets in common time, *andante*, would be counted *one—two—three—four*; but the same bar taken more rapidly would have to be counted *two-thirds—one and a third—two—two and two-thirds*; and the same bar taken faster still would become *three-fifths—one and a fifth—one and four-fifths—two and two-fifths*: and further, the pupil would be taught to believe that some beats are integral and others fractional, just as on Hullah's system the pupil is led to imagine that the third tone in the scale of A is a sharp note, while in the key of C it is a natural, and in the key of G flat it is a flat note. Indeed, whatever valid arguments can be drawn for teaching *tune* from *absolute pitch* apply equally to teaching *rhythm* from *absolute rate*. And if the metronome had been as ancient an instrument as the organ key board, and if it had been of uniform and invariable length throughout the Middle Ages, when there was only one common scale, that of C, some such absurd plan of counting time would, no doubt, have been in vogue in the musical profession. Our whole musical notation, nomenclature, and method, is simply the result of the enslavement of mind by a piece of dead machinery: the key board, which should be a good servant, has become an irrational and intolerable master.

This consideration suggests that one important part of school teaching should consist, whenever practicable, in giving "demonstrations" of classical music on an enharmonic harmonium, with a sufficient number of keys, arranged as in Colii Brown's instrument, so as to give every scale with perfect intervals, and make every scale present the same appearance to the eye. The equi-temperament scale, absolutely unavoidable as it is in ordinary practice, ought to be wholly extirpated from theory and from the theoretical education given in schools. Colin Brown's instrument labours under the same radical defect as the Tonic Sol-fa system, which it is meant to illustrate—that of not clearly recognising the independent existence of the minor scale; and, in addition, it labours under several grave practical defects. But, even if a "perfect-scale-in-every-key-and-all-keys-alike" instrument is too expensive for actual purchase, it would be well to familiarise the mind to a truer theory by a diagram of such a key-board, and by pointing out notes upon it. Nor is this of mere theoretical importance; for, as matter of fact, musical art is itself degenerating for want of a more exact calculus. The old conventional rules of the "strict style," which did enshrine, however one-sidedly or obscurely, a large amount of musical truth, are now cast aside, and composers compose anyhow, with a view to mere effect, careless whether it be legitimately or illegitimately obtained. Many a passage that wins a certain kind of applause by virtue of some chromatic *tours de force*, would have its falsity, its real ugliness, exposed, if we played it on a true-scale instrument, or even merely tried to point out each note on a diagram of a true-scale key-board. Indeed, there are musicians who maintain that the tempered scale is preferable to the true scale, because it admits of being tampered with in this anti-scientific fashion. Art has so far degenerated that men love darkness rather than light, because their deeds are evil.

It is hopeless to look for reform until an exact critical

study of Music becomes a part of Public School education. The education of a professional musician is dominated by a cramping conservatism, and still more by the imperious necessity for aiming at immediate practical results. But, if an exact scientific study of music should ever become an integral part of a liberal education; if the time ever comes when an Eton boy will dread a false chord more than a false quantity, and be as familiar with the nice distinctions between the two chromatic sharps on the key-tone and the two flats on the leading note, as he now is with the difference between the two Greek aorists; if the universally accepted absurdity of a common chord on the second of a major scale should righteously share the hard fate of the "definite article," and be consigned to the same limbo as English grammars of the pre-Morrisian era—then, in that day, a healthy public opinion will foster the free growth of a music that will be divinely beautiful because divinely true.

But we must not forget that the realised facts of music must precede its intellectual analysis; and that, pending the practical settlement of the disputes between rival systems, we may all do much to further the true interests of musical education by encouraging a taste for the higher kinds of music, and by giving those for whose education we are in any degree responsible, opportunities of making themselves familiar with the great works of the great composers. In this way we may help to create and foster a true musical taste, and so prepare the rising generation to solve successfully the problem of finding the best and truest methods of musical training.

FLORIMEL: A FRAGMENT.

(Continued from p. 55.)

III.

"The good and evil are our own; and we
Are that which we would contemplate from far."

—The Excursion.

X. is so willing to bear the main burden of our correspondence that I seldom trouble myself to write to him, unless I have something of importance to say, or some reason for thinking that he will not write again without provocation. From the moment of receiving his first letter from Hey Moor, I knew that the stream of confidence might be trusted to flow on of itself, and, being considerably puzzled what to think of his communications, I decided that my safest attitude towards them was one of silent receptiveness. Accordingly, I read his letters as they came, speculated about the mysterious lady of the moors, and wrote no word back. But when, after receipt of the letter last published, a whole week went by without bringing another, I became impatient, and a little remorseful. I wrote off a note of sympathy, and begged to be told the sequel of the adventure. X.'s answer came by return of post:—

"She is gone, and I am left once more to the companionship of my own thoughts. She went a week ago, on the third day after her coming, as she told me she should. I walked with her to the station to catch an evening train, and we watched another sunset together. But this time we hardly spoke: she appeared preoccupied, and I was arguing with myself the desirability of forcing an explanation from her before we parted. In the end, I let her go without further questioning. And yet I hardly know what hindered me from asking her plainly who and what she was. I believe she would have told me readily. And after all the deep and serious talk we had held together, it would have been perhaps more natural than not, to ask and tell a little about our mundane existences. On the other hand, I am not sure that it would not be loss rather than gain to me to know her name and address, the circumstances of her family, and the story of her life. There is a necessary element of prose in these things, and though knowledge of them helps us to understand people in the ordinary intercourse of society, that is only because the

conditions of ordinary intercourse deny us better means of knowing one another. Such talk as we have had here upon the open moors, in our unobserved and uninterrupted communion, would be impossible, and, if not impossible, absurd, anywhere where more than two were gathered together. But here, in this paradisiacal desert, where there was no third person to say our names in introduction, or to whisper information about each to the other, we have discovered our souls, which have no name, and revealed something of that individual relation to the great principles of nature and humanity which, I suppose, is the nearest approach a soul has to a local habitation. We have gone straight to the essential things; what matters it that we have skipped those that are accidental?

"You ask me to tell you more of Florimel—the details of our second walk, and the general outcome of our meeting. On this last point I can tell you nothing, for, in truth, I know nothing. She has set me thinking once again on matters that I have pondered many times before, only to cast them from me in the end as insoluble problems. Whether I am this time on the right track, or am only starting upon another fruitless journey through bog and quicksand, I know not. Time must show. As for telling you more of Florimel's talk, that is another matter. Ten days ago I could, more easily than not, have sent you a verbatim report of our conversation during the second day's walk. But your obstinate silence in regard to my former letters discouraged me from writing again. Then she left me, and in the absence of sympathy, I fell back into reserve; and I fear that, if I were now to attempt a detailed account of her later talk, I should mix much fancy with my facts, and put into her mouth many things which she never actually spoke. For, since I lost her bodily presence, I have been constantly engaged in imaginary conversation with her spirit, which still haunts, not this house only or the particular places where we walked and talked together, but the whole range of country that is open to my wanderings; and this spiritual intercourse has been so vivid to me that, try how I will, I cannot in all cases distinguish between what she said while she was here, and what I have fancied her saying since she went away. However, as you assure me that you are really interested to hear more of her, I will endeavour to disentangle a few genuine fragments from the medley. And, by-the-by, there is one subject on which, even after an interval of ten days, I think I can trust my memory to distinguish between what she said and what I have developed for myself out of her suggestions. She talked much, directly and indirectly, of class differences and class relations, and this in a vein that surprised me. Your interest in her will deepen when I tell you that—yourself excepted—I have never heard any one repudiate in such unqualified terms all idea that good may come from forced association between persons of unequal social position. You know my ideas on this subject, and so I need not fill my letter with a reconstruction of the Utopia of social equality that Florimel has lately demolished for me. But it may interest you to hear some of your most cherished opinions restated from a point of view diametrically opposed to your own. It was to me a most curious experience to find this woman, who almost makes a boast of belonging to the working-class, objecting to my visionary schemes on the same grounds, and often in the very words that I am accustomed to hear from you, and, when I do hear them from you, to set down to the pardonable prejudice of aristocratic fastidiousness. Her plebeian pride exactly matches your patrician pride. She assumes towards the upper classes—whom she defines as the people with birth and breeding, and manners, and money—precisely the same attitude of an impartial spectator that you do towards the people whose life consists in daily toil and weekly wages. And she is as far as you are from introducing considerations of superiority and inferiority into the question. Like you, she begins and ends with insisting that there is a difference—a radical, necessary, and useful difference—between the character of the class that lives by manual labour and in daily contact with the roughest realities of life, and that of the classes removed by one or more stages from this direct dependence upon primitive resources. As far as can

remember, we came to the subject through an attempt of mine to make her retract or justify the cold terms in which she spoke of Wordsworth on our first meeting. She seemed surprised that I should have attached so much importance to her words, and almost shocked that I should have given to her expression of individual feeling the value of an absolute criticism. 'But that,' she said, 'is a sort of misunderstanding that I ought not to wonder at. I experienced it so often while I was in London, that I was driven to reflect upon its cause and meaning, and it became pretty clear to me that it resulted from some of the most fundamental differences between the life of my class and that of my new acquaintances. With us, experience comes before education; whatever culture we get is the outcome of what we have done, and seen, and suffered. We seek it only because we realise the need of it; we retain it only in so far as it satisfies our need. The result is, that our tastes are genuine and our opinions narrow. We estimate all things according to their relation to our personality; of their larger bearing and value, we know nothing, and, for the most part, do not care to know. You, on the contrary, who are educated before you begin to live, know the place of everything in the general scale and its value according to the traditional standard; but you don't always know its practical use, or how it affects you personally. Your opinions and your tastes are more correct than ours, but they are not so much your own. When, however, you succeed in being independent in spite of your education, you are more intelligible than we are. For, whereas we dissent in sheer ignorance, you do so with full recognition of the established view, and you are careful to let this appear every time you express your individual opinion.'

"To this I replied, that the commoner and, in my opinion, preferable result of educated dissent was silence, as the process she described was too elaborate to be endured out of school. She suggested that a still commoner way out of the difficulty was offered by insincere conformity. I could not but assent; and then, to my surprise, she said,—

"And for ninety-nine people out of a hundred, I believe it is the best way—for people in *your* world, I mean.'

"This was so like you in your most brutally cynical moods, that, for a moment, I suspected Florimel of being also cynical at bottom. I felt angry at having been the victim of an imposture, and made some savage answer. It was now her turn to be surprised; but she took her surprise more amiably than I did mine, and explained with perfect sweetness that she had not meant to sneer.

"'I meant what I said quite simply,' she said. 'Though I have told you that your upper-class world is unsympathetic to me, I am able to see that the fault is quite as much in me as in it. I have no part in the tradition it inherits, but that does not prevent my seeing that the tradition is, on the whole, a very precious one. If I had a share in it, I think I would sacrifice much to preserve and transmit it intact. But I have none, and that makes a difference. It is one thing to conform to the faith of your fathers because you love it and know that, despite its imperfections, you owe to it the nurture of your affections and principles, and even the very conscience that teaches you to criticize it; and quite another to adopt the same faith first met in mature life. In the latter case, before you sacrifice your independence, you want to know that what you get instead is not only good on the whole, but wholly good, and even best.'

"I agreed with her as to the difference of attitude towards the inherited and the new faith, but declared myself unable to see how her illustration applied to the case in point. I said, 'Society has no faith, no standard, no ideal, not even a constitution.'

"'I beg your pardon,' she returned with promptitude and decision; 'it has them all. But you are not conscious of them, because you cannot get outside your world and see it critically, any more than I can get inside it and enjoy it sympathetically.'

"At this I laughed outright. The idea that any one should thus identify me with the congeries of artificial tastes, second-hand convictions, meaningless phrases, and false proprieties, that govern the kingdom of the false Florimel, was too much for me. I protested vigorously; that, though it

was my fate to live *in* the world we were discussing, I was not and never could be *of* it. I implored her not to call it *my* world again, and assured her that, far from finding it impossible to assume a critical attitude towards it, I hardly knew what it was to be for one moment in sympathy with it upon a single point of opinion, taste, or conduct that interested me. 'All the same,' she said, 'your attitude is not that of criticism. You are simply in rebellion. You dislike the code of your world at numberless points, because at numberless points it interferes with your personal liberty. You are not convinced that the constitution of your world is bad in itself. Still less have you ever succeeded in sketching even the outline of a better one. If you had children, you would shudder at the thought of making them outlaws to the society you despise. You would wish them to be born within its pale, and educated as you were, according to its traditions. And you would be right.'

'Somehow, I could not deny the truth of what she said; but I had denied it so often before, that I would not admit it either. So I said nothing. She was satisfied to take my silence as assent, and, after a momentary pause, she went on with her argument:—

'But what proves most clearly that, after all, you prefer your world to ours, is the form taken by your sympathy—or what you call your sympathy—with the working-class.' I made a movement of interruption, but she would not be interrupted. 'Don't be angry with me for putting it like that,' she said. 'Once more, I am not sneering. I know you mean to be sympathetic towards us, but sympathy implies understanding; and when you propose to make us better and happier, by sharing with us all the conditions of the world you profess to despise, I cannot think that you do understand us, or even that you quite understand yourself.'

'The satire, intentional or unintentional, was so obvious here, that neither of us could pretend not to see it. We both laughed honestly; and when our laugh was over, I tried to justify the inconsistencies of which I stood convicted. I talked the usual commonplaces about each class having something to learn from the other, and the gain to both that must accrue by freer social intercourse. She answered rather sadly, 'I, too, once thought that the mingling of classes in society might lead to that result, but experience has undeceived me. We get most good out of each other while we keep our distance.'

'That,' I cried, 'is, without exception, the most cynical remark it has ever been my lot to hear.'

'She smiled, but made no direct answer to the charge. 'Let me tell you,' she said, 'how I arrived at the conclusion that shocks you so much. Before I went to London, I had formed a very distinct conception of the character of its most cultivated society. I pictured it to myself as altogether refined, graceful, humane, and serious. I took for granted that every member of it had as keen an appreciation as I had of the happiness of living in a world from which brutality and grossness were banished. I imagined that every human being, to whom the means of culture were easily accessible, would be at least as eager to profit by them, as I had been to seek them amid unfavourable circumstances. You smile at my simplicity, and anticipate the story of my disappointment.'

'Of course I do,' said I. 'You found your beautiful world a plausible sham. There are cultivated individuals in society, but society, as a whole, is only polished on the surface.'

'True,' she said, catching at my hackneyed metaphor, and giving it an ingenious turn of her own. 'But the polished surface reflects the culture of the few, and those who are wisely content to contemplate society from a distance, may see it always as I saw it—before I came to London.'

'As you saw it in a dream,' I said, 'before you knew the fact.'

'But she insisted that her vision had been no dream, but a reality, softened and idealised by distance; and she declared, that having returned to her original point of view, she had recovered the pleasant vision, and could again derive benefit from the contemplation of it. The argument from personal

experience is always unanswerable, and it is also convincing when something in our own experience jumps to meet it. I could not hinder myself from recalling certain occasions of my life when I had come very decidedly to the conclusion, that the working-class pleased me best at a distance. We seemed dangerously near to the odious maxim that no man is a hero to his valet; and I was struggling against an inclination to cite it, when she took the words from between my teeth, and said—

'You know it is to his valet that no man is a hero; if it had been to his wife and children, or to his friends, the inference would have been that a man never is a hero really. But the valet suggests a wholesomer moral.'

'What moral?' I asked.

'Be no man's valet; which, being interpreted, means—enter into no relation with any man that is not based on mutual necessities of a solid kind: neither for money nor vanity sell yourself to minister to the imaginary or artificial requirements of your fellow-creatures. When we do this for you, we become your slaves; and when you do it for us, you become our patrons. And lately you have shown, I think, too much inclination to valet us.'

'I hardly know,' I said, 'what sort of action on our part you refer to. You cannot object to legislative reforms aiming at the protection of your rights as citizens.'

'Certainly not. It is just that the rights of every man and woman and child be protected by law. To secure this is to serve the whole commonwealth by making it sound in every part. No,—legislative reform, even when the working-class benefits specially and directly by it, cannot be called valetting that class.'

'Then, is it charity—or philanthropy, as we call it now-a-days—that you dislike? Surely, you must know too much of the miseries of the poor, and the old, and the sick, to join in the outcry against those who follow the simple impulse of kindness and compassion, and give out of their abundance to those who want.'

'Heaven forbid!' she cried, with a vehemence I had not suspected her of. 'Heaven forbid that I should cry out against charity! But charity is not patronage, and makes no slaves; nor is it a relation of class to class. The miseries that it relieves are real miseries to which we are liable, through our common humanity, not by reason of class speciality. The gifts it administers have an intrinsic value. No,—it is your artificial benefits that I protest against; your attempts to entertain us, instruct us, improve us, to make us like yourselves, to bring us, in fine, near to yourselves, within the range of your influence. In one word, it is your fancy for associating with us, not for your pleasure, but for our good. Don't think that I undervalue the sacrifice you make in carrying out your crotchet. I know well how disagreeable it is to you; we all know it, and, therefore, if for no other reason, it is disagreeable to us also.'

'You state the position ruthlessly,' I said, 'and I have nothing to urge in its defence, except that we do not mean all that you see in our action.'

'You do not mean all that your action involves. But you do mean—you do think, that you possess certain things as a class, which, as a class, and without individual vocation, you can beneficially communicate to us as a class. You think this, and we think the contrary.'

'I reminded her that she had herself acknowledged that she derived benefit from the mere contemplation of the social life of the upper classes, and suggested that this was equal to an acknowledgment of some possession of theirs which placed them as a class in the position of possible benefactors.'

'She said she had no desire to withdraw her acknowledgment:—I do consider the life of your class to be a more beautiful one than ours. You inherit a richer tradition, and have developed a more perfect ideal; and so long as you devote yourselves to guarding your tradition, and working out your ideal for your own sakes, because they are dear to you and naturally enlist your sympathies and energies, you unconsciously benefit not yourselves only, but all who, though not belonging or desiring to belong to your world, are yet able to appreciate its

general idea and intention. These see you from a distance and through an idealising medium of imagination, somewhat as we behold the heroes of past generations, with their faults softened and their virtues magnified. And you exercise upon them an influence very much like that of a great work of art, which, I hope you agree, is a better thing than the influence of a self-complacent preacher, who offers himself as an example good to follow. To pursue the analogy, the artist's life always falls short, and often flatly contradicts the ideal set forth by his work. But we accept the perfection of the work as atonement for the faults of the life, and count the failure of the man as the price paid for the success of the artist. I think we should estimate society according to a like principle, and not distress ourselves about individual inconsistencies and aberrations, so long as the general level does not sink, and the ideal is kept in view.

"I am so much accustomed to hear good women treat moral questions, whether personal, social, or political, from an individual and spiritual point of view, that this philosophical satisfaction in a good social average occasioned me a momentary uneasiness as to the delicacy of Florimel's conscience. But I was reassured by her next word. 'At least,' she said, 'that is the way I have learned to judge your world since I left it. I could not feel so while I was in it. I could not feel so about any society in which I was obliged to live. I should always take its individual members seriously, and be disappointed every time their lives outraged the general profession.'

"'You speak,' I said, 'as if in your present world, you were insured against disappointments of this sort. Surely you are too clear-sighted to persuade yourself that in the working-class, any more than among us, people all act up to their profession, or that any individual realises, or attempts to realise, the highest ideal of the community. We are unsatisfactory enough, I admit, but we are not the only class whose practice falls short of its profession.'

"'The difference,' she said, 'is, that we have no ideal, no standard, and that consequently we make no profession—none towards one another, I should say. Some of us try to please you, by pretending to adopt your standards, but among ourselves, and for practical purposes, we are content with the coarse criterion of the law of the land. Even that is too difficult for some of us; our most respectable members ask nothing better. We have our instincts of natural kindness, of course, and we indulge them freely; but we have no subtle code of honour or propriety, no ceremonial of manners or canons of taste. And, as you know, among you it is offences against these unwritten statutes that disgrace men and women much more than breaches of the law that can avenge itself.'

"'You are right,' I said, 'and it is the freedom from these fancy codes and conventions that makes your world so attractive to me. But for you—I suppose it is because, as you say, I am more in sympathy with my world than I quite realise—for you these surroundings of rough freedom seem to me undesirable, even unsafe. I should have thought the close contact with coarse manners and open vice, would have been even more painful to you, than the sense of hollowness in the fair seeming of the upper-class world.'

"'I live alone,' she said, using the same words in which she had replied before to a question of similar tendency; and then, after a pause, she said, 'Besides, our absence of profession has its advantages. We are not obliged to express surprise for what cannot really surprise us, and we are not tempted to make a new code to suit the new case, every time one of our number breaks the commandments or the law, or to discover new laws of nature to explain acts of every-day occurrence. We escape hypocrisy, and that is something.'

"I could not refrain from asking, whether she did not consider this acquiescence in a low standard dangerous.

"'Most certainly,' she said. 'It is Sloth standing still in the mud, with the rest of the deadly sins in its rear. But it has its hopeful side also. Never having called evil good, we are in a fairer way than you to recognise the good when we see it. We have less moral pride than you have. We are more disposed to worship. We are more teachable.'

"'In short,' I said, 'you produce the raw material of society, and our part is to work it up into the likeness of an ideal developed in the course of generations of culture. It seems to me that both processes would be assisted by freer social intercourse. You, by mixing with us, would share directly in our ideal; we, by mixing with you, should keep closer to the facts of life. You would gain in refinement, and we in reality.'

"But Florimel was not to be shaken in her opinion. 'I deny altogether,' she said, 'that either refinement or reality is to be got by the kind of intercourse that is called 'society.' People who meet continually, without either practical purpose or personal sympathy, are always more or less in danger of falling into habits of insincerity and affectation. But the danger is comparatively slight while those who meet thus have all been bred in the same tradition, so that they know the value of the common currency in words and looks. They may find it dull to use speech as a cloak for thought, but they will not overrate what is said, or underrate what is implied. This the stranger from another social world does continually, and, unless he is an exceptionally guileless person, he is pretty sure to revenge himself in the end by dishonest pretensions for mortifications his ignorance brought upon him in the beginning. I have seen the manners of many simple people corrupted by sudden introduction to a society to which they were not born. I never saw anybody improved by it.'

"'Then you desire that the present separation between the different classes should continue?'

"'I deny that any separation exists. Class is meeting class every day and every hour at a thousand individual points, and in an infinite variety of necessary, and therefore wholesome, relations. Moreover, your class is being constantly recruited by the energy and talent that goes up to you from us; and we are constantly receiving back into our ranks members of your class who cannot support themselves at its level.'

"'An exchange that is hard upon you,' I said. 'You send us up your ablest men, and we give you back our incapable members.'

"'Nay,' she said, 'the bargain is not so uneven. You must remember that money is quite as important a factor as culture in your class-life. You give as good a reception to the *parvenu* whose passport is a fortune questionably acquired, as to the man of genius who has earned a place among you by working his way hardly through your schools and universities. And, on the other hand, many of your people gravitate to us without being mentally and morally effete. The mere number of children in a family may so diminish its pecuniary resources and opportunities of education, that without extraordinary talent it will become impossible for all its members to live honestly at the upper-class level. These sink, and bring down with them some of the best characteristics of the class in which they were born.'

"Seizing upon her phrase, 'Your schools and universities,' I challenged her to recoucle it with her refusal to learn of our class.

"She said, 'I call them *your* schools and universities because your money and position give you easier access to them. In a corresponding sense, I might speak of your entering *our* schools when you do as you are doing now.'

"I looked up inquiringly.

"'What have you come here for?' she said; 'and what have I come here for, but to learn of Nature among her simplest, her most elementary, manifestations? We have come out to these bare moorlands to escape from the complexities of town life, and the vulgarities of town society. It no more occurs to you to seek rest for your spirit by mixing with the working-class in its reading-rooms and public-houses, than it does to me to fly for refreshment to London drawing-rooms. We want, both of us, to cast off the artificial habits that grow up in all crowded communities, and renew ourselves, as simple human beings, by a draught from the well-head of pure existence. It may be a fantastic idea, but it is one I cling to very tenderly, that there is a relation close as that of blood-kindred between the spiritual life of a people and the natural scenery of the country to which it belongs. I cannot explain it.'

but I feel that my craving for sympathy and instinct of companionship, are more completely as well as more innocently, satisfied by communion with the hills and the skies among which I was born, than by any intercourse with human beings.

"You feel this," I said, "and yet you tell me that you are indifferent to the poetry of Wordsworth?"

"Nay," she said; "I think I did not say that. I read it very little, but I fancy that is only because from infancy I have lived too close to Nature to need an interpreter between her and me."

"But L—— is a grimy manufacturing town," I protested. "You are not close to Nature there."

"Not to the beauties of natural scenery, except in so far as memory and imagination serve me. But I am close to Nature in the sense that I am earning my bread by the work of my hands. I think you must grant that a life of labour in which duties and pleasures are shaped by genuine wants and tastes brings us as much nearer to the means of natural education as money and position bring you to the means of scholastic training."

"I asked her whether she found the society of L—— more congenial to her than that of London."

"She answered,—'I am not in society at L——. We working-people have enough to do to get through our day's work, and rest after it, and see our friends now and then.'

"But seeing one's friends is surely having society?"

"Not as you have it in London. I, personally, have a habit of asking my friends to come and see me once a week in the evening."

"A *salon*, in fact, like a London lady of fashion."

"Very unlike, you would say, if you came to see me. In the first place, I can have no lions. In the second place, I know the home life and all the joys and sorrows of every man and woman who comes to see me. In the third place, our conversation consists either of a very earnest discussion of great matters, or very intimate talk about family affairs. We meet as friends, not as acquaintances."

"You are severe on London society."

"Not in the least. I am simply describing the kind of social intercourse I am used to; and so explaining how unfit I am for any other. I have had no opportunity of acquiring the sort of tact by which great ladies make themselves equally agreeable to the people they like and the people they don't like; or the art of talking with zeal of what does not interest me, and with indifference of what I feel strongly."

"All which arts you scorn from the bottom of your soul?"

"Far from it. I regard them as arts, and fine arts; and I feel about them as about the other arts, that they are only admirable when practised by finished artists. As we are told that the greatest works of art are never the outcome of real personal emotion, but of ideal cases of feeling realised by the imagination; so, in manners, the perfection of courtesy will be exemplified by one who has no immediate personal impulse towards courtesy, but who has mastered its principles thoroughly."

"In short, fine manners are systematised humbug?"

"Not at all, but they involve ceremony; and they depend upon tradition. It takes many generations to perfect a fine art, and manners make no exception to the rule. Therefore, if we are to have any manners at all in the future, we must retain some sort of aristocracy, and respect its authority. Second-rate societies that ignore the traditional standard of manners are as odious and as mischievous in their way as are small literary coteries and mutual admiration societies, that practise the other arts without reference to the established schools. I am not Utopian enough to expect that the homes of the working-classes will ever be rich in the treasures of any art. But the public exhibitions may be open to them in this case as well as in all others. And they will react on their lives through their imaginations in the same way as do exhibitions of the other arts."

"Upon my asking her what she meant by public exhibitions of social art, she explained that she had in view all sorts of State ceremonies, of which she desired the increase rather than

the decrease,—public appearances of great personages, national celebrations of historical anniversaries, and also of domestic events in high places. She insisted that a Court was necessary as a school of manners. I could not quite conceal that this idea of Court ceremonial reacting beneficially on working-class life, amused me; and I said, somewhat ironically, that nothing would delight me more than to be persuaded that the idlest and most extravagant section of the community was capable of rendering such good service to the social body.

"Once more she smiled that peculiar smile of hers. 'It is so strange to me,' she said, 'that you should all agree to think our own generation can dispense with the influences that have educated the generations of the past, just because its front rank is a little in advance of the front ranks of former centuries. These Court ceremonials, processions, pageants, pompous christenings, weddings, and funerals, what are they, at bottom, but gorgeous solemnizations of facts of life that are common to us all, but which, as we descend in the social scale, lose more and more of the respect that is their due? I remember, a few years ago, when the son of an imperial house died in the flower of his youth, there were factious persons who cavilled at the floods of lamentation that were poured out at his obsequies, and grudged the tribute paid to his unfulfilled promise. Doubtless, it was all excessive, measured by his individual claims. But I could tell you of mothers who had seen their obscure boys cut off in their day of promise and carried unnoticed to the grave, amid the dust of daily toil that chokes our mourning as well as our rejoicing, as we hurry through our shabby apologies for the sacraments of life and death—I could tell you how, to some of these, every detail of those ceremonial rites came as a drop of atonement for the scanty honours paid to their own offspring. Believe me, these things are, to the unsophisticated hearts among the people, what *Lycidas* and *Adonais* and *Astrophel* are to you and me, when we see our loved ones go down into the grave, and chafe at the spiritual pauperdom that denies us words of our own in which to celebrate them fitly. O you—some of you—who call yourselves friends of the people, and cry out against these things, because you think they rouse the people's jealousy and hurt their pride of poverty—you would do better to reckon frankly with our generosity, and trust our sympathy in all the things that are the same to all. . . .'

"She broke off abruptly, as if overcome by strong personal feeling. Seeing her thus moved, I felt an irresistible impulse to approach nearer to her. I could not forbear from saying,—'I have humoured you so far by allowing you to talk, uncontradicted, of your class and mine as socially different, but, in reality, I acknowledge nothing of the kind. We belong to the same world. I cannot regard you as a woman of the working-class.'

"She shook her head gently, and said, 'None the less to the working-class I belong, and I do not wish that it were otherwise.'

"I cannot recall anything more that passed between us, with certainty or distinctness; and, probably, I have already told you more than you will care to read. She left me the next evening—with the mystery still unsolved."

"Yours,
"X."

(To be continued.)

ESSAYS ON SCIENCE TEACHING IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

VII.

By R. ELLIOT STEEL.

I CANNOT allow Mr. Claypole's paper on Natural Science Teaching in Schools to pass without comment, as it may lead Head-masters, and others unacquainted with this subject, to draw very unjust conclusions with respect to some of the Science Teaching in this country and elsewhere. I specially

refer to what was said respecting our method of lecturing to boys on Chemistry. If it be usual in America to lecture to boys as we here lecture to youths and men in our Colleges and Universities, and not to teach as well, Mr. Claypole may not be so very far from being right; but we have long discovered here that such is not the correct method, and should any Head-master think that, by calling in a good scientific man so many times a week to lecture to the boys of his school, he is thereby teaching Natural Science, he is woefully mistaken. In reference, however, to the usual methods adopted in lecturing to boys, the astounding assertion made that, if we question any boy of average ability concerning an experimental lecture which he has attended, we shall soon discover his state of mental confusion, is certainly without foundation in fact, and is contrary to what we find on testing by examination. I myself have never found it so, where the teacher, besides knowing his subject thoroughly, had the ability requisite to impart that knowledge to others. Here, at the Bradford Grammar School, those boys only whose parents specially wish it attend the chemical laboratory, these being in the minority; and I find that they are by no means those whose work is generally the best when tested by examination, orally, or on paper; and I have always felt that, by adding the marks gained by these boys for practical work to the marks obtained for theoretical, I was doing an injustice to many others whose knowledge of the subject was really much wider and better.

With respect to a boy's being put into a laboratory for the first time, after attending a course of school lectures (or lessons I prefer to call them) on Chemistry, and asked to make oxygen, being *quite* uncertain whether potassium chlorate or any of half-a-dozen other salts should be used; either his teacher was *quite* incapable, or the boy was not endowed with even the lowest capacity for learning as found among English school-boys.

I affirm that, in the hands of a competent man, many months', perhaps a year's, attendance at lectures, which ought to be required before a laboratory is entered, will widen a boy's sympathies, his intelligence, and his reasoning powers, in a way that no other kind of study can possibly do: a boy has to be taught to observe, to deduce inferences from experiments, and to devise experiments to put these latter to the test, before he can derive the proper amount of intellectual advantage obtainable from practical work in the laboratory; and I have found by experience, that if a boy be placed too soon in a chemical laboratory, he will never make anything more than a more or less mechanical analysing machine, with which the market is at present glutted.

In experimenting at lectures, I keep the attention of the class by the occasional asking of questions. At one time I follow a certain line of argument, and then put the result arrived at to the test of experiment, which may show our conclusion to be false; we now trace back the reasoning, usually find it quite correct and logical, but discover that we have, as often happens in original work, omitted to take into consideration some additional factors which enter into the problem. At another time, I perform an experiment and require the boys to say what has happened, and in nine cases out of ten, when doing this with a class of say thirty boys for the first time, not one of them will perceive all that has taken place; though, when I point it all out, performing the experiment again, they will be astonished at their evident want of the power of accurate observation, and this will be to them a lesson not easily forgotten. Of what use, then, would it be to place such boys in a laboratory before they have acquired something of this power of observation?

I may here mention that a great mistake is sometimes made in giving a class a course of lessons on, for instance, Elementary Chemistry, where all the interesting experiments are performed, and what to them are the difficult portions, as calculations, &c., are left out, with the idea of interesting the pupils in the subject. For, when they attend afterwards a higher course in the same subject, having seen most of the experiments, and being left with what, to the majority, is mere drudgery, they not only lose that interest in the subject before acquired, but rarely afterwards regain it. And I consider that the acquisition of, I

will not call it knowledge, but the ability to learn well and rapidly, should be made as easy as possible; and therefore I recommend all teachers with elementary classes to take a small portion of the subject, and to work it out as thoroughly as possible with plenty of quantitative work: thus, in using that admirable little Chemistry Primer of Prof. Roscoe's, I prefer to bring in the study of combining weights early, usually after the quantitative experiment on the formation of water by passing hydrogen over heated copper oxide. Perhaps this fault, so common, of covering too much ground, is due more to the character of the examination papers set by men who are not teachers of boys. Thus, for the Oxford and Cambridge School Board Junior Certificates, one heading under Physics is, "The various Forces of Nature,"—can anything be wider than that? And in Chemistry, the Metals (abominable classification) are required as well as the Non-metals, but no practical work; and yet how few men would think of teaching the Metals to boys who had not done any practical work! Just think of a boy getting up the Metals in, say, Miller's large "Chemistry," off by heart. I knew it done once. The boy was given a scholarship at one of our Universities for his good memory, but he obtained a third class, I think, in the Schools, and with difficulty passed the necessary classical examinations.

I therefore strongly deprecate placing a boy too soon in a chemical laboratory. I would first take him through a course on the Non-metals, the work being done thoroughly with numerous calculations, and constant appeal to his powers of observation, of induction and deduction; then, put him into the laboratory, avoiding carefully the error made by the writers of many books on Chemical Analysis, of giving mixtures of salts (perhaps only to be tested for the metal) to be analysed before a thorough knowledge of the analysis of simple salts, soluble and insoluble, has been acquired. Continuous with this work, after the first term devoted to the Gases, he should attend lectures on the Metals, and then, if time allowed, I would give him some knowledge of our classification of organic compounds, with their important uses, accompanied by practical work in the laboratory, on their preparation and properties.

In Physics, on the other hand, where it is practicable, I consider a boy may begin with practical work, on the one condition that it be entirely quantitative, at the same time that he commences lectures. But the want of this practical work in no way takes away from the advantages to be derived from lectures on this subject; as still less than in Chemistry is it a necessity, except for the higher teaching, such as we give boys preparing for scholarships at Cambridge. At Oxford, such work is not required in scholarship examinations; but perhaps the reasons for this are not now as weighty as they were at one time. I agree with Mr. Hutchinson, that in this subject Heat is a part of great educational value, and I should therefore begin with it as preparatory to Chemistry, and run the rest of Physics, if possible, alongside Chemistry.

As to Biology, interesting as the study of it may be, it is certainly not fitted for school work, except in a Sixth Form, for the reason that a class of thirty or more boys cannot see a dissection minutely enough; and without actual dissecting, or, what is nearly as good, the close observation of such, the teaching is almost worthless, while, on the other hand, the time required for dissection in a laboratory is more than school boys can generally give.

With respect to Astronomy and Physical Geography, I strongly advise that the teaching of Geography be put into the hands, or, at any rate, under the supervision, of a Natural Science Master. And let him see that the teaching of Physical Geography be made the chief point; Political Geography being taken with History. Then, if properly taught, this can be followed up through Physiography to Heat, and so on to the other branches, thus gaining a definite and gradually rising path without break, from the Geography that the smallest boy in the school learns, up to the highest branches of Natural Science. Then, and not till then, will the study of Natural Science take its proper position in the school curriculum.

It is certain that Geology, apart from Physiography, cannot be taught in schools; it was tried here before my time, and

failed. It cannot even be offered at Scholarship Examinations at Oxford, and at Cambridge most of the Colleges have now dropped it.

Of the teaching of Botany I cannot speak from experience, but I should think that at schools where there are boarding-houses, it would be an interesting subject for the boys during their leisure hours, to be kept as we keep Geology, except in the Sixth Form, for boys who want a scientific hobby which shall have no flavour of school work about it, and much to be encouraged. Perhaps, for schools not able to afford laboratories, and for girls' schools, this subject might be well taught with Physiography.

But in Science teaching the great point is to get a good man as the teacher of this subject; his post is by far the most difficult one to fill. He must not only be an excellent disciplinarian, but also a skilful experimenter, and a good impartor of knowledge. The subject is a confessedly difficult one for some boys, and then a man who has to take his eyes off the class for more than a minute at a time, when experimenting, cannot at once detect when a boy is gazing vacantly into space or surreptitiously amusing himself or others with a little by-play behind the scenes. To obtain such men is somewhat difficult: for many students the medical profession has greater attractions; and, again, the knowledge that by taking to commerce a much larger income is obtainable than can ever be hoped for from teaching, has its due weight.

Had it been germane to this subject, I should have said a few words on the building and fitting up of lecture-rooms and laboratories, especially since visiting the new City of London Schools, where I found one of the best lecture-rooms in the kingdom, combined with a laboratory not worthy of a school one quarter its size—the whole apparently fitted up under the supervision of one who did not understand that school work-rooms and laboratories ought to differ very essentially from College or University ones.

I think it would be highly advisable and conducive of much good both to teachers of Natural Science and to Head-masters, to establish a yearly conference of the former—held, say, the week before Christmas, and in London—in order to stereotype somewhat our methods of teaching, and to afford information with respect to text-books; so that we might more quickly attain the position held by our, in this respect, more fortunate colleagues, the teachers of Classics and Mathematics, who have no longer to make experiments, each after his own fashion, and who can follow methods which had slowly crystallised, perhaps, before they themselves were born.

And who will doubt the importance of this subject? What, for instance, is the value of Mathematics to a boy who has not learnt how to apply his knowledge to Astronomy or Physics? Surely, accuracy alone can be taught as well by Natural Science, which is to a great extent a mathematical subject. And, again, what is the worth of being able to express one's thoughts in different languages, if this cannot be done accurately? and what subject teaches the value of words, and the true methods of classification, better than this? and what boy will not have broader, more practical, and higher ideas of life, after the study of a subject which, like religion, has had followers who have died martyrs for its sake?

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GENERAL AIMS OF THE TEACHER.*

By CANON FARRAR.

IF this were meant to be a formal lecture before the University, I well might shrink from it, for I have only had a few short fragments of overburdened time to give to it. But I assume throughout that I am speaking only—and speaking, I might almost say, confidentially—to a small body of young men, who intend to devote their lives to the honourable labours of the teacher. I have no claim to address you, even thus familiarly and unreservedly, beyond the fact that I was invited to do so. I shall not pretend to speak *ex cathedra*, or as though by any work of mine I had earned the smallest right to dogmatize; but I might almost begin in the words with which Quintilian begins his "Institutio Oratoria," "Post impetratam studii meis quietem, quae per viginti annos erudiendis juvenibus impenderam." I should, indeed, have to alter the word *quietem*; for leisure is a thing to which I have bidden a final farewell. But, for twenty years—for twenty years happier than I can hope to see again—I enjoyed the high honour of being first an Assistant-master, and then a Head-master, in great English Public Schools. During that time hundreds of boys have passed under my hands, so that I have had a large share in the training of young Englishmen of every age, and of every degree of capacity. When first I left Cambridge, not only before I became a Fellow, but even before the Tripos List was out, I was invited to this work by the offer, from Bishop Cotton, of a Mastership at Marlborough College. I had not been much more than a year at work—sharing the teaching of the Sixth Form with the Head-master—when I was invited to Harrow by Dr. Vaughan. There I laboured for fifteen years. At the end of that time I was elected to the Mastership of Marlborough, and, after nearly six years of ruling a prosperous and happy Public School, I was taken, sorely against my will, to other work, not only of yet deeper anxiety and severer strain, but with none of the sunshine and brightness of the life which, up to that time, God had granted to me. I love, I honour the work of a schoolmaster. I say with Luther, "If God had not sent me to be a preacher of His word, I should choose, before all things, to be a schoolmaster." If, then, you find my advice homely and commonplace, as indeed it will be, I will ask you to bear with it as being, at any rate, the fruit of genuine experience.

* A lecture delivered at Cambridge, March 3, under the direction of the Teachers' Training Syndicate.

That which is not new may yet, perhaps, acquire a certain novelty and a certain worth, when it represents a fragment of the hard earnings of living experience. In the now distant days when I left Cambridge as a youth, no one ever dreamed of training teachers. The art of teaching was supposed to spring into full-born life,—often, I fear, not until the head of the teacher had been cleft in twain in more ways than one. I do not think that one word had ever been said to me about boys, or the best method of teaching them, or the wisest plans for rendering those methods effective, when, at the age of twenty-two, I first took my seat in the Master's chair. *Experientia docet*—"Experience," to repeat the venerable joke of my old Cambridge tutor, "does it." To the teacher, as to all others, experience is the best, if also the sternest, of all instructors; and no one can supersede the necessity for her often painful lessons. But the *pain* of some, at least, of her lessons she does not grudge to remit to those who are humble enough to learn from others, and not to despise the application of truths because they are known to be so very true.

I. When any of you find yourselves in the position which fell to my lot thirty years ago—the position of being suddenly set down to teach a large form of boys, some of whom are only a few years younger than yourselves; boys inclined to fun, perhaps even to mischief, perhaps even to turbulence,—almost the first qualification which I should postulate, would be *a sense of the importance, the dignity, the sacredness of your task*. If a teacher is wholly unimpressed by the sense of this sacredness,—an impression which may remain with him, not as a burden, but as an inspiration even in his lightest hours,—I do not think that he will ever make a perfect teacher. The teacher's hand must always be on the tiller, but, if he would steer aright, his eye must ever be on the directing star. His task is sacred, for two reasons:—one, the transcendent importance of the results which it produces; the other, the rapidity and intensity of the influences which tend to those results.

1. When the great scholar Muretus was travelling in the disguise of a beggar, he was taken ill at a foreign town. His illness called for some serious operation; and, talking to each other in Latin, the physicians said, "Fiat experimentum in corpore vili." "Vilemne animam appellas?" exclaimed the indignant scholar to his startled hearers, "pro qua Christus non est dignatus mori." The anecdote tells us why every soul of every child of man is to the Christian sacred, and even of infinite sacredness. But, quite apart from this thought, the vast possibilities which lie in every human soul, should be enough to make the task of its training a solemn and a sacred one. In 1793, when he was expecting every hour to be led off to the guillotine, Dupont de Nemours said,—“Even at this incomprehensible moment, when morality, enlightenment, love of country, all of them only make death at the prison door, or on the scaffold, more certain,—yes, on the fatal tumbrel itself,—with nothing free but my voice, I could still cry ‘Take care,’ to a child that should come too near the wheel. Perhaps I may save his life; perhaps he may, one day, save his country.” But I think that religious men—men who not only believe in God, but have faith in Him—must feel this more deeply than others, even as religious nations have so felt it. Contrast the neglect of early education and the contempt in which teachers were held among the Greeks and Romans—a neglect and contempt so feelingly portrayed by Juvenal—with the feelings of the Jews, as shown in many passages of the Talmud. In one of these, they tell how once, in a great drought, their greatest Rabbis prayed and wept for rain, and the rain came not. And, at last, a common-looking person got up and prayed to Him who causeth the wind to blow and the rain to descend, and instantly the heavens began to cover themselves with clouds, and the rain began to fall. “Who art thou,” they cried, “whose prayers have alone prevailed?” And he answered, “I am a teacher of little children.” Who shall estimate what the world has gained by wise education, and what it has lost by the neglect of it? “Providence,” as Victor Hugo says, “entrusts us with a portion of its own functions. God says to man, I confide to thee this child.” “All,” says

Dr. Arnold, “who have meditated on the art of governing mankind, have felt that the fate of empires depended on the education of youth.” “Give me the children,” said Cardinal Wiseman, “and in twenty years all England shall be Catholic.” “Train a boy well or ill, and of the effects of your training,” said Sydney Smith, “you can neither measure the quantity nor perceive the end. It may be communicated to children’s children; it may last for centuries; it may be communicated to innumerable individuals.” Among the busts of the Roman Emperors at the British Museum, you may see one of a child about six years old. It would be impossible to find a face of more exquisite and winning loveliness. The hair rests in sunny waves about a smooth forehead; the features are full of mirthful innocence. You wish to see what sort of a man that child became. You anticipate a face full of manly beauty. What you see is a face puffed, bloated, sullen, of which you know not whether it repels you most by its brutal sensuousness, or by its sanguinary ferocity. Who had the training of that bright and trustful child? First, a barber and a dancer; then relatives and parents of exceptional infamy. He was the wild beast of the Apocalypse, the Emperor Nero. On the other hand, consider how many have borne testimony to the truth that a child trained in the way wherein he should go, will not depart from it; will not *wholly*, will not *finally* depart from it,—at the worst will not *so* wholly and *so* finally depart from it as if he had *not* been rightly trained. “I bless God heartily,” said Lord Russell on the scaffold, “that I had the advantage of a religious education; for even when I minded it least, it still hung about me and gave me checks.”

2. Then, besides this vast importance of the effects he may produce, no wise and good teacher should ever forget the rapid intense impressions—often, alas! unconscious, unintended impressions—which, for good or for evil, he will inevitably produce. Every biography is full of the *little* things, the apparently infinitesimal trifles, which have guided or moulded human careers. We all know the story of King Alfred and the illuminated missal. Sir W. Jones attributed his learning to his mother’s invariable answer to his questions, “Read and you will know.” The first impulse which swayed the genius of Vauban, the great engineer of his age, was being shut up in a room which had nothing in it but a clock. “That picture,” said Turner, pointing to a mezzotint of Vandervelde, which he had seen as a boy, “made me a painter.” Mr. Ruskin attributes his Art impulses, in no small measure, to his tracing out the patterns of the carpet, when, as a little boy, he had no toys to amuse him. Darwin tells us how the engraving of a tropic scene in one of his books, as a child, ultimately culminated in his accompanying, as a naturalist, the voyage of the *Beagle*. When we visit Rugby, they show us Arnold’s table, with the inscription on it, written by the present Archbishop of Canterbury, “In hæc sellâ Arnoldus literas docebat . . . Ad virtutis veritatisque amorem Domini Jesu invitationem, voce, fronte, moribus suos excitabat.” I remember, years ago, when Dr. Benson, then a Rugby master, showed me the inscription, I told him that the word which struck me most was “*fronte*.” Arnold’s very look, the look of a good as well as of a strong and resolute man, was an education to his pupils. For this reason I am convinced that no *bad* man can ever be a good teacher. Boys catch the very tones of their Head-masters, and, in examining written answers, you may almost tell what school a Sixth Form boy comes from, if you know his master’s handwriting. Teachers have a vaster power in their grasp than any which they can imagine. Humboldt, on the banks of the Orinoco, saw the naked copper-coloured children of the Indians rubbing the shining seeds of the Negretia, and amusing themselves by attracting straws and feathers with them. How little did those Indian children guess, how little did even the wisest ancients know, when they observed the attractive powers of rubbed amber, and called it *ἤλεκτρον*, that the force which they were eliciting was the same force which crashes in the thunder, and flames in the lightning! and yet that men should soon learn to seize it by its wing of fire, and bid it carry their messages in a moment round the girdled globe; or, with its wild spirit tamed to

service of commodity, should make their nightly cities as bright as day! But what is the lightning to the spirit of man?

“How swift is the glance of the mind!
Compared with the speed of its flight,
The tempest itself lags behind,
And the swift-speeding arrows of light.”

Understand it, train it, direct it rightly, and you shall send it flashing through the generations, flashing over all the world.

3. Now, in teaching and training, one of your first requisites will be the power of Discipline. It is a curious gift. You cannot by any means always predict who would, or who would not, be likely to possess it. I have known some teachers, very great and very eminent men, who were wholly without it. One of these was my dear friend and teacher, Frederic Denison Maurice. You could not meet a truer man, or look on a nobler face. I had the great advantage of being for three years his pupil at King's College. We all knew that he was a great man, an honoured man, a deep thinker,—many of us longed to learn from him; yet, again and again, his lectures at King's College used to be interrupted by childish and brainless disturbances, which either would not have occurred at all, or could have been instantly suppressed by many a graduate of the most commonplace attainments. Another great man wholly devoid of powers of discipline, was my dear friend and fellow-undergraduate, James Clerk Maxwell. His lectures, when he did lecture to large promiscuous bodies of youths, were often a mere bear-garden, in which he was helpless—strong and great and good as he was—either to control or to teach. The special gift of disciplinary power—such a gift as thea possessed by Pestalozzi, who once reduced to order a turbulent throng of boys by simply lifting his finger—is very rare; the total absence of it is also very rare. It is a sort of knack which may be acquired. When authority is firmly, kindly, justly exercised—when the teacher is calm, and without nervousness, and means both to rule and to teach—when he shows from the first the “comitate condita gravitas,” he does not often fail. Most men, after a little preliminary experience, become at least moderate disciplinarians. When I first went to Marlborough as an Assistant-master, in 1854, one so utterly inexperienced, and so exceptionally ignorant of boys, and of Public Schools, and indeed of the commonest facts of life, as I was, might well have thought the task very formidable. The school was in the detumescence of a most ruinous rebellion. The first sight which caught my eye was an inscription on the wall in chalk, in foot-long letters, “Bread or Blood.” I was told a curious history of some of my boys:—how the temper of one was absolutely ungovernable; how another had recently bored a hole into a gas-pipe with a red-hot poker; how the windows of the common-room used, not long before, to be broken with stones; how, in one master's form, the boys used to catch mice and let them loose. Moreover, I was put to teach, as none of you will be, in a huge schoolroom, in which some six other large forms were being simultaneously taught. The circumstances were so distracting that, in one of my first letters to a Cambridge friend, I said, that to be a teacher one needed the voice of a Stentor, the hands of a Briareus, and the eyes of an Argus. But I soon found that, if a teacher have but the most moderate powers, he is effectually supported, not only by the natural and inherent good sense and right feeling of his scholars, but also by the routine, the discipline, and the traditions of a great school. I discovered in later days, that when, in a great English Public School, a Head-master turned his head, it was enough to reduce a noisy room to silence. The other day, the schoolroom of a certain great school, on a wintry morning, was a tempest of contagious coughs. Now, nothing is more difficult than to keep down coughing. The Head-master got disturbed; he simply said, in the quietest possible voice, “Less noise if you please; repress your coughing,”—and lo! not one cough was heard again till prayers were over. At Marlborough, as a very young Assistant-master, I had the quite inestimable blessing of a beautiful example. Surrounded by difficulties, in a school just out of rebellion, at that time badly fed, and not long before inadequately officered,

so crushed with debt that almost the first thing Bishop Cotton said to me was, “You know this school may disappear any day in blue smoke,” I saw how, by patience, by humour, by tact, by wisdom, by goodness, by fearless courage, by firm inflexible justice, he became to that school a second founder, and a name and tradition of good for ever. In a moral and intellectual, if not in a physical sense, “Lateritiam invenit, marmoream reliquit.” It is needless to say that he was a good disciplinarian.

If, after a year's experience, a man cannot keep boys in perfect order, he will save himself much misery and much obstructiveness, if, as I have advised many a young graduate to do,—for his own sake, and still more for the sake of others—he will have the courage to choose another career.

4. But I should give this advice, even more strongly, if a master can indeed keep discipline, but it is only the discipline of death; only a discipline maintained by constant punishments. Who can estimate the evil which has been done by centuries of flogging? I quite admit that many a rough nature, trained upon it, has not been much the worse for it. But, if you want to estimate the harm it has done, read De Quincey's Autobiography. As a young boy, I was trained under that system. I was certainly diligent, I was not exceptionally stupid; but yet I was for some time among those

“Si quos Orbilius ferulâ scuticâque cecidit.”

For every mistake in the multiplication table—for every slip in an “Arnold's Exercise”—for every bad piece of construing,—the formula used to be, “Hold out your hand”; and there followed an excruciating blow across the tender part of the palm. In my early school days, I have, as an every-day matter, seen backs scored with red and blue weals, which, in these days, would secure, in favour of the most mischievous street Arab, a verdict in any police court. Down to times so recent has the pestilent practice of the *plagosus Orbilius* reigned supreme. They still show at Rome the birch of the saintly Gregory. I should like every schoolmaster to read the wise advice and reproof of St. Anselm to the Abbot who complained that he never ceased beating the boys at his school day or night, and that they grew up dull and brutal. But the Saint's advice was not remembered. Longchamps, Bishop of Ely, in Richard I.'s time, used to prick his pages with an ox-goad. English literature, from Skelton, who tells us how his back was “scooryd” at school, and Piers Plowman, who says, “You maked the boye so sore with beatyng that he coude not speake a worde,”—down to Pope, who talks of the birch blushing with patrician blood, and Coleridge, who describes the flagellations habitually inflicted by the Rev. J. Bowyer, and De Quincey, who tells how a brutal flogging drove forth his beautiful brother “Pink” a wanderer in the world,—English literature is full of this gross cruelty. Agnes Paston, in 1457, writes to Greenfield a request that, if her boy at Eton has not done well, “he will truly belash him.” She beat her daughter once or twice a week, sometimes twice a day, and broke her head in two or three places. It is said that Lady Russell, daughter of Sir Antony Cook, beat her little son by a former marriage to death, for a blot on his copy-book. Every one knows the pathetic lines of Tusser:—

“From Paul's I went, to Eton sent,
To learn straightways the Latin phrase,
Where fifty-three stripes given to me
At once I had;
For fault but small, or none at all,
It came to pass thus beat I was,
See Udall! see the mercy of thees
To me poor lad!”

Every one knows how Lady Jane Grey describes the treatment which she received from her own parents, unless she did everything “so perfectly as God made the world.” “I am so sharply taunted,” she says, “so cruellie threatened, yea, presentlie sometimes with pinches, nippes, and bobbes, and other waies which I will not name,—so without measure misordered, that I

think myself in hell.* Every one knows how a brutal pedagogue showed off his discipline to Erasmus, by calling up a boy, and shamefully beating him for nothing at all, and simply "pour encourager les autres." One is reminded by these quotations, of what Plautus wrote not far from two millenniums earlier:—

"Quam librum legeres si uua peccavisses sullaba,
Fieret corium tam maculosum quam'st nutrieis pallium."

It is literally only in this generation that this reign of terror has wholly ceased. Even in Mr. Bosworth Smith's Life of Lord Lawrence, we read that he, when asked whether he had ever been flogged as a boy, replied with grim satisfaction and Spartan brevity, "I was flogged every day of my life at school except one, and then I was flogged twice." If the Teachers' Syndicate had existed in old days, one hopes that such a system would long ago have received its death-blow. And here let me give my deliberate testimony, from six years' experience as Head-master of a school of more than 580 boys, that well-trained English boys may be guided by a thread; and that, in a good English school, corporal punishment may be so much minimized as to be wholly exceptional, and in some of the best schools almost entirely unknown. Dr. Busby and Dr. Keate may doubtless, in their own way, have been great teachers, but let us hope that the barbarous methods in which they exulted, were *vitia temporum*, not *vitia hominum*, and that henceforth they are over for ever.

5. But I would apply the spirit of the remark much more widely. I would say, that in ordinary teaching, the more you punish in any way, the worse master you are; that he is the best master who needs to punish least; and that, if such a thing should exist as a perfect master, it is probable that, so far as mere teaching is concerned, he would never have to punish at all. "Impositions," "lessons to write out," "lines," "abstracts," whatever they are called, are, in the essence of them, confessions of weakness. They are in many respects injurious, and there is very little to be said for them. "Write me out five hundred lines of Homer, with all the accents." I have known masters say that, perhaps in a moment of anger, perhaps for no moral fault;—but, what a bad punishment! Scarcely ever will the good master have to resort to such a method. When a form sees that he is in earnest; that lessons *must* be learnt; that if they are neglected from idleness, they will have to be said again; where the master is endowed with such gifts, that he can encourage, help, sympathise, inspire,—he will either find punishments all but extinct, or he will measure by their frequency his own incapacity, and his own failure.

6. And I would still further apply the remark to abuse, taunts, sarcasm. I have known masters who habitually shout at their boys, "little fool," "little idiot," "little ass," and so on. A master is very ill-advised to use such language; he cannot do it without great and serious loss of dignity. I have known a master upbraid a boy with stupidity. Now there is a *moral anaesthesia*—a dematement preceding doom—which may sometimes deserve such an epithet; although "hebetes et indociles pauci admodum; in pueris elucet spes plurimorum." But, if a boy be really and congenitally dull—dull, that is, in certain subjects, for a boy dull in all subjects is very rare—"falsa enim est querela paucissimis hominibus vim percipiendi quæ tradantur esse concessam,"—it is as shameful and useless a cruelty to taunt him with being stupid, as to taunt him, as Lord Byron's mother used her son, with a personal defect. A clever and quick master, worried by a heavy, obstinate boy, may be tempted to keen sarcasm. I hold that, except to suppress insolent vice—in which case sarcasm may be used as keen as a razor's edge—such sarcasm is an inexcusable tyranny. I once knew a boy, now in an important position, and an honoured and useful member of society, who somehow seemed to invite ridicule, partly by his absence of humour, partly by his peculiarities. Now Bishop Cotton had a singular

fund of dry but inimitable humour, and one day he made the whole class laugh by his satirical criticisms of this boy. When the lesson was over, the boy waited, went up to the master, and said with quiet dignity,—“Sir, I am not clever; I dare say my work is very poor; but it is not my fault. I do my best, and I do not think it just that you should make me your laughing-stock.” Cotton listened to him with kind sympathy, and—such is the characteristic mark of a good man—he was never once known to use his powers of sarcasm in the same way again. I think it may help a master to feel in how very deep a sense it is true, that "*maxima debetur pueris reverentia*," if he will always steadily bear in mind two thoughts—one, that every event of those days will live for years in the vivid photograph of his pupils' memories; the other, that, a year or two hence, he will meet those pupils as bearded men, whom, if he has been unjust to them or unkind, he will be unable to meet without a pang.

7. Then I would say, *Trust your boys*. Take their word whenever it is possible; I would almost say, sometimes when it seems impossible to do so. You will think that, if I have not yet reached my dotage, I must be near it, being in my anecdotal age; but, as it is my sole and very humble desire to be of use, I will tell you two incidents which impressed me with the value of this lesson.

A few days after I went to Marlborough, I was in charge, after dark, of a very large schoolroom full of boys, of whom many belonged to the old *régime*. To keep order among them all, quite unaided, was very far from an easy task. Boys often liked to get out into the court. A boy came up to me with his handkerchief at his nose, and said, "Please, sir, may I go out?—my nose is bleeding." I am sorry to say that I took away his hand. His nose *was* bleeding, and, having had no special reason to suspect the lad, I saw at once how wrongly I had done, and frankly begged his pardon. Some years afterwards, at Harrow, two boys brought me Latin exercises, marked at intervals by the same grotesque mistakes. It seemed certain that those exercises could not have been done independently. I questioned the boys. Both assured me that there had been no copying. One, whom I had always considered a boy of high *morale*, assured me of this again and again with passionate earnestness. I said to him,—“If I were to send up these two exercises to Dr. Vaughan, if I were to show them to any jury in England, they would say that these resemblances could scarcely be accidental, except by something almost like a miracle. But you both tell me, and assure me, that you have not copied. I cannot believe you would lie to me; I must suppose that there has been some most extraordinary accident, of what nature I cannot tell. I shall say no more.” Years after, one dark night as I returned from chapel,—it was so dark that I could not see the boy's face, but only recognise his voice,—that boy, who was a monitor, and near the top of the school, said to me, "Sir, do you remember that exercise in the fourth form?" "Yes," I said "I remember it well." "Well, sir, I told you a lie. It *was* copied. You believed me, and the remembrance of that lie has remained with me, and pained me ever since." That boy is now an able and distinguished man of letters. I am inclined to think that he was more effectually taught, and more effectually punished, than if I had refused to accept his protests, and had "sent him up for bad." But, while I am on this subject, I will add my conviction that, during twenty years, I was very seldom told a falsehood. One reason for this was, not only that I made it a general rule to believe a boy's word, but still more that I took extreme pains to avoid ever *surprising* a boy into a denial, or an equivocation. I believe that many falsehoods are—to quote Cardan's expression—manslaughters upon truth, not murders. They spring from the instinct of self-protection always shown by the timid animal. By a blundering method in this matter, it is fatally easy to entrap a boy—even a boy naturally truthful—not only into one lie, but into a series of linked lies, such as shall injure his character, and rest like a chain of fire upon his conscience, for many a long day—nay, more, such as may involve a long course of self-deception, and fatally undermine his moral strength. If he

* For one or two of these references, I am indebted to Mr. Furnival's "Early Education in England."

have been suddenly surprised, by being taken off his guard, into *one* lie, the very shame of so unwonted an offence will lead him into another, and yet another, that he may buttress up the first. Trust your boys; teach them to trust you; rely on their sense of your sympathy and kindness, and not on fear; do not take them off their guard; say a few kind words to a boy; give him time to think; arm him against his own weakness; and you will rarely be told anything which is not true.

8. Once more, I would say, "Do not be too niggardly of praise and encouragement." I say this very earnestly. When I came up to Trinity College, although I had won scholarships and prizes elsewhere, I was, in many respects, very ill-prepared, and I think that at least a score of men, even in my own College, would very easily have beaten me. It was, in a worldly point of view, very important to me to do well in the Tripos. Great personal diffidence, added to a temperament which was a very anxious one, weighed heavily upon me. In my last Long Vacation, when time was more than ever important, I caught what used to be called the Cambridge fever. You know that praise and encouragement have never been prominent parts in our Cambridge system of teaching. For most men, perhaps, they are not needed, but for some men they are; at any rate, I am quite sure that, if any one had ever said to me, "You need not be anxious, or distress yourself; you may look forward with reasonable certainty to a first-class," he would have lifted from my mind a load of heavy care. I do not think that, when we have passed these ordeals, we ever adequately recall the pressure which results to many young minds from the over-extending system of competition. I recall how one man, now of the highest rank, once left Cambridge suddenly in an agony of disappointment, after failing to win a scholarship. I recollect the case of another, who, though he became a Fellow, yet took to drinking as the result of a comparative failure in the Tripos, and now lies in a nameless grave. I think of a Marlborough boy, a bright young lad, who went to Oxford, and on the very eve of an examination was found dead, with a gun beside him, in his own rooms. This *mandarinat*, as a French writer calls it,—this Chinese system of competitive examinations, which results in part from the high pressure of difficulties in an overcrowded country,—has its dark and evil side; and I think that teachers may diminish its evils. By a little judicious praise and encouragement, they may often dissipate needless anxiety. They may always, in their general training, put competition on its right basis; they may show boys that it is not everything; that it does not always, or often, test the highest gifts and qualities; that failure in it need not be nearly so fatal to their prospects as they suppose. I remember how Henry Martyn, in his Life, tells us how much he was calmed and strengthened, on the eve of the examination which left him a Senior Wrangler, by a University sermon on "Seekest thou great things for thyself? Seek them not, saith the Lord." We may always teach our boys to look first and most to that competition in which no good man can fail. We can, with Mr. Ruskin, say to them, "I want you to compete, not for the praise of what you *know*, but of what you *become*, and to compete only in that great school where Death is the Examiner and God the Judge." And our encouragement may, most of all, be needed by those who do not excel at all in the studies with which we are most directly concerned. "He took me," said Jeremy Bentham of the late Lord Lansdowne, "out of the bottomless pit of humiliation, he made me feel that I was something." I once had a pupil who did not succeed at all, or only very moderately, in the ordinary curriculum of schools. He is now a man of high political and literary distinction. I know no pupil of mine, however brilliant, who is so likely to climb to the highest things; and he always says that the self-reliance which has helped him forward could never have sprung up, but for the early and cordial recognition of power which found no play in the school routine. And, as illustrating what I have said about the encouraging recognition of merits which lie outside our ordinary school routine, I think that you will all be interested to hear a letter which I once had the honour to receive from Charles Darwin. Knowing him

slightly, I sent him a lecture of mine, delivered sixteen years ago before the Royal Institution, on "Some Defects of Public Education." "I am very much obliged," he wrote, "for your kind present of your lecture. We have read it aloud with the greatest interest, and I agree to every word. If I had been a great classical scholar, I would never have been able to have judged fairly on the subject. As it is, I am one of the root-and-branch men, and would leave Classics to be learnt by those alone who have sufficient zeal, or the high taste requisite for their appreciation." Then, after very kind words to me, which I omit, he adds,—"I was at school at Shrewsbury, under a great scholar, Dr. Butler. I learnt absolutely nothing, except by amusing myself by reading and experimenting in chemistry. Dr. Butler somehow found this out, and publicly sneered at me, before the whole school, for such gross waste of time; I remember he called me a 'Poco Curante,' which, not understanding, I thought was a dreadful name." This letter of a great man is, I think, instructive in many ways. It illustrates our vivid memories, even to old age, of words spoken to us in early boyhood. It illustrates how undesirable it is to sneer. It shows how minds of the grandest capacity may not even be touched by an exclusively classical curriculum. It shows how much we should try to have wide appreciation of differing gifts and to be many-sided in our teaching.

II. Hitherto I have been speaking mainly of those fundamental aims and considerations which must underlie the teacher's work. I will now venture to make some general remarks on matters intellectual and practical.

1. I would say first, "Make a rule of regularity and faithfulness in routine duties." I would not have this rule treated with morbid and pharisaic rigidity. I would not see a teacher sink into the slave of routine. It is much more important that he should remain vigorous, fresh, in good spirits, and constantly equipped with new stores of knowledge, than that he should invariably pay tithes of mint, anise, and cummin in minor duties. Take the correction of Verses. I groan and grieve to think over the number of hours, and *days* of hours, in my life, which have been irrevocably wasted, and worse than wasted, in the execrably bad system—killing to the master and worthless to the boy—of turning boys' bad exercises into "fair copies," and transforming the crippled and hobbling lines of boys into a wooden semblance of soundness. I hold it to be one valuable service in life that I gave one of the first, and one of the strongest, blows to the practice of teaching Latin Verses to all boys alike, which entailed no small part of this senseless and useless drudgery. I must not, however, digress into that topic, but will say that, given a human and sensible system of written exercises, they ought, as a rule, to be faithfully looked through and marked. A great man, indeed, may do without this rule. The late Bishop of Manchester, Dr. Prince Lee, did not follow it. I have heard one of his illustrious pupils describe in old days, how he would sometimes have a whole drawerful of uncorrected exercises, and then, summoning up a boy, would take one of the exercises, almost at random, and correct it or criticise it in such a way as the boy never forgot. With such a man as Prince Lee such a system will work well; but, if an ordinary man does not make a rule of noticing his boys' written work, they will assuredly cease to take pains with it. A Head-master once told me that he had never quite got over the pain he felt because *his* old Head-master never so much as looked at a particular exercise with which he had taken extraordinary pains, and which he considered to be the best he had ever written.

2. Then I will say,—Always, even for the lowest form, *prepare your work*, or at least look at it beforehand. A Scripture lesson, a History lesson, even a construing lesson of ten or twenty lines, will be better and fresher by far, if you have at least glanced it over; much more if you have considered beforehand how best you can bring it out. Perhaps you will tell me that Dr. Arnold by no means always prepared his lessons. "Any hard word in the Aristophanes?" so one of his pupils tells me he used sometimes to say before a lesson; "if so, I shall be flooded." But this, perhaps, was the reason why Dr. Arnold

fell into little scholarship-traps, which some of his best pupils were sometimes audacious enough to lay for him. He never pretended to know what he did not know, and would always pause to look out a word in his lexicon in mid-lesson before his form. But Arnold was Arnold; and a dwarf is ill-advised when he tries to array himself in the garments of a Colossus.

3. If you prepare your lessons, you will better fulfil another requisite of the teacher, which is to *make your lessons interesting*. It is a very old principle, but a very wise one. If the draught must often be unpleasant, there is no harm in tinging the rim of the cup with honey. I do not only mean that the teacher's *manner* should be free from the preternatural dullness, which makes of a lesson a veritable imprisonment to a lively boy. A story used to be told of my dear old college tutor, E. M. Cope, how, on one occasion, without changing one muscle of his face, or one intonation of his voice, he interpolated into his lecture the remark, "What I am now telling you is, I believe, entirely new and most important. It has cost me very long and toilsome research to discover it. And, exactly at this point, I observe that not a single person in the room is paying me the smallest attention." He then continued as before. But I will undertake to say that, had his manner been less despondent and more vivacious, every one would have been listening.

"Ridentem dicere verum
Quid vetat? ut pueris olim dant crustula blandi
Doctores, elementa velint ut discere prima."

But, if it is important that the teacher's manner should not be dry and dull, it is much more so that he should enlist on his side the intellect, the reason, the imagination, the fancy. Is it not deplorable to think, for instance, that, in old days, we used to struggle through the sandy wilderness of numberless inflexions, without so much as a gleam of light being shed on us as to what an inflexion is! Even a young child will go through the frightful ordeal of learning the 1200 forms of a full Greek conjugation, if he has once mastered the conception that not one of these inflexions is arbitrary, or accidental, and that—for instance—such a form as *ἐτετιμήνητο* consists of six parts, and contains the elements of at least five words. I undertake to say that a few hours wisely spent in teaching a boy the nature of words, the difference between loose prefixes and close suffixes, and the simplest elements of philology, would spare him endless labour and make his labour more interesting. Is it not deplorable to think that we used to regard the aorist as a sort of unknown Greek monster, with no one to tell us that our own language, strictly speaking, and apart from auxiliaries, possessed no tenses at all except aorists? and that the laws of the Greek and Latin sentence were drummed into us without so much as a hint that the optative and subjunctive exist in Latin and English as well as in Greek, and are governed by much the same laws? Rational teaching is always more interesting than irrational; and, when one only thinks of the dreary and futile toil spent by hundreds of English lads for years together, with the result of *not* acquiring a single Greek verb, it is at least a duty to make the teaching as human as we can. On the interest of the lessons depends very much of their effect, and very much of real as apart from dead and mechanical discipline. When I was a master, if my form was restless, or if boys yawned, I always primarily blamed, not them, but myself.

4. But, if you make your lessons interesting, if you succeed in inspiring your boys with any love for knowledge, you may often greatly help them forward by the influence which will enable you, without difficulty, to induce them to do private work. A boy, by no means clever, whom I wished to get on in Greek Iambics, once did for me, in his holidays, I cannot tell how many hundred verses from the beginning of Beatson's Iambics, as the result of a request so incidental that, when he told me that he had done them, I had forgotten all about it. A boy who has since become a very able Cabinet Minister, and is the heir of an old and wealthy family, once said the whole of the Agamemnon through, choruses and all, to Dr.

Butler, as part of his voluntary work in the holidays. Those who have read such biographies as that of Dr. Young, or Mill's account of his education in his Autobiography, or the list of books got through in a country parsonage by the late brilliant Professor Henry Smith, ought at least to be aware how much may be done—done without pressure, done thoroughly, and done delightfully—by an able boy under wise guidance. If exceptional boys are rare, so are exceptional teachers; but very much more may be accomplished, even by ordinary boys and by moderate teachers, than is commonly supposed. I feel a strong conviction that, in spite of all our vaunted nineteenth-century wisdom and enlightenment, we are still, in matters of education, in a very rudimentary stage; that we follow many mistaken aims by many cumbersome and ineffectual methods; and that, except in the one matter of kindness, we are, both in theory and practice, far behind many teachers who lived in ages which we affect to despise,—ages when athletics were not so exclusively idolised; when ladies could write and speak in Greek and Latin, as well as several modern languages; when Erasmus read by moonlight, because he could not afford a penny to buy a torch, and the boy Milton had made such striking advance by the age of ten.

5. In the same direction would be my advice to make all the use you can of *illustration*. I employ the term in its widest sense. To illustrate a subject means to throw light upon it, and men had discovered, thousands of years ago, that the memory becomes more impressive through the eye than through the ear. If you are dealing with some historical scene or character, no way of impressing facts upon the memory is comparable to that of putting your pupils into immediate contact with the person or event, by letting him see or handle something which visibly recalls it. A coin, a medal, a bust, a picture, an inscription, a relic, actually examined and handled, will do more to awaken the interest and to impress the memory than almost anything which you can say. The coins, the photographs, the casts, which can now be obtained on such easy and favourable terms from the authorities of the British Museum, are invaluable for this purpose; and I can imagine a Public School-master, at the cost of a few pounds, getting together for his own use a sort of little museum, which would constantly add life, vividness, and interest to his lessons. A boy who has seen the Elgin marbles, and has been taught to see them intelligently, will be far better able to understand Greek. A boy who has seen a good selection of fine Roman coins, will be better able to understand the era of the Republic and of the Emperors. A boy who has actually handled a phylactery, and seen the difference, maintained to this day, between an ordinary phylactery and the broader phylacteries of the modern representatives of the Pharisees, has the germs of considerable insight into Judaism. A boy who has read, on the fragments of the arch which once spanned the main street of Thessalonica, and which are now in the British Museum, the unique word *πολιτάρχης*, which St. Luke, with his memorable accuracy, applies to the magistrates of Thessalonica, may be led to trace the many strong external arguments for the minute faithfulness of the Evangelists.

6. It is needless to multiply instances; but I would strongly urge illustrations of quite a different character—illustrations from historical parallels, illustrations from modern literature, modern poetry, modern languages. I think that, in teaching an Epistle of St. Paul, a boy will better understand the touching messages in the last chapter of the Epistle to the Romans, who has had read to him the exactly analogous dying messages of "the Apostle of the High Alps," Felix Neff. He will better feel the pathos of St. Paul's request for his books and parchments and cloak, if his attention be called to the minute but wholly unconscious parallel, supplied by Tyndale's touching letter from his chill and melancholy prison. The letter to Philemon will shine in brighter colours, when it is compared with Pliny's letter to Sabinianus. The serene cheerfulness of St. Paul, in his Roman imprisonment, will appear still more beautiful when contrasted with the way in which exile, and trials far less intense than St. Paul's, affected the minds and writings of Cicero, of Seneca, and even of Dante.

When I was a schoolmaster, I never used to read with my form a Greek play, without the constant endeavour to compare it with moderu tragedies on the same subject, and to brighten it by all the modern parallels which I could find. I think, too, that the teacher may often be helped, by calling attention to brilliant translations and imitations of classical authors by men of genius. Few translations surpass those of Conington, in their *curiosa felicitas*. What could be a happier rendering of

"Veniam petimusque damusque vicissim,"

than—

"He who needs excuse must needs excuse"?

What could bring out the spirit of

"μηδὲ βαρβάρου φωνῆς δίκην
χαμαιπετὲς βόαμα προσχάνης ἐμόλ,"

better than the grand paraphrase of Symmonds—

"Ope not the mouth to me, nor ery amain,
As at the footstool of a man of the East
Prone on the ground : so stoop not thou to me"?

May not Thomson's

"Where the big torrent foams its madness off,"

suggest the force of Æschylus's—

"ἐνθὰ ποταμὸς ἐκφυσᾷ μένος"?

and may not a boy be interested to find half-a-dozen English parallels to *ποικιλίμων νύξ* or *ποικίλων κυμάτων ἀνήριθμον γέλασμα*? In reading Homer, may he not, with small and most fruitful expenditure of time, be relieved for a moment from the agonies of parsing, by some spirit-stirring rendering from Chapman; or may he not learn a lesson in taste and poetic criticism, if you show him the difference between Homer and the "Anti-homeric Miltonism" of Cowper, and the chasm which exists between the artificial mannerism of Pope and the true perception of Nature, in the famous simile of the sky and stars?

7. I would say, in conclusion, *Try to be many-sided*. Bear in mind that, while our present system of classical education continues, a boy who leaves in a low form has, in literal fact, spent the greater part of his time in *not* acquiring the merest rudiments of Greek accidence and Latin construction. He may learn much from his companions, much from contact with other minds, much from the general routine and training of the school; he may have many incidental chances of knowledge: but I must say, quite deliberately, and as the result of induction from wide experience and very many testimonies, that, *so far as mere intellectual equipment is concerned*, a non-classical boy, an ordinary boy, who leaves in the low form of a public school at the age of sixteen or seventeen, has received the worst of all possible educations. It may be the best that is to be had for him, but, as Talleyrand said, it is "execrable." We are told of some Scotch official, who, visiting a school and making a little speech, called it "this excellent cemetery of education." The other day, a lady wrote to a Head-master, asking him to "inter" a boy in a certain public school; and he, entering into the unconscious jest, wrote back that he would "undertake" it. Many a truth has been spoken in jest or by mistake, and I fear that boys not a few have been intellectually "interred" in our various "cemeteries" of education. Things are, however, far better in this respect than they were thirty, or even twenty, or even ten years ago. Still, I cannot but think that a little brightness, a little variety, a little imagination, might save much of our classical teaching from being needlessly infructuous. Take Mythology. Could any lesson be more suggestive, than a proof of the extent to which Mythology is, on the one hand a disease of language, on the other a poetic and imaginative conception of natural phenomena, and yet that it reflects the deepest experiences, and gives expression to the strongest moral instincts of mankind? A dozen sentences from Bacon, or from Ruskin, about Heracles, about Ixion, about Atalanta, about the Harpies, about the Nemean lion, might give a boy lessons full of poetry, imagination, and moral wisdom which he would never forget. Horace is very

commonly read in all schools. I can imagine no lessons which can be made brighter, more suggestive, more instructive, even for ordinary boys, than good lessons in the Odes of Horace; and yet remember how even a boy so exceptional as Lord Byron says,—

"It is a curseo

To understand, not feel, thy lyric flow,
To comprehend yet never love thy verse,
Although no better moralist rehearse
Our little life, or bard prescribe his art,
Or livelier satirist the conscience pierce,
Awakening without wounding the touched heart."

I think that every teacher would be better for trying to follow the wise old orator's advice:—"Ipse aliquid, immo multa, quotidie dicat, quæ secum audita referant."

It is more than time to conclude these slight hints. Let their slightness and their feebleness be pardoned, and let me only say, that the teacher who has been so blessed as to begin his high work with pure and lofty aims, and to carry it on with intelligent and fruitful methods, has not lived in vain. Some, at least, of his pupils will love him, and honour him, and be grateful to him. Some whom he will never see again, will yet say of him,—

"Still may he find, as slopes life's downward tide,
Each wish, each joy our thoughtlessness denied,
Each passing hour a happier influence shed,
And age steal softly on his honoured head."

Yes, it may be that some tears will be shed by those who stand beside his grave.

Gentlemen, my work as a schoolmaster is over; but you, too, in your turn, are going forth to your work and to your labour until the evening. When Lord Dalhousie was resigning to Lord Canning the government of 196,000,000 people, and was standing on the steps of Government House at Calcutta to receive his successor, Sir John Lawrence asked him what were his feelings at that moment. "He had been standing back, with a wearied look; but, immediately I put the question," said Sir John Lawrence, "he drew himself up, and, with great fire, replied, 'I wish that I were Canning, and Canning I, and then wouldn't I govern India!' Then, of a sudden, the fire died away, and he said, 'No, I don't! I would not wish my greatest enemy, much less my friend Canning, to be the poor, miserable, broken-down, dying man that I am.'" Gentlemen, I, too, feel inclined to say,—I wish that I were now in your place, and then wouldn't I teach! But, no,—"*Morturi vos salutamus*." Thirteen years afterwards, the very same question, "What are your feelings at this moment?" was put to Lord Lawrence—Iron John—when he, too, stood on the same spot, and under the same circumstances, awaiting his successor, Lord Mayo; and he answered, "It was a proud moment to me when I walked up the steps of this house. But it will be a happier moment when I walk down the steps with the feeling that I have tried to do my duty." What better wish can an old teacher offer to you, than that each of you, when you step for the last time from the Master's chair, may feel that you, too, have "tried to do your duty"?

CORRESPONDENCE.

SCIENCE IN IRISH INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—As a practical teacher, perhaps you will allow me a word with reference to Miss Oldham's paper in the last Mid-monthly Supplement. Theoretically, we all agree with the high estimate to be given to Physical Science. But the question is, how has it been found to work practically in the Intermediate programme? To us schoolmasters, that practical test is worth more than all theory.

Some three years ago, when the marks for Chemistry and Natural Philosophy were increased, Mr. O'Reilly, late Assistant Commissioner,

informed us that the object was to create a special class of students who would really make Physical Science a study. Smattering was to be discouraged. Practical as well as theoretical knowledge was to be absolutely necessary in order to score in these subjects in future. These remarks quieted the alarm of us schoolmasters, who only saw in the proposed increase of Physical Science marks, an increased chance for clever boys to come in at the eleventh hour and scramble together sufficient marks to shoot them up on the Exhibition list. The increased marks were given, but with what result? I can say unhesitatingly, from a pretty wide knowledge, with no satisfactory result. The real gainers were not the special class of Physical Science students, who have not been developed yet, so far as I know, but the clever boys who could devote an hour now and then from severer studies to cram up the elementary facts of Chemistry and Natural Philosophy. I will instance one boy who, without even having seen an experiment in his life, or having the least idea how such a thing should be set about, was sharp enough, with the aid of a very elementary but well-written work on Chemistry, to score four-fifths of the marks assigned to that subject. In German, which he had studied with real care, and under an excellent teacher, he barely scored 40 per cent. Other instances of a similar kind I might mention. Suffice it to say that, with such facts before us, our affection for Physical Science as a school subject is not particularly deep. A subject which can be manipulated for cram is a grievous ill in any examination, but particularly so in the Intermediate, where the competition for honour and money is so keen.

It may be said that the standard of examination should be raised?—Perhaps. Yet I suspect that, if the examinations be made really difficult, in the Junior Grade at any rate, the examiners will not be troubled with too many answers, and Physical Science will be more or less abandoned.

Speaking generally, and not specially with reference to any particular examination, it is clear that, to be properly taught, Physical Science requires a good deal of time. Six hours a week are claimed—one-fourth of our teaching time. Into the other three-fourths we must therefore put Greek, Latin, English in its now manifold branches, Mathematics, and Modern Languages. Surely, this is to bring our already overcrowded curriculum to a dead halt.

Miss Oldham's comparison of the marks assigned to Languages, Science, and Mathematics, is misleading. The true comparison is between Ancient Classics and Mathematics. This was formerly 20 to 17, now 24 to 17—a fairly satisfactory proportion, if we look at the papers and the results. Under "Total for Languages" are included the following modern languages:—French, German, Italian, Celtic. We do not expect any schoolboy to take all these, but in all our schools Mathematics is of course taught, and taught to everybody.

RUSTICS.

SCIENCE IN THE CAMBRIDGE LOCAL EXAMINATION.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Perhaps the best answer I can give to Mr. A. H. Scott White's letter in your February number, is that the Syndicate has fallen in with the views of the memorialists, and fresh regulations have been issued, through the Local Secretaries, by which either Zoology or Botany is sufficient to pass the Science Section, providing a certain standard is reached. Mr. White appears to think, that because only *two* hours are given for the papers they must necessarily be easier, and he mentions several papers for which more time is allowed (wisely omitting those for which a shorter time is considered necessary, as French, German).

I am sure teachers would not object to a *four* hours' examination in Science, *two* hours for the paper and *two* hours to describe the specimens.

Again, he states that students who pass in the Science and one other section, are placed in a higher division than those who take up English. Most assuredly, those who pass in Scripture and English only, should be placed in the lowest class.

I ought to mention, that there is really no divided opinion on the subject among teachers of Science, for, with the exception of Mr. White, there was only *one* Head-master who declined to sign, and he proposed that the Syndicate should confine the examination to certain Elements, Classes, and Orders.

Amongst the Head-mistresses the feeling was almost equally unanimous.

I am, Sir, faithfully yours,

Leamington Collegiate School.

ARTHUR RICHES.

POETRY.

A NINETEENTH CENTURY CENTO.

Is it an echo of something read?—MAUD.

A hollow echo of my own.—IN MEMORIAM.

Row us out from Alum Bay, and let us have a jolly blow!
So they rowed us round the Needles, and we sang, "Row
brothers, row!"¹

But our song grew sicklier singing in the Bay of Biscay O!²
Row us, brothers, row us landwards, to your Aquaviva,³ ho!
So they rowed us, and we landed opposite Sea Prospect Row.
There about the beach we wandered, though we found it rather
slow—

(Ten machines, a nurse, three children, and an Ethiop banjo).
Yet 'twas suave to escape the tossing, *suave mari 'tis magno*,
And we caught a far-off echo, Farringfordian⁴, weak and low.
Not the lilting ballad measure, *Lari maxime*, that we know,
Tennyson's our daintiest poet, Tennyson of long ago,
But an echo of an echo, *nono decimo seculo*—
That's the Nineteenth Century. (See the Editorial note below,
Which explains how Vectian⁵ laughter sells in Paternoster
Row.)

[¹ Cantilena quaedam remigum Canadensium. ² Non navigabant in sinu Biscænsi, sed canticum quoddam Dibdeni iterabant.
³ *Aquaviva*, Anglicè *Freshwater*. ⁴ Farringford, villa prope Aquavivam, ubi habitabat poeta noster. ⁵ *Vectian*, epitheton difficilium. Quid (malum) commune est insulae Vecti (Anglicè *Isle of Wight*), cum Sociorum tabernis (Anglicè *Paternoster Row*)? Conjecit Paulus Diaconus, quem cum apostolo vel historico vide ne confundaris, "Vectian Alfred," praestat vero difficilior lectio.—EDITOR.]

"Eia agite, o socii, validis incumbite remis."
Haud secus ac jussi faciant, fallente laborem
Carmine, dum fragilem cymbam jactantibus Austris
Corda novo tandem trepidant agitata tumultu.
Omnibus idem amor est, tunc succedere portu.
"Jam satis est, ohe," sic Flaccus Horatius, "ohe!"
Nec mora, dant retro cursus, et nemine contradicente optata lacti potiuntur arena.
Surgere tum prisci visa est pia nenia vatis,
"Patres conscripti cymba petiere Philippos."
Mox quoque cornicinis lugent memorabile fatum
Et nono decimo repetita pericula sacclo.

W: B.

REVIEWS AND MINOR NOTICES.

The French Revolution. By BERTHA M. GARDINER.
(Longmans & Co. 1883.)

Messrs. Longmans' series has reached the most important epoch of all—the French Revolution, which has been entrusted to Mrs. Gardiner. As far as her space would allow, the writer has treated her subject with thoroughness. Her little book will be of great use in the more advanced schools, and contains, in spite of necessary compression, much to interest all readers. Her treatment of religious and social questions is sober and dispassionate. She has wisely refrained from enlarging on scenes of death and violence, which too often are allowed to obscure the deeper and more abiding changes of the Revolution; and has chosen to dwell chiefly on the course of political movements, and the characters of the men who led them. Indeed, her book rather errs on the other side. Without some account of the murders of the nobles in 1791, and of the insults and outrages done to nonjuring priests and their congregations in 1792, on which M. Taine dwells so much, it is impossible to gain a sufficient idea of what the Revolution was, outside Paris, even before the Terror; of how terrible was its cost; and of the utter inefficiency of the administration during the sessions of the Constituent and Legislative Assemblies. The first two chapters, on "Feudalism and the Monarchy," and "France under Louis XIV.," are, unfortunately, the weakest

part of the book, and suggest the thought that the writer is not at home outside her immediate subject. For instance, to say, in reference to Louis XIV., that "the nation expected more work from its kings," conveys a wrong impression about that most laborious monarch. What the nation wanted was that its kings should do a wholly different work to that which he did. And it is not correct to say that the Belgian insurrection "was under the leadership of nobles and clergy" (p. 23), though some nobles did join it. The account of the struggle which ended in the predominance of the Third Estate, and the formation of the National Assembly, is clear; and the different sections in the Assembly are well and firmly sketched. Nothing in the book is better done than the descriptions of the characters and aims of the leaders of the various parties during the revolutionary epoch. Chief among these stand Mirabeau in the earlier, and Robespierre in the later part of the period. Mrs. Gardiner vindicates Mirabeau from the oft-repeated charge of falseness to his convictions, though she perhaps scarcely gives him full credit for his intense desire to bring the monarchy and the people into union. Mirabeau despised the Assembly, of which he was the soul, and, distrusting the virtue and intelligence of the people, "he looked to the king to be the guide and leader of the nation" (p. 83). To some extent, at least, he was right in his opinion of the National Assembly. Many and great as the reforms were which it effected, it either went too far or not far enough. Its members, for the most part, lacked practical training in politics, and therefore did not hesitate, by the suddenness of the changes they introduced, to excite the wildest hopes, while they had no means of restraining the passions of the people. At the close of its existence, the Assembly saw the difficulties with which it had surrounded itself. The "Massacre of the Champ de Mars" was the evidence of its awakening. It would have been well if the distinctly reactionary spirit of July—September, 1791, had been more clearly pointed out by Mrs. Gardiner. The Jacobins were overawed, the Revolution was declared ended, and the King was set at liberty and received with applause by the Assembly. From this time there were irreconcilable enmities among the revolutionists. It was this crisis which determined the ruin of Lafayette, the execution of Bailly, and, it may almost be said, the Reign of Terror.

The different aims and characters of the Girondists and the Jacobins are well described. Robespierre, with his harsh voice, narrow mind, and cold heart, earnest and relentless, and, at the same time, nervous and undecided, forms the subject of a careful study. His attachment to the doctrines of Rousseau is rightly made the key to much that would otherwise be puzzling in his career. As a directing force in the movements of the Revolution, the importance of the philosophy of Rousseau can scarcely be overrated; and the short notice of his speculations, and of other philosophic systems, at the beginning of the book, is a fitting introduction to its subject. The influence of the political theories of English philosophers on French thought should, however, have received some notice. No mention of Rousseau can be satisfactory without some reference to the doctrines of Locke. And, in a work which will, we hope, be largely used by the young, it would have been useful if the unreality of the supposition on which the theory of the "Contrat Social" is based, and the defects of the system, which provides no organ for the expression of the common will, and which depends on the righteousness of that will, had been exposed, especially as these characteristics had no small effect on the course of the Revolution. The causes of the fall of the Girondists are carefully described, and the somewhat intricate relationships between the Convention, the Committees, and the Commune are treated with considerable clearness. Throughout the whole story, the influences which bore on the course of events receive adequate treatment, considering the size of the book. Concise and satisfactory descriptions are given of the meetings behind the Palais Royal, of the Club of the Jacobins, of the religious changes, and even of some of the leading journals. The nature and importance of the issue of *assignats*, and the attempts made to maintain their value, are

treated so plainly that even young readers will be able to understand the question. Although the political interest of the Revolution almost ends with the fall of the Girondists, the history of the last triumphs of Robespierre,—the fall of the Hébertists and the Dantonists,—and of the sudden collapse of his power, often as it has been told, can never become trite, and the tale loses nothing in Mrs. Gardiner's repetition. The book ends with the formation of the Constitution of 1795. Although not without some faults and omissions, it is, in spite of its size, a really good piece of work. It is lucid and thoughtful, and we can heartily recommend it as a useful and interesting account of the events which formed the greatest crisis in the modern history of the world.

The Tonic Sol-fa Movement. What it is, and why rich and poor should alike support it. By SEDLEY TAYLOR, M.A. (London: J. Curwen & Sons.)

On finishing the reading of this able lecture, we were rather surprised to find that the Tonic Sol-fa movement, which has now been before the public so many years, should still require so much explanation, and so much pleading with the educated classes. No doubt, all educational movements take a long time before they have filtered through all minds with fructifying effect, and the character of this process is generally greater if the movement happens to aim, as in the case of Tonic Sol-fa, at a sweeping and thorough reform, striking at the root of old and long-cherished prejudices. That it should be adopted and utilised by the humble rather than by the rich, is to us not so great a matter of surprise as to the author of the lecture. In this respect it shares the fate of nearly all improved methods of elementary teaching,—of the three R's, for instance, which are far better taught now-a-days in elementary schools than in the homes or in the old-fashioned schools of the rich. Yet even this, we confess, cannot adequately account for the slowness of its general adoption. It has, from its very birth, had to contend against adverse influences far more direct and antagonistic than the mere inertia of the human intellect, and the healthy conservatism which looks askance at all that is new-fangled and that has not yet proved its superiority to the old it tries to replace. But, though the uphill fight has been long, the victory may be said to be visible all along the line. Even the most prejudiced begin to see that there is truth in the comparison which Mr. Sedley Taylor makes, that it is as painful to find that persons who have been taught on the old notation should, after years of training and practice, not be able to sing correctly at sight ordinary music, as it would be to meet with an educated person who could not read aloud at sight from any book that was put before him. Now, this anomaly the Tonic Sol-fa movement endeavours to remove, and we will quote from the lecture the testimony of an antagonist to show with what success it achieves this. Speaking at Oswestry in 1882, Mr. Henry Leslie said:—"I have been watching of late the working of the two systems, Tonic Sol-fa and the Old Notation, in our college classes here. All I can say is, that Tonic Sol-fa has carried the day entirely. There must be something about it which commends it; perhaps it is that Tonic Sol-faists have only one scale to teach, and when you have learnt that you have learnt everything; while in the Old Notation we have many scales. Perhaps it is that Tonic Sol-faists learn intervals from their modulator, and that knowledge carries them through all their subsequent work. What it is, however, I care but little, as the results are so good. Here is this system teaching music well and thoroughly, and if it does this it certainly cannot be a bad system. Certainly, Tonic Sol-fa in Oswestry has been on every line victorious." And here we may, in passing, call attention to his ingenious observation, "*What it is, however, I care but little, as the results are so good,*" as it goes far to account for the prejudices against the New Notation of many eminent living musicians. They care little about the elementary methods of teaching, and great as they are as musicians, and as trainers of those already tolerably trained, they would be but poor teachers of the young and entirely untrained.

But singing at sight, although by itself a sufficient claim to superiority, is not the only advantage of Tonic Sol-fa over the Old Notation. It gives by its adoption of a movable *doh* and the simple device of the "bridge-tone," which shows the relation of any note to the out-going and in-going tonics, a much readier and more direct insight into harmony than the Old Notation. And finally, it enables the singer to dispense with the accompaniment of the pianoforte, and thus to bring out the full beauty of the voice as a musical in-

strument, compared with the pianoforte and any other tempered instruments. Any one who has ever listened to the sweet blending of harmony, say from a string-quartet by first-rate players, and has perceived the superior purity of effect compared with the harmonies on a pianoforte, will fully appreciate this advantage.

Horace—Odes, Book IV. Edited by T. E. PAGE. (Macmillan's School Class Books. 1883.)

A scholarly edition; the notes crisp, pointed, and enriched by numerous illustrations from English poetry. In such a well-trodden field as the Odes there is not much room for originality, but Mr. Page has brought out many new points, and, if we might hint a fault, it is that he sometimes deals rather roughly with his predecessors. Mr. Wickham, though at times commended, is generally trampled upon, and sometimes, as we think, undeservedly. Thus on the famous antiquarian digression in the fourth ode, Mr. Wickham had noted, "The faults of the verses are such as the poet is much more likely to have been guilty of than an imitator." On which Mr. Page sarcastically remarks, "It certainly needs a subtle appreciation of Horace's style to understand why the faults of these lines seem peculiarly Horatian." The sneer, in our judgment, is pointless. The abrupt transitions and parentheses of Horace, of which this is the strongest example, are, as Macaulay has pointed out, a conscious imitation of Pindar's style. Even Horace himself does not escape the lash. For writing *prope qualis*, in xiv. 20, he is compared to the writer of a Cambridge Prize Poem, and it is suggested that the *prope* may have been inserted of malice prepense. What does Mr. Page say to Browning's "Most like the central spike of gold"? The next editor, if he writes in the same line, will certainly pronounce this criticism *saugrenu*. On the other hand, we would call attention to the notes on ii. 49 (*tuque dum procedis*); iv. 14 (*fulvae matris ab ubere*); xiii. 21 (*notaque et artium*); iii. 8 (*quod contuderit*), where the explanation of the subjunctive is certainly right. We notice two misprints—*Metaurem* for *um*, on p. 46; and 37 years for 17, on p. 16.

English Lessons for Schoolroom Use. By KATHLEEN KNOX. (George Bell & Sons. 1882.)

These lessons consist of extracts from English classics, in prose and verse, accompanied by short biographical introductions and numerous questions, and are intended for boys and girls of about twelve. The selection is judicious, and the biographical notices are simple and interesting. The questions will be found useful to point out to a beginner what he has to prepare for an English lesson; but for the teacher they are not suggestive, and only imperfectly carry out the author's second object, "to draw out and stimulate the reasoning faculties," turning, as they do, more on the form and language than on the matter and connexions of thought.

Messrs. Moffatt & Paige have sent us their *First Grade Freehand Test Papers*. One hundred papers with twenty-five varieties of type for eightpence is the *ne plus ultra* of cheapness. Most of the copies have been set in examinations of the Science and Art Department, and we need only add that the quality of the paper is excellent.

[We are compelled to hold over to our next Number the Oxford and Cambridge Locals Papers, and the remaining Papers for the University of London Teachers' Diploma.—ED.]

TEACHERS' TRAINING AND REGISTRATION SOCIETY.

THE Annual General Meeting of the Teachers' Training and Registration Society and of the Bishopsgate Training College for Teachers, was held at the Girls' School, Primrose Street, Bishopsgate, on Friday, Feb. 26th. The Rev. William Rogers presided. The Report of the Society shows a considerable and steady development of the work of training teachers for higher grade Girls' Schools. The number of students in the Training College is forty, of which about one-fourth will remain over next year. Not the least encouraging feature is the fact that the demand for these trained teachers in our best Girls' Schools increases, and it is hoped that the outgoing students this June will be as much sought after as those of last year were. The result, so far as the College was concerned, of the Cambridge Teachers' Examination in 1882 was good, —twenty-three out of twenty-six candidates obtaining Full Certificates, and all obtaining Practical Certificates. The Report mentioned the help afforded the work by friends, who offer Scholarships to cover all or part of the fees of students who could not otherwise afford the Course; and this seems, indeed, a practical and laudable way of helping those who want to help themselves to understand their profession better.

EDUCATION SOCIETY.

STOCKWELL BRANCH.

ON Wednesday, March 14th, Mr. Emil Behnke, lecturer on Vocal Physiology, and teacher of Voice Production, lectured on "The Human Voice," before a large audience of the Education Society and the students of the Training College, Stockwell Road.

Mr. Behnke gave a lucid description of the physiology of the vocal organs, commencing with the lungs; and going into detail as to the various methods of breathing, he particularly emphasized mouth and collar-bone breathing as pernicious in the extreme. The lecturer stated that many voice-troubles arose from a false method of breathing, and, in illustration, gave instances of speakers and singers who had not only recovered, but also increased their power of voice after going through a course of training to enable them to breathe properly. He also strongly condemned the practice of tight-lacing on the part of women, and of wearing belts on the part of men, mentioning in support of his argument the case of a young lady, a pupil of his, who could only expire 100 cubic inches of air with her corset on, but she immediately expired 142 inches when it was taken off. Mr. Behnke gave some valuable information respecting the "registers" of the voice, especially insisting upon the danger of forcing the voice beyond its natural limits in the acquisition of "made" tones.

Referring to the quality of the voice, attention was drawn to a very important matter, which, in training voices, whether of speakers or singers, is greatly neglected—namely, the soft palate. This part of the lecture was illustrated by throwing on a screen some photographs of Mr. Behnke's soft palate in the production of pure vocal tones in different degrees of pitch, and also of nasal tone, the position of the soft palate in each instance being wonderfully clear and well defined. It was also intended to exhibit on a screen the beautiful photographs of Mr. Behnke's larynx in the act of tone production, by the help of which many hitherto disputed points with regard to the voice will be settled, but, unfortunately, the lime-light apparatus broke down, rendering it impossible to show them.

At the conclusion of the lecture, Mr. Behnke gave an interesting demonstration of the use of the laryngoscope, allowing the majority of the audience to witness in his own larynx the action of the vocal ligaments in singing. The usual votes of thanks closed the proceedings.

SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES.

OXFORD.

THE Hertford Scholarship has been awarded to A. H. Cruickshank Scholar of New College; and the following are reported by the Examiners as worthy of mention:—H. D. Leigh and G. R. Northcote, Scholars of New College; and J. H. C. Peile, Scholar of Corpus.

The Senior Mathematical Scholarship, together with Lady Herschel's Prize for Astronomy, has been awarded to A. R. Sharpe, B.A., Scholar of New College; and the Junior Mathematical Scholarship to R. H. Bowdin, Scholar of Balliol. H. J. Read, Scholar of Brasenose, was reported as highly distinguished, and P. K. Tollit, Demy of Magdalen, as distinguished, in the examination for the Junior Scholarship.

The Ireland Scholarship has been awarded to C. N. E. Eliot, Scholar of Balliol; *proxime accessit* W. Hobhouse, Scholar of New College; honourably mentioned, B. M. Allen, Scholar of Balliol, and R. I. Simey, Scholar of Corpus. Mr. Eliot (formerly of Cheltenham College) obtained the Hertford Scholarship in 1881, and the Boden Sanskrit Scholarship in 1883, a fortnight ago, and was honourably mentioned last year for the Ireland Scholarship. Mr. Hobhouse (Newcastle Scholar at Eton in 1880) was honourably mentioned for the Hertford Scholarship last year. Mr. Allen was formerly of Highgate School, and Mr. Simey of Rugby.

The Rev. John Wordsworth, Fellow, Tutor, and Librarian of Brasenose, and Prebendary of Lincoln Cathedral, has been appointed to the newly-constituted Oriel Professorship of the Interpretation of Holy Scripture, to which is annexed the Canonry in Rochester Cathedral, formerly annexed to the Provostship of Oriel, and recently vacated by the death of Dr. Hawkins.

ORIEL COLLEGE.—The following election has been made:—To Classical Scholarships—C. W. Waddington, and G. H. Joyce, Charterhouse; G. W. Ricketts, Winchester College. To an Adam de Brome Exhibition, A. H. Bartlett, from Eton.

BRASENOSE COLLEGE.—The following election has been made (after

a joint Examination with Oriel):—To Classical Scholarships—E. M. Hobart-Hampden, Clifton College; E. F. Macpherson, Winchester College; R. Frampton, Malvern College; W. A. Macfayden, Manchester Grammar School.

QUEEN'S COLLEGE.—The following election has been made:—To Scholarships—H. A. P. Sawyer, Magdalen College School; F. D. Swift, Clifton College (Jodrell Scholar); W. A. Gill, Bradfield College; W. A. Purves, Derby School (Eglesfield Scholar); C. H. Thompson, Hoddesdon School (Mathematical); E. Mears (Natural Science); J. A. Fallows, Rugby School (Eglesfield Scholarship, open *pro hâc vice*). To Hastings Exhibitions—W. J. P. Kaye, St. Peter's School, York; E. L. Fearnside, Leeds Grammar School; J. R. Brunskill, Appleby School; A. E. Fleming, Leeds School; R. S. Crump, Bradford Grammar School; W. M. Grace, Wakefield School. To a Wilson Exhibition, open to natives of Cumberland and Westmoreland—C. Toppin, Sedbergh School.

PEMBROKE COLLEGE.—Mr. Stephen Swabey, of Roysse's School, Abingdon, was on Thursday last elected to an Abingdon Scholarship.

KEBLE COLLEGE.—The following Scholarships have been awarded:—*Classics*—Mr. Raymond Bates, Magdalen College School; Mr. Charles A. H. Green, Charterhouse. *History*—Mr. Edmund F. V. Knox, St. Columba's College. *Science*—Mr. Wilkinson Overend, Yorkshire College, Leeds. *Proxime accesserunt*—Mr. E. H. Hancock, Bristol Grammar School; Mr. F. Overend, Manchester Grammar School.

CAMBRIDGE.

The Bell Scholarships have been adjudged to H. L. Callendar, of Trinity, and Mr. R. James, of King's; the Abbot to J. A. Kempthorne, of Trinity; and the Barnes to H. W. Richmond, of King's.

TRINITY COLLEGE.—The Rev. F. G. Ponsonby has been elected to the vacant chaplaincy.

KING'S COLLEGE.—Mr. Harmer has been elected to the vacant Fellowship. He came up from Eton in 1877; he was Fifth Classic in his year, and, more recently, Senior in the Theological Tripos. He was also a Bell Scholar, and Carus, Evans, and Scholefield Prizeman.

CAIUS COLLEGE.—The Shettleworth Scholarship, open to medical students of any College, has been awarded to W. H. Caldwell, B.A., Scholar of Caius.

The following awards of Scholarships and Exhibitions are announced:—

QUEEN'S COLLEGE.—£50, Taylor (Merchant Taylors'); £35 Hooker (University College School); £30, Hodgetts (Wolverhampton Grammar School); £40, Larcombe (City of London); £40, Phillips (Oundle); £35, Clark (Aldenhams Grammar School).

CLARE COLLEGE.—£60, Sladen (Bishop's Stortford); £30, Tozer (Llandoverly); £50, Christie (Wakefield).

PETERHOUSE COLLEGE.—£60, Marchant (Christ's Hospital); £40, Brockman (Charterhouse); £40, Buck (Merchant Taylors'); £40, Fiddes (Aberdeen).

JESUS COLLEGE.—Rustat Scholarship and £30, A. M. Suthery (Oundle); £60, Dyer (Oundle); Rustat Scholarship and £20, Smith (King Edward's School, Birmingham); £40, Swinthead (City of London); £40, Horsburgh (Marlborough); Rustat Scholarship, North (Blackheath); Rustat Scholarship and £20, Hardy (Haileybury); £50, Sladen (Bishop's Stortford); £40, Carpmal (Finchley).

TRINITY HALL.—£60, Headlam (Haileybury); £30, Cox (Aldenhams). Mathematical Scholarships will be competed for at this College on October 4th.

CORPUS CHRISTI COLLEGE.—Monk, Easterfield, Pain.

PEMBROKE COLLEGE.—£60, Clark (Aberdeen); £30, Thurstan (St. Paul's); £60, Tomlin (Winchester); £60, Streatfield (Oundle); £40, Nisbet (Rugby); £40, Cowper (Canterbury); £40, Knight (Rossall); £20, Ebdon (Charterhouse).

SCOTLAND.

Professor Blackie's efforts have been crowned with success. The Celtic Chair has at length been founded in Edinburgh University, and Professor McKinnon appointed to fill it. Great satisfaction is felt at the appointment among the Celtic population in the city, as Mr. McKinnon has already devoted much time and effort to the promotion of Gaelic studies. For the last ten years he has been Clerk to the Edinburgh School Board. His place there is to be filled by Mr. James Arnott, Writing Master of the High School.

Dr. Sandford, Canon of St. John's, a Member of the Edinburgh School Board, has been appointed Bishop of Tasmania. His departure will be a great loss to the educational interests of the city,

which he has furthered in many ways. He is a brother of Sir Francis Sandford.

The High School has suffered a great loss in the death of John Merry Ross, LL.D., its senior English Master. His extensive knowledge of English language and literature, not only made him a valuable master, but was of considerable value in literary work. He assisted Dr. Findlater with Chambers's Encyclopedia, and afterwards edited the Globe Encyclopedia, and also a school edition of "Paradise Lost." A proposal by the School Board to allow the English teaching of the school to be left henceforth in the hands of the Classical Masters is not likely to meet with approval.

A meeting of teachers and students of Mathematics was lately convened in the Mathematical Class-room of the University, for the purpose of founding a Mathematical Society. It is hoped that it may be established on a broad basis, without any local limitations as to membership, and prove a powerful influence in developing mathematical education in Scotland. Mr. Mackay, Edinburgh Academy, is to be President; Dr. Macfarlane, Examiner in Mathematics to the University, Vice-President; Dr. Knott, assistant to Professor Tait, Secretary and Treasurer. Professors Tait and Chrystal are to be honorary Presidents.

Emeritus Professor Blackie has delivered an address to the members of the Edinburgh branch of the Educational Institute on "Nationality in Education." He impressed the necessity of instructing children in the history of their country's institutions, customs, and struggles for liberty. While what was good in other systems should be introduced to give breadth and liberality to education, Nationality should be strictly impressed to give it character and intensity. Scottish games, even, should be taught to Scottish children, and we should see our boys emulating the golfers' sport, instead of borrowing cricket from their English neighbours. He greatly deplored the custom prevalent among the aristocracy, and even the middle classes of Scotland, of sending their sons to English Public Schools and Universities. The venerable Professor is not alone in regretting that such a course should be considered necessary by them. The desire for education, so strong in all classes of Scottish society, causes many youths to be sent to the Universities, who have not received a proper secondary education, and consequently the standards of the Universities are apt to be lowered. What Scotland needs is a system of secondary schools for all classes. Boys, who are sent from Board Schools to the higher schools of Edinburgh, place both themselves and their classmates at a disadvantage. The Heriot Commission proposes to furnish a remedy. They are about to follow the plan adopted some years ago by the Merchant Company of Edinburgh, of converting their Hospital into a day school, to provide secondary education to the scholars of their own and of the Board Schools at a very moderate fee. An examination has already been held to admit a certain number of children from the common schools free; clothes, books, etc. being provided.

IRELAND.

The Rev. George T. Stokes, M.A., has been elected Professor of Ecclesiastical History, and Prof. H. Brougham Leech, M.A., has been re-elected to the Chair of Jurisprudence and International Law at the University of Dublin. Both appointments stand for five years.

A motion has passed the Council abolishing the Special Examination in Arts required from candidates for Musical Degrees. It has also been decided that the fine work upon the "Theory of Equations," by Prof. Burnside and Mr. Panton, recently issued by the University Press, shall replace Hymer's treatise in the Mathematical Honour Courses.

At an adjourned Council meeting held on March 14th, the following members were appointed a Special Committee "to inquire as to the carrying out of the Council's resolution for admitting women to degrees in Arts in the University," viz., the Provost, Sir R. Kane, Dean Reichel, Prof. Dowden, Prof. Wright, Master Pigot, Prof. M'Alister, Dr. Traill, Dr. Tarleton, Dr. Ingram, and Rev. Dr. Salmon. The resolution of November 29th had reference only to the granting of Degrees. But it has at all times been the privilege of matriculated students to claim teaching from the College, and should women students claim this instruction, as they undoubtedly would, it is not clear upon what principle it could be withheld. How this teaching could be given is, therefore, the problem before the Committee. The total absence in Dublin of an experience of mixed classes greatly complicates its solution; and the danger is great that some decision may now obtain which shall not sufficiently provide in the future for that large expansion in the higher education

of women in Ireland, of which recent years have afforded such remarkable promise. The only feasible proposal yet offered appears to be that Fellows who may be appointed to instruct women students should do so at the Alexandra College; but it is of limited scope, and would be impracticable in cases where laboratories and special appliances became necessary. We may add that at least three members of the Committee are resolutely opposed to the entire movement, and propose to show that it would be contrary to the Charter to proceed further in the matter.

The question as to whether the same student could hold two Scholarships at the same time, which the results of the January examinations had forced upon the Senate of the Royal University, has been referred to the law officers of the Crown, and upon their opinion it has been decided that Mr. Michael P. Dwyer is properly entitled to the full benefit of his remarkable success. It is, of course, still open to the Senate to prohibit future students from attempting more than one Scholarship, should it be thought desirable to do so.

A General Meeting of the Association of Irish Schoolmistresses is to be held in Dublin on April 2nd. The Committee will present a report of what they have been doing during the past year, and an election be made to four vacancies on the Committee, occurring by rotation. It is also proposed to have a discussion upon the "Kindergarten," upon which subject very diverging views are entertained by several prominent members of the Association.

The Annual Report of the Ulster Schoolmistresses Association for the year 1882, has just been printed. It bears ample illustration of the importance and usefulness of such associations. The greater part of the Report deals with matters connected with the Intermediate Education Act. Thus, an account is given of the active measures which the Association undertook in pointing out to the proper persons the serious effect of the very large reductions which the Intermediate Board has had to make in its scale of Results Fees. On this matter, the Report takes occasion to protest against the action of the two Associations of Schoolmasters, in their deputation last year to Mr. Forster, when, not merely were the representatives of the Girls' Schools not invited to attend, but it was actually made a basis of the plea then advanced, that the Girls' Schools had no proper footing in the Intermediate Scheme at all. Another point which is here discussed, and which is of great interest, is the refusal of the Assistant Commissioners to receive, upon the deputation in December last, certain particular members of the Association, who had been actually sent up from Belfast to Dublin as being those best qualified to represent Ulster opinion on that occasion. But the most valuable part of the present report, in our opinion, is its statement of certain principles which the Association seeks to uphold. That the Intermediate Board is not a competent authority to decide what subjects shall preferably form the groundwork of education, and, therefore, that the fullest liberty of choice should be allowed to individual candidates, and a complete equality of standard between the sexes, are opinions which we have frequently supported, and we are glad to find them made such a prominent feature in this Report.

SCHOOLS.

ARCHBISHOP HOLGATE'S SCHOOL, YORK.—Mr. Arthur Willmot Welsh, M.A., of Trinity Hall, Cambridge, has been appointed Head Master.

BLACKHEATH PROPRIETARY SCHOOL.—M. A. North has been elected to a Rustat Scholarship at Jesus College, Cambridge. W. Dunn was elected to an Exhibition of £70 at St. John's College, and W. A. Lewis to an Exhibition of £60, at King's College, Cambridge. The Rev. H. D. Elam was second in the competition for the Head-mastership of Sutton Valence School. We are getting up a performance of *The Acharnians* in Greek, for May 18th and 19th, with appropriate dresses and scenery.

CAMBERWELL GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—The Head Master of the Kendrick School for Boys, Mr. McDowell, has been appointed Head Master.

CITY OF LONDON.—The Second Chancellor's medal for Classics has been awarded to Mr. W. E. Barker, of Trinity College; and the Burney Essay Prize to Mr. W. Rhys Roberts, Fellow of King's College. The Balfe Scholarship for Composition at the Royal Academy of Music has been won by Mr. C. S. Macpherson, formerly of the Fourth Class. In the Architectural School of the Royal Academy of Arts, Mr. Arthur Keen has won the prize for the best design. Mr. J. E. A. Stegall has been appointed Professor of Mathematics at Dundee. Mr. Cecil Bendall has become Curator of Oriental Manuscripts at the British Museum. Mr. H. A. Laurance, formerly of the Latin Class, has gone out in charge of the English division of

the Eelipse expedition to the Caroline Islands. Entrance Scholarships at the Universities have been won by the following nine of our Sixth Form:—R. S. Conway (Captain), at Caius College, Cambridge, bracketed for the First Scholarship in Classics; N. Wedd, at King's College, Cambridge, the First Scholarship in Classics; F. Tillyard, at Balliol College, Oxford, the First Mathematical Exhibition; C. H. Heath and C. A. M. Pond, at St. John's College, Cambridge, bracketed for Scholarships in Classics; T. W. Arnold, at Magdalen College, Cambridge, the Second Scholarship for Classics; H. Bradford has been elected to a Sizarship for Mathematics at St. John's College, Cambridge; M. W. Larcombe, at Queen's College, Cambridge, a Scholarship for Classics; T. H. Swinstand, at Jesus College, Cambridge, a Scholarship for Classics; C. Platts, who left the Sixth for University College, London, last July, has been elected to a Minor Scholarship at Trinity College, Cambridge. We have now got fairly to work in our new home, and are beginning to wonder how we could ever have got on at all in the cramped and stifling quarters we occupied for so long in Honey Lane. The Playground, the Fives Courts, and the Gymnasium, are always thronged, and we have good reason to hope for the best results of our removal in the strengthened health and energy of our boys. Our new masters are Edward Thomas Davies, Esq., M.A., Foundation Sizar of Trinity College, Cambridge; Archibald Grant Munro, Esq., B.A., of Queen's College, Cambridge; Rev. Hugo Lee Harding, B.A., London; Alexander Watt, Esq., M.A., of Aberdeen University; Thomas Handel Bertenshaw, Esq., B.A., London; and Thomas Read, Esq., B.A., London. Mr. Harding is an old pupil of the School, and holds the Cambridge Certificates for the "Theory, History, and Practice of Education," and also for "Practical Efficiency." Our chief gymnastic instructor is Mr. McWhirter, who won the first prize for Gymnastics at an unrestricted competition in the Crystal Palace Grounds in 1868. Mr. James Frew has been appointed as Mr. McWhirter's assistant.

DARVILLE HOUSE SCHOOL, STOKE NEWINGTON.—A well-attended meeting was held on Friday evening, 16th inst., at the rooms belonging to the West Hackney Church, Stoke Newington, when the prizes gained in connection with the Darville House School for girls, were distributed by Mrs. Walsam How. A report was read by the Head-mistress, Mrs. W. F. Raisin, M.C.P., giving an account of the work done by the school from its opening in 1878 to the present time. It was pointed out that the school had been especially successful in the candidates which it had sent up for the Cambridge Local and College of Preceptors Examinations; out of twenty-three pupils entered for different public examinations, twenty-two having passed. The Rev. Septimus Buss, LL.B., who occupied the chair, in the course of his remarks, dwelt upon the importance of having girls educated in the same degree as boys, and spoke of the advantage to the former of being able in these days to receive a University education. Miss Buss, of the North London Collegiate School for Girls, who was present, "had much pleasure in offering an annual guinea prize for competition among the pupils," and a similar offer was made by a gentleman present. After two or three other speakers had addressed the meeting, and Mrs. Walsam How had spoken a few words to the pupils about their home duties, the proceedings closed with "The National Anthem."

DULWICH COLLEGE.—Mr. James Edward Cowell Weldon, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of King's College, Cambridge, was yesterday elected Head Master of Dulwich College, in succession to Dr. Carver. Mr. Weldon has had a distinguished University career. He was Senior Classic, and gained the first of the Chancellor's Medals in 1877. He gained the Carus Prize in 1873, was Bell's Scholar in 1874, Browne's Medallist in 1875 and 1876, and Craven Scholar in 1876.

HARROW SCHOOL.—The Scholarships and Exhibitions have been awarded as follows:—Botfield Scholarship—L. M. Woodward (Minor Scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge); Anderson Scholarship—S. W. Meek; Sayer Scholarship—H. V. Stuart; Neeld Scholarship—G. C. Joyce; Ponsonby Scholarship (for Modern Studies)—E. F. E. Wigram. Neeld Mathematical Prizes.—1. C. S. Vaughan; 2. E. F. E. Wigram. Arithmetic Prize—G. H. Sanders. Botfield Medal (French)—C. S. Vaughan. At Oxford, J. H. F. Peile was *proxime accessit* for the Hertford Scholarship. Messrs. E. Graham, of University College, Oxford, and J. C. Moss, of St. John's College, Cambridge, have been appointed to Assistant-masterships.

IPSWICH.—The Rev. F. H. Browne, M.A., Second Master of Reading, has been appointed Head Master.

LEATHERHEAD.—St. John's Foundation School.—The Headmaster-ship of this school will be shortly vacant by the appointment of the Rev. E. C. Hawkins to the living of St. Bride's, in the gift of the

Doan and Chapter of Westminster. Among the probable candidates, we hear mentioned the Rev. H. Foster, Master of the Modern School, Malvern, and the Rev. E. C. Prior, of Merchant Taylors' School.

LOUGHBOROUGH GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—The brilliant results achieved by this School in the recent Cambridge Local Examination, as shown by the Class List issued last week, fully maintain its high reputation. Its pupils obtained eighteen certificates (of which twelve were in Honours, viz., two First Classes, five Second Classes, and five Third Classes), and twenty-one marks of Distinction, namely, nine in Mathematics, eight in Latin, two in Greek, and two in Drawing.

MARLBOROUGH COLLEGE.—*School Prizes*:—Brown Prize for Classics—W. H. Sharp, F. E. Rowe, *aeq.*; Junior—J. F. W. Little; Congreve Prizes—C. W. Kaye, H. T. G. Abington; Upcott Greek Prose Prize—E. N. Gardiner. *School Honours*:—Hubert Brinton, Commoner of New College, Classical Exhibition at New College; H. L. Callendar, Trinity College, Cambridge, elected to a Bell Scholarship; G. J. Elliott, Scholarship at Lincoln College, Oxford; C. W. Horsburgh, Scholarship at Jesus College, Cambridge. The annual confirmation was held by the Lord Bishop of Salisbury, in the College Chapel, on Wednesday, March 21. The Easter holidays will begin on Friday, April 6.

NEWCASTLE, STAFFS.—Four open Entrance Scholarships will be given at the beginning of the summer term, April 11th. An Entrance Scholarship has been awarded this term to Scrivener, from the Newcastle Endowed Middle School. The Fenton Medal for English Essay has been awarded to Hartley; the prize for French Translation to Sharpe; for Latin Translation to Green, M.A.; for Greek Translation to Green, M.A., and Field, equal. Dr. Purdie has given two excellent lectures in the Town Hall on "Gas, and how to economize it," in aid of the Games Fund. The athletic sports, fixed for the 17th and 19th April, were postponed to next term on account of the snow.

ROSSALL SCHOOL.—A. M. Knight has gained a Classical Scholarship, Pembroke, Cambridge. Mr. Douglas is leaving at the end of this term to take a Preparatory School at Malvern; he will be succeeded by Mr. W. H. E. Worship, late Exhibitioner, C. C. C. Oxford. Mr. H. A. Williams has left, having been appointed Vice-Principal of St. Mark's Training College, Chelsea; no permanent successor has been appointed as yet. The new Racquet Courts and Gymnasium have been opened and are in full and constant use; the building of the new House is in progress. On the 2nd March, Mr. Clifford Harrison gave a recital in the Hall, his entertainment, as usual, being very popular. The holidays have been postponed till after Easter, beginning on April 13th. The School Directory, under the Editorship of Mr. W. King, O.R., is in process of compilation, and will, it is hoped, soon be ready.

RUGBY.—H. B. Nisbet has gained a Scholarship at Pembroke College, Cambridge; and J. D. Fallows, a Scholarship at Queen's College, Oxford. The Rev. T. H. Hutchinson will be succeeded in his position of Science Teacher by Mr. Stallard. A series of Lectures have been delivered on Thursday evenings by the Rev. W. Tuckwell, on "Literary Subjects," but the attendance has generally been very small. Some members of the school will publish next Term a small periodical to be called the "Leaflet," which is "not to be entirely restricted to school news," and will give an opening for more literary contributions than the "Meteor." The publisher is Mr. G. E. Over, High Street. The last venture of the kind was made some five years ago. A Confirmation was held in the School Chapel by the Bishop of Worcester, on Wednesday, March 14th.

ST. MARTIN'S GRAMMAR SCHOOL, SCARBOROUGH.—Mr. Rowen, Head Master of the Goole Grammar School, has been unanimously selected Head Master.

ST. PAUL'S SCHOOL.—A Mastership will be shortly vacant by the appointment of Mr. Rutherford to a Tutorship in University College, London.

UPPINGHAM.—W. A. Cuningham, B.A., of Pembroke College, Cambridge, formerly Assistant Master at Bromsgrove School, has succeeded to the vacancy caused by the retirement of J. E. Powell. Dr. Schlottmann has been succeeded as German Master by Dr. Henn, of Göttingen University. The new covered Swimming Bath has, after long delay, been opened, and is immensely popular; every boy has the opportunity of bathing twice in the week. Lectures have been given to the school lately, in addition to those by masters of the school, by the Rev. G. Geary, on "Recent Explorations in Palestine"; by the Rev. H. T. Tooke, on "Egypt and its Antiquities"; and by the Rev. J. G. Wood, on "Hydrozoa." Bishop Mitchinson, acting for the Bishop of Peterborough, confirmed eighty-three candidates on Friday, 16th of March, in the School Chapel. The School breaks up on April 19th.

TRANSLATION PRIZE.

*For each month, till further notice, there will be set a passage, generally from a French or German Poet, to be translated into English verse. A PRIZE OF TWO GUINEAS will be offered each month for the best version. Initials or a nom de plume must be adopted by competitors, but the successful competitor is required to send his real name and address to the Prize Editor for publication. Versions must be forwarded to the "Prize Editor" of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, care of Messrs. John Walker & Co., 96 Farringdon Street, E.C., not later than the 15th of the month. Any translation which is sent with an addressed envelope and six postage stamps, will be returned with corrections. A First Class is entitled to a copy of "Prizes and Proximes," which will be forwarded on application. Those who have already received "Prizes and Proximes" may apply for a copy of "Maria Wuz."**

The prize for the best translation of Heine's passage is awarded to "D."

Du sublime au ridicule il n'y a qu'un pas, Madame!

Aber das Leben ist im Grunde so fatal crnsthaf, dass es nicht zu ertragen wäre ohne solche Verbindung des Pathetischen mit dem Komischen. Das wissen unsere Poeten. Die grauhaftesten Bilder des menschlichen Wahnsinns zeigt uns Aristophanes nur im lachenden Spiegel des Witzes, den grossen Denkerschmerz, der seine eigene Nichtigkeit begreift, wagt Goethe nur mit den Knittelversen eines Puppenspiels auszusprechen, und die tödlichste Klage über den Jammer der Welt legt Shakespeare in den Mund eines Narren, während er dessen Schellenkappe ängstlich schüttelt.

Sie haben's Alle dem grossen Urpoeten abgesehen, der in seiner tausendaktigen Welttragödie den Humor aufs Höchste zu treiben weiss, wie wir es täglich sehen:—nach dem Abgang der Helden kommen die Clowns und Graziosos mit ihren Narrenkolben und Pritschen, nach den blutigen Revolutionsscenen und Kaiseraktionen kommen wieder herangewatschelt die dicken Bourbonen mit ihren alten abgestandenen Spässchen und zart-legitimen Bonmots, und graziöse hüpf herbei die alte Noblesse mit ihrem verhungerten Lächeln, und hintendrein wallen die frommen Kapuzen mit Lichtern, Kreuzen und Kirchenfahnen;—sogar in das höchste Pathos der Welttragödie pflegen sich komische Züge einzuschleichen, der verzweifelnde Republikaner, der sich wie ein Brutus das Messer ins Herz stiess, hat vielleicht zuvor daran gerochen, ob auch kein Hering damit geschnitten worden, und auf dieser grossen Weltbühne geht es auch ausserdem ganz wie auf unsern Lumpenbrettern, auch auf ihr giebt es besoffene Helden, Könige, die ihre Rolle vergessen, Koulissen, die hängen geblieben, hervorschallende Souffleurstimmen, Tänzerinnen, die mit ihrer Lendenspoesie Effekt machen, Kostüme, die als Hauptsache glänzen—Und im Himmel oben, im ersten Range, sitzen unterdessen die lieben Engelein, und lorgnieren uns Komödianten hier unten, und der Erzengel sitzt ernsthaft in seiner grossen Loge und langweilt sich vielleicht, oder rechnet nach, dass dieses Theater sich nicht lange mehr halten kann, weil der Eine zu viel Gage und der Andere zu wenig bekommt, und Alle viel zu schlecht spielen.

By "D."

'Tis but a step, madam, from the sublime to the ridiculous! Aye, and life is at bottom so terribly grim and grave, that none of us could bear to live it through if the tragedy and the comedy were not blended so. The poets all know that. Aristophanes gives us a glimpse of the ghastliest horrors of human frenzy, but the image plays on the flashing mirror of his wit. Goethe dare not utter the deep aching melancholy of

* "Maria Wuz and Lorenz Stark; or, English Prints of two German Originals," reprinted from the *Journal of Education*. Crown 8vo, price 4s. 6d. (Longmans.)

the thinker, who knows and feels his own nothingness, but in the doggerel couplets of a puppet-play. And the woefullest dirge ever sung on this painful, pitiful world, Shakespeare puts in the mouth of a poor fool, as he ruefully jangles the bells of his coxcomb.

They have all caught the trick from the great Arch-Poet himself. In his vast thousand-act tragedy (which we call *Life*), we ever and anon see him push the humour into utter farce. Exeunt the heroes, enter the clowns and harlequins with their baubles and lathen swords. After the bloody Revolution-Scene, and the Grand Imperial Pageant, come waddling on the fat Bourbons with their stale old gags and catchwords, and their thin legitimist witticisms—and the *Ancienne Noblesse* trip on with dainty steps and hungry smiles—and, winding round behind, a string of saintly cowls with crosses and banners, and tapers lit. Even at the very climax of the tragedy some comic touch slips in; the desperate republican Brutus, ere he plunges his knife into his heart, sniffs at the blade misdoubtingly lest it smell of a sliced herring. On the great stage of All-the-world, things, after all, go much as in a sorry strollers' booth. Heroes are drunk, Kings do not know their parts, the set scenes will not work, the prompter's voice is heard aloud, the *figurantes* ply the music of their limbs, and bring down the house with it, the spangled dresses outshine their wearers. And up in heaven the little cherubs are all tho while peeping and staring at us comedians here below, and the big Arch-angel sits in his grand state-box without a smile, yawning and bored perhaps, and thinking to himself that the company can't keep going much longer—for one is paid too much, and another too little, and all act vilely.

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Heine's prose is easier to translate than Heine's poetry, yet even in a prose version how much of the delicate aroma is lost! Competitors who have failed, may console themselves by turning to the French version of the *Reisebilder* made by Heine himself. They will find for *angstlich* "*joieusement*," for *zart-legitimen Bonmots* "*vieilles facéties légittimes*," and the *Lendenpoesie* omitted. When I set the passage, I was not aware that an English translation existed, but I found at the British Museum one by C. G. Leland, of gipsy celebrity. It is not fair to judge a book by one short passage, but if Mr. Leland had sent in this printed version, he would certainly have appeared in the fourth class. As his blunders are characteristic, I may briefly note them. *Angstlich*, "in all the nervous suffering of pain," a foeblo and faulty paraphrase. The word here means little more than "carefully," "assiduously,"—"While he is careful to jingle his cap and bells." *Tausendactigen* "in thousands of acts," for "in his thousand-act tragedy." *Kaiseractionen*, rendered by Heine "les hauts faits de l'Empire," is omitted. *Kommen wieder herangewatschelt*, "there came waddling on the stage,"—the tense is a unique blunder, but many, like Mr. Leland, omitted the *wieder*. *Zart-legitimen Bonmots*, "tender legitimate bonmots," for "mild legitimist bonmots." Heine of course alludes to the proverbial mildness of royal jokes. *Graziöse hüpfst herbei*, "hopped merrily before them," for "trip daintily by." *Tänzerinnen*, &c., are "dancers who create effects with their legs." The phrase is perhaps the hardest in the passage to render adequately without indelicacy. As an alternative to the prize version, I would suggest "for the poetry of motion the poetry of legs." *Costüme*, "costumes which are and ever will be the main thing," for "costumes the end-all, the be-all of the play." *Sitzt ernsthaft*, "sits seriously in his splendid seat," is a typical instance of flatness.

I have taken Mr. Leland as my whipping-boy, and hope that the great "gipsy scholar" will pardon my aspersions on his German. As some have puzzled over the allusions, I may add that the puppet-play is the introduction to *Faust*, the *Narr* is the Fool in *King Lear*, and *Grazioso* is the buffoon or harlequin of Spanish Comedy.

"A subscriber" asks what I mean by cockney rimes, and "why should *ward—lord* pass muster, while *down—morn* are tabooed?" A cockney rime is where the broad *a* mispronounced corresponds to *r*, as *Maria—liar*. With vowel sounds greater freedom is allowed than with consonants, and there are certain conventional licenses, such as *love—prove*, due mainly to changes in pronunciation.

"E. H. O." points out various dialectical defects in "A Lancashire Lad's" version. If he cares to send his address, I shall be happy to reply to him. I may repeat that the order in each class is arbitrary.

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1. L'esprit de l'homme est plus pénétrant que conséquen et embrasse plus qu'il ne peut lier.
2. La clarté orne les esprits profondes.
3. Avant d'attaquer un abus, il faut voir si on peut ruiner ses fondemens.
4. Les gens d'esprit seroient presque seuls, sans les sots qui s'en piquent.
5. La tranquillité d'esprit passeroit-elle pour une meilleure preuve de la vertu? La santé la donne.
6. Ce qui est arrogance dans les foibles est élévation dans les forts, comme la force des malades est frénésie et celle des sains est vigueur.
7. La familiarité est l'apprentissage des esprits.
8. Les esprits faux changent souvent de maximes.
9. La ressource de ceux qui n'imaginent pas est de conter.
10. La stérilité de sentiment nourrit la paresse.
11. Il est des injures qu'il faut dissimuler pour ne pas compromettre son honneur.
12. Ceux qui se moquent des penchans sérieux aiment sérieusement les bagatelles.
13. Nous aimons quelquefois jusqu'aux louanges que nous ne croyons pas sincères.
14. L'esprit développe les simplicités du sentiment pour s'en attribuer l'honneur.
15. La clarté est la bonne foi des philosophes. La nett est le vernis des maîtres.

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The Journal of Education,

96 FARRINGTON STREET, LONDON, E.C.

OCCASIONAL NOTES.

THE Newcastle Conference of the N. U. E. T., which was not concluded when our last issue appeared, was largely attended, and the discussions, if less animated, were more practical than usual. The President, Mr. Dawson, of Manchester, delivered a very able address, and we wish that space permitted us to reproduce some of his very sensible remarks on over-education, over-examination, and religious teaching. One point, however, calls for notice, both as touching Secondary Education, and because it has been taken by the *Saturday Review* as a peg on which to hang an attack on the action, or rather the inaction, of the Education Department. Mr. Dawson commended for imitation the course of the Manchester School Board in establishing a central school for pupils in and above Standard VI. "In this school a large part of the instruction is given in various branches of science. It is, in fact, what is understood by a Secondary School—a place for Intermediate Education of the modern character. The Education Department has sanctioned the course I have described." "Mr. Dawson," says the *Saturday Review*, "has let the cat out of the bag. When the London School Board was proposing to set up Higher Elementary Schools, we protested on the ground that they were nothing but Secondary Schools in disguise; but it was pleaded that they were nothing of the sort—only a more convenient distribution of the children already in the Board Schools. As the Department refuses to interfere, the resistance of the School Boards to the contagion of

the Manchester example is all that we have to look to if we are to escape being saddled with a system of State Secondary Education." For ourselves, we are not careful to defend the arguments used by the late London Board in favour of its scheme, and we shall leave it to the *Saturday Review* to define where Primary Education ends and Secondary Education begins. But we agree with Mr. Dawson in hoping that such schools as those established at Manchester may spread, and that, by help of them, and of Scholarships like those founded by the Public Schools, steps may be cut by which a boy of energy may climb from the Elementary School to the University.

SOME not unimportant modifications have been introduced into the New Code which is now in force, having been laid upon the table of both Houses just before the Easter recess. 1. By the Act of 1870 an Elementary School was defined as one at which the ordinary payment in respect of the instruction for each scholar did not exceed 9d. a week; and, by a note in the Code of 1880, this rule was interpreted so as to exclude all schools where more than 10 per cent. of the scholars paid above 9d. a week. For the future, the "ordinary payment" is to be determined by dividing the total amount of fees payable for any week by the number of scholars on the register for that week. This is a valuable concession to the friends of Higher Elementary Education. 2. School Boards must obtain the direct consent of the Department before altering the scale of school fees, or remitting such fees in whole or part. This is a check on the Free Education party, and puts a veto on such experiments as were proposed by the London School Board. 3. In the old Code, scholars were exempted either wholly or in part from school attendance, when they had "reached" a standard to be fixed by the school authorities of the district. To have *reached* a standard, is a phrase which admitted of at least three different interpretations, and this ambiguity is now removed by the definition to "to have passed in reading, writing, and arithmetic" in the standard specified. This is a step in the right direction, but we hope that next year the Department will either itself fix the standards for half-timers and total exemption, as is now the case in Scotland, or leave them to be fixed by the inspectors of the district. That ignorant or selfish managers should be allowed to prescribe the limits of education in their own district, is a survival of the dark ages.

WHAT standard, for instance, is likely to be fixed by the Chairman of the School Board for Lower Halstow, who was fined £27. 10s. the other day for illegally employing children, including the son of the School Attendance Officer, in his brick-making works?

SEVERAL of the London vestries have been protesting against the extravagance of the London School Board, and it might seem as if the reaction which Mr. M. Arnold

prophesied two years ago had at last set in. We do not believe that the discontent is deep-rooted, but it behoves the Board to set its house in order and look after the petty cash. Thus, attention has been lately called to their management of the Store Department. Without going into figures, which may after all be fallacious, we need only reproduce one statement which has not been contradicted. In order to distribute £36,000 worth of goods, a cost of 9 per cent. on the amount distributed is incurred in the matter of wages alone. The Board now propose to make additions to their staff which will raise the expense to 11 per cent. Now, more than one respectable firm has offered to undertake the whole business for a commission of 5 per cent. on the first cost of the goods. It results that a saving of some £3,000 a year might be effected, with no loss in efficiency. This is a small item in an income of a million, but, remembering the part that the solicitor's salary played in the last election, the Board will do well not to despise the thousands' column.

In discussing educational matters, one of our chief difficulties is to get at *facts*. We, therefore, heartily welcome a pamphlet called "Education as a University Subject" (Glasgow, Maclehose), by Mr. David Ross, Principal of the Church of Scotland Training College, Glasgow, in which he puts before us the chief events in the gradual recognition in this country of Education as a science. He begins with Professor Pillans's proposal in 1834, and shows that "Scottish ideas have triumphed, though 50 years have been lost and due acknowledgment has not yet been conceded." "Keen is the irony of fate! Twenty years ago, the chief of the Education Department declared there was no Science of Education; ten years after, his successors announced themselves favourable to Chairs of Education, but unable to aid them; ten years later still, they compel students to be taught, and ask them to believe in, the Science of Education, because it is recognised at Cambridge." We observe another instance of the same irony in the fact that the head of a Scotch Training College is now urging the claims of educational science as a University subject, although a few years ago the promised grant to the Chairs of Education in Edinburgh and St. Andrews was opposed and defeated by the Scotch Members of Parliament in the supposed interest of the Training Colleges.

In this pamphlet Mr. Ross has pointed out what seems a strange instance of official perversity. The Education Department recognises the attendance of Normal Students at certain University classes in Arts and Science, exempts the students who have satisfied the Professors from that part of the examination, and pays for them a portion of the University fees. "Will it be credited," asks Mr. Ross, "that the Department refuses to recognise in this way attendance on the Chair of Education?" The students are supposed to learn the principles of Education in the Training Colleges. The Colleges are fortunate, indeed,

if they have better teachers than Professor Laurie and Professor Meiklejohn.

THE Oxford Association for the Education of Women has taken another step in advance. They have resolved to appeal to the Delegates of Local Examinations for help in the endeavour to get the University examinations, or some of them, opened to women. These Delegates are the body to whom the University has hitherto entrusted the task of examining the women, and they are therefore the natural mediators between the Association and the University. Moreover, if the Delegates were hostile, it is very unlikely the University would take any step; while, if they promoted such opening of examinations to women, the movement would have more chance of being viewed favourably by Congregation. The Delegates contain so many moderate and experienced men, that the most timid could hardly take alarm at a proposal brought forward under their auspices. The convenience of the proposed amalgamation is evident at once, when it is remembered that the standard of the existing Delegates' examinations is as far as possible that of the corresponding University examinations; while to a large extent the subjects are the same, and even the teachers for the women resident in Oxford are the same persons who also teach the men. The machinery would thus be much simplified, if one set of papers, instead of two, were set to men and women; and the advantage to those women who are going to make teaching their profession, of having their attainments tested by an old-established and well-known standard, would be obviously very great. Indeed, unless some such change is made, it is manifest that women-students who intend to teach—a most important and increasing class—will all go to Cambridge, where the honour examinations are already open to them, instead of being distributed between the two Universities. It is, we believe, largely due to this prospect that the promoters of female education at Oxford have been led to make this move. There is, after all, nothing like competition to make the world advance.

MAJOR-GENERAL FEILDING asks in the *Nineteenth Century* "What shall I do with my son?" After a careful perusal of his article, we sadly echo his opening words, "How very seldom is the answer, even mentally, satisfactory!" The causes of this difficulty, though they occupy three-fourths of the article, are so obvious and patent that we may pass at once to the remedy. "My son," at the age of fourteen, is to be educated for a colonist. A long lease has been obtained of a considerable tract in the South of England, suitable in every way for the successful carrying out of a thorough system of education, embracing everything necessary to prepare youngsters for direct entry into colonial life. Furthermore, a settlement has been provided in one of the colonies, seemingly on the plan of New Rugby, to which young men of the upper classes may be drafted from the Colonial Institute at the age of

eighteen. They will be lodged in a boarding-house under the management and discipline of a gentleman of colonial experience, who will act as their tutor and adviser till they have built their own houses and cleared their allotments. This is all we are told of the scheme, and we cannot say that the outline commends itself. New Rugby is not a happy augury, and the general experience of colonists is that an agricultural training such as may be got in England, profits the settler but little. General Feilding believes in blood, and he writes for the upper ten thousand. He still holds that trade is an ignoble calling, and, as an inducement to emigrate, he tells us that in the colonies "a gentleman is treated with respect which in a short time amounts to deference." If he refers to nature's gentlemen, this is quite true; but "the tenth transmitter of a foolish face" stands a far worse chance in the colonies than at home. Farming and kid gloves, in the colonies at least, are incompatible.

WE noticed last month the serious mutiny at the Lycée Louis-le-Grand, and it is but one sign of many, that the condition of higher schools is a growing danger to the French Government. As the future of the Republic depends so greatly on the education that the upper classes are now receiving, it behoves the Government to do all in its power to make its Lycées more attractive both to boys and parents than the Clerical Colleges. To effect this it seems to us that one radical reform is needed,—the abolition of the *pion* system, and the substitution of masters for professors. At present, personal supervision and individual teaching form no part of the professor's duties. In fact, he exactly fulfils Dr. Arnold's definition of a bad master—"A man who, directly school is over, puts his hands in his pockets and whistles." Now a cleric, however much we may disapprove of his method, studies a boy's character, and looks after his morals, and therefore he not only obtains an influence which his *confrère* does not affect, but also is preferred by parents, often in spite of his religious and political teachings. The Lycéens have other causes of dissatisfaction, such as diet and play-hours, but this is the knot of the question, and we are afraid that it requires a bolder man than M. Ferry to cut it by abolishing the immemorial *répétiteur*.

THE Elementary Schools of Paris seem to be considerably in advance of ours, whilst in a very large number of schools the total average of attendance exceeds 95 per cent. The highest average attendance for boys and girls in our London Schools is 80 per cent., and a higher standard is reached in the French Primary Schools than is generally obtained here. This is due to the much less frequent migration of the children from school to school, a fuller provision of teachers, much better school accommodation, and longer hours of school teaching and home lessons. The length of the school hours is thirty hours a week, and the time given to home lessons is generally from half-an-hour to three-

quarters of-an-hour in the *cours élémentaire*, from an hour to an hour-and-a-half in the *cours moyen*, and an hour-and-a-half to two hours-and-a-half in the *cours supérieur*.

JUNIUS SECUNDUS has addressed a letter to the British Public on the subject of teaching of French. In his onslaught on the French Professors, he reminds us more of Juvenal than Junius. "All sciences your starving Monsieur knows," is the burden of his letter,—and we must decline to be a party to the fray. On one point, however, he makes common cause with the Professors, and here we join issue with both. He cannot away with Philology, and that a child should be taught that *aimerai* is a corruption of *amare habeo* seems to him grotesque. We hold, on the other hand, that with pupils who, as is always the case in public schools, bring to the study of French some knowledge of Latin, it is monstrous not to utilise that knowledge. The genders of nouns is a prerogative instance in point. But this is a side issue, and the remedy proposed by Junius—that diplomas or certificates for proficiency in the modern languages should be granted by the Universities, and that the Head-masters should appoint no French teacher who has failed to obtain such certificate—has our hearty support.

NOTHING came, and nothing was likely to come, of such a crude and ill-considered bill as that which Mr. Roundell brought forward on University Reform. The second part of it, empowering the Universities Committee of the Privy Council to initiate statutes affecting Colleges "upon a representation in writing signed by not fewer than twenty-five members of Congregation or of the Electoral roll," and to refer such statute "to any person or persons experienced in University affairs" (a description which, as Sir W. Harcourt remarked, would include a scout), was not seriously defended by Mr. Roundell himself. The other proposal, to enlarge the powers of the Committee, and allow them to confirm statutes submitted to them, or remit them to the framers with suggested alterations, is reasonable enough, with one proviso. The present mode of procedure is vexatiously dilatory, and found no defenders in the House. But it was felt that the present Committee was an ornamental, not a working body, and could not be safely trusted with the interests of the Universities. The *Times* tells us that the Universities have had a surfeit of reform, and crave only rest. But it is utopian to suppose that the new statutes will be found to work without a hitch, and we hope to see some more practical scheme than Mr. Roundell's for enabling the Colleges to amend and revise their constitutions.

DEAN HOWSON, in a letter to the *Times*, enters a protest against testimonials, and advocates in their stead a list of references, as affording "a notion of the candidate's fitness which is at once more natural, more adequate, and more true." This is very nearly the course that Mr. Col-

beck pursued in his candidature for the Mastership of Dulwich College,—a course that we commended in our last number. Mr. Colbeck's was a compromise between the recognised and the proposed system, in so far as he sent in four testimonials, of a semi-official character, from men who were intimately acquainted with his past work. We are in favour of such a compromise for this reason: Governors are, as a rule, busy men, and a candidate who had not made his mark at the University would be likely to be ignored. Even Dr. Arnold, if he had simply given the Provost of Oriel as a reference, might not have been elected to Rugby. Mr. Colbeck's experiment was so far successful, that he was among the final selected three, and, if report says true, would have been chosen, but for his expressed determination to make Dulwich a great modern school. But his selection was due to his testimonials and his general reputation,—not to his referees, none of whom, we believe, were consulted.

LOVERS of Horace will have welcomed the notes of a recent visit to the Sabine Farm, contributed to the *Times* of the 17th ult. by Mr. J. A. Lawson, of Dublin. Mr. Lawson and a friend went without prepossessions, and guided in their researches simply by their knowledge of the text of Horace. The arguments that they bring in favour of the old traditional site, close to the village of Licenza, are, in our judgment, no less conclusive than those against the new site behind Rocca Giovane, which was first fixed upon by Cav. Noel des Vergers, and is adopted by Cav. Rosa and the editor of "Murray." "The difficulty of supposing Horace's villa to have been elevated some hundreds of feet above the Digentia, appeared to us very great. Not to speak of the improbability that a fat, comfortable man like Horace, fond of his ease, after jogging on his mule from Rome or Tibur, should at the end of his journey have to climb up a mountain to reach his home, we must consider the grave Mæcenas and his other friends. The undoubted fact that Horace's farm bordered the Digentia, is strong to show that his house could not have been on this site." Mr. Lawson concludes his letter with a neat hit at Sir Theodore Martin, who prefaces a flowery description of the locality with the statement that the question of locality is set at rest by the researches of Chapuy, Rosa, and De Vergers; which is as though one said, "The question of the genuineness of the Epistles of Phalaris is set at rest by the researches of Boyle and Bentley."

THE least satisfactory of all the unsatisfactory examinations in the United Kingdom have been those for admission to the medical profession. In the case of a schoolmaster, it is always known whether he has obtained his degree in arts at Oxford or Cambridge, or some other University, and the comparative value of such degree can be estimated by his employer. With a medical practitioner, the case is different. The standards of the various

licensing bodies vary enormously, yet by patients they are all accepted as of equal value, and few of us could tell where our family doctor was educated. The bill "for the consolidation of the law relating to medical practitioners," which embodies the recommendations of the late Royal Commission, and has already passed the House of Lords, makes a clean sweep of all these anomalies, and provides a single Board for each of the three kingdoms. These Boards under the control of the Supreme Medical Council will, in future, regulate the final examination for admission to the profession. Differences of standard will, doubtless, still exist, but it is an instruction to the several Boards to aim, "so far as is practicable," at a uniformity of standard. One other provision of the bill we hail with hearty satisfaction. Women are to be admitted to the examinations, and the same qualifications in all respects are required of either sex.

MR. HENRY SELL, advertising agent and contractor, 167 Fleet Street, writes to us:—

"I shall esteem it a favour if you can oblige me by giving a notice of the 'South African Syndicate Company.' The Transvaal Debate will furnish a capital peg to hang the notice of the Company on, and I may mention that the promoters have promised a large share of the advertisements to papers who make a friendly reference to the Company in their editorial columns. Papers of large circulation and importance in London have already given such a notice, of which I enclose a specimen. The chief points to be brought out are," &c.

So far we gladly comply with Mr. Sell's request. If any of our readers wish for information about the Company, of which Lord Robert Montague is Chairman, they must wait for the advertisement, which, if Mr. Sell keeps faith, will doubtless appear in our next issue, or, if they are impatient, we must refer them to the *Christian World* of March 8, which contains the specimen to which Mr. Sell, in his letter, refers.

HERE is a hint for Examiners which a High School mistress sends us:—"A Receipt for an Examination Paper on *English Literature*, respectfully dedicated to the *Royal Ceshwayo University*.—First catch your subject. On the whole, Shakespeare is best. He is always in season, and his text affords much more opportunity for the finding out of errors in English than that of cultured later-century writers. (Truth is never so deeply impressed as by the contemplation of falsehood.) Keep your subject for some months (years would be better) in the most absolutely dry mental atmosphere you can find. Then choose about a dozen phrases, carefully strip them of context, and ask their meaning. The grammatical and philological elements must be invariably uppermost. Such trifles as the fable, the framework, dramatic or otherwise, the style, &c., to be excluded so far as possible. Questions touching on any æsthetic criticism would entirely spoil the flavour, but a sprinkling of Anglo-Saxon or Mæso-Gothic roots will add piquancy."

THE Mansion-House meeting of the London University Extension Society took place too late in the month for a

notice in this number of the Journal. We hope that Mr. Forster and Sir Lyon Playfair may be more successful than Sir Stafford Northcote and the Bishop of Peterborough were, two years ago, in appealing to the consciences and purses of the City. Meanwhile we commend to the attention of the London Committee the report of Mr. R. D. Roberts to the Cambridge Syndicate for conducting local lectures. A more interesting and instructive report we have never seen. It speaks of an enthusiasm for knowledge, both in teachers and in taught, which is general in the north of England, but which the London Society, whether through the fault of the lecturers or the lectured, has not yet succeeded in arousing.

FROEBEL AND PROFESSOR HUXLEY.

IN the admirable lecture by Professor Huxley on Science and Art in Education, published in the *Journal of Education* for March 1, it is delightful to the student of Froebel to see the remarkable agreement between those two thoughtful writers with regard to fundamental points of human training. Froebel left nothing in writing specially bearing on school instruction, therefore the choice of subjects suggested by Professor Huxley is beyond his province. But when the reasons are given for that choice, then we see that they are the very same that prompted Froebel in laying down his method of early training, as conducted in the Kinder-Garten. He provides children with his so-called "gifts" and toys, because play is the appropriate labour of their years; but he directs the play to the same object that the Professor sets before the school-teacher. When we have the curriculum of school instruction divided between Science and Art, that is, precisely, the division which we may make of Froebel's Gifts and Occupations. Bearing in mind the earlier age and special character of the work, we find him also directing the infant faculties to the observation of nature, of forms and colours, of resemblances and differences; to number and dimensions,—thus laying, through their play, the foundation on which any after-study of Science must be based. In the department of Art, Professor Huxley includes all forms of beauty, whether of literature or design, and Froebel feeds the imagination with vivid narrative, and cultivates the sense of artistic beauty through symmetrical design and the rhythm of song and motion. As far as difference of age will allow, we have a remarkable coincidence of plan, but it becomes more striking still when we examine the purpose more closely.

The principal purpose, in Professor Huxley's view, of devoting so large a share of school-teaching to Science, is not so much the knowledge to be gained, great as the value of that is, as its influence in training the habits of accuracy in observation, in language, and in thought. To have definite ideas, and to express them in clear and appropriate language, is, to use Professor Huxley's words, "the *sine qua non*, the absolutely necessary condition," the "be-all and end-all of scientific instruction." Now, this end is pursued with unremitting diligence through every step of Kinder-Garten training. The various lessons of observation with the Gifts, as well as the whole series of Occupations, all exact accuracy, and lead the child to see the necessity of it, to know when he does and when he does not clearly understand, when he has or has not done an accurate piece of work. There is little talk about it, and no lecturing, but he sees that he fails where others succeed, and from the very nature of the lesson he quickly discerns why he has failed. The careful use of well-chosen language in talking to the children, of correct pronunciation and intonation, and of the right names and terms as applied to objects, are all preparations, both for the accuracy

of scientific language and for that appreciation of the beauties of language itself, which belongs to literary culture.

It is the same with Professor Huxley's earnest recommendation of Drawing as a necessary part of education for its practical uses, and also as a discipline in forming habits of accuracy. This is complete Froebelian doctrine. "Every creature," says Professor Huxley, "who can learn to write can learn to draw." In the Kinder-Garten drawing is taught first, and from the facility so acquired of tracing lines and reproducing forms, writing becomes an easy acquirement. "I do not think," continues the Professor, speaking of Drawing, "that its value can be exaggerated, because it gives you the means of training the young in attention, and in accuracy, which are the two things in which all mankind are more deficient than in any other mental quality whatever. . . . You cannot begin the habit too early." Froebel begins it with infants of three years old, and it is one of the things which mark the Kinder-Garten as the right threshold of every school worthy of the name. That it is still looked upon by the majority of the public and, perhaps, alas! of teachers also, as trifling and mechanical, may partly be accounted for in two ways, suggested by Professor Huxley to account for the small favour in which scientific education is still held in schools. In the first place, the experiment is said to have failed; but, says the Professor, "the experiment consisted in this,—in asking one of the Junior-masters of the school to get up Science in order to teach it; and the young gentleman went away for a year and got up Science and taught it." Now, the only difference between this and many failures in the Kinder-Garten is, that young women who have never yet been teachers at all, often think a year too long a period for "getting up" a system of education founded on deep knowledge of human nature in its earliest and hitherto least studied development, together with all the subjects in which instruction has to be given, and the study of teaching itself. So they go away from school, perhaps for a few months, get up the system, and return to work it.

The second cause for the unpopularity of Science in schools, mentioned by Professor Huxley, is the small result apparent from it. Much labour and time are expended, but "we do not see anything of the quiet process of soaking the facts into the mind, which takes place through the organs of the senses." So is it with the Kinder-Garten. There also the senses are becoming more acute, and the facts soak into the mind and do their work there of awakening the dormant powers of the intellect; but they make no show at an inspection. Neither is attention attracted by the slow formation of habits that will be valuable through every hour of later life; by the steps, each so minute that we scarcely perceive advance, but which will never be retraced, because the right path, once familiar, is found to be the easiest; by the gradual acquisition of clearness of perception, leading to clearness of thought, which will expand without hindrance hereafter, because no confusion of thought has ever been allowed to harbour in the mind. These and all other results of real mental training can be estimated only at a later time, when the fruits of such early care will become apparent; and though the sum total of intellect, the number of great men in any department, may not increase, yet the amount of good work done by average men will be indefinitely increased when the scholars, under such a system of teaching as Professor Huxley proposes, shall have first been prepared under a system of early training such as Froebel has elaborated in the Kinder-Garten.

EMILY SHIRREFF.

LETTER FROM ROME.

March, 1883.

CLOSE to Sta. Maria dei Angeli, the famous Church of Michael Angelo, so familiar to English tourists, is a square that is rarely visited—the Piazza dei Termini. Here, in a vast building which formerly served as a convent, we now find the *Normal Girls' School* of the province of Rome. Like all sister institutions, it is of recent creation, primary

instruction having only existed in Italy since 1860. From that year up to the present day, fifty-two Normal Schools for male and female teachers have been opened. The school of the Termini had its origin in the *Conferences for Female Teachers*, which were opened in January, 1871. It was transformed into a Normal School, and transferred to its present locality about six years ago. This establishment, frequented by about 200 pupils, enjoys an excellent reputation; and it seemed to me, that by making it, and the Practising School annexed to it, the subjects of my study, I could obtain some insight into the state of primary instruction in Italy.

At Romo, everything is grand and vast. Two flights of wide stairs in white marble lead to the first storey, where the Normal Classes, the Preparatory Classes, and the Director's study are found. The second floor is occupied by the Boarding School, or *Convitto*, for the reception of girls from the provinces, who are boarded and lodged for the modest sum of forty francs per month. Many are even admitted free, by aid of subsidies voted by the province, or the communes. On the ground floor of the same building, is the Primary Girls' School, which serves as a Practising School for the students of the Training College. It is here we begin our inspection.

The Primary School, as organised by the law of 1859, and the so-called Compulsory School Act of 1877, comprises four classes, and five years of study. The two first classes, for children of six to nine years of age, are alone obligatory; the third and fourth are optional. For the last two or three years, these latter have been much frequented, so that there has never been any necessity for applying the compulsory principle to them. The Primary Girls' Schools are, however, scanty in their numbers compared to those for boys. The Convent Schools are formidable competitors, and many families still hesitate to break with received customs, and send their daughters to Public Schools. The nuns, on the other hand, have made serious attempts to improve the instruction in their schools, and show themselves worthy of the confidence reposed in them.

When the municipalities, on whom the duty of establishing and directing the Primary Schools rests, are so disposed, they can double the two lower classes, and thus make six years of study. In most schools, there is a room set apart for the Infant School, or *Asilo*, where little ones from three to six are admitted.

Let us now hear a lesson of Composition in the third class, where the pupils are from the age of eight to ten years. Some of the children read aloud the compositions written at home; the mistress of the class and their companions criticize them, and propose certain changes. The pupils of the second Normal class, who are present at the lesson, likewise take part in the discussion. The facility of elocution shown by the children is most striking; but, on studying the programmes and time-tables, it will be seen that much more time is here devoted to exercises of composition and revision than is the case with us. We must remember that the southern peoples have especial aptitude for everything that concerns language, and the expression of thought; and we shall understand how it is that in the upper Normal classes, as well as in the Gymnasiums and Technical Schools, pupils of sixteen to eighteen are able to produce first-rate literary work. But to return to our lesson. The criticism concluded, the teacher dictates the outline of the next composition. She afterwards takes it up point by point, and, while inviting the pupils to express their ideas, she endeavours to explain it to them, and to direct them as to the way in which it is to be filled up. The subject, evidently taken from a manual of morals and religion, savours of the convent, and is not happily chosen. The directress reassures me, however, by stating that the usual exercise in Composition consists in reproducing a narrative which she has related, or in describing some familiar object.

From the third class we pass to the fourth, where we have the pleasure of hearing a lesson on Roman History, given to little girls from eleven to twelve years of age. The subject is Regulus. One of the pupils recites, with fire and spirit, and

all the gestures indispensable to Italians, the story of the great Roman citizen. She puts all her heart and soul into it, her intelligent and expressive face telling all the delight she feels. One sees that she is reciting *her history*. Niebuhr notwithstanding, we are more than ever convinced, while listening to the little Roman, of the necessity of legend and fable in teaching History. Those naïve fables and legends are the delight of children, and do we not know that a fact is connected with each fable, and a real tradition with each poetical one? Why should we deprive the children of this pleasure? Why not leave them Romulus, Regulus, King Arthur and the Round Table, and William Tell?

At the suggestion of the teacher, the little speaker concludes her recital with Metastasio's "Adieu of Regulus." Italian *in bocca romana* is a magnificent language, and a poem so intimately connected with a historical fact is an excellent means of fixing it in the memory of the pupils. The child evidently identifies herself with Regulus. One is convinced of it when listening to the recommendations to the Senate and the Roman people. The Roman of the present day knows that "noblesse oblige;" his carriage, his demeanour, his language, all remind us that this people has a great past, and these little girls of eleven years on the benches of the Primary School have already the consciousness that they belong to a nation of conquerors, who have played a mighty part in the history of the world.

We have said before, that the Primary Schools of Italy are dependent on the municipalities. It is the latter who appoint and pay the masters, and direct the instruction, under the control, however, of Government inspectors, and according to the form prescribed by law. The larger communes, such as Rome, Naples, Florence, Milan, &c., have each a resident Director, who is over the whole of their teaching staff. At the head of each school is placed a responsible Director or Directress, who watches over the progress of the studies, the execution of the rules, maintains discipline, and communicates with the families, &c.

In the Primary Schools, the lessons begin at half-past eight, and finish at two o'clock, with an interval of half an hour for the mid-day lunch, and a few minutes between each lesson. This arrangement is necessary in order to avoid the going backwards and forwards in the middle of the day, so dangerous in the hot weather in spring and summer. Perhaps the hours are long, but care is taken to arrange that the last lessons each day are such as do not fatigue the mind—for example, Drawing, Writing. Reaching home early, the girls have time and opportunity to aid their mothers in household duties during the rest of the day.

The programme of the Elementary Schools comprises the mother tongue (Orthography, Composition, Grammar, &c.), Arithmetic, Geometry, Geography, National History (taught on the biographical method), Writing, Needlework, and Sacred History. Religious instruction is given on Thursdays or Saturdays by a lay teacher. Attendance at it is regulated by the wish of the parents. The Public Schools Act of 1859 made religious instruction obligatory; but the Act of 1877 having omitted Religion from the list of compulsory subjects, certain municipalities suppressed the teaching of it altogether. The parents, however, protested against this, and a royal decree, supported by the Consiglio delle Stato, declared the law of 1859 to be still in force. Religious instruction, therefore, while optional for the pupils, has become obligatory for the teachers—a state of things open to grave objection.

The girls who leave the Elementary Schools at the age of eleven or twelve, undergo a final examination, and can then obtain a certificate showing that they have successfully passed through each grade of Primary instruction (*certificat d'étude*). But, as the Normal School receives no pupil who has not completed the fifteenth year, a gap existed between the two courses of study, which has been filled up, wherever it was possible, by arranging two years of preparatory studies for the Normal School, and these two years have often been even extended to three. At Rome, these preparatory classes are in the same building as the Normal School. The lessons,

which follow the Primary programme, are given in part by masters, in part by female teachers—each one undertaking one or two subjects, which they teach in all three classes. The programme of these classes comprises exercises in the Italian Language (Grammar and Composition), Geography, Roman History, Arithmetic, Reading and Writing, Drawing, and Needlework. This programme is somewhat meagre, but care has been taken, as an Italian pedagogue assured me, not to fatigue the pupils, who were preparing to follow the Normal course; and they have restricted themselves, therefore, to the elementary programme, even to the exclusion of the Natural and Physical Sciences, which are all postponed to the Normal School, and only touched on in the Primary classes, under the name of *Nomenclatura* (Object Lessons). I think this is a mistake.

The instruction itself offers nothing specially remarkable. Composition and linguistic exercises form a large part of it. The Arithmetic that I have seen in the Primary Schools leaves much to be desired. The lessons are wanting in method and life. As regards History (Roman History of the middle ages and modern times), it is very well taught.

The Normal School, properly so-called, comprises three years of study. The two first prepare for the *diploma inferiore*, the last for the *diploma superiore*. The branches of instruction are the following:—Italian Language and Literature, Arithmetic, National History and the elements of General History, Geography, the elements of Geometry, Physical and Natural Sciences, Morals, Religion, Pedagogy, Theoretical and Practical Singing, Drawing, and Needlework.

I was present at a lesson on Zoology, and remarked that the pupils, instead of taking down servilely every word that issued from the professor, listened most attentively to the lesson, and contented themselves with taking such notes, from time to time, as might serve to fill up the gaps of the text-book. The pupils seemed to take great interest in the lesson, and their answers were clear and precise. The History lesson was given in the same manner: the pupils made a *résumé* of the biographies of great men. All that concerned Composition was done as in the Primary School, with care and intelligence. The professors took the compositions one by one, criticised them, pointed out the croneous expressions, and endeavoured to lead the pupils to a more elegant and concise style; the fault of southerners being prolixity.

The lessons in Pedagogy are confided to the Director of the school, who also gives the instruction in Morals and Religion. Theoretical Pedagogy is reduced to the simplest outlines, viz., some notion of Didactics, Methods of Teaching, and Psychology. On the other hand, the practical exercises take an important place. The pupils of the first year restrict themselves to assisting at certain lessons of the Elementary School; those of the second take an active part in them,—they question the pupils by turn, and maintain order and discipline. Every day they are apprised by the Directress of the subject which will be treated on the day following, and for which they are all required to prepare. The Directress is present at the lessons, takes notes of them, and transmits to the Director her written observations on the manner in which the girls have acquitted themselves of their task. The Director, in his turn, reads these observations in class, and enters upon a practical discussion on the subject with all the pupils. But his instruction is not limited to advice or remarks. He causes the pupils to execute a great number of pedagogical exercises, compositions, and sketches of lessons. In the first year, it is particularly Object Lessons, conducted after the Socratic method, that form the subject of these compositions. These exercises of *nomenclatura* consist in indicating, by question and answer, the way to lead a child to observe an object; to know and name its parts, colours, uses, &c. In the second and third year, these exercises refer to discipline, rewards and punishments, &c. These exercises, read aloud in class, serve as the subject of a lesson, and give rise to animated discussions among the pupils.

I have said before, that the examinations of the second year give to the pupil who passes them successfully a right to the

simple, or inferior, diploma. Many of the pupils then quit the Normal School, establish themselves as teachers in some country place, and return after a few years to complete their studies. Others work at home for the inferior diploma, and, after obtaining this, enter the Normal School for one year, and fit themselves for taking the superior diploma. All the girls, however, who study at the Normal School, do not devote themselves to public instruction, but return to their homes when their studies are completed. The attainment of an inferior diploma has become in Italy, as in France, to a certain degree, the fashion. This circumstance explains the large attendance at the *Scuola dei Terzi*, notwithstanding the fact that Rome possesses an excellent High School, and a Professional School for Girls.

The Normal Schools for boys are much less frequented than those for girls. That of the province of Rome, situated at Velletri, an hour and a half's railway journey from the capital, has this year only thirty-four pupils.

This poor attendance is principally caused by the elementary school teachers being very badly paid in Italy. The minimum stipend for women is as low as 360 francs per annum, that for men 550 francs. The average for all the kingdom, and for both sexes, does not exceed 600 francs. Nor must we neglect to take count of the expense of living in the large cities, such as Turin, Milan, Florence, and Rome, where a Primary School teacher has perhaps 1800 francs per annum. The schoolmaster appointed by the Municipalities has neither lodging nor garden; in order to live, he has to fulfil the multifarious duties of Church Organist, Postmaster, etc. We should add that, depending entirely upon the Mayor and Municipal Council, he is completely at their mercy, and can be dismissed at the end of two or five years at their good pleasure. The position of a schoolmaster is less and less sought after by the pupils who are trained in the Normal Schools; they find it more agreeable and lucrative to accept a situation on the railway or in houses of business. Many schools are now without masters, and the candidates who offer themselves for the vacant posts are, for the most part, young men, destitute of all culture, and especially of all training. No one can, however, obtain an appointment without at least possessing an inferior diploma. The young men, who present themselves every year in great numbers to obtain this diploma, are obliged to submit to very severe interrogation, before a jury composed of the Director and Professors of the Normal School, and the *providitore* of the province. A large proportion are plucked. I fully believe that, with the very restricted means at his disposal, the Minister of Public Instruction does all that lies in his power. It is vexatious, however, as the statesmen of the party of the Left say at the present day, that the members of the Right who were in power at the time of the entry of the Italians into Rome, did not better know how to profit by the occasion, and pass an Act depriving the parishes of the administration of the wealth of the churches (*biens paroissiens*). They did not wish to alienate the Pope, and hoping that the Law of the Guarantees would be accepted, they neglected to assure themselves of a considerable source of revenue, which would have amply sufficed for the wants of public instruction in every grade. They proceeded too gently—the Pope has not accepted the Law of the Guarantees, and now it is too late to go back. The Army absorbs all resources, and Heaven knows how Italy is overwhelmed by taxes; the Budget of the Minister of War for this year exceeds *four hundred millions*; that of Public Instruction hardly reaches twenty-four millions, six millions of which are set apart for the twenty Universities of Italy. As to the expenses contracted by the communes, they scarcely equal twenty-seven millions—a ridiculous sum, when compared with the considerable revenues of the parochial lands. I repeat that, with such restricted means, Italy has achieved miracles in the last twenty years. Everywhere schools have been opened, and at the present day there are fifty-two Normal Schools. The Secondary and Technical Schools also bear witness to the zeal and understanding of her pedagogues. The gymnasiums and lycées have undergone important reforms.

Before quitting the *Scuola Normale dei Terzi*, I would mention an excellent innovation first attempted at Florence. I speak of the *higher and complementary courses*, comprising two years of study, and intended both to fill up the numerous gaps in the instruction of the Normal Schools, and to form a select body of teachers for the Secondary instruction. The programme comprises Italian Literature, Universal History, the Natural Sciences, English, French or German, Drawing, Algebra, and Geometry. The results hitherto obtained are excellent; only it is still in the experimental period, and the requisite funds are wanting. As the complementary course at Rome does not open before January, I was not able to be present at any of the lessons. These courses will demand in time Higher Normal Schools, where the assistant teachers of Normal Schools and Secondary Schools may be trained.

S. P.

VERE NOVO.

THE time of the singing of birds has come. The horse-chestnut buds are breaking their glistening sheaths and uncrumpling their green leaves. The air is vital, and pure, and sweet. The blue sky looks down between the white clouds, and the sunshine rests upon the living green of the far-off meadows and the warm red-brown of the ploughed fields. The year is in its childhood. Everything is growing and unfolding, silently, peacefully, joyfully, without rest or haste. There is no confusion, no hurry, no waste of power. All is orderly, progressive, harmonious. It is the spring-time of the world. Happy the lives that have such a spring-time, such a childhood, such a youth!

But the steam-engine rushes up and down the country with its shrill whistle and its noisy speed. What was once the handiwork of love and skill, is now the mechanical outcome of ingenious and hard-driven machinery. Life is regulated by successive competitive examinations. Even the hidden energies and possibilities of childhood are put into the forcing-house and gathered too early. It has been said that "An age is like climate: the harder it may escape its influence in much, but the hardest will not escape its influence entirely." How much that is loveliest in the blossoming of child nature does not at first attain to hardihood! It is delicate, shrinking, tentative. A rough touch may shake from it the magic *Duft*, an unexpected coolness may nip it in the bud, a passing blast of hurry and scorn may slay it at the roots. And this age of ours, with all its sincerity, and courage, and industry, carries with it the blight of a calculating restlessness, which is especially dangerous to childhood and youth.

To-day with what new passion comes the old cry—

"Oh, what a thing is man! how farre from power,
From settled peace and rest!
He is some twentie sev'ral men at least,
Each sev'ral hour."

Without strong purpose or steadfast obedience, no human life can be at one with itself. The spirit of the nineteenth century is a spirit of effort, of experiment, of daring, though half-septical, aspiration. Men are distraught with the sense that boundless opportunities and possibilities are rushing past them at every moment, and on every side. Questioning, seeking, aspiring, they have yet a haunting conviction that, if daily bread is to be honestly earned, the hand-to-mouth struggle will leave no leisure for question, for search, or for aspiration. There is a passionate desire to unlock the secrets of life, a tantalising suspicion that the key may be close at hand, but that there will never be time to find it. Without some clear and definite rule of life, "you may," as Ruskin has said, "stick perhaps into your minds like pins till you are as uncomfortable as the Lilliputians made Gulliver." And children, as well as men, are in great danger now-a-days of having many of these irritating "perhapses" lodged in their poor little souls. Well for them if they are not driven on headlong into

the responsibilities of manhood and womanhood, with a sense of inevitable hurry and confusion, and a random theory of existence, self-conceited and consciously hypothetical. It is supposed to be a proof of liberal culture to live with an "if" in one's mouth. What wonder if the children too weave a self-excusing, self-torturing scheme of "ifs," shackled only by "the weight of chance desires" and speculative fancies; unburdened by the dogmatic peremptoriness of old-fashioned duty!

Surely there seldom was a time when childhood seemed more endangered, or children more like to be troubled before their time. Shall we not make their spring-time as peaceful and unhurried as may be? Shall we not surround them with a sweet orderliness, an unostentatious thoroughness, a patient faith? Shall we not give them a little leisure as well as a great deal of hope and love?

Salutary work is good, wholesome routine may be excellent, but play—free play of mind and body,—uncalculating restfulness, "wise passiveness,"—these also are invaluable. Let us give the children fresh air, mental, moral, and physical,—ay, and spiritual also. Let us give them room. Let us give them time. They need a little breathing-space in which to find their own identity, to discover their relations to the seen and the unseen.

"Life without industry is guilt." True; but he who said that, has reminded us also that "You think you can get everything by grinding . . . You will find it is grievously not so: you can get nothing but dust by mere grinding. Even to have the barley-meal out of it, you must have the barley first; and that comes by growth, not grinding." Do not let us expect our children to grind their barley-meal before they have grown their barley. Let us give them rather, some little chance of gradual development and slowly ripening perfection. Let us leave them sometimes to themselves, and to Nature, and to God. They will grow. Do but give them time and space, and sunlight from the pure heavens overhead; and, like the flowers, they will cast their roots wide and deep, and draw unsuspected nourishment from the most unpromising environment. What would spring be without its pleasant babbling noises of brooks and birds, its sweet blossoming fragrance, its lavish overflow of life? And what is a childhood in which mirth and laughter are straitened, and guileless trust is spoiled by questioning, and all sporting with irrevocable moments is forbidden? Children need much sympathy as well as much discipline, much play as well as much activity, and those of them who are least harassed by competitive ambitions, will be the first to learn the sacredness of all true work, the most likely to find diligence its own reward, the earliest to discover that the key to life's hitherto unanswered problems is often hidden in the very drudgery which seems to leave no time wherewith to travel forth in search of it.

A. M.

"EDUCATIONAL" ADVERTISEMENTS.

WE have, from time to time, given our readers a few specimens of two kinds of advertisements which appear, in better company than they deserve, under the heading "Educational." The first of these is advertisements of cheap schools; the second for cheap governesses.

We should be sorry to think with Carlyle that our fellow-countrymen are "mostly fools," but when we study advertisements,—whether the stirring appeals of Mr. Eno to assuage the ills of humanity with "fruit salt," or the ordinary proposals to make the fortunes of small capitalists with absolutely no risk or trouble, or the offer of a first-rate education, together with unstinted food of the best quality, at a price which certainly would not pay for the food alone,—when we find so many philanthropists actually giving their money to tell us of the advantages within our reach, we can no longer doubt that the fools, whether majority or minority, are by no means numerically insignificant.

Of the establishment referred to in the following, we know nothing but what we infer from the advertisement:—

SEA-VIEW HOUSE SCHOOL, near Dover.—Fifty **YOUNG GENTLEMEN** receive a superior **EDUCATION** for 21 guineas. No charge for books, laundress, drilling, or vocal music. Best diet without limit. Separate beds. No notice. Extensive premises, 30 acres.—References to parents.

Fifty young gentlemen educated for 21 guineas—less than 9s. a head! This is what the advertiser says, though not what he means; but, for our part, we can credit the actual statement as readily as the intended. If there is “no charge for books, laundress, drilling, or vocal music,” a very obvious reason suggests itself. As to “references to parents,” we have no doubt that any parent who had sent his son to receive “superior education for 21 guineas” would be quite capable of recommending other parents to do the same.

Oh for a Garuda stone that would send the parents themselves to receive a “superior education” and “the best diet without limit” for 21 guineas! If one could give them three months of “the best diet,” even without the “superior education,” it might be enough.

The cheap governess advertisements are not so sickening as the cheap school advertisements, for there is no hypocrisy about them. It happens unfortunately that a great number of young women who have received what is called “a good education,” *i.e.*, who have been taught some French and Music, find themselves obliged to earn their livelihood, wholly or in part, and, as they are without any bread-winning skill, they are forced to take whatever offers. Of this necessity head-mistresses and parents are not slow to take advantage, and the consequence is, that many people pay their governess less than they pay their cook. We have observed the two following advertisements in the same column and not far apart:—

WANTED, a **GOVERNESS** (Daily) for Young Ladies' School at Bayswater. Age 20 to 30. English, Music, and elementary French. Salary £20.

WANTED, a **COOK** (Good Plain), in a School. Church of England. Wages £35. All found. Age not under 30. One of the advertisements that come between them is as follows:—

WANTED immediately, an experienced **PERSON**, to instruct and take entire charge of four children, wardrobes, &c. Salary £18.

We are sorry, indeed, that experience in instructing and managing children should be thought of less value than experience in cooking dinners. It is many hundred years ago since the father expressed astonishment at a teacher's terms in these words:—“Why, I could get a slave for less!” His spiritual descendants would say: “Why I could get a *cook* for less!” and his descendants are numerous.

Our only hope is in the gradual perception of the importance and of the difficulty of bringing up children rightly. Perhaps the day is not so far distant when every one will agree not only that much more goodness, but also much more skill, is needed in the nursery than in the kitchen. When skill is in demand, it will be duly paid for.

CORRESPONDENCE.

SANCTA SIMPLICITAS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—I am sure we must all feel grateful for Canon Farrar's very interesting and practical lecture on Teaching in your last number. Specially valuable are his remarks on unconscious influence, on faithfulness in the matter of corrections, and on the care we should take never to surprise a child into the denial of a fault. So much the more do I regret that he gives currency to what must, I am sure, be a misrepresentation of Dr. Arnold's practice. I grant that we should not suspect without grave reason, but surely one is not justified in pre-

tending to believe what one cannot, and the facts, as given by Dr. Farrar, show it was impossible for him to believe the boys who told him they had not copied. I repeat the story:—

“At Harrow, two boys brought me exercises, marked by the same grotesque mistakes. It seemed certain that those exercises could not have been done independently. Both boys assured me that there had been no copying. One, whom I had considered a boy of high *morale*, assured me of this again and again, with passionate earnestness. I said to him, ‘If I were to send up those two exercises to any jury in England, they would say that these resemblances could not be accidental, except by something almost like a miracle. But you both tell me that you have not copied. I cannot believe you would lie to me; I must suppose that there has been some extraordinary accident. I shall say no more.’ Years after, that boy, then a monitor, said to me, ‘Sir, do you remember that exercise in the fourth form?’ ‘Yes,’ I said. ‘Well, sir, I told you a lie. It *was* copied. You believed me, and the remembrance of that lie has remained with me, and pained me ever since.’ I am inclined to think that boy was more effectually taught, and more effectually punished, than if I had refused to accept his protests.”

But no question of policy can make it right to say we believe what we do not and cannot, and I am inclined to think that no wrong act can have influence for good over our pupils. Surely, even upon the Canon's own showing, serious harm was done to the boy. For all those years, before he acknowledged his fault, he was living in a state of conscious sin. He knew he ought to tell, but his master had not helped him to do so, and thus he went on living with a wounded conscience. Need I say how, during that time, the whole moral being would suffer? I have often seen the pernicious effects of what I believe to be an erroneous view of Dr. Arnold's conduct. Parents have sometimes quoted it to me, and really refused to look into evidence at all, saying, “I believe my child.” It is so much easier for us to give up an enquiry, often extremely difficult—one in which, if we fail, we are very likely to excite the anger of parents, perhaps incur blame from our governing body, and certainly render ourselves unpopular,—that we are tempted to look at the dangers, and neglect the duties, of our office. I shall not easily forget one poor child, who sobbed out through her tears, “I prayed that I might be found out.” She was wretched, but could no more have come to tell me than she could have drawn her own tooth. What if I had left her in her misery? Never should we accuse without very good ground; never should we pretend to know more than we do—pleading the false to gain the true; never should we, in a matter of such gravity, act hastily; and yet promptitude is of the greatest importance, for every hour of delay makes it harder to speak the truth, and often involves the liar in snares from which he can scarcely extricate himself. Surely these children are brought to us that we may support them in hours of weakness, and make them know the peace that comes of suffering for conscience's sake. I commend the matter to the very earnest consideration of teachers.

Yours faithfully,

DOROTHEA BEALE,
Principal of the Ladies' College,
Cheltenham.

GEOLOGY v. BOTANY.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—In a review of the “Myths of Hellas,” in the Supplement to the *Journal of Education* for March, this sentence occurs,—“Why is it that Geology is a so much more popular science than Botany? Not because, by a long way, it is simpler and more intelligible, or more interesting in itself, but because the terms used by Geologists are so much simpler than those used by Botanists.” Now, it seems to me that these words convey the exact reverse of the truth. In the first place, there is nothing in the great ascertained facts of Geology that is not perfectly simple and perfectly intelligible. It is true that it is a progressive science, and that discoveries are continually being made that modify certain conclusions too hastily formed while it was yet in its infancy; but this merely counsels caution, and adds zest to investigation. In the second place, it is impossible for outsiders to realize the interest and fascination which the study of Geology possesses for those who come within its charmed circle. The extra-

ordinary grandeur of its conceptions, revealing, as they do, the unwritten history of our globe for tens, perhaps hundreds, of millions of years before man's history began, its bearings on so many of the great questions that occupy modern thought, the incontrovertible nature of the evidence it affords,—all this surely raises it to the very first rank among sciences. Botany, Conchology, Mineralogy, are but subsidiary branches of knowledge—the mere bricks and mortar that help to build up the house. In these there are no fresh discoveries to make, all is mapped out and classified. In Geology every freshly opened quarry, every boring under the surface soil, is full of splendid possibilities. The humblest observer may suddenly light upon some fossil, some kind of organic remains that may supply the long missing link in a chain of evidence, and turn supposition into certainty. Nor can any collection, whether of flowers, shells, or minerals, be compared in interest to that of the geologist, ranging, as it does, from the dubious Eozoön Canadense through so many different types,—appearing, multiplying, diminishing, and then disappearing altogether,—up to the delicate Pliocene shells which are still in existence on our shores, and the bones of extinct Mammalia accompanying the first traces of man. The one only thing which repels some young students is precisely that which your reviewer ascribes especially to Botany, “the enormous number of technical terms,” the long Greco-Latin names, the confusing multiplicity of synonyms. But let them disregard this, and the study will become a passion, will give a fresh charm to travel, will invest the quarry, the marl-pit, the railway cutting with a new and keen interest, and provide an unfailling source of occupation and amusement for every leisure hour. *Credo experto.*

In the strong conviction of the immense value of Geology in any system of education, I venture to address to you this remonstrance on behalf of “by a long way” the noblest and most interesting of all the sciences.

I am, Sir,
Yours faithfully,
DELTA.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL PRIMER AND ELEMENTARY LATIN TEACHING.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

Sir,—Although Latin takes up so large a space in the curricula of all our schools, we are still without any systematic course of books for teaching Latin, capable of commanding general approval. Some fifteen or sixteen years ago, the Public School Primer was imposed upon us by authority, but, though the author of that work has written several companion books, they have not yet met with, and do not seem likely to meet with, any wide acceptance. We are, therefore, compelled to use a number of books more or less inconsistent and contradictory, much to the hindrance of our pupils.

Dr. Kennedy, in the Primer, has adopted a thoroughly clear and scientific grammatical nomenclature, which is not systematically followed by any of the “First Latin Books.”

Those Schoolmasters—and they are many—who think that the Principles of Grammar should be taught in English, find that in no English Grammar—not even Mr. Thring's—are the lines of the Primer completely followed out.

It is not surprising that this state of chaos existed for some years after the Primer was published, as it seems to have taken most Schoolmasters no less than ten years to discover that the gist of the Primer lies in the Appendix. I, at least, do not remember to have come across, till within the last three years, any boy, either from a Public or Private School, who had ever been asked to read a line of this appendix.

Now, most Schoolmasters have learnt their lesson: they can now use Dr. Kennedy's work. When are they to be presented with suitable books to precede and accompany it?

I am, Sir, Yours obediently,
A PRIVATE SCHOOLMASTER.

February 20, 1883.

“HEALTH.”—We gladly call attention to the new journal of this name which appeared last month. It occupies in relation to the medical journals the same position that *Knowledge* does to science, and preaches in a popular form the gospel of health. The first number contains at least two admirable articles—Professor MacLaren's on the relation of recreation to work, and Dr. A. Wilson's on the care of the teeth. Such a vigorous infancy gives promise of long life and crowds of friends.

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The Journal of Education,

96 FARRINGDON STREET, LONDON, E.C.

FLORIMEL: A FRAGMENT.

PART IV.

FAUST.

Sprich, und ohne Säumniss!

MEPHISTOP. Ungern entdeck' ich höheres Geheimniss.—
Göttinnen thronen hehr in Einsamkeit,
Um sie kein Ort, noch weniger eine Zeit;
Von ihnen sprechen ist Verlegenheit.
Die Mütter sind es!

F. (*aufgeschreckt*). Mütter?
M. Schaudert's dich?
F. Die Mütter! Mütter!—'s klingt so wunderbarlich!
M. Das ist es auch. Göttinnen, ungekannt
Euch sterblichen, von uns nicht gern genannt,
Nach ihrer Wohnung magst in's Tiefste schürfen;
* * * * *

Ein glühender Dreifuss thut dir endlich kund
Du seyst im tiefsten, allertiefsten Grund.
Bei seinem Schein wirst du die Mütter sehn;
Die einen sitzen, andre stehn und gehn
Wie's eben kommt. Gestaltung, Umgestaltung,
Des Ewige Sinnes ewige Unterhaltung,
Umshwebt von Bildern aller Creatur
Sie sehn dich nicht, denn Schemen sehn sie nur.

Faust, Second Part, Act I.

Two more letters from X., following hard upon that printed last month, finished the story of his singular adventure. They require no introduction, and I am glad to send them to press without note or comment. "To speak of them is dilemma."

LETTER V.

"I have been reading 'Endymion' to-day, in an enchanted copy—a little grey book in a paper cover, bearing date 1818. You know the edition, and, indeed, you ought to possess it, for I remember making you a present of it—seven years ago, I think, about the time when I began to lose what I am now first finding again—my soul. I take it as a good omen that I find this Keats at the same moment. It was lying flat on the upper shelf of a little mahogany book-case that is nailed against the wall of my kitchen-parlour. I discovered it by the merest accident, having climbed on a chair to mend my bell-rope, and so brought my eyes to its level. It was buried in thick dust, and may have lain there any number of years,—let us say twenty. Not more, for I have taken a fantastic idea into my head

that it was out of this very book that Florimel made her extracts. That she has some more deeply-rooted connection with this house than that of an occasional lodger, I am convinced. She has lived here at some period of her life; lain down at night and risen up in the morning, eaten and drunk, thought her thoughts, wept, laughed, worked, suffered, and rejoiced; and that, not only for a few days together, now and again at rare intervals, but continuously for weeks, months, and years. I feel that it must have been so. Her spirit is upon the whole place—her mind meets me in every feature of it. We cannot explain how we know such things, but we do know them. Similarly, I feel that this Keats is hers. It is marked in many places, and the passages are just those I should expect her to select. Then the handwriting of a few stray notes in the margin is like hers. And so are the initials on the title page. C. H. is all the description she gives of herself. The writing is small and fine, remarkably distinct, and entirely free from ornamentation. But it has distinction and individuality, with the simplicity of a well-born puritan. I have never heard anyone expound the rules by which character may be traced in handwriting, but I believe in the science; and I was never yet surprised at the writing of an acquaintance, without sooner or later discovering the counterpart of that which surprised me in the conduct of the writer. In these characters there is nothing to surprise, however, and nothing to pave the way for unpleasant revelations. C. H. ! Well, I think I am glad that the inscription is not fuller. I do not even attempt to guess at names to fit the letters. In defiance of orthography, C. H. stands for Florimel, and I continue to think of her by the name she has redeemed.

"I carried the book out upon the moor immediately after breakfast, and having climbed a heathery slope, stretched myself at full length under the not very dense shade of a mountain ash, and read till noon. Evidently she is particularly fond of the description, in the first book, of the worship of Pan. Many parts of it are marked for copying, and the whole bears unmistakable signs of having been much read. As I write, I take up the book, and feel an irresistible impulse to transcribe what she has transcribed. The leaves open at the picture of the marble altar standing on the wide lawn. The fiery sun leaps above the horizon, the warmth draws sweet odours from the flowers, the lark soars into the sky :—

"Man's voice was on the mountains, and the mass
Of nature's lives and wonders pulsed tenfold,
To feel this sunrise and its glories old."

Troops of little children garlanded, old hoary men, damsels with their shepherd lovers, fauns, satyrs, and all creatures of the wild gather from every side, bringing gifts, and song, and prayer. The chorus of invocation swells,—

"By all the echoes that about thee ring,
Hear us, O Satyr King!
O hearkener to the loud-clapping sheers,
While ever and anon to his shorn peers
A ram goes bleating; Winder of the horn,
When snouted wild-boars routing tender corn
Anger our huntsman; Breather round our farms,
To keep off mildews, and all weather harms;
Strange ministrant of undescribed sounds,
That come a swooning over hollow grounds,
And wither drearly on barren moors;
Dread opener of the mysterious doors
Leading to universal knowledge,—see,
Great son of Dryope,
The many that are come to pay their vows
With leaves upon their brows!
Be still the unimaginable lodge
For solitary thinkings; such as dodge,
Conception to the very bourne of heaven,
Then leave the naked brain; be still the leaven,
That, spreading in this dull and clodded earth,
Gives it a touch ethereal—a new birth;
Be still a symbol of immensity;
A firmament reflected in the sea;
An element filling the space between;
An unknown—but no more."

"Do you remember Watts's picture, 'The Genius of Greek Poetry'?" As I read, I seemed to become that faun, stirred at all points, and wakened into human consciousness by the sympathy of nature. I laid the book down upon the grass, and, closing my eyes, allowed the ideas called up by the poetry, and the recollection of the picture, to grow more and more vivid to my imagination.

"I saw and felt, as if by bodily sense, the presence of the living forms that circle about the slowly waking creature; I shuddered at the grim and uncouth monsters of the lower arc, and revelled in the lovely embodiments so marvellously linked and wreathed to complete the sphere above. I understood how the Greeks imagined their mythology, and I knew why Florimel preferred Keats to Wordsworth. Wordsworth's is the subtler, often the finer touch; he re-lights the torch in those who have once felt warmly, but in whom the first vividness of perception has been extinguished by over-culture, or by too much communing with the sordid side of life. We seem to perform an act of gentle penance when we read him, to weep tears of purification as we approach anew with chastened souls to altars from which we have more or less voluntarily turned away at some point of our lives. But Keats has nothing to do with repentance. He is the poet of souls who have not yet sinned or even known. He opens the doors of universal knowledge to dull beings who never looked for them, and with one blast of his bronze clarion or murmur of Æolian music, ushers them into a world peopled with images, in which the most exquisite ideal beauty is combined with the solidity of flesh and blood.

"But sensuousness is not the end. To the question, 'Wherein lies happiness?' the answer is:—

"In that which beckons our minds to fellowship divine,
A fellowship with essence; till we shine,
Full alchemised, and free of space. Behold
The clear religion of heaven! Fold,
A rose-leaf round thy finger's taperness,
And soothe thy lips; hush! when the airy stress
Of music's kiss impregnates the free winds,
And with a sympathetic touch unbinds
Æolian magic from their lucid wombs,
Then old songs waken from encloded tombs;
Old ditties sigh above their father's grave;
Ghosts of melodious prophesying rave
Round every spot where trod Apollo's foot;
Bronze clarions awake, and faintly bruit,
Where long ago a giant battle was;
And, from the turf, a lullaby doth pass
In every place where infant Orpheus slept.
Feel we these things! that moment have we stept
Into a sort of oneness, and our state
Is like a floating spirit's."

"Nor yet can pure transcendentalism content a human soul:—

"There are
Richer entanglements, enthrallments far
More self-destroying, leading by degrees
To the chief intensity: the crown of these
Is made of love and friendship, and sits high
Upon the forehead of humanity.
All its more ponderous and bulky worth
Is friendship, whence there ever issues forth
A steady splendour; but at the tip top
There hangs by unseen film, an orb'd drop
Of light, and that is love."

"Love is followed through its mysterious developments to the point of supreme absorption, when it appears to be the most intense of all forms of selfishness:—

"Men, who might have tower'd in the van
Of all the congregated world, to fan
And winnow from the coming step of time
All chaff of custom, wipe away all slime
Left by men-slugs and human serpentry,
Have been content to let occasion die,
Whilst they did sleep in love's Elysium."

"But the poet cannot allow himself to doubt in the temple of love. He accepts a mystery passing intelligence; and—

"Would rather be struck dumb,
Than speak against this ardent listlessness,
For I have ever thought that it might bless
The world with benefits unknowingly;
As does the nightingale, up perched high,
And cloister'd among cool and bunched leaves—
She sings but to her love, nor e'er conceives,
How tip-toe night holds back her dark grey hood.
Just so may love, although 'tis understood
The mere commingling of passionate breath,
Produce more than our searching witnesseth:
What I know not; but who, of men, can tell
That flowers would bloom, or that green fruit would swell
To melting pulp, that fish would have bright mail,
The earth its dower of river, wood, and vale,
The meadows runnels, runnels pebble stones,
The seed its harvest, or the lute its tones,
Tones ravishment, or ravishment its sweet,
If human souls did never kiss and greet?"

"Assuredly this tripod glows! Can it be that, groping down into the depths of my despair and doubt, I have stumbled on a new inspiration, and that the sympathy of this woman, so wonderfully revealed, is the key that will open to me the dwelling of the Mysterious Mothers?—Seriously, I think so; and that I think so is the only excuse I have to offer for inflicting these long extracts upon you. To copy out of a book for a correspondent who has books, is a piece of priggishness I blush to be guilty of at my time of life. And yet what I have written, I will send. For how else shall I make you know by what strange ways the new influence is working in me. The mark of her hand upon the book intensifies the ethereal touch of the poet, and as my pen passes where hers passed, I feel myself upon her track.

"My dear B—, the plain prose of it all is this:—I have got to the bottom of my problem of life at last, and I know that my mistake has been to attempt to live in a town, and especially in a highly civilised and consequently very artificial society. I am not fit for it. Don't think this is only the old mood of rebellion and sarcasm. I see the position calmly now, and do justice to all sides of it. I do justice even to Florimel, the old Florimel,—I will not call her false any more, to show you that I have cast out bitterness. I am several stages behind you, and her, and all your world. That is the key to the situation. I am primitive, you are advanced. You have exhausted certain phases of life for which my appetite is still keen. You are satiated, tired, *blasé*: your energies were spent, your passions conquered and reduced to tastes generations ago; original curiosity was killed in your great-grandfathers,—your grandfathers and your fathers have built over it a sepulchre of useful information and elegant culture. But all my giants are unslain. Energy, passion, curiosity, are vigorous in me. They cry out for food like young ravens, and will not be silenced by gifts of stones.

"You are contented with consolations: I demand satisfactions. You read Wordsworth: I am going to read Keats. You are conning the concluding chapters of the book of life, I am fluttering its first pages. It is all right,—all as it should be,—the beginning is good and the end is not less good. Each has its season. But they are different one from the other, and we may not treat them alike. We straighten the limbs of the dead, and lay the corpse in a narrow box and do it no hurt. Not so may we house growing bodies. And it is with families as with individuals, with classes as with families. The phases of life must be taken in their appointed order. To skip a stage, or unduly suppress the energies belonging to it, is to produce deformity, to cripple the body or madden the mind. Each of us must begin where our parents left off. We may sell our birthright, but we cannot cheat the fate that fixed the place and time of our beginning, and, with or against the grain, we must fulfil our own destiny and no other.

"My immediate progenitors were rustic gentry; men who rode to hounds, and talked as broad a dialect as their own tenantry; women who dried lavender in muslin bags, made famous posset, and read little beyond their Bibles. They were brave and virtuous, and I inherit from them a good constitution, and sound and quick instincts; but not the trick of society, and not the habit of going in harness. They lived mainly in the open air; and were, moreover, small magnates in their way. They gave the tone to the still smaller gentry about them, and acquired involuntarily the impatience of restraint that belongs to the pettiest lordship. Hence an element of wilfulness in our blood, a disposition to start aside from all tracks beaten by others, which grows to rebellion and cynicism in society, but turns innocent again in the desert.—I shall not come back to London.

"But this is not all. There was a vein of silent poetry in my mother. She loved all beautiful things with an inarticulate passion, that was at times a source of exquisite pain to her—more often a spring of secret happiness. Had she been cultivated, this sensibility might have found a vent in some form of art; but she was not, and it has left no mark behind. You know, I have always fancied that I inherit something of her temperament. If ever I achieve anything, it will be through returning to influences more akin to those that moulded her and me. Plants should not be moved to a strange soil when they are about to flower. I came to London with an imagination at white heat, eager to produce, confident in my power, in love with the universe and mankind. But the town was not the universe, the men and women of society were not mankind as I had conceived it. All was strange to me, and my excited senses turned all I saw to caricature. So I grew cynical, sceptical, morbid, mad. But all this is past. I have found peace in this solitude, and here I will remain. But you smile sarcastically. You say—I hear you saying it, 'Tis only a new form of the old mood, induced by the old influence of woman.' And I will not say that you are altogether wrong. I grant that it is Florimel who has made the scales fall from my eyes. I am not ashamed to acknowledge that to her I owe the complete trust with which I surrender myself to the influences on which I know my soul's health to depend. But the scales have fallen, and my eyes are open. She has taught me to believe in what I see. Something within myself bids me see further than she sees. Formation, transformation, evolution, revolution, change, decay, and new birth haunt the dwelling of the mysterious goddesses who know not place and time, and see only shadows. The fabric of modern society cannot last for ever. A little grace is gained for it by the intercession of a just woman; virtue is still extracted from it by the conjuration of a pure spirit. A little time is gained, but no more. The present system will pass, as other systems have passed before it. The governing truth of to-day will be a corrupting lie to-morrow, or the day after to-morrow:—

"Are then regalities all gilded masks?
No, there are throned seats unscalable
But by a patient wing, a constant spell,
Or by ethereal things that, unconfined,
Can make a ladder of the eternal wind,
And poise about in cloudy thunder-tents
To watch the abysm-birth of elements.
Ay, 'bove the withering of old-lipp'd fate
A thousand powers keep religious state,
In water, fiery realm, and airy bourne,
And, silent as a consecrated urn,
Hold sphery sessions for a season due.
Yet few of these far Majesties, ah, few!
Have bared their operations to this globe."

"What then? you ask. My paper almost blushes, as I whisper my answer above it. It is so long since I believed myself to possess any other imagination than that wistful back-look of yearning memory, of which nine-tenths of the poetry of the day is born, that now, when something warmer pulses in my veins, and my brain teems with images, and speech comes rhythmically to my lips, and words and things

have but one life, like souls and bodies,—now, when at last the tripod blazes, and the eternal shadows are within my grasp, and my heart burns with desire to create such a world as defies death and lives for ever in the immortality of art,—I dare not take back the sacred name I wore too boldly once and miserably forfeited. But though my pen falters, my faith is sure. Of the many powers throned in the abyss, but few have bared their operations to this globe. Some still wait for interpretation. There is yet new ground to break, and the latest aspirant need not think himself too late.

“The old dream has revived. Do you, who cherished it in the days of its first existence, name it now in the hour of resurrection—you and not I.

“X.”

LETTER VI.

“I have been to L., and I have seen her. Two days after I wrote to you last, I set out in search of her. It had become a necessity to me to be assured, by one more sight of her in the flesh, that she, at any rate, was not a shadow. I took the train and arrived at L.—at ten o'clock at night; slept at the Crown Hotel, and woke next morning, saying to myself, ‘Before night, I will have found her!’ A rash vow enough, seeing that I knew neither her own name and address, nor that of her employers. And I have to confess that, but for chance, I should, in all probability, not have made it good; for I shrank from giving a formal description of her to strangers, and asking them if they knew of such a person. Such public advertisement would have seemed to me a desecration. On the other hand, I was withheld from inquiring of the few individuals I know in L.—, by the consciousness that my errand would appear ridiculous to them. I therefore contented myself with strolling up and down those streets where mill hands congregate, listening whenever I could to the conversation of working people, and haunting the doors of factories. I spent the whole day in this manner, so engrossed in my quest that I never thought of procuring meals or rest. And evening found me walking for the fiftieth time along R.—Street, for something like an instinct told me that it was here she dwelt. Suddenly I remembered that it was Wednesday, the day on which she habitually received her friends. I looked at my watch, and found that it was a little more than half-past seven. Eight was the hour at which her friends came to her. I resolved to remain in the street and watch for a frequented doorway. In the meanwhile I returned to my pacing up and down. Before long, my cogitations were interrupted by a greeting in a familiar voice, which, however, did not instantly suggest its owner, but with what seemed a perverse trick of my imagination, reminded me of Florimel. I looked up and recognised H—. He was not less surprised to see me than I to see him. Each asked the other what in the world he was doing there, and we mutually parried the question.

“He had been walking in the direction opposite to mine, and with the air of having a definite goal before him. None the less, he changed his beat and walked my way. We plunged at once into our usual growling talk. He asked with mock interest after false Florimel. I answered shortly, for my thoughts were busy with the true Florimel, and, as if to madden me with tantalising suggestions, every tone of H.’s voice recalled the notes of hers. He taxed me with reserve, and I made an effort to grumble generously. I abused everything and everybody, cursed life, and was impertinent to providence for having spared me,—but it was all of no use. He detected the false ring and accused me of insincerity. I surrendered and confessed to having passed through experiences that had disturbed me.

“‘Some woman?’ he said, sympathetically, ‘not another Florimel, I pray.’

“‘Yes,’ I said, ‘another Florimel, but a true one this time. A Florimel of flesh and blood, not of snow and wax. I have seen a woman, H., on whose faith, and truth, and persistent disinterested friendship, I would stake—’

“‘Do you know my sister,’ said H. in a quiet musing tone, and apparently unconscious of the fact that he was interrupting me.

“‘No,’ I replied, impatiently; but, almost before the syllable was out of my mouth, I knew that it was false. I did know his sister. The mystery of two lives was solved for me in a moment. Florimel was the sister of H., that mysterious woman of whom sometimes, but very seldom, he talked to intimate friends, always beginning, ‘But after all, I knew a woman who,’ and then enumerating all the gracious gifts with which dreamers and poets have invested the ideal of womanhood. Florimel was H.’s sister. And he, like myself, was on the way to see her. I did not, however, recall my denial; or betray any special curiosity, when he went on to say, ‘Then you shall know her to-night. I am going to see her now, and I will take you with me.’

“‘We walked half-way up the street. H.— then stopped at a door, and before ringing or knocking, said very deliberately.

“‘My sister lives here. She works at J.’s mill. She is a philosopher and a saint, and the kindest sister in the world. We were left orphans when she was fourteen and I was ten. Our mother was a factory girl of this town—our father, the ne'er-do-weel younger son of a north-country squire, who married her to spite his father, neglected her for years, and then came back to her for consolation after he had squandered his substance in a career of half-crazed bohemianism. On the death of his father, he inherited a small share of the family fortune, and with it settled in a farmhouse on Hey Moor. lived on his capital as long as it lasted, and shot himself on the day on which he spent his last sovereign, leaving us and our mother absolutely destitute. My mother, whom I honour as the bravest woman I have ever known, accepted the situation with perfect simplicity. She brought us back to L., and at once returned to work at the factory, where she had been employed before her hapless marriage. My sister worked with her. For my part, I hungered for a life of adventure. I had inherited a good deal of my father’s inaptitude for regular ways of life, and the utter freedom from social restraints in which we had lived so far, had done much to strengthen the tendency. Something too, had been contributed by the influences of the moorland scenery. My sister and I had lived like gypsy children, unchecked save by our mother’s example, and with no teaching but what we got for ourselves out of a very respectable library, which, by a queer freak of chance had descended to my father, and alone represented the cultivated strain in our ancestry. My sister had a passion for poetry, and my earliest recollection is of her habit of repeating pages and pages from the greatest poets to me before I was able to understand a word of them. All my early education I owe to her. And she, as she will tell you, owes hers exclusively to these moors, and to her instinctive discovery of what was best to read in the old family books that had strayed into such odd surroundings. Our want of money was no trouble to us; for we had no conception of the use of money or appreciation of the social advantages it procures. We had lived free from actual want, and all we regretted on coming to L., was the loss of our out-of-door life. To me, this loss was irreparable; I could not resign myself to a town existence, and my mother wisely humoured my disposition and procured me a berth on board a merchant ship bound for Australia. I think you know my story since, and I need not go over it again.

“‘When I came home, after twelve years, my mother had been long dead, my sister was working steadily and contentedly at the factory,—she was respected and valued by her employers, rather feared by the greater number of her fellow-workers, idolized by a handful of boys and girls who had constituted her their priestess. I persuaded her to leave the place and come with me to London.’

“‘I know the rest,’ I said. ‘She was not happy in London, and chose to return to her work and her friends. I do know your sister. I met her some days ago at Hey Moor, and she impressed me as no woman ever impressed me before. When we parted, I felt that the light had gone out of my life. I fought against my desolation for a time, then gave in, and came here in search of her. I divined that this was her street. I knew it was her evening for seeing her friends. I resolved to

wait till their gathering at her door should indicate the house to me. Now the door is open, let us go in at once.'

"We passed through a bit of dark passage into a large light room, from the far end of which Florimel came forward to meet us with a countenance radiant with kindness and welcome. She gave her left hand to her brother and her right hand to me, and, as she stood between us, said, with that bright and cordial smile of hers—'So you have come to see me. And it is as I thought, you are H.'s friend X., of whom I have heard so often.'"

THE END.

REVIEWS AND MINOR NOTICES.

Homeric Grammar. By D. B. MONRO. (Clarendon Press. 1882.)

Mr. Monro has long been known as one of those men who possess a great local reputation, which the little writing he has hitherto done has not been sufficient adequately to explain or justify to outsiders. Such local reputations have always this amount of truth in them, that they represent the accumulated deposit of the personal impression left on a large number of people with whom a man has been brought into contact. But they are also justly discounted by outsiders, as they too often mean, at the best, that a man *could* do valuable work, rather than he *will* do it; and, besides the uncertainty of life—of which Oxford has had in the last year several melancholy examples—there are many things to prevent a "could" developing into a "will." We are glad to think that the appearance of Mr. Monro's "Homeric Grammar" will at length make it clear to everyone why many Oxford men have spoken for years past with what seemed such mysterious enthusiasm of the author's knowledge and powers.

We may say at once, broadly, that the work before us is the greatest contribution to the philological study of Greek which has appeared in England for more than a generation. Mr. Monro speaks of it in the preface modestly as "necessarily, to a great extent, a compilation"; and, if he had given us no more than a general view of the results of the criticism and research of the last thirty years—chiefly, of course, in Germany, but also in France, America, and England—with reference to the grammar of early Greek, he would have deserved our warmest thanks. The diffusion of knowledge is an object only second in importance to research; and, though every scholar now reads German, few have the qualities, and fewer still the time, to find their way among the mass of pamphlets, monographs, "Zeitschriften," and "Blätter," where research has to be itself "researched" for. But Mr. Monro is much more than a compiler. He has not merely read, mastered, compared, sifted, arranged—in itself no slight labour, and requiring no common qualities,—but he shows everywhere a command of his subject, a subtlety of discriminating power, a caution and thoughtfulness and originality in dealing with perplexed points, an independence and yet a *sanity* of judgment, and, above all, an abiding sense of what constitutes an argument, which together make a rare qualification for his task. Some of these gifts may seem slight and ordinary, but those who have studied Philology will know that it is not so. Originality of a sort is, in this field, as common as what we may call scientific originality is rare. The difficulty is to proceed inductively, to keep conjecture sane, and to remember the difference between what is proved and what is guessed. Mr. Monro is original in the scientific sense.

The book is so full of matter that it is impossible within our limits to do more than give a general idea of its character, and say a word or two on some of the questions which it raises.

Mr. Monro's aim is to make a thorough investigation into both the forms and the usages of Homeric Greek words. He proceeds throughout in what may be called the historical order, from the simplest form of sentence to the more com-

plex. This explains why the book begins with verbs: first, person endings; then, the meaning of the middle; next, the tenses, form, and usage; finally, the mood forms and accentuation. Only after this is done, come nouns and pronouns, case endings, and formation, with the numerals; then the use of the cases and numbers, the prepositions and verbals, and the use of the pronouns. The use of the moods comes last, followed by two chapters on particles and metre. One is, at first sight, disposed to object to the irregular order in which the forms and usages are treated; but no arrangement is free from objection, and the one adopted perhaps least breaks what we have called the historic order, and so assists the protest which the author's whole attitude maintains against the anachronistic treatment of the Homeric dialect.

In dealing with the forms, one of the most interesting and complete investigations is that of the aorists. Among the points which may be noticed where truer methods are supplanting the older notions, still to be found in many English grammars and philologies, are the following:—

(1) The identification of the so-called passive strong aorists like *ἔσβη*, *ἀπάγη*, *ἐδάη* with the non-thematic strong aorists of the active voice, such as *ἔβη*, *ἔστη*, *ἔφθη*; all being clearly old intransitive forms. (§§ 13, 42.)

(2) The so-called weak passive aorists, like *ἐτύχθη*, *ἐστάθη*, are shown to be similar formations, with a different suffix but the same person-endings; and the original intransitive sense is shown in words like *ἐδύνασθη* "could," *ἐφράσθη* "observed," *αἰδέσθητε* "feel shame." (§ 43.)

(3) The difficulty of deciding, in many forms, whether to call them aorist or imperfect, such as *αἶδετο*, *ἀγέροντο*, *ἔπλεν* (§ 30, 22); and the clear recognition (§ 72) of an original "past tense," such as *ἔφην* (like *ἔστην* in form), *ἦα*, *ἦα* (like *ἔχευα*, &c.), belonging to a time before aorist and imperfect were differentiated.

(4) The strong grounds adduced for thinking (§ 37), with Fick and De Saussure, that strong aorist forms are derived from the longer present forms, in many or most cases, instead of *vice versa*; that, in short, *ἔπιθον*, *ἔσχον*, *ἔπλετο* are short forms of the verb stem, posterior to the longer forms *πιθ-*, *(σ)εχ-*, *πελ-*. This will seem to many a hard saying; and there are, no doubt, considerations that point the other way.

(5) The long and interesting investigation in Appendix A (founded mainly on Brugman's researches), pointing to the conclusion to which many remarks in the body of the work lead up, that the *-a* final of words like *ἔθηκα*, *ἔτευξα*, *ἔχευα*, *ἦα*, and the perfect, was originally confined to the first person, from which it has extended to the other persons by analogical formation.

(6) It is shown, by a comparison with the Sanskrit forms, that the original *-m* of the first personal suffix under certain conditions tends to become *-am* in Sanskrit and *-a* in Greek. So that we are led to conclude that the *-a* was originally the representative of *-μ* or *-ν*, and gradually forced its way in till it assumed the position of a regular formative element.

(7) We may add to these, though it is concerned not with the forms but with the meaning of the aorist, the acute remarks about the use of this tense occasionally for the present. Mr. Monro observes (§ 78) that the aorist is used sometimes, where we should use the present, to express a *culminating point*; thus, in *ἦν δέ σευ ὠνοσάμην* . . . and *ἦδη ἤχθηρε*, the meaning is really, "I have been brought to the point of blaming," "he has come to hate," or, as we should say simply, *I blame, he hates*.

And again, when the assertion is made irrespective of time, the tendency is to use the *aorist* for single or momentary action, the *present* for continuous. Thus, *Iliad iv. 75, αἶον δ' ἀστέρα ἦκε* . . . *σπινθήρες ἔεντα*—"he shoots a star . . . the sparks fly." In other words, the Greeks having no aorist-present (*I send*), but only a progressive-present (*I am sending*), there is a tendency to use the momentary tense *where time does not matter* in place of the present.

This, however, would not be the case in ordinary narrative or dialogue, where time could not be so treated; and we are not disposed to class (as Mr. Monro does) the Attic use of

ἦσθην, ἐπήνεσα, &c. in dialogue under this head. We should rather explain these like the common *καλῶς ἔλεξας* or *ἦρον τὸδ'*; (can you ask it?) just as in these latter the rapid Greek speaks of the statement or question *only just uttered* in the past, so with *ἦσθην* and *ἐπήνεσα* the feeling is put back in thought to the recent word or act which evoked them.

Another extremely interesting passage is the section (§ 106) on the variation of the stem of nouns, where a good deal of evidence is adduced of the existence in early times of a *strong* and a *weak* form, or rather a long and a short form, of the stem; the shorter form being used for genitive and dative (owing, no doubt, to their originally heavier endings), and the longer form for nom. and acc.

This explains *πατήρ* and *πατρός*,
πατέρα, *πατρί*,

πατέρος and *πατέρι* being exceedingly rare in Homer. So, again, *άνήρ* has two stems, the longer *άνέρ-*, the shorter properly *άνρ-*, but developing a parasitic *δ* and becoming *άνδρ-*: and, though here the stems are used convertibly, yet the dative plural is always *άνδρά-σι*, which bears the same relation to **άνρ-σι* that *πράθ-* does to *περθ-* (i.e., the short verb stem to the long verb stem, just as in *ταμ-τεμ*, or *λιπ-λειπ*). If this theory is true, it will account, as Mr. Monro points out (§ 114, note), for some part at least of the immense variety in Greek of noun-suffixes; especially as they naturally fall in many cases into groups of three or four similar forms, which may thus have come from a single suffix.

The relation of *-a* to *-v*, which has already met us in the passage above referred to, where the *-a* of the first personal suffix in verbal forms was investigated, and which is familiar to all in the Ionic forms *δλοίατο* (*δλοιντο*), *τεράχεται* (for the impossible *τέταχεται*), &c., throws considerable light on many points in the formation of nouns, as well as of other parts of verbs.

Thus, in many places where *-εμ*, *-εν* are the longer forms of a variant suffix or portion of a stem, we shall have as the shorter form of it either *μ* or *ν* simply, or the *a* which represents the nasal, or finally (before vowels) *-αμ* or *-αν*. The following illustrations must suffice, without further explanation, to show what a wide application this principle has:—

Long forms.

-φεν-
κτεν- ογ κτειν-
πενθ-, βενθ-, &c.
γεν- ογ γον-

Short forms.

έ-πε-φν-ε
-κταν- ογ -κτα-
παθ-, βαθ-, &c.
γα-

Similarly

θερά-πων

θερά-πν-η
ογ θερά-παν-γα (-αινα).

Again, a comparison of the suffixes of *δαί-μων*, *ποι-μήν*, and *πή-μα*, or of *δνο-μα(τ)* and Latin *no-men*, suggests that the suffix *-μα(τ)* is the shorter form of *-μον* or *-μεν*, with *τ* inserted, and *a* for *ν*. This again clears up an obscure Homeric feminine *πρόφρασσα* from *πρόφρων*; for, just as *-μον-* is to *-μα(τ)*, so is *προ-φρον-* to *προ-φρα(τ)*, which latter, with the regular feminine suffix *-γα* gives us the form *πρόφρασσα*.

There are many other interesting points which will be new to the vast bulk of readers who have not followed closely recent research; such as, for instance, the tendency of proper names in Greek to a peculiar shortening (§ 129), which explains such otherwise anomalous forms as *Αΐγισθος*, *Πάτροκλος*, *Εΐρυντος*, *Όρέστης*; or the careful analysis of compounds (§ 126); or the treatment of the non-thematic contracted verbs (§ 19), a most complicated subject; or the influence of a change of gender on the form of the suffix of a noun (§ 116), and the anomalies thus explained; into none of which does our space allow us to enter. We hope that we have said enough to shew that Mr. Monro's book, besides being an exhaustive work of reference for all Homeric forms well arranged and analysed, and all difficult questions at least fully faced, also contains much that will be of deep interest to the philological student in the way of new light upon old problems. Perhaps we may be permitted to discuss in another article the syntactical portion of the work; for we feel confident that Mr. Monro's handling of the syntax will not be of less interest than his treatment of the forms.

Hints on Home Teaching. By EDWIN A. ABBOTT, D.D. (Seeley, Jackson, & Halliday.)

Any book on teaching by so experienced and able a teacher as Dr. Abbott is sure not only to attract attention and be very widely read, but also to contain a great deal well worth the reading. We do not think any one will be disappointed with his last book, "Hints on Home Teaching." It is stimulative and suggestive from the first page to the last, and a large portion of the "hints" will be new—at any rate, to most "home teachers"; and even when the thoughts and methods are not quite novel, they are presented in so vigorous and clear a style that they lose but little of their interest on that account. The book, as its name implies, is addressed mainly to parents, and their assistant tutors and governesses; but masters of schools, especially those who have the care of junior classes, will find in its chapters much that is well worth their study. It is divided into two parts—"Moral Training" and "Mental Training." The first concerns itself mainly with the formation of habits, and does not call for much remark. It is not very new, but it is sensible and well put. Some of the hints are excellent, such as—"Reward, *direct reward*, for obedience should never be given"; those who are anxious for "natural" punishments are reminded that "in the world offences may be punishable by the rough methods of the world, but what is *natural* in the world is not *natural* from a father or mother." A very earnest and impressive plea, with which few can fail to sympathise, is put forward in favour of "the habit of reverence;" and the great value of "simplicity" is very clearly depicted. There is one remark, however, on "observation" which has somewhat puzzled us. Dr. Abbott says, "The faculty of observation is secondary to, and in some degree inconsistent with, the faculty of attention." So far from "observation" being inconsistent with "attention," surely the latter is one of the necessary preliminaries and accompaniments of the former? We gather, later on, that the meaning intended must be that, if we concentrate our attention on one object, we do so by excluding for the time others from our notice. But surely we are *observing*, in every sense of the word, that one object—especially in that sense of "observing" which is usual and almost technical in education?

In passing on to the consideration of particular subjects of teaching, we are given some excellent remarks which all of us do well to bear in mind: "Before beginning to teach any subject, we should endeavour to excite the pupil's interest by conversations and stories illustrating the utility of it." How seldom do even experienced teachers remember this great necessity of exciting curiosity and interest at the outset, not only of every subject, but also of every *lesson*.

Again, Dr. Abbott writes:—

"No confused impressions must be given. It would be better that the pupil should receive a clear, erroneous impression—which can afterwards be clearly proved to be false, and removed—than two or three impressions, each more or less true, and each inconsistent with the others." N.B.—If the teacher cannot spare the necessary time for this (preliminary) preparation, he must not attempt to eke out the deficiency by giving his pupils tasks out of a book to prepare without supervision. Let them play. They will be far better employed in playing, than in learning slovenly habits of thought or practice, under the appearance of working."

Reading, writing, spelling, and punctuation are all touched upon briefly; and it is particularly refreshing to find the last insisted upon as necessary, and shown to be by no means difficult. The hint that "a child should never be allowed to write out a passage first and put in the stops afterwards," is worth remembering; as is another that "a child should never, if possible, be allowed to have two impressions of the spelling of a word," from having been suffered to spell it wrongly when he first hears it,—every precaution is to be taken to prevent this. The "Look and Say" method—on the whole, certainly the best—is recommended for teaching to read. We do not however, think that "Preceptor," or Dr. Abbott, or any other teacher, is likely to be very successful in teaching children to pronounce the consonants "*not in the ordinary way with vowels, but as the mere beginnings of sounds.*" With in-

dividuals some slight progress might be made; but with a class, we have reason to believe, failure would be certain.

A great many pages are devoted to "Arithmetic,"—we do not think, with a wholly satisfactory result. The transitions from the concrete to the abstract, and *vice versa*, are not as well managed as we have seen them elsewhere; and the reasoning is occasionally more logical than *clear to children*, who, though quick enough at mere *superficial* logic, are quite incapable of appreciating sound abstract reasoning. It is better, on the whole, not to attempt to explain everything until a certain amount of mechanical power of *doing something* has been acquired. This, however, Dr. Abbott and his Teufelsdröck "Preceptor" both recognize. Much of the work of beginners is simplified by being based on a clear understanding of "notation."

But the best plums of the book are yet to come. "English Composition and Grammar" are treated as excellently as we should expect them to be by the author of "English Lessons for English People," and "How to Tell the Parts of Speech." But the methods are now too familiar (chiefly through these admirable books) to need special notice. Useful hints are given for the training of the "memory"; and still more valuable is the advice given on "learning poetry by heart," where the motto is "divide and remember." The example given by Preceptor of "picturing-out" and of "linking" verse to verse will prove a godsend to many a puzzled little head. We should have liked, however, to have had the subject carried a little farther, and something in the way of an elementary lesson in simple English Literature given. Our own experience goes to prove that boys of nine or ten years are quite able to do such work, and to reap very considerable advantage from it.

The next chapter is on the teaching of French and Latin, and is in our opinion decidedly the most valuable, especially that part of it which concerns the latter subject. In the case of French, the tyranny of Grammar is protested against for beginners, and a more natural method is suggested; while, in the case of Latin, the whole question is gone into with a thoroughness and originality which alone are sufficient to establish the worth of the book. We could not do justice to the method proposed without quoting it entire; so we must content ourselves with recommending our readers to study it for themselves, especially the part on "sentence building," as an aid to translation as well as to composition. Some very useful practical hints are given on History and Geography teaching; and the teaching of Euclid also comes in for its share of good advice, though we think that the preliminary study of form, as in Froebel's method, is not enough insisted on. The book ends with a short chapter on "Religious Instruction." Altogether, very few books have appeared for some time, in the educational world, at once so suggestive and so practically useful as this little one of "Hints on Home Teaching."

The Religions of the Ancient World. By G. RAWLINSON, M.A., Camden Professor of Ancient History, Oxford. (Religious Tract Society. London, 1883.)

Professor Rawlinson has produced an eminently readable little book. Starting with the declaration that as yet sufficient data do not exist for the construction of a science of religion, and that, in attempting such a work, philosophers "are discarding the patient toil, the careful investigation, which real science requires," for "the short and easy method of jumping at conclusions," the Professor gives, in a popular form, a number of facts which may, he considers, at some future time serve as a foundation for such a construction. Eight chapters contain each an account of one of the most famous religions of the Ancient World. The fear of encouraging what he believes to be premature speculation is probably the cause why the writer has refrained from any kind of scientific comment, even in cases in which some explanation seems needful. First in order, and, as it seems, highest in the Professor's estimation, comes the religion of the Egyptians. The contrast which its "veiled monotheism" and the prominence given to a future life present to its debasing animal worship, is one of those points which call for comment. The explanation of the difficulty may

probably be found in the statement that the gods of the Egyptian mythology were parts of a nature created by a God of unity, and "informed and inspired by him." The quotations from the sacred legends of the Assyrians and Babylonians about the Creation, the Fall, and the Descent of Ishtar into Hades and her Return, are highly interesting. In spite of the Professor's warning, the last legend is so suggestive that it is impossible to read it without trying to assign its place in a great whole. Perhaps the most important, as regards its historical effects, of all these ancient religions, has been the Dualism of the Iranians. With these effects, the plan of his work does not allow the writer to deal. His object is simply to present each religion as it appeared at its completion. In this case, however, he has allowed himself to give us a clear account of the admixture of the foreign Magian superstition with the pure Zoroastrian system. The seventh and eighth chapters, which deal respectively with the religions of the Greeks and Romans, contain some well-expressed remarks on the entire difference in spirit and character which existed between the two mythologies. So many suggestive facts are stated in each sketch that, as we read, it seemed impossible but that at the end the eight threads would be gathered together and worked into some skilfully constructed fabric. But it is not so. Holding that the time for science-making is not yet, the writer will have nothing to say about any theory at all. Even one short chapter, such as Professor Max Müller might have given us, would have been a welcome conclusion. Professor Rawlinson, however, considers it "impossible to trace back to any one fundamental conception, to any innate idea, or to any common experience or observation, the various religions which we have been considering." Although we are not prepared to accept this conclusion unreservedly, we are thankful for the clear and interesting sketches of great subjects which the Camden Professor has laid before us.

Lectures on the Cumulative Evidences of Divine Revelation.

By L. F. M. PHILLIPS.

These Lectures were given to the student-teachers of the Ladies' College, Cheltenham, and have been published for the purpose of supplying those to whom is committed the work of educating the young with the power of giving solid reasons for the faith that is in them. In the first four Lectures, after a brief sketch of the present attitude held by the opponents of Divine Revelation, and a description of the nature and weight of Evidence, the writer exhibits the need which our nature has of God to satisfy its longings as an evidence of the existence of the Deity; and points out how our own experience in volition, with reference to the idea of causation, bespeaks the Creative mind. The witness of the law within us is shown to demand perfection in the Creator as its co-relative, our conscience placing us in an ethical relationship to Him. In reference to this argument, the positions held by Agnostics and Comtists are briefly explained, and are considered by the test of the philosophic evidences of revelation. The fifth Lecture begins the second part of the subject, which is devoted to the evidences borne by the physical and moral sciences to the religion of the Bible. The witness of nature to a law of unity, order, continuity, and development, and its declaration as to the non-eternity of phenomena, are shown to be completed by the facts of Revelation. In the same way, moral science, both as regards our experience and the evidences of palæontology, is made to imply a discrepancy between causes and results, which finds its true explanation in the fall of man, and in the necessity of his final and efficient redemption. The last four Lectures set forth the marks of revelation and inspiration in the Christian Faith. In these the history of the canonical books, their genuineness and authenticity are well and briefly discussed. The volume ends with that which must ever be to the believer the noblest demonstration of the truth of his faith—the position which the Life and Person of Christ hold in his religion, and the effects which they have produced both in the world and in the Church. The arguments are, upon the whole, well arranged and steadily pursued. Although the Lectures are necessarily

controversial, a sober spirit and a courteous tone are preserved in speaking of the opinions of those who differ from the conclusions of the writer. A few signs of careless revision occur in the book. For example, the name of Mr. Leslie Stephen is surely sufficiently well known to have escaped misspelling. A less frequent use of hard words and technical terms would have rendered the Lectures more generally useful. Whether they were not a little beyond the audience to whom they were addressed, is a delicate question, on which we need not enter. Many men preparing for Orders, and many who, as laymen, care to know what has been said on behalf of revealed religion by some of its ablest defenders, may study this book with advantage.

Schiller's Maria Stuart; with copious Grammatical and Explanatory Notes. By MORITZ FÜRSTER. (Williams & Norgate, 1883.)

We can hardly conceive of a play affording greater scope for a scholarly treatment, both from a historical and critical point of view than this. Yet, all that is here given is the bare text with a few explanatory notes, and these by no means excellent either in quantity or quality. At p. 187 we find a note on the suppression of *haben* and *sein*. These auxiliary verbs, it states, are often left out, when they would have to stand at the end of the clause. This is correct, but only indirectly so. They come last in dependent sentences, and in these only they may be omitted. The word *vergeben* is rendered by *to prejudice* in the following, p. 31:—

..... "Ich konnte meinem Rang,
Der Würde meines Volks und meines Sohnes
Und aller Fürsten nicht so viel vergeben."

It would have been as well for the enquiring student, if the editor had translated the whole sentence, so as to show what use he meant to make of the word *prejudice* in his version. *Umrungen*, p. 57, is said to be a poetical, but incorrect, form of the p. part of *umringen*. It, no doubt, is used here as a poetical license for the sake of the metre, but it cannot therefore be called a poetical form. The word *Mitwisser*, in the line—*Ihr habt Mitwisser und Vertraute? Wch mir!* (p. 77)—is rendered by *persons who know about it*. This is saying something about the meaning of the word, but can hardly be called a translation.

We cannot commend the somewhat novel device of printing the few misprints in the text along with the regular notes. Our prejudice runs in favour of seeing them in a separate list of errata.

Students' Manual of German Literature. By E. NICHOLSON. (W. Swan Sonnenschein & Co.)

If we wanted to show how imperfect an instrument language is for the interchange of thoughts, we should find a good illustration in the title of this book. By a Manual of Literature, we understand a more or less complete sketch of the growth of the literature, from its earlier to its present stages, and of the external influences which have helped to shape it, as well as the influence it has exerted on national thought and progress. The writer of this book evidently takes it to mean simply a bald enumeration of the chief works of the literature, with an analysis of the most representative of them, the whole interlarded with some commonplaces of criticism, and without any other apparent connexion between the several parts of it but that of chronological order. With such an essential difference of view at the very outset, any further criticism on our part becomes superfluous and useless.

A Symbolic French and English Vocabulary. By L. C. RAGONOT, Eleventh Edition, revised. (Crosby Lockwood & Co. 1883.)

The book, though in its eleventh edition, is new to us, and we can recommend it as the most complete and systematic attempt to impart a French vocabulary by appealing to the eye as well as to the ear. The pupil who masters the illustrations alone, disregarding the letterpress, will have acquired a vocabulary of over a thousand words, comprising the names of all the commonest objects of daily life. M. Ragonot describes his method as an original invention. He has probably never seen or ever heard of the *Janua Linguarum* and the *Orbis Pictus* of Comenius. There is nothing new under the sun.

Shakspeare's Historical Plays. With revised text, introduction, and notes. By CHARLES WORDSWORTH, Bishop of St. Andrews. 3 Vols. (W. Blackwood & Sons, 1883.)

Dr. Wordsworth has set himself the ambitious task of doing for Shakspeare what, were he living now, he might wish to do for himself,—of presenting the plays in such a form that they may be read through, from beginning to end, with unalloyed pleasure and unabated interest. We may at once say that the Bishop is *felix totius operæ*, as happy as he is bold. His publishers and printers have conspired with him to produce a work that is a delight to the eye and a model

of typographical excellence. The glossarial notes in the margin are an excellent invention, and for lazy readers will convert a painful task into a delightful recreation. The introduction to the plays, the critical notes, and the new readings, all invite discussion; and we promise ourselves, before long, the pleasure of breaking a friendly lance with Dr. Wordsworth on several points of Shaksperian criticism. Meanwhile we commend the book to all schoolmasters, and hope that it may find a place in every school library.

La Bagatelle. New Edition. (Crosby, Lockwood & Co. 1882.) Price 2s. 6d.

This first French Reader on the Hamiltonian system may be recommended for its simplicity and its strong binding.

Marcus Ward's History Readers. No 1. *Tales from English History.* Edited by J. G. HERRON, B.A. Lond. (Marcus Ward.)

The first instalment of this series of Readers is specially prepared for the requirements of Standard III. The tales are put in unvarnished English, which, however, becomes here and there somewhat "inelegant." "Alfred collected with care the ancient laws of the country. From these he took the best, and he put them into a book along with the ten commandments, and he asked his Parliament if it approved of these as the new laws of the kingdom." The italics, which are our own, will sufficiently explain our meaning.

As a curious sequence of thoughts expressed in the same breath, we will transcribe the following, which forms a paragraph by itself:—"Ransoms like these (*that paid by the Abbot of Peterborough to Hereward*) kept Hereward's camp well supplied with money. The marshes were full of fish and wild duck; so food was abundant too. Altogether, these English had rather a merry time of it, and laughed at the Normans who tried to get at them." Nothing could more clearly illustrate than this quotation the fallacy under which some writers of English seem to labour now-a-days, that short sentences, and the frequent use of full stops, are a sufficient guarantee of a clear style.

The pieces of poetry in this Reader are unexceptionable, save the one entitled, "The Emptiness of Wealth," by King Alfred, put into modern English by Martin F. Tupper. The engravings and the maps are good and appropriate to the text.

A Concise English History. By W. M. LUFTON. (Longmans, 1883.)

A useful book of reference, giving the main facts and dates in chronicle form, without any attempt at logical arrangement. A very full index adds greatly to its value. The "explanation of terms used in history" is absurdly meagre. The Saxon period should be revised and checked by Freeman's great work.

Poetry for the Young. (Griffith & Farran, 1883. Price 3s. 6d.)

The immediate object of this collection is to furnish poetry for the standards according to the requirements of the New Code; but it will serve a wider purpose, and is well adapted both for a prize-book and a reading book for the fourth forms of public schools. The editor throughout has shown taste and judgment, and, with very few exceptions, the selected pieces satisfy the double test that he lays down in his preface,—they are good poetry and suitable for the young. The notes are confined to explanations of obvious difficulties, and eschew all criticism and grammatical technicalities. The book is well printed and well got up, though we do not care greatly for the illustrations.

An Elementary Latin Grammar. Part I. First Accidence. By A. H. SCOTT-WHITE. (T. Laurie. Price 9d.)

A cheap and clearly printed little book, taking the pupil through the accidence of the verb, the noun, adjective, and pronoun. The verb is put first, which is doubtless the true logical order; but yet we cannot approve of teaching the hundred and fifty (more or less) inflections of *Amo* before the seven of *Mensa*. The right way is to teach verb and noun *pari passu*. No hint is given as to the rules for the formation of tenses, and to derive the comparative from the genitive of the positive belongs to the days of the Eton Latin Grammar.

Cambridge Scholarships and Examinations. Edited by ROBERT POTTS, M.A. (Longmans, Green & Co. 1883. Price 5s.)

A collection of examination papers, mostly for scholarships, set between the years 1861 and 1882. The selection is far more extensive than any with which we are acquainted, occupying 536 closely printed pages. The introduction, giving an account of the various foundations, prizes, &c., at Cambridge, seems to us superfluous.

The Library of Elocution. Edited by A. H. MILES. (G. Cauldwell.)

The Library consists of three parts,—the *Reciter*, the *Elocutionist*, and the *Reader*. The *Reciter* was noticed by us in November 1882, and we need only say that the two other parts are of equal merit with the first. We can see no special appositeness in the three names, except that the *Reader* consists of prose passages, and is specially adapted for Penny Readings.

SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES.

SCOTLAND.

The first ordinary meeting of the Edinburgh Mathematical Society took place on March 12th, when Professor Chrystal delivered an address on the present fields of mathematical research. He referred to the present growth of mathematical studies in England and America, and stated that the object of this society was to promote a similar increase in Scotland. He had thought of starting something of the nature of a mathematical seminary in Edinburgh, but it was now his opinion that this society would serve better to raise the maximum of attainment in the subject.

In connection with the Edinburgh branch of the Educational Institute, Mr. Munn, Mathematical Master, Royal High School, gave, in continuation of a former paper, a lecture on the Geometry of Euclid. He addressed an audience of teachers, and showed how in various ways Euclid's methods might be varied.

The Edinburgh School Board is about to lose another valuable member. The Rev. James Barclay, of the West Church, has accepted a call to Montreal. Bishop Sandford's place on the Board has been filled by Dr. Cazenove, Chancellor of St. Mary's Cathedral. Mr. J. Macdonald Mackay has been appointed English Master of the High School, in room of the late Dr. Ross. It is satisfactory that the Board have secured the services of a man of eminent attainments in the study of English language and literature, instead of leaving the subject in the hands of the classical masters, as was at first proposed.

Two former pupils of the Edinburgh Ladies' College, Miss Grace J. Masson and Miss Agnes Eva Brand, have passed highest in the matriculation examination of the London University, and have gained places in the first part of the honours list.

Mr. Herbert Spencer has requested that his name should be withdrawn from the nomination to Lord Rectorship of St. Andrews University. He thanks those of the students who nominated him, but excuses himself on the score of ill-health. Mr. Matthew Arnold has also been asked to stand for the Lord Rectorship, but has intimated to Professor Knight his intention of refusing all such posts while he holds a public appointment.

A public meeting was held in St. Andrews, on the 18th of April, to protest against the proposal contained in the Universities Bill, to consider the desirability of abolishing the University of that town. It was suggested that a movement should be set on foot for increasing its endowments, the originator of the suggestion himself offering to contribute £1000 for that purpose. The *Senatus Academicus* have sent a memorial to the Lord Advocate, protesting against the possible dissolution of the University, not alone on the ground of its historical and traditional importance, but on that of its present efficiency and national usefulness.

At the half-yearly meeting of the General Council of the Edinburgh University, on April 17th, the Universities (Scotland) Bill was under consideration. It adopted a report thereon, presented by a committee, also a proposal that St. Andrews University should be continued. Regarding the theological chairs, a motion by Professor Flint was adopted, which declared that the chairs should be freed from all restrictions confining them to a single denomination. The Government proposals were regarded as unsatisfactory, and it was thought that the Commissioners should have full power to consult the representatives of the different denominations in regard to the chairs, in order to meet more adequately the theological requirements of the day. The opposition to the University Bill is mainly confined to interested professors and their friends. The scandals with which the Commissioners will have to deal are gross and palpable. Some professors are overpaid, others starved. Some classes number 300, others may be reckoned by units, and this not by reason of the various quality of the teaching, but because there is no *Lehrfreiheit*. The single session of six months, and the absence of any matriculation examination, are two other points which call for urgent reform.

A memorial has been sent to the Lord Advocate from the Edinburgh Association for the University Education of Women, complaining that the Universities (Scotland) Bill does not make express provision for the action of the Universities in conferring full University privileges on women. They say that, if it is not attended to now, the bill will probably stercotype the administration of affairs for the next generation or two in the Universities of Scotland, and that grievous injustice will be done, if these are not put on the same footing in this matter as those of England.

The Edinburgh Town Council has resolved to vote the sum of 1,000 guineas towards the completion of the new medical school of the University. A public subscription for the same purpose is actively going on.

The Dundee High School has succeeded to a legacy of £20,000 bequeathed to it by the late Baillie Harris, who on a former occasion presented a similar sum to it. He has left £50,000 for various other educational institutions in the town. Dundee has received from him over £100,000, altogether, for educational purposes. This, with the munificent donations of the Baxter family to the University College, now in process of erection, betokens a time of unexampled financial prosperity to the educational interests of Dundee.

Mr. G. Ross Merry, one of the masters of the Edinburgh Academy, has been elected to the Rectorship of the Dundee High School.

At a public meeting held in Dunfermline, at which the Earl of Elgin presided, it was agreed to provide a new High School for the Western district of Fifeshire. It was announced that subscriptions had been received to the amount of £5,000.

IRELAND.

The examinations for Scholarships at the University of Dublin commence on April 30th. The number of vacancies, which was very small last year, amounts to a fair average. There is no change in the Court of Examiners. Fellowship examination begins on the 1st inst., and several new candidates of much promise are in the field.

The Senate of the Royal University met on April 3rd. Various matters undertaken by the Standing Committee came before it for approval, including the sending of a deputation to London to represent the University on the Medical Act Amendment Bill now before Parliament. The report of the Special Committee appointed to consider the Memorial of the Women Students of the University, claiming to have the same instruction afforded to them as is open to other matriculation students, led to the expression of some strong opinions on the part of certain members of the Senate. But no decision has yet been published, and it would appear that upon this important matter the Senate generally is at a loss what course to pursue.

The Convocation of this University assembled on the 5th ult., when the reconstitution of the Annual Committee of Convocation was agreed to, as were several other resolutions affecting the Rules. Mr. M. T. Farelly, M.A., was elected a member of the Senate in lieu of Dr. Hayden, deceased.

The Annual General Meeting of the Association of Irish Schoolmistresses was held at Alexandra College, Dublin, on the 2nd ult. The presentation of the annual report led to some discussion, and several members having expressed a desire to share more fully in the work of the Association, the following curious resolution was carried, viz., "That a *résumé* of the work of the Committee be furnished every three months to the members of the Association, to be discussed at the Quarterly General Meetings." A paper upon the "Kindergarten" was then read, and several members recounted the experience they had had of the system in their own schools. The Committee elected for 1883-4 consists of six professional and six non-professional members. The Honorary Secretaries are Miss Little, 16 Earlsfort Terrace, and Miss Oldham, 17 Waterloo Road.

The Rules and Programme of the Intermediate Education Board which are to come into effect on January 1st, 1884, were issued on the last day of March. Although some serious alterations were announced in the Programme for 1883, published in June last year, the Board has sanctioned no new Rules since those for 1882, issued in November, 1881. Those Rules indicated a facility in innovation sufficient to excite apprehension; so that, for several reasons, these now issued will receive close attention. Their very early publication will be welcomed by the schools; it is to be ascribed, no doubt, to the earnest solicitation of the Schoolmasters' Associations. The changes are moderate. Some of them, such as the reintroduction of Plane Trigonometry for Girls, are retractions of previous innovations, now made under pressure of opinion. It is to be regretted that there is not more indication that the Board had renounced that arbitrary prohibition of particular subjects, and bribing of others, which has tainted its administration of late years. The conditions of passing have been made more stringent: all must now pass in *two* of the chief subjects. The standard here is still 25 per cent.; but for honours the standard of marks has been raised to 50 per cent. So, too, the conditions under which Exhibitions are to be retained have been made more stringent. It is required that, along with the claim for

result fees, there must be sent in the exact number of attendances made by the pupil at the school during the year. The examinations of over-age candidates are still to be continued, but it is not stated that these candidates shall be classed in a separate list as heretofore. The award of medals has been entirely rearranged, and, as we believe, has been greatly improved. Thus, we find now precisely the same medals for both boys and girls; no medal for second place in each grade; and Greek and Latin are grouped together as "Classics," instead of receiving separate medals.

The Programme for the examinations contains but two changes that call for notice: the standard in Algebra has relapsed generally to a former low level, and the Music of the Junior and Middle Grades has been lightened by the elimination of Counterpoint. Both these changes are to be regretted. However, this Programme is more remarkable for what it has left undone. By a printed slip issued from the Intermediate Office in December last year, and which appears to have been allowed a very special circulation only, a proposal was notified to greatly lower the marks in all grades for Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, Drawing, and Music (Boys), while Mechanics was to have been omitted altogether. What timely counsel has saved the country from such ill-conceived suggestions does not appear. But confidence would be better assured if the Board's responsibilities in undertaking these proposals were more usually recognised. Such changes would involve an assumption by the Board of functions of a very momentous sort, and it is no small evil that possibilities of this kind should still be continually in danger of being realised.

SCHOOLS.

BLACKHEATH PROPRIETARY SCHOOL.—The *Acharnians* of Aristophanes will be acted in the original Greek, with appropriate dresses and scenery, on the 18th and 19th inst.

BOLTON GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—The Rev. J. E. Hewison, of St. John's College, Cambridge, has been appointed to the Head-mastership.

CHARTERHOUSE.—Scholarships, &c., gained outside the School since February:—D. McNeill, Classical Scholarship, Exeter, Oxford (omitted in last report); C. A. H. Green, Classical Scholarship, Keble, Oxford; C. W. Waddington, Classical Scholarship, Oriol, Oxford; G. H. Joyce, Classical Scholarship, Oriol, Oxford; L. V. Brockman, Mathematical Scholarship, St. Peter's, Cambridge; L. P. Ebdon, Exhibition at Corpus, Cambridge. N.B.—Ten members of the Upper Six now hold University Scholarships, and one member of the Under Six. The school was not represented this year in the Public School Racquet contest. The new hall, destined to be added to the present library, has been commenced. The new swimming-bath is completed, but, owing to some slight defect in the pointing, it will not be brought into use till next term. The entertainments this quarter have been as follow:—Concert (chiefly professional), given by Mr. Becker; Concert, given by Mr. Walter Marshall; Private Theatricals (Mr. Allen's); Reading, by Mr. Brandram (*The Rivals*); Dr. Lynn, Corney Grain, Mr. Allen's entertainment, and the remainder school concerts. The annual oratorio was given in the library on February 7th (Beethoven's Mass in C), and was in all parts equal to those which have preceded it. The following papers have been read before the Science and Art Club:—Mr. J. W. Marshall, "The Pendulum"; Mr. G. G. Robinson, "Principles of Sculpture"; Mr. G. F. Rodwell (Marlborough), "Volcanic Phenomena"; Mr. H. Head (Scholar, Trinity College, Cambridge), "The Fertilisation of Plants." Casts of portions of the Pantheon Frieze, &c., have been placed in the entertainment-room with good effect.

DULWICH COLLEGE.—The beneficial results of the new scheme are already distinctly perceptible. All local and parochial preferences have now been abolished, and the great educational advantages of the school are no longer fettered by restrictions of any kind. The tuition fee, absolutely inclusive, is fixed at £21 a year. No less a sum than £2000 a year is to be devoted to the maintenance of leaving Exhibitions and School Scholarships; and notice has been given, that the governing body will award at the Midsummer examination four Exhibitions, of the respective values of £70, £60, and two of £50 each; one of the latter will be given for Natural Science, if a duly qualified candidate presents himself. Ten open Scholarships, of the annual value of £20, tenable for three years in the school, will be awarded after an examination to be held in the month of June; particulars may be obtained on application to the School Secretary. The newly elected Master, Mr. J. E. C. Welldon, Fellow and late Tutor of King's College, Cambridge, entered upon his duties at the beginning of the present

term. Mr. J. R. Cohn, B.A., Fellow of Jesus College, Oxford, has resigned his Mastership, and Mr. N. L. Hallward, of King's College, Cambridge, who has been taking temporary work at Dulwich, has also left. The Composition Mastership has been filled by the appointment of Mr. Clement Bryans, late Scholar of King's College, Cambridge. Mr. Bryans was Bell University Scholar in 1875, and was also honourably mentioned for the Chancellor's Medals; more recently he has held a Mastership in Fettes College. Mr. H. R. Lacey, B.A., of Balliol College, Oxford, has also joined the staff.

GATESHEAD HIGH SCHOOL.—Our announcement last month that this school had already opened was premature. It will be opened on the 10th of this month, and Lord Dalhousie, the Bishop of Newcastle, and the Dean of Durham are announced to take part in the ceremony. The fees for tuition range from 12 to 21 guineas per annum, and the school is divided into a Classical side, a Modern side, and a Junior Department.

HAILEYBURY COLLEGE.—Senior Scholars—W. R. C. King, O. C. Johnson, L. W. Hallward, J. L. Pulling. Junior Scholars—E. F. M. Bencko, F. L. Fosbery, H. S. Lawrence, J. H. Harcastle (Modern Side). Sixth Form Prizes—Barry, *Scott ma.*, Batten, Pollock *ma.* (Modern Side). Latin, Set I.—Young *ma.* Scholarships, &c., outside the school—J. A. Kempthorne, Abbot University Scholarship, Cambridge. C. E. S. Headlam, Classical Scholarship, Trinity Hall, Cambridge. F. W. Hardy, Mathematical Rnatat Scholarship and Exhibition, Jesus College, Cambridge. R. T. Blomfield, First Prize for Architectural Drawing, Royal Academy.

We have sorrowfully to record the death of the Rev. F. B. Butler, after but a few days' illness. During the fifteen years he had been on the staff, he had done valuable work as Classical Master and Tutor, English Literature Instructor, and House Master. His name is intimately connected with the Antiquarian Society, which owes to him its foundation and chief support. A man of great mental powers, of extensive learning, and of thorough devotion to his profession, he died as he desired to die, "in harness."—The athletic games took place on April 2nd and 3rd, and were favoured with splendid weather and a numerous attendance of visitors. The extension of the Pavilion Cricket-field is making rapid progress, and the new ground promises to be a very useful addition to our playing-fields. The singing competition was held on April 7th. Colvin House won the Quartett Singing Prize; G. R. Wood, that for the Basses and Tenors; W. S. Milford, that for the Trebles. We had the good fortune to procure Mr. Farmer, of Harrow, as judge, who, after publishing his decisions as to the prizes, gave us a short instructive and entertaining speech on music in general, especially as to choice of good music—Haileybury music in particular,—and his own experiences of twenty years ago, when he first attempted, amid much discouragement, to secure for music a footing in Harrow. The College broke up for the Easter three weeks' holiday on April 12th, and meets again on May 4th.

IPSWICH.—Mr. C. H. Garland, Scholar of St. John's College, Cambridge, and Mr. C. C. S. Bland, late Scholar of St. Catherine's College, Cambridge, have been appointed to Assistant Masterships.

KING'S COLLEGE SCHOOL.—On Tuesday, 6th March, the Bishop of Bedford addressed the boys of King's College School, assembled for the purpose in the College Chapel, on the spiritual destitution in the East of London; a terminal subscription has in consequence been organised, and it is contemplated that an additional clergyman will by this means be maintained in a destitute part of the parish of Tottenham. On the following Tuesday, 18th March, the Bishop of London confirmed three students of the College, and eighty-three school boys in the same chapel. On Palm Sunday a special service was provided, at which the newly confirmed boys, their parents, and some few of those previously confirmed in the same chapel, united in the Holy Eucharist.

MERCHANT TAYLORS' SCHOOL.—W. A. Buck has been elected to an open Classical Scholarship at St. Peter's College, Cambridge. F. G. Taylor has gained the First Open Mathematical Scholarship at Queen's College, Cambridge. W. H. Richmond, O.M.T., Scholar of King's College, Cambridge, has obtained the Barnes University Scholarship. G. T. Spnrrell, O.M.T., Scholar of Balliol College, Oxford, has obtained the Senior Septuagint Prize at Oxford.

NEWCASTLE HIGH SCHOOL.—The following Scholarships have been awarded: Open Scholarship, T. Young; Middle School Scholarship, W. M. Scrivener; Head-master's Boarding Scholarships, (1) H. E. Wood, of Burslem School, (2) J. H. Woodall, of University College School; Day-Boarding Scholarship, T. Moorcroft, of Burslem School. An un-

expected vacancy has occurred by the appointment of Mr. F. C. Woodforde, who has been a master here since the opening of the school, to the Head-mastership of Market Drayton Grammar Schools.

NORTH LONDON COLLEGIATE SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.—The 33rd anniversary of the foundation of this school was celebrated in the usual way on the 5th of April, when the school reopened after the Easter holidays. The true birthday is the 4th, but this date falling within the Easter vacation, the celebration was delayed till the following day. The large central hall was profusely decorated with daffodils, primroses, and other flowers, besides the arms of the City Companies which have endowed the school. At twelve o'clock the girls assembled in the hall to sing the school songs, after which an interesting lecture on India was given by Major-General Waddington. The characteristic feature of the occasion was, however, the annual exhibition of toys *made* by the pupils to be sent to hospitals and workhouse schools. These toys were laid out in the gymnasium,—a large and goodly collection of toy animals, dolls, dolls' houses, shops, &c., 700 at least in number. Each class was admitted to see them in the course of the morning, while friends and parents came in the afternoon.

ROSSALL.—The Examination begins on 26th June at Oxford or Rossall, as candidates prefer. Eleven Scholarships will be given, value from 70 guineas to £20. Seniors must have been under 15 on March 25th, Juniors under 14. Prizes, &c., gained in the school:—Greek Iambics, A. H. Davis; Latin Hexameters, A. M. Knight; History, 1st Div., H. S. Jones; 2nd Div., Cheetham and Bamford, equal; 3rd Div., Neville. Mr. E. Senior, late Scholar of St. Catherine's, Cambridge, has been appointed to the vacant Mathematical Mastership. The School broke up on April 13th, to meet on 4th May.

TONBRIDGE SCHOOL.—The school met again on Thursday, April 5th. There are 14 new boys, and 6 left at the end of last term. The numbers are now over 200. Four lectures were given to the school last term,—two on Astronomy (the Sun and Comets), by Professor R. S. Ball, Astronomer-Royal for Ireland, and two on Natural History (Ponds and Streams), by the Rev. J. G. Wood. They were all illustrated by good magic-lantern views, and seemed to be much appreciated by the whole school. A valuable collection of geological specimens has been presented to the school by T. B. Waters, who left us in 1879.

WESTMINSTER SCHOOL.—*Elected into College*—J. E. Phillimore, C. A. W. Shackleton, H. B. Street, B. P. Hurst, W. Buchanan, G. O. Roos, B. M. Goldie. *Præ-electi*—C. L. S. Avcling, R. Sandilands, H. E. Lewin, A. Ellershaw. *Exhibitioners*—J. H. Cumming, C. L. W. Barwell, H. M. Barnes, C. F. G. Powell, W. S. Cox, R. L. Aston. Prizes, &c., gained in the School:—*Latin Prose*—(1) H. W. Waterfield, Q.S.; *access.*—O. Scoones, Q.S., W. G. Hewitt, F. T. Higgins. *Greek Iambics*—(No First Prize); (2) O. Scoones, Q.S.; *access.*—H. W. Waterfield, Q.S., and A. M. T. Jackson. Mr. W. E. Bovill leaves the school at the end of this term. Himself an Old Westminster, he has also been a member of the staff for the last 15 years, and both as Master and as Bursar his loss will be much felt. In the latter capacity, his practical knowledge of building and mechanics has often proved of high value to the school; while in the former, the varied range of subjects he was able to teach renders it no easy task to adequately fill his place. We regret to add that we fear another loss of even more moment is also impending.

WINCHESTER COLLEGE.—The school reassembled on Wednesday, April 11th. During the past term at Oxford, both the Hertford and the Senior Mathematical Prizes have been gained by Wykehamists; the former by Cruickshank, the latter by Sharpe. An Oriel Scholarship has also fallen to Ricketts, and one at Brasenose to Macpherson; while, at Cambridge, a Scholarship at Pembroke has been gained by Tomlin. Mr. Fort, an old Wykehamist, joins us as a Master. The athletic sports were concluded before the end of last term, Norris winning the greater number of events. The new school buildings are making rapid progress, and will, it is hoped, be ready for use after the summer holidays. The Wykehamist Meeting is fixed for May 9th at the Criterion. Mr. Linkleton has made a very effective start with the school mission at Portsmouth.

YORK.—**ST. PETER'S SCHOOL.**—The Rev. T. Adams was presented with testimonials by his past and present pupils, and by the Masters on his leaving to take the Head-mastership of the Gateshead High School. It was stated that in the last few years no less than six of Mr. Adams's pupils had won Mathematical Scholarships at Oxford and Cambridge.

TRANSLATION PRIZE.

*For each month, till further notice, there will be set a passage, generally from a French or German Poet, to be translated into English verse. A PRIZE OF TWO GUINEAS will be offered each month for the best version. Initials or a nom de plume must be adopted by competitors, but the successful competitor is required to send his real name and address to the Prize Editor for publication. Versions must be forwarded to the "Prize Editor" of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, care of Messrs. John Walker & Co., 96 Farringdon Street, E.C., not later than the 15th of the month. Any translation which is sent with an addressed envelope and six postage stamps, will be returned with corrections. A First Class is entitled to a copy of "Prizes and Proximes," which will be forwarded on application. Those who have already received "Prizes and Proximes" may apply for a copy of "Maria Wuz."**

"D." the winner of last month's prize, is D. MacAlister, Esq., St. John's College, Cambridge.

The prize for the best translation of Vauvenargues' Maxims is awarded to "S. Y. Y."

1. L'esprit de l'homme est plus pénétrant que conséquent et embrasse plus qu'il ne peut lier.
2. La clarté orne les pensées profondes.
3. Avant d'attaquer un abus, il faut voir si on peut ruiner ses fondements.
4. Les geus d'esprit seroient presque seuls, sans les sots qui s'en piquent.
5. La tranquillité d'esprit passeroit-elle pour une meilleure preuve de la vertu? La santé la donne.
6. Ce qui est arrogance dans les foibles est élévation dans les forts, comme la force des malades est frénésie et celle des sains est vigueur.
7. La familiarité est l'apprentissage des esprits.
8. Les esprits faux changent souvent de maximes.
9. La ressource de ceux qui n'imaginent pas est de conter.
10. La stérilité de sentiment nourrit la paresse.
11. Il est des injures qu'il faut dissimuler pour ne pas compromettre son honneur.
12. Ceux qui se moquent des penchants sérieux aiment sérieusement les bagatelles.
13. Nous aimons quelquefois jusqu'aux louanges que nous ne croyons pas sincères.
14. L'esprit développe les simplicités du sentiment s'en attribuer l'honneur.
15. La clarté est la bonne foi des philosophes. La netteté est le vernis des maîtres.

By "S. Y. Y."

VAUVENARGUES' MAXIMS.

1. The mind of man is more given to intuition than to syllogism; and comprehends more than it can coordinate.
2. Clear expression enhances deep thought.
3. When attacking an abuse, try to sap its foundations before you assault it openly.
4. But for the fools who are wise in their own conceit, wise men would stand almost alone in their wisdom.
5. Peace of mind springs from soundness of body? How then should it be a notable mark of virtue?
6. That which in strong minds is loftiness, in weak minds is arrogance, even as the strength of sick men is delirium, and of healthy men vigour.

* "Maria Wuz and Lorenz Stark; or, English Prints of two German Originals," reprinted from the *Journal of Education*. Crown 8vo, price 4s. 6d. (Longmans.)

7. Familiarity profiteth in the operations of the mind, as apprenticeship doth in a handicraft.
8. The insincere heart knows naught of fixed principles.
9. Men void of imagination take refuge in anecdote.
10. He that is sluggish to feel is sluggish to act.
11. There are times when to overlook an insult least imperils a man's honour.
12. Some that ridicule serious tastes are seriously enamoured of trifles.
13. Praise may have a hollow ring but a sweet sound.
14. Wit embellishes a simple sentiment, and cries "Lo! it is all mine own!"
15. A philosopher is not trustworthy without clearness, nor a master polished without epigram.

By "G. E. D."

1. Man's mind strikes deep but random root,
And flowers too freely for the fruit.
2. Though deep the thought be as the sea,
Yet clear as crystal should it be.
3. Don't storm abuses, till you find
They really can't be undermined.
4. Great wits perhaps might reign alone,
Were there no fools to share their throne.
5. Proves calm of mind true grandeur?—Nay,
Health gives such tokens every day.
6. What with the great to greatness grows,
In weaker minds presumption shows:
Though fever strength to sick beds brings,
From health alone true vigour springs.
7. What best each knows, will best serve each:
The soul must learn ere it can teach.
8. Where in the Decalogue stands a *Not*,
Your rogue can always find a blot.
9. If you imagination lack,
On someone else's tales fall back.
10. Where no good impulse keeps alive,
Ill weeds, like sloth, will somehow thrive.
11. If at you snarls some mangy cur,
For your own sake don't kick him, Sir!
- *12. King Charles did wisely, as we know,
To hide those footprints in the snow.
13. Mere trifles seriously he takes,
Who serious things his mockery makes.

We class the 276 versions received in the following order:—

First Class.—Arbutus, Yesi, G. E. D., Fiji, Henry X., C., Antigonus, Enid, Lucile, C. T. J., Con Amore, Loyale, B. L. T., Brown eyes, Westfield, Hedera.

Second Class.—Kythe Clinton, Pishasbee, Gabrielle, Prospero, Neo, Hall, Staffa, O. G. E. G., Goneril, Philippe, Barbarian, E. S. M., Gommenx, Estella, Altes Haus, J. E. A., Langford, Peter, M. B. M. S., Tiptoe, W. D. P., Agnes v. Linde, Maceabæus, Odd fish, L. A. M., Hector, J. N. F., Probability, H. H. R., Roy, Suard, P. P., Blarney, D. L. D., Nondam, Harold Skimpole, Veritas, Ora, Holly, Wagner Famulus, Krans, Perky, Mad, M. M., Gunner, D. P., J. H. E., Malva, The Coracle, Powder Monkey, Excelsior, Crawtae, Eng, and Parisian, Eurydice, Geneviève, Thomasina, Argemone, J. M. L., Eve, I try, Coe, Elic de Beaumont, Denise, Tablecloth, Daisy, Ridieulus mus, Peacock, Kilda R. E., Antiquary, Trilobite, Stoker, Malfilâtre, I. Benecele.

Third Class.—Cordelia, Mrs. P. Smith, Lady Blanche, Ignoramus, Amitié, Charlotte, C. R. L., Schneider, Astræa, M. E. G., Brema, Fog signal, M. F. W., Second childhood, Ganaeche, M. L. B., Spalding, A. S. L., C. R., Hamadryad, Corinne, G. T., Marier Hann, March, Phonographer, Gendis, Niobe, Bruma, M. F. L. E., Jeanne, Rummur-

ragh, Gradgrind, Grypo, Judy, Henri, Leo, Walter Fürst, Eden, Eneore, Kittyeat, A. L., Esmond, Kalamazoo, E. S. L., Subseaecha, Agile, Jim, J. junior, Cerise, Qui sait, May Mary, Persevorando, Grisigona, Trois étoiles, Smoke, J. S., Tricolore, Gustave S., E. A. M., Sally, Asp, Sarnia, Romeo, Bubs vanitatum, Tecum, Zoë, Canada, W. L. P., Noon, Eryngo, Pinkeiros, Winters Thorpe, A. H. S.

Fourth Class.—Nil desperandum, Borderer, Welland, Daphne, E. M., Désormais, Euterpe, Iris, K. N. E., Tadpole, Flo, Beaumont and Fleteher, E. E. S., Calyee, M. W. C., Capitulinus, Diachylon, Wandle, Bath Bun, E. A. O'D., Gander, Margarita, Arthénice, Cerberus, Beta, Thisbe, Elpis, Borealis, J. W., A. L. S., Knoekgowna, C. E. L., Outis, Joan, Phœnix, E. M. Ch., Kent, Addiscombe, Lethe, Clarissa, Paraphrase, Asor, Hypatia, Vera, Mabel, John, Robin, Pedant, Down, Oscar Dubourg, Toseo, Anna, Argemone, Minim, Britomart, Cumberland lass, Henrietta, M. S. M.

Fifth Class.—Zilloby, Kettledrum, F. E. Tattersall, A poor girl, Oleander, Caddy Jellaby, H. O. M. E., Pollux, Gänseblume, Mevoli, Triagain, Sanese, Eizzil, Geranium, Violet A., Sanitas, V. V. Upsilon, Sic itur, I. O. U., Hallam, Past, F. S., Copy, Nob, U. A. Wer, Puereulus, E. G. M., E. G. P., Marguerite, Claudia.

Sixth Class.—Elaine, Hugh Lupus, Redpath, G. H. R., Nil admirari, Handel, Theta, Fan of Fans, Bacon, O. O., Laus, Thule, Ming, S. A., R. I. P., Quis, Clie, Hu, Dolomite, A. A. A., Salve, T. V., Sambo, Owl, H. I. Z., Gar, W. W., Silvia, Haro, No, Stilicho, T. E. I.

It is a parlous undertaking to decide a prize, and those correspondents who picked holes in the last prize copy will have more ground for questioning the present award. If faultlessness carried the day, "Yesi" and "Arbutus," and possibly one or two more in the first class, would have had prior claims; but I think it just that a brilliant rendering should atone for a slight error [(13) and (14), in the prize version, cancel the flaws in (8) and (15)], and more license is lawful with a short extract than a complete version of a book or author. Thus, I consider some of Mr. Myers's renderings of the *Æneid*, in his *Fortnightly* article on Vergil, the high-water mark of translation; but the reader feels not only that it would be impossible for the translator to maintain that high standard, but that a poem of such exquisite delicacy and finish would pall upon him. "G. E. D.'s" clever paraphrase is well worth printing, and if the conditions had admitted an adaptation, it would have well deserved the prize.

To pass to particulars, I prefer as a rendering of (2), "Deep thinkers are clear as crystal." This changes the metaphor, but "the ornament of a deep mind" is somewhat stiff. In (4) *qui s'en piquent* was a common stumbling-block. In (5) *une meilleure preuve* was an unintentional and unfair catch. It refers to the previous maxim, "Contentment is not a mark of merit." Those who gave "superior" were, perhaps unconsciously, right. In (6) I ventured on an emendation which is not confirmed by any edition of Vauvenargues that I have seen—*sains* for *saints*. I still think my reading must be right. Of (7) the interpretation has been a matter of dispute even among Frenchmen. With great diffidence I render, "Minds are trained by close intercourse with men and things," or, more epigrammatically, "Conversation is the school of wit" (using "conversation" in the Elizabethan sense). In (8) *Les esprits faux* is not, as "S. Y. Y.," "the insincere heart," but "illogical minds," "bad reasoners." In (9) "anecdote" is, perhaps, the nearest equivalent of *conter*, but the word suggests long-winded prosing. In (11) some of the best rendered *injures* "injuries," a meaning it never bears. In (12) *penchants* is not "attachments," but "pursuits." (14) is one of the hardest. It is a hit at the pastoral school of poetry, the *Paul et Virginie* type of fiction. I cannot improve on "S. Y. Y." For the last I would suggest, "Clearness is the touchstone of the true philosopher, style is the last touch of the artist." *Netteté* is a hopeless crux. We have neither the word nor the quality in England. Of past authors I should say that Pope has it most; of living ones, Matthew Arnold.

Since writing the above, I have come across the admirable edition of "Vauvenargues," by D. L. Gilbert. He confirms the reading *sains*, and settles one of two other difficulties. On (7) he quotes from Vauvenargues' *Characters*,—"Ce n'est que par la familiarité qu'on guérit de la présomption, de la timidité, de la sottise hauteur. Ce n'est que dans un commerce libre et ingénu qu'on se tâte, qu'on se démêle, et qu'on se mesure avec eux." In (14) he reads, "L'esprit enveloppe, &c.,"—an obvious improvement. The following parallel throws light on the meaning of "maître" in (15):—"La Bruyère était un grand peintre et n'était pas pentêtre un grand philosophe."

A Prize of Two Guineas will be given for the best translation of the following hymn of Paul Gerhard.

Geh ans, mein Herz, und suche Freud
In dieser lieben Sommerzeit
An deines Gottes Gaben:
Sieh an der schönen Fluren Zier,
Wie lieblich sie sich dir und mir
Nun ausgeschmückt haben.

Die Bäume stehen voller Laub,
Das Erdreich decket seinen Staub
Mit einem grünen Kleide:
Narzissen und die Tulipan,
Die ziehen sich viel schöner an
Als Salomonis Seide.

Die Lerche schwingt sich in die Luft,
Das Täublein fliegt aus seiner Gruft
Und macht sich in die Wälder:
Die hochbegabte Nachtigall
Ergötzt und füllt mit ihrem Schall
Schon Hügel, Thal und Felder.

Die Glucke führt ihr Vöcklein aus,
Der Storch baut und bewahrt sein Haus,
Das Schwäblein speist die Jungen:
Der schnelle Hirsch, das leichte Reh
Ist froh, und kommt aus seiner Höh
Ins tiefe Gras gesprungen.

Die Bächlein rauschen in den Sand
Und zieren lieblich ihren Rand
Mit Bäumen, reich an Schatten:
Der Schaf und Hirten Lustgeschrei
Erschallet fröhlich hart dabei
Von grüner Wiesen Matten.

Die unverdrossne Bienenschaar
Fleucht hin und her, sucht hier und dar
Ihr edle Honigspeise:
Des süssen Weinstocks starker Saft
Bringt täglich neue Stärk und Kraft
In seinem schwachen Reise.

Ich selbst, ich kann und mag nicht ruhn,
Des grossen Gottes grosses Thun
Erweckt mir alle Sinnen:
Ich singe mit, wenn Alles singt,
Und lasse, was dem Höchsten klingt,
Aus meinem Herzen rinne.

LATIN PRONUNCIATION.—In a very interesting MS., preserved in the library of the *Gymnasium*, at Glogau (in Silesia, on the Oder), containing an account of a journey to England during the reign of James I., made by a learned German, and various observations on men and manners in that country, we find this curious remark (in quaint old German):—"In no country is the Latin tongue more cruelly mangled by bad pronunciation than in England; for there they pronounce *i* as *ei* (= *ay*), and the *a* as *ä* (= *eh*). The king, however, intends, in time, to introduce a better method in this matter. Whereas he is very learned, and much loves the Latin tongue, he is averse to the English pronunciation, and when he holds discourse with any man who speaks it ill in this way [for he goes to Oxford (*Ochsenfurt*) twice every year, and himself disputes (*opponiret*)], he is wont to treat him to very rough words. Therefore, and because every man desires that the king should be gracious to him, all the more distinguished [scholars] take great pains to speak Latin as purely as may be."

Could our German Gelehrte revisit England, he would find that, in spite of royal protests and learned conferences, we still pursue *den alten Schlenndrian*. Some ten years ago, the Head-masters put their heads together, and, after taking counsel with the Latin professors of Oxford and Cambridge, drew up a scheme of correct Latin pronunciation, which is incorporated in the Public Schools Latin Grammar. Unfortunately, few or none of them use their own scheme, and Dr. Abbott (the Abddid of Head-masters) hesitates whether to recommend mothers to teach their boys what they will have to unlearn when they go to school. Girls in this, as in many other respects, are better off than boys. What again would our German say to Mr. Tennyson's last "copy" in the *Nineteenth Century*, where *Frater ave atque vale* must be scanned as four trochees?

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

EXAMINATION IN THE ART, THEORY, AND HISTORY OF TEACHING: 1883.

Tuesday, March 6.—Morning, 10 to 1.

MENTAL AND MORAL SCIENCE.

Examiners.—JAMES SULLY, Esq., M.A.; JAMES WARD, Esq., M.A.

1. Explain what you understand by Mental Development, and indicate briefly, but precisely, the course of it in an average case. Distinguish between the psychological and the logical sequence of studies: which is the teacher to follow when the two differ?

2. Give a psychological account of the state of mind called Interest, comparing the direct interest M. N. takes in bird-nesting with the reflected interest he takes in the paradigm of *τύπτω* from the rewards or punishments depending on it. Discuss the possibility of securing the former kind of interest in school work.

3. What do you understand by Training the Senses? State, concisely, the advantages secured by it. Are any of these obtainable in other ways?

4. What is Memory? State the conditions of remembering, and discuss the question, how far the acquisition of a retentive and ready memory for one department of knowledge involves an improvement of "memory in general."

5. It is said that Moral Training implies sympathy between parent (or teacher) and child. Inquire into the meaning of this statement, and compare the general moral effect of a severe discipline, *i.e.*, one relying mainly on fear of punishment, with one which appeals to personal affection and sympathy.

6. What is meant by exercising a child's free-will? Illustrate how this can be done consistently with the maintenance of a due measure of authority.

7. What is meant by a Habit? What general psychological principles does it illustrate? Show how a habit, such as punctuality, is formed. How is the process complicated when an old habit has to be broken through?

8. Give the general principles which, in your opinion, should govern the infliction of Punishment. Illustrate the effects of remoteness and uncertainty of punishment.

Wednesday, March 7.—Morning, 10 to 1.

METHODS OF TEACHING AND SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

Examiners.—REV. T. W. SHARPE, M.A.; FRANCIS STORR, Esq., M.A.

1. In what cases are exercises of memory, which involve no other mental power, justifiable? Illustrate your answer by the following cases: (1) The multiplication table; (2) the names of the English counties; (3) the dates of the Roman Emperors; (4) the Latitude and Longitude of the capitals of Europe.

2. What are the principal points you would look to in choosing a class-book? Take as your examples any two of the following: (1) Physical Geography for beginners; (2) French Composition for boys who are well grounded in the Accidence; (3) a play of Shakespear for a higher form; (4) Political Economy for a higher form beginning the subject.

3. Discuss in the case of Language and Literature teaching the position of the realists who hold that things, not words, are to be taught.

4. Give illustrations of the value of teaching classical languages in acquiring a knowledge of Physical Science and of our mother tongue.

5. Show that text-books require to be supplemented by oral teaching in the case of involved geometrical propositions and of grammatical rules.

6. Detail some of the methods usually employed for increasing the vocabulary of younger scholars who are beginning to learn a foreign language.

7. Illustrate from some well-known poem the use of preparatory lessons on the life and surroundings of its author.

8. Point out the chief difficulties (1) of grammatical construction, (2) of verbal meaning, (3) of style, in the following passage:—"Certainly, the politic and artificial nourishing and entertaining of hopes, and carrying men from hopes to hopes, is one of the best antidotes against the poison of discontentments; and it is a certain sign of a wise government and proceeding, when it can hold men's hearts by hopes, when it cannot by satisfaction; and when it can handle things in such manner as no evil shall appear so peremptory but that it hath some outlet of hope; which is the less hard to do,

because both particular persons and factions are apt enough to flatter themselves, or, at least, to brave that which they believe not."

9. Compare the two methods commonly employed in teaching Geometry, (1) from the elements of Euclid; (2) from a methodised modern syllabus.

10. Write full notes of a lesson on *one* of the following subjects:— (1) Some Physical Law; (2) some rule of Latin Composition; (3) one of Shakespeare's characters.

11. Write an Essay on the comparative values of teaching Science and the Humanities.

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Translate:—

1. Page 46: Trois armées ... de terreur.
2. Page 47: Il faisait observer ... de ses soldats.
3. Page 48: Il étouffait ... Sambre et Meuse.
4. Page 51: Puisaye ... avec eux.
5. Page 54: Pendant la conférence ... la République.
6. Page 58: Ce fut ... Quiberon.

Explain—(i.) *faux sauniers*, (ii.) *chouannerie*, (iii.) *Monsieur*, (iv.) *l'armée des marais*, (v.) *bons jusqu'à concurrence de deux millions*.

HINTS FOR ANSWERS.

1. *Accidentée*, "hilly," literally "diversified," "up and down"; *exaltée*, "fired."
2. *Faisait observer*, "maintained"; à *faire passer*, "to transmit."
3. "His noble heart and brilliant genius were stifled and oppressed on this dull and narrow stage. In public he curbed his feelings, but in his intimate correspondence he gave them free play."
4. "Any premature manifestations which might make the republicans suspect," &c. *Abuser*, "to deceive."
5. *Bons anciens*, "Simple Greeks and Romans, you would surely have seen in this an omen," &c.; *avoir fait grâce*, "to have let the Republic off."
6. *En tous sens*, "in every direction"; *il s'en formait*, "new bands kept forming everywhere."
 - (i.) "Smugglers of salt," from *Lat salinarius*.
 - (iii.) See note on p. 134. (iv.) See page 44, l. 11.
 - (v.) "Drafts to the amount of two million francs."

II. FRENCH GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION.

1. Construct sentences to show that *aide*, *critique*, *élève*, *garde*, *manœuvre* are masculine and feminine according to circumstances.
2. Give the feminine of *fondateur*, *pêcheur*, *pêcheur*, *chanteur*, *auteur*, *filléul*, *neveu*.
3. Give examples of the omission of the article in French in phrases where it would be used in English.
4. Write a table of the possessive pronouns. Translate:—Is this your book? No, I left mine in the school-room.
5. Give examples of those of the numerals which take the mark of the plural. Translate:—On the twenty-ninth of May. One in ton. He is two years older than you.
6. Parse, and give the primitive sense of, *dût*, *meuve*, *va*, *pu*, *prennes*, *effrites*.
7. What tenses are formed from the infinitive present and the past participle? Give examples.
8. How are adverbs of manner formed? Account historically for that formation.
9. Construct sentences to illustrate the use of *dès*, *or*, *car*, *aussi*, *davantage*.
10. Translate into French:—(i.) He was the greatest guerilla leader France ever had. (ii.) He himself set an example by taking no rest. (iii.) I wish them to remember that I too once served in it. (iv.) He sent for books. (v.) He consented to their forming a local militia. (vi.) Whatever my country may do, may I serve her as much as I love her!

ANSWERS.

10. (i.) Il fut le plus grand chef de partisans qu'ait jamais eu la France. (ii.) Lui-même donnait l'exemple, ne prenant aucun repos. (iii.) Je désire qu'on s'y souvienne qu'autrefois j'y servais aussi. (iv.) Il fit venir des livres. (v.) Il consentit à ce qu'ils formassent une garde territoriale. (vi.) Quoi que fasse ma patrie, puissé-je la servir autant que je l'aime.

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June 18.—“Pestalozzi.” Rev. R. H. QUICK.

OCCASIONAL NOTES.

SEVERAL complaints have reached us of the scant attention that we have given to the important national movement which has culminated in the opening of the Royal College of Music on the 7th ultimo. Our excuse must be, that both the origin of the College, and the arts by which the cause was promoted, seemed to us of so mixed a character that we judged silence to be the safest course for those who would neither bless nor ban. We have no intention of harking back, and, having thus liberated our soul, we can heartily join in the prayer of the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Lobgesang of the Director. The College has already done something to fulfil one of its main objects—the discovery of latent musical talent; and the staff that have been appointed are a guarantee that the brickmaker's daughter and the blacksmith's son, who have been elected to scholarships, will receive the best musical training that England can provide.

THE Prince of Wales never made so weighty or so popular a speech as at the opening of the College. His praise of music as the best of arts, because at the least

expense it pleases the greatest number, his good-humoured persiflage of dilettantism, and his sketch of the aims and objects of an English Conservatoire, were all as well expressed as well conceived. To one sentiment only we are inclined to take exception. Against the saying of Addison, which the Prince endorsed, that music is the only sensual pleasure in which excess cannot be harmful, we would quote another passage from the *Spectator*:—

“Musick is certainly a very agreeable entertainment, but if it would take entire possession of our ears, if it would make us incapable of hearing Sense, if it would exclude Arts that have a much greater tendency to the refinement of human nature: I confess I would allow it no better quarter than *Plato* has done, who banishes it out of his Common-wealth.”

Addison's saying is indeed a very doubtful compliment to music, which is an intellectual no less than a sensual pleasure. As Mr. Huxley lately pointed out, the delight that he takes in hearing a fugue of Bach is mainly an intellectual delight. On the other hand, even the Archbishop of Canterbury would hardly call *La Belle Hélène*, or the Moody and Sankey melodies, “pure gifts of God.”

WE are, perhaps, too fond of playing the part of Hamlet, and bidding our readers look on this picture and on that; but two reports which happened to reach us the same day form a *pendant* too instructive to be passed over. M. Durand, the Under-Secretary of Public Instruction, in his opening speech to the recent Congress of Normal Directors and Professors, after describing the liberty that teachers and trainers enjoyed under the law of February, 1880, drew this picture of the past:—

“Il fut un temps où l'Université ne s'appartenait guère à elle-même, et où les écoles normales, en particulier, au lieu de protection et d'appui, ne trouvaient, au milieu des autorités multiples dont elles relevaient, que contradictions et défiance. Comprimer l'essor des intelligences, comprimer l'essor des volontés, annuler l'esprit d'initiative, tel semblait être le but que s'était proposé une législation mesquine et jalouse, et elle ne l'avait, hélas! que trop atteint.”

A few days later, Mr. Mundella's attention was called to the regulations of the Carnarvon Training College. The Principal of the College, it appears, refused admission to a candidate, otherwise qualified, on the ground that he had been baptized by a Nonconformist minister. It likewise appeared that this College received last year a grant from Government of £2,070 towards an expenditure of £2,688. This particular case of intolerance was condemned by the Vice-President, but it seems to us to differ only in degree from the authorized proceedings of nine-tenths of the Training Colleges. That denominational colleges which are supported mainly from the public funds should be allowed to impose religious tests, is a violation of the very principles of the Education Code, and it is strange to find a good Liberal like Mr. Mundella defending the system. It is a survival of *une législation mesquine et jalouse*, and as such is doomed.

THE Principal of the Carnarvon Training College has not improved his case by the long explanatory letter that he has written to a local paper. By his account, the pupil-

teacher was not refused admission because of his dissenting baptism, but "the acceptance of his name was deferred, to admit of his conditional Church baptism." The distinction is too fine for a lay mind to appreciate, and the rest of the letter is divided between a philippic against dissenting ministers and an encomium of the College. Dissenting preachers are "in the condition of gas or water taps whose connexion with the main has been cut off," and their ministrations "have no more intrinsic value than grace without meat, a shell without a kernel, or a knife without a blade." It will be generally admitted that a man who uses such language is wholly unfit to be the head of a state-supported College; yet, as the law now stands, Mr. Boucher is justified in his contention that each college may impose its own tests. If subscription to the Thirty-nine Articles is a condition of admission, why not the tonsure, or a hair shirt, or the blue ribbon? In his controversy with Mr. Mundella, Mr. Boucher has certainly the best of it.

ON a recent occasion we questioned the moral right of Governors to refuse to entertain the claims of lay candidates in selecting a Head-master. Mr. C. A. Vince, of Repton, calls our attention to what seems an equally arbitrary proceeding:—"Having occasion recently to make enquiries about the vacant Head-mastership of a small public school, I was privately informed that the electors would not entertain the application of any candidate not a member of the Church of England. I find that this condition is not specified in the Commissioners' scheme for this school, nor was it mentioned by the Governors in their advertisement inviting applications. As I know nothing of the circumstances of the school, I have no reason to doubt that the Governors were justified in so limiting their choice. The question I wish to ask is merely this,—when Governors think fit to add so important a condition to those laid down in their statutes, why do they not clearly state it in the advertisement of the vacancy? By so doing they would save themselves some trouble, and members of the profession much waste of time and disappointment. Can it be that they do not care to face the public criticism which such a limitation would excite if published?"

IN the *Cornhill Magazine* for March, Mrs. Barnett gave an interesting account of the success of a loan exhibition of pictures and other art treasures among the working people of Whitechapel. Speaking out of the experience of many years spent in serving the highest moral and spiritual interests of the uneducated classes, she said,—“It is impossible for the ignorant to even look at a picture unless they are acquainted with the subject; but, when once the story is told to them, their plain, direct method of looking at things enables them to go straight to the point, and perhaps, to reach the artist's meaning more clearly than some of those art critics whose vision is obscured by thoughts of 'tone, harmony, and

construction.'” At this moment a scheme is under consideration which, if it succeeds, will do much towards removing the ignorance that hinders humble people from getting the full enjoyment, of which they are otherwise capable, out of great pictures. The movement is warmly supported by Mr. Ruskin in a letter he kindly allows us to print, and by many other influential persons whose names we give in our correspondence columns with Miss Mary Christie's letter setting forth the scheme.

THE importance of familiarising children with objects of beauty has already received practical recognition in Manchester, where the committee of the Art Museum have arranged small loan collections of pictures, casts, and pottery, which are to be offered to the managers of all the schools in Manchester and Salford. These collections of pictures include engravings, photographs, and chromolithographs of such scenes as town children see on the rare occasions when they are taken into the country—lanes, woods, fields, farmyards,—shipping, and coast scenery; also buildings, places, and events which they read of in the Bible and in their historical lesson-books, and some good coloured pictures of common wild-birds, moths, and butterflies. Each object is accompanied with a full printed explanation; and, in the case of chromolithographs (which are used under protest, for the sake of giving the children an idea of colour), care is taken to call attention to the superiority of other representations of similar subjects to be seen in the local museum.

It is much to be wished that every town and village throughout the country had its larger or smaller Art Museum; and, indeed, there is no reason why we should not hope to realise this desirable state of things in the course of the next twenty years. The movement now projected is a step in this direction, and, if it be carefully worked as well as generously supported, it will prove a very useful step. In some respects, it is much easier than people commonly suppose to find a good number of subjects among works of great art, that are altogether suitable to the conditions of elementary schools. On the other hand, the getting together of these pictures involves considerable trouble; for, though we may be satisfied in a general way of their existence, it is not easy to call them to mind when we want them. The promoters of the movement will do a good work by merely informing, first themselves, and afterwards the public, about all suitable prints and photographs that are to be procured at a moderate price.

THE Joint Board Examinations will be shortly beginning, and, at the risk of boring our readers, we must repeat one or two criticisms. The examinations are very costly. Each boy examined costs over six guineas. According to an estimate of the Board we have just examined, each paper cost, on an average, 1s. 11d. per head to set and look over. The examinations are very

long, extending in this instance over three weeks. The remedy for both these evils is obvious, and has been urged again and again by the Head-masters: to accept the regular school examinations, and inspect instead of examining. This proposal, so far as we are aware, has never been argued by the Board, but met with a flat refusal. But now a new complaint reaches us, of so grave a nature that, if we had any doubt of the credibility of our informant, we should hesitate even to hint at it. The Board, it is known, makes no provision for invigilation, but leaves the conduct of the examination entirely in the hands of the Head-master. We are informed, on the best authority, that, in one of the largest schools examined by the Board, and one that has obtained the lion's share of certificates and honours, systematic cribbing and copying have prevailed for years past. We know, further, that the attention of the Board has been called to the fact. We wait to hear what action the Board proposes to take. They cannot ignore so gross a scandal.

A SHEFFIELD correspondent sends us an advertisement which beggars all our former cuttings:—

MORNING GOVERNESS, three Hours daily in Sharrow, WANTED, immediately, to Teach Four Children, ages six to twelve. English, French, Music, and Drawing. Terms, four shillings per week.—Address Tuition, Box 117, *Telegraph Office*.

Four shillings per week, or, reckoning an hour each day for coming and going, twopence per hour for English, French, Music, and Drawing! A copying clerk's time in a Government office, or a coalheaver's, is worth about five times as much. We wish we could believe the advertisement to be a hoax, but fear that it is genuine.

WHY do women teachers still command a much lower price than men teachers? In the days when a girl was generally educated at home, under a governess, with occasional masters, and when in any case her education stopped at seventeen or eighteen, the answer was obvious; but in the days of Newnham and Girton, when her apprenticeship is little less costly than that of her brother, the great inequality of payment in the case of the two sexes which still prevails, though in a less degree than formerly, seems to many women a survival of the days of bondage, that must shortly disappear. We are inclined to doubt it, and for this reason: The state of society is still far off, when a woman will be expected to earn her daily bread. What she makes is still looked upon as so much to the good—her *peculium* or pin-money. It follows that hundreds of women, gently born and bred, are eager, as public schoolmistresses, to make a hundred or a hundred-and-fifty a year, which to them is affluence; to their brothers, the same sum would seem a miserable pittance, and, if driven to it, they would prefer trade or the colonies. In this respect the Boys' Public Day School Company will be heavily handicapped, and the fees charged in the corresponding Girls' Schools can afford them no safe datum. If they maintain the fees they propose, their

masters must come from a lower rank, and represent a lower type of culture than the mistresses.

THE following figures, giving the contrast between the expenditure per head on war and education in the various European States, have been compiled by M. Léon Donnat, a Belgian statistician, and are quoted from the *Pall Mall Gazette*:—

	War.		Education.			War.		Education.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.		s.	d.	s.	d.
France	20	0	1	5	Russia	10	2	0	1½
England	18	6	3	1	Denmark ...	8	8	4	7
Holland	17	9	3	2	Italy	7	6	0	8
Saxony	11	9	3	4	Belgium	6	9	2	3
Württemberg	11	9	1	9	Austria	6	8	1	6
Bavaria	11	9	2	6	Switzerland..	4	10	4	2
Prussia	10	11	2	5					

ARCHDEACON FARRAR writes:—"I entirely agree with Miss Beale in the principle of absolute truthfulness which she enunciates. But she mistook my point. I *did*—because the boys said it, and because I never could imagine that anything told me was a mere lie—believe that it was not a case of actual copying, but of some extraordinary combination of circumstances into which I could not enquire further. Any experienced master knows that 'I take your word for it,' is not an assertion that the story is implicitly believed."

PRESENTATION DAY at the University of London was marked this year by two distinguishing features. Five gentlemen and one lady, teachers in various schools, received the first diplomas that have been awarded in the Art, Theory, and History of Teaching. Lord Granville did well to call attention to this new departure—"new only in England, not a new experiment in other countries,"—and to regard it as a good augury for the future. One of these gentlemen, it is worth remarking, is the author of the able pamphlet on Training of Teachers to which we called attention last month. The other incident, which has naturally attracted more notice in the press, was the appearance of a Lady Graduate in Medicine, who had come from Madras to compete for medical honours, and obtained a scholarship and the medal in obstetrics. It is rare to catch Lord Granville tripping in a matter of taste, but his old-world compliment on the lady's good looks will be justly resented as an impertinence by women of to-day. No one will rejoice more heartily at the lady's success than the new Vice-Chancellor, Sir James Paget. To his qualifications for the high office, "his world-wide fame, professional knowledge, and singular power of conveying that knowledge to others," Lord Granville might have added, that he was the chief promoter of the Medical School for Women, and has from the first supported the movement for the professional training of women.

OUR old friend, Trinity College, London (now strictly limited), is again to the fore. A circular has been sent to

various gentlemen, especially Head-masters, inviting them to present themselves for election as Fellows of the Athenæum Society. For the sum of two guineas a year, they "shall have the right of attaching to their names the letters F.A.S., and no other." We suggest as an appropriate motto for the Athenæum Society — *Per F.A.S. atque nefas.*

THE directors of the South African Syndicate Company inform us that the letter of Mr. Henry Sell, part of which appeared in our last issue, "was in no way authorized by this Company, or by any person connected with it."

A PESSIMIST UPON EDUCATION.

OTHERS besides Tristram Shandy have proved that a bad name is tantamount to hanging. This is notably the case with Arthur Schopenhauer, the title by which he is most widely known being one admirably calculated to warn off the general reader from his volumes. But, though we cannot quite say that this name "is no part of him," it is certainly *only* a part. He is undoubtedly a Pessimist; but he is several other things besides, some of which are commonly supposed to be incompatible with that unpopular philosophy. As he would have put it himself, there has come to be a serious discrepancy between what he is, and what he represents. Thus, in the opinion of that large section of the reading world which knows nothing about him beyond his name, he is a difficult philosophical writer, whose dismal pages—for what but dullness and dreariness could proceed from one who is avowedly "plunged in a gulf of dark despair"?—are exclusively devoted to elaborate demonstrations of the folly and wickedness of conscious existence, and other equally uncomfortable, perhaps impious, propositions; whereas, in reality, he is an author whose writings often turn upon subjects of general interest, are almost always easy to understand, and sometimes eminently amusing. For the shrewd insight of this "philosophe qui a vu le monde," his keen, if somewhat sardonic, humour, and, above all, the charming literary style by which he justified his one patriotic sentiment, a warm admiration for his mother-tongue, render his abstrusest works a delightful contrast to the philosophical treatises of his contemporaries, against whose clumsy verbosity he was never weary of railing, whilst his collection of minor essays, the *Parerga* and *Paralipomena*, may fairly rank among the most readable of books.

These two volumes, published in 1851, were the fruit of six years' work, and thirty years' preparation; "for," as he observes, "things like mine cannot be shaken out of one's sleeve." Indeed, what we hear about his industry in collecting materials for them, reminds us of the course pursued by another brilliant writer, Lord Macaulay, and points once more to the difficulties which lie on the way towards this species of reading made easy. Their style is rather aptly described in one of his own letters to a publisher, where, referring to another of his works, he naively remarks that it is "written in his usual manner, free from all scholastic restraint, clear, lively, and agreeable." Not the least interesting part of these *opera mixta* is the little essay "Upon Education," of which we here intend to give the substance; first reminding our readers, that as more than thirty years have passed since its publication, it is not wonderful if some of its views and suggestions have lost the gloss of novelty which they wore at the time of its first appearance; though, even if this were so to a much greater extent than is really the case, the clearness, eloquence, and conciseness with which they are there put forward, would give them an undeniable claim to our consideration, setting aside the fact that it is always worth while to

learn what were the opinions held upon so important a subject by so important a man.

The key-note of Schopenhauer's essay is his insistence upon what he pronounces to be the main point in education, namely, that intuitions* should always precede concepts, that experience should never be supplanted by hearsay, or ideas by mere words. "According to the nature of our intellect," he writes, "our concepts ought to be formed by abstraction from our intuitions, and the latter should consequently come into existence earlier than the former. When this course is actually taken, as happens in the case of one who has only his own experience for teacher and book, he knows very well which of his intuitions belongs to each of his concepts, and is represented by it; he has an accurate knowledge of both, and therefore deals rightly with every fact that comes under his notice. This method may be called a natural education. In an artificial education, on the contrary, our heads are, by dint of telling, teaching, and reading, crammed with concepts before any extensive acquaintance with the intuitive world has been arrived at. Now, the intuitions belonging to all these concepts must be brought later on by experience, but in the mean time the latter are wrongly used, and men and things are accordingly wrongly judged, wrongly seen, and wrongly treated." Such an education, therefore, produces warped judgments, silly or distorted views, and a proneness to act sometimes too timidly, and sometimes over-boldly. "This is the consequence of that *ὑστερον πρότερον* through which, in direct opposition to the natural course of our mental development, we receive first our concepts and then our intuitions, while teachers, instead of developing the boy's ability to perceive, judge, and think for himself, only endeavour to cram his head with extraneous ready-made thoughts.†

"In accordance with what we have said, the main point in education is, that our *acquaintance with the world*, the attainment of which may be described as the aim of all education, *should be begun at the right end.* But this, as we have shown, chiefly depends upon the fact that in every matter the intuition should precede the concept, the narrower concept the wider one, and thus that the whole course of instruction should be carried on in due order, as the concepts of the things presuppose one another. If, however, anything is passed over in this series, there at once arise defective, and hence false, concepts, and ultimately a mode of viewing the world, distorted by each man in his own way, such as almost everyone carries about with him for a long time, and most people for ever. Anyone who examines himself will find that there are some sufficiently simple things and relations respecting which a right, or clear understanding has, for the first time, dawned, perhaps suddenly, upon him at a very mature age. Here, then, lay a dark spot in his acquaintance with the world which was occasioned by the passing over of some object during that first education of his, whether it had been an artificial one through the agency of men, or merely a natural one through his own experience. We should, therefore, endeavour to ascertain the true natural sequence of the various branches of knowledge, that we may, in accordance with it, make children acquainted methodically with the facts and relations of the world, without putting chimeras into their heads which are

* The distinction between intuition (*Anschauung*), and conception (*Begriff*), in the sense (not the Kantian) used by Schopenhauer throughout this essay, is defined by S. T. Coleridge, as follows:—"A perception, immediate and individual, is = an intuition. The same, mediate, and by means of a character or mark common to several things, is = a conception."—("The Statesman's Manual," Appendix E.)

† Coleridge, in his day, made the same complaint,—“Instead of storing the memory, during the period when the memory is the predominant faculty, with facts for the after exercise of the judgment, and instead of awakening by the noblest models, the fond and unmixed love and admiration which is the natural and graceful temper of early youth, these nurslings of improved pedagogy are taught to dispute and decide; to suspect all, but their own and their lecturer's wisdom, and to hold nothing sacred from their contempt, but their own contemptible arrogance.”—("Biographia Literaria," chap. I.)

often ineradicable. And here, the first thing to guard against is their using words with which they connect no clear ideas. Even children have, for the most part, an unfortunate propensity which leads them, instead of caring to understand a thing, to content themselves with the words, and to learn these by heart, that they may serve their purpose upon occasion. This propensity is retained in after life, and makes the knowledge of many learned men mere verbosity."

The evils caused by thus bringing to bear upon intuition and experience "a ready-made apparatus" of concepts and judgments, which should have followed from, and not preceded, the former, are the more serious because the very richness and many-sidedness of intuition renders it unable to compete with abstract conception in brevity and swiftness; and, in consequence of its slower rate of progress, the correction of these preconceptions must be effected late in life, if it is effected at all. Moreover, their presence in the mind is the cause of attempts throughout after-life to mould reality into conformity with the chimeras (a very favourite word with Schopenhauer), crotchets, and prejudices by which they are accompanied, and predisposes us to wilfully close our eyes against any facts that we find conflicting with them. But, if the natural order were adhered to in the process of imparting and acquiring knowledge, "the child would receive few, but well-grounded and accurate precepts. He would learn to measure things by his own standard, and not by that of another. He would never take up a thousand fancies and prejudices, in the expulsion of which the best part of the subsequent experience and discipline of life must be employed, and his mind would become permanently habituated to thoroughness, clearness, independent judgment, and impartiality." In short, children should gain their knowledge of life, in every respect, from the original, not from a copy; should draw their ideas directly from the real world, not from books, fairy-tales, and the conversation of others, which will only mislead and delude them. "For it is incredible how much harm is done by early implanted chimeras, and the prejudices arising from them: the later education which the world and the realities of life afford us must be principally devoted to their extermination. Hence the answer of Antisthenes to the question, which is the most necessary branch of learning—The unlearning of evil.

"Just because early implanted errors are, for the most part, ineradicable, whilst the faculty of judgment is the last to arrive at maturity, children under the age of sixteen should be withheld from all branches of instruction in which great errors are possible, and, consequently, from all philosophy, religion, and general views of every kind; and they should be allowed to pursue only subjects in which errors are impossible, *e.g.*, Mathematics, or not dangerous, *e.g.*, Languages, Physics, History, &c., admitting only such sciences as are appropriate and quite intelligible to them at their respective ages. Childhood and youth is the time for collecting data, and studying single subjects specially and thoroughly; on the other hand, judgment upon general matters must remain suspended, and be postponed to the final explanations. The faculty of judgment, as it pre-supposes maturity and experience, must be allowed to rest, and we should guard against forestalling it by the inculcation of prejudices, which may cripple it permanently. Memory, on the contrary, as it possesses its greatest strength and tenacity during youth, should be chiefly put in requisition, but with a most carefully and scrupulously considered selection of subjects.

"For when we realize the vividness and durability of the impressions which we have received in the first twelve years of our life, from all that we have learned or experienced, it naturally occurs to us that we ought to turn this precious faculty to the best account, and by systematically predetermining what these impressions shall be, base the whole fabric of education upon the susceptibility and tenacity of the youthful memory. But the shortness of youth and the limited capacity of the memory alike render it necessary that the latter should be stored only with the most essential and important parts of each subject, to the exclusion of all other matters. A selection should, therefore, be made by the ablest

men and the experts in each department, determining what is necessary and important to be known by people in general on the one hand, and by each particular trade and profession upon the other.* Knowledge of the former class should then be sub-divided into gradually extending courses or encyclopædias, corresponding with the degree of general culture which is destined for each man according to his outward circumstances, from the limitation to bare primary instruction to the collective studies comprised in the Faculty of Philosophy. Knowledge of the latter class should be trusted to the selection of the true experts in each department. The whole would constitute a special detailed canon of intellectual education, which would of course require revision every ten years. By such institutions, the youthful strength of the memory would be employed to the best advantage, and excellent material would be handed down to the later appearing faculty of judgment."

"The maturity of knowledge, *i.e.*, the perfection to which the latter may attain in each individual, consists in the establishment of an intimate connection between his collective abstract concepts and his intuitive perceptions, so that each of his concepts rests either directly or indirectly upon an intuitive basis, through which alone it possesses real value; and also in his ability to subsume each occurring intuition under its appropriate concept. Maturity is the work of experience, and, consequently, of time. Because, as we for the most part gain our intuitive and our abstract knowledge separately, the former by natural means, the latter through the good or bad instructions and communications of others, it follows that in youth there is generally but little agreement and connection between our concepts, which have been fixed by mere words, and our real knowledge, which has been obtained through intuition. These only gradually approximate to, and mutually correct, one another; but it is not until they have quite grown together that maturity of knowledge exists. This maturity is quite independent of the greater or less perfection of a man's faculties, which does not consist in the connection between his abstract and his intuitive knowledge, but in the intensive degree of both."

Schopenhauer concludes with a vigorous denunciation of novel reading. For practical men, the acquirement of an exact and thorough knowledge of the real course of the world is the most necessary, but, at the same time, the most troublesome study, proficiency therein being, under the most favourable circumstances, difficult, if not impossible, of attainment. "This inherently formidable difficulty is doubled by novels, which represent a course of things and of men's conduct that does not really exist. This is, however, adopted with the ready credulity of youth, and incorporated with the mind; hence the place of merely negative ignorance is taken by a whole tissue of false presumptions, or positive error, which afterwards perplexes even the school of experience itself, and causes its teaching to appear in a false light. If the youth formerly walked in darkness, he is now led astray by will-o'-the-wisps; the girl often even more than he. By novels, an entirely false view of life is foisted upon them, and expectations are raised which can never be fulfilled. This generally has a most detrimental influence upon their whole life. In this respect, a decided advantage is possessed by people, such as artisans, who in their youth had neither time nor opportunity for novel reading. A few novels can be excepted from the above objections, and have, indeed, rather an opposite effect; for example, and pre-eminently, 'Gil Blas,' and the other works of Lesage (or, better still, their Spanish originals), also the 'Vicar of Wake-

* Schopenhauer may here have thought of, and wished to guard against, the state of things described by his master Kant:—"Since in early youth it cannot be known what ends are likely to occur to us in the course of life, parents seek to have their children taught a great many things, and provide for their skill in the use of means for all sorts of arbitrary ends, of none of which can they determine whether it may not perhaps hereafter be an object to their pupil, but which it is at all events possible that he might aim at; and this anxiety is so great that they commonly neglect to form and correct their judgment on the value of the things which may be chosen as ends."—"Fundamental Principles of the Metaphysics of Morals," Section II.

field,' and, in part, the novels of Walter Scott. 'Don Quixote' may be regarded as a satirical exposition of the delusion itself."

Any readers of this little essay, who know something about the life and character of its author, will observe that, like most of his writings, it bears a strong impress of both. We trace throughout it his tendency to depreciate, perhaps unduly, the value, as an educational means, of reading and instruction, in comparison with experience and independent thought; a tendency which was probably confirmed by his own desultory education, wherein travel and society played an unusually important part, no less than by the passion for meditation that led him from an early age to restrict himself to a comparatively narrow circle of authors, and to read these only at times when he was unable to think for himself. It may be doubted whether, even in his peculiar case, the adoption of this course did not lead rather to an aggravation of "les défauts de ses qualités," than to the fullest development of his genius; but, be this as it may, in the case of ordinary learners, who do not possess his rare thinking powers, the results would of course be still more unsatisfactory. He seems here, moreover, to draw too hard-and-fast a line of demarcation between what he distinguishes as the natural and artificial methods of education,—as, for example, when he excludes the communications of others from the range of our experience, of which they surely form an element. We meet also with some expression of the contempt in which he held the intellectual capacities of mankind in general—for, upon this point, Schopenhauer out-Carlyles Carlyle—and of learned men in particular, whom he regarded as inferior to quite uneducated people in the matter of common-sense, a quality upon which he lays much stress, and not greatly their superiors in the matter of really valuable knowledge.

His definition, too, of the end of all education, is a very characteristic one, though we can scarcely accept it as adequate, however wide an interpretation we may put upon the phrase, "acquaintance with the world." As regards his proposed "canon of intellectual education," the various School Boards and Codes, so largely multiplied and developed since his day, have probably done as much as, perhaps more than, is desirable in that direction. Indeed, we must admit that Schopenhauer's schoolboy, with his memory stocked "strictly, methodically, and systematically, by pattern and rule," and unenlivened save by the very scanty and strangely assorted selection of lighter literature allowed to him, presents to our mind rather a dreary prospect. A child who had never read, and did not care to read, "Robinson Crusoe," "The Arabian Nights," and Grimm's "Fairy Tales," would be η θεός η θηρίον, probably the latter. But, for all that, the essay certainly contains much truth and sagacity, and may, upon the whole, be regarded as a spirited protest against unintelligent teaching and learning, which is not, even now, altogether uncalled for, though we may hope that it has a less general application than was the case thirty years ago.

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION IN LONDON.

WE have in previous years so fully stated the objects and operations of the London Society for the Extension of University Teaching, that we may spare our readers a recapitulation of its claims on the City companies and the City merchants, which were so well set forth at the Mansion-house meeting of April 25th. The chief speakers—Mr. Forster and Mr. Goschen—have so often pleaded this or similar causes, that it was hardly to be expected that they should furnish new arguments. Nor did they, though they drove well home the old. Sir Lyon Playfair, on the other hand, has let the educational field lie fallow for the last few years, and his speech was short, pointed, and full of weighty matter. The contrast he drew between the English and Scottish Universities, was a telling argument in favour of the Society. The Scottish

universities had already made that close connection between themselves and the people, that the English Universities were now trying to establish. In Scotland, wherever talent had existed, even in the remotest village, there had always been means at hand to bring it out, and afford the peasant who could profit by it a University education. The English universities taught a man how to spend £1000 a year with dignity and intelligence; the Scottish universities taught a man how to make it. This is the text on which Mr. Bryce has been preaching to Oxford and Cambridge, and which they are slowly taking to heart. Another word in season of Sir Lyon Playfair, was, it seems to us, a salutary admonition to the City Guilds:—"Technical education implies a liberal culture on which to work, and the City Guilds will be making a great mistake, if they tie themselves down to that education alone, and do nothing to diffuse that culture, which was the only basis on which a knowledge of technics could be raised." The Lord Mayor, with naïve inconsistency, extolled the City companies as always foremost in every good work, and exhorted them to come forward and help this Society. He might have added that it is now in its eighth year, and that the City companies contributed to it last year the munificent sum of £20.

How is it, then, that such a Society,—with Mr. Goschen for its President; with Prince Leopold, Lord Aberdare, and many of the most energetic educationists in London on its Council,—should still be struggling for existence; that the eloquence of Mr. Gladstone and Sir S. Northcote, backed by the charm of royal persuasiveness, should have moved the public to the extent of £10? Several of the speakers at the Mansion-house, found a partial answer in the isolation and want of solidarity, which paralyze politics and every public movement in London; in the variety of its amusements and entertainments; and in the numerous existing educational agencies, such as the Birkbeck Institution, and the Colleges for Men and Women.

None of these explanations seems to us to go to the bottom of the matter, or account for London merchants refusing a sum which, as Mr. Forster told them, any small town in the north would raise in a week; and we, who are allowed a plainness of speech that a platform orator cannot venture on, can perhaps suggest some further reasons. First, for the Companies. It is not uncharitable to suggest, that the golden key that opens their coffers is an appeal to their honour and glory. It is not their way to do good by stealth, and they naturally prefer, to a university in the air, a monument like their College at Kensington, which Lord Mayors can point at and cry *Circumspice*. Next, for the Society itself. It is saddled with a sesquipedalian name, and a name, moreover, which is felt to be—we will not say an imposture, but somewhat too imposing. When its advocates talk of bringing the Universities to the working man's door, and giving the mechanic the same teaching that he would enjoy at Oxford or Cambridge, they are using extravagant hyperboles. Working men are at present but a small fraction of the students; the lectures are mainly attended by the middle classes, and there are more women than men. Thus, at Putney, we read that those who attended were mostly "lawyers, clergymen, and married ladies," all doubtless in need of instruction, but not in need of public endowment. Then, as to the quality of the teaching, in what sense can it be called University teaching? To call a course of twelve lectures,—even if followed by as many hours' class-teaching—and an examination, University teaching, is a pure figure of speech, and all that is meant by it is, that the Universities guarantee the competency of the lecturers. Much was made at the meeting of the satisfactory reports of examiners; but something must be discounted for the circumstance, that the examiners were in several cases themselves lecturers; and, apart from this, less than a tenth of the students who entered the classes obtained certificates.

We have freely pointed out the divergency between the Society's professed objects and its actual operations,—a divergency which, in our opinion, is enough to account for its failure to win the ear of the public. The Society has done good work, but not work of the sort that was expected of it. It has an

eminent staff of lecturers, but these lecturers have more often entertained the rich than taught the poor.

If we had nothing to add to these criticisms, we should run the risk of appearing in the unenviable character of the candid friend. But we believe in University Extension as one of the most healthful signs of the day, and are still hopeful of seeing the movement stirring even the apathy of London, though, for various reasons, we can never look for the same enthusiasm that it has kindled in the north. Only, to give it a fair chance, the Society must alter its tactics, and condescend to follow the lead of the Cambridge local lecturers. We referred last month to the report of their Secretary, Mr. R. D. Roberts, and the keen interest that has been awakened by these lectures in the midland and northern counties. Similar evidence was adduced at the meeting by Professor Stuart, who read a letter from one Staffordshire pitman to another:—"You ought to be very proud of having brought University Extension into Staffordshire. Among other benefits, it has prevented us from going for restriction on the output of coal, which looks so well on paper." And another workman writes to the lecturer:—"These lectures have wrought a revolution in my life. I am able to take broader views of questions, and my interests are widened. There is something about these University lectures different from the science and art classes. I can't exactly say what it is, but they do more for you, and have more life in them."

The rest of the Cambridge report shows what this "something" is—the something that is wholly lacking in the Report of the London Society. In a word, the Cambridge lecturers are enthusiasts, and their audiences have caught their enthusiasm. They carry to their work the zeal of the missionary, and, like Mr. Gilmour among the Mongols, they give themselves, for the time, heart and soul to the business in hand. The London lecturers are mostly men who have made their reputation, and it is hardly a paradox to say that their fame stands in their way. Better lecturers than Professors Gardiner, Beesly, and Morley on their special subjects, it would be hard to pick, but all these are men up to the eyes in work, to whom the lecturing is necessarily a *parergon*. This of itself explains why the London lecturers complain that the class teaching is a useless appendix to the lecture, few staying and few answering questions; while the Cambridge lecturers complain that an hour is not enough to answer all the questions.

One other useful hint was thrown out by Mr. Forster. The Society should get on its Council some of the acknowledged leaders of the working classes, not necessarily (Mr. Forster added) working men, but all the better (we venture to think) if they are actually working men. Nothing would go so far to inspire working men with confidence in the Society, and be a guarantee to the public, that it is reaching that class for whose benefit it was primarily intended.

THE PROPOSED MODERN LANGUAGE TRIPOS AT CAMBRIDGE.

IT is odd how many important changes are openly made without attracting the attention even of those who will be most affected by them. The results on our school course of making Modern Languages a recognised branch of study for Honour men in one of the old Universities, would no doubt be very great indeed, and yet there are probably few schoolmasters who have troubled themselves to examine the new scheme; and when it was discussed at Cambridge in the Arts School, on the 9th May, only some 30 to 40 members of the Senate, including the Syndicate, attended.

The scheme itself appeared in the *University Reporter* of March 20, and is as follows:—

"The Special Board for Medieval and Modern Languages beg leave to report to the Senate as follows:—

"I. They are of opinion that a Tripos should be established in Modern Languages and Literature; that a knowledge of French and German

should be required from all candidates; and, further, that a complete examination in these languages should include questions on grammar, historical grammar and philology, and on the history of the literature, as well as *viva voce* examination in the spoken languages. They also think that candidates should be required to write an English Essay on some subject connected with the French and German languages and literature.

"They therefore recommend:—That a Tripos be established in Modern Languages and Literature, and that the examination be conducted according to the following schedule:—1. Monday 9 to 12.—Passages selected from French authors not earlier than the seventeenth century, to be translated into English. 2. Monday, 1 to 4.—(a) Passages from English authors to be translated into French; and (b) subjects for an original composition in French. 3. Tuesday, 9 to 12.—Passages selected from German authors not earlier than the eighteenth century, to be translated into English. 4. Tuesday, 1 to 4.—(a) Passages from English authors to be translated into German; and (b) subjects for an original composition in German. 5. Wednesday, 9 to 12.—Grammar and historical grammar of French, with short passages of Old French for translation into English. 6. Wednesday, 1 to 4.—French literary history, including (if desirable) short passages for translation into English. 7. Thursday, 9 to 12.—Grammar and historical grammar of German, with short passages of Old German for translation into English. 8. Thursday, 1 to 4.—German literary history, including (if desirable) short passages for translation into English. 9. Friday, 9 to 1.—Alternative subjects for an English Essay on matters connected with the French and German languages and literature. 10. Friday.—A *viva voce* examination during the time allotted for the English Essay, or on the afternoon of the same day.

"II. The Board are further of opinion that the examination for this Tripos should be available for students who have made English a special study. They would require such students to satisfy the examiners in the first four papers in French and German, and in the *viva voce* examination; and afterwards to take five papers in English in place of the last five papers in French and German.

"They therefore recommend:—That the following five papers be allowed as alternative in place of the papers numbered 5 to 9 in the preceding schedule:—5. Wednesday, 9 to 12.—Passages from prose and verse writers of the period from Spenser to Milton, to be clearly explained, together with grammatical and philological questions arising out of such passages. 6. Wednesday, 1 to 4.—Passages from prose and verse writers of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, to be clearly explained, together with grammatical and philological questions arising out of such passages. 7. Thursday, 9 to 12.—Passages from prose and verse writers of the Anglo-Saxon period, to be clearly explained, together with grammatical and philological questions arising out of such passages. 8. Thursday, 1 to 4.—The History of English Literature. 9. Friday, 9 to 1.—Alternative subjects for an Essay on matters connected with the English language and literature."

Many alterations in detail may be expected before it comes before the Senate, but the main principles are settled, and from the names appended to it—Seeley, Skeat, Cowell, Bradshaw, Aldis Wright, O. Browning, Cartmell—it is worthy of the most respectful consideration.

Some surprise has been expressed that no modern languages are included but French, German, and (as a partial alternative) English. Perhaps Italian may yet be included, but room cannot be found for all the modern languages, and "the line must be drawn somewhere."

We observe that the examination is to be in three, or rather in *six*, distinct though connected subjects—modern French and German, old French and German treated philologically, and the history of French and German Literature. Here we have a very wide area, and in the debate it was urged that, at the age of 21 or 22, few would be found, if any, who would deserve a First class in all these subjects. To this Professor Skeat and Professor Seeley replied, that no one would be expected to show a first-rate knowledge throughout the examination, but a first class would be obtained by excellence in any one branch, and fair attainments in the others. This, said Professor Seeley, is in accordance with the new scheme of the Classical Tripos. It is now recognised that the Classics may be dealt with in one of two distinct aspects—either as containing the great literary works of antiquity, or as the subject of the science of philology. Modern languages are to be similarly treated, and a First class to be obtained by a critical know-

ledge of the great writers of France and Germany, or by an accurate study of the growth of the French and German languages. If this is the plan of the examination, we hope it will be clearly announced beforehand, and also that in the class list there will be some indication by what kind of excellence each First class has been obtained. Otherwise the list will give a very uncertain sound indeed, and we shall be unable to guess what a successful candidate really knows.

Fears were expressed by some of the speakers that the University was about to award honours to a kind of knowledge that would qualify a man to be a diplomatist, or a waiter. An acquaintance with modern languages has been stigmatized by one authority as "courier knowledge," and another successful Cambridge man we have met with, pushes his somewhat antiquated notions a step further by dividing all studies into three classes—Classics, Mathematics, and *slops*. But these alarms are quite groundless. A courier, even if specially crammed, would pass a very bad examination in Goethe. Only a highly trained intellect can obtain a thorough acquaintance with the masterpieces of any great literature and those who speak disparagingly of modern classics, seem to generalise hastily from the branch of modern literature with which they are most familiar, viz., French fiction. They would not call the study of Milton and Burke, of Bacon and Tennyson, a training for waiters. Why, then, should they thus speak of the study of Molière, Saint Simon, Lessing, Schiller, and Goethe?

MR. J. R. GREEN'S RANK AS AN HISTORIAN.

THE amiable personal character of the late Mr. Green, his early death amid labours which would probably have transformed his popularity into permanent literary fame, alike make it difficult to speak with frankness of the writings he has left behind,—especially of his best-known work, the "Short History of the English People." But the maxim *De mortuis, &c.*, may easily be stretched to a point of insincerity which, while it is harmful to all concerned, is ultimately most injurious, perhaps, to the mistaken object of its favour. Mr. Green had, undoubtedly, some remarkable qualities, among which a great vivacity of mind and style was, perhaps, the most conspicuous. Now, vivacity and animation are among the most precious gifts which an historian can possess. Few readers realise, perhaps not one in a thousand, the oppressive load under which an historian works. With a mind fatigued and overwrought by the collection and sifting of materials, he is expected by the average reader to tell a story with the sparkle and lightness of touch to which novelists do not always attain. If he fails in this particular, he is pronounced dull and unreadable,—meritorious perhaps for his labour, but a mere dry-as-dust, of whom writers who consider themselves lively are justified in making game. Now, whatever Mr. Green was in other respects, he was certainly never dull. If we consider the extent of his subject, and the narrow limits into which he compressed it, we may fairly ask if any writer of modern times has combined such width of original research with such vivacity of presentation. This has been recognised by the French, whose competence to judge in such matters will not be denied. It is important to remember that Mr. Green was no specialist in English history; that is to say, that he did not select one particular period of limited range, to which he devoted his nights and days. The master of a particular period may attain to such familiarity with it, that his historical imagination, if he has one, may justly be allowed free play; he may wax bold and original in combination and suggestion, and yet not depart from the truth. Such a specialist was Macaulay in his history, beyond question the most splendid of the race. Mr. Green had no such advantage derived from limitation of survey. Yet, in imaginative reproduction of the past, he has not signally failed in any portion of the wide period embraced

between the Saxon invasion and the reign of Victoria. The combined knowledge and vigour of mind which such a statement implies, will not be overlooked by those most competent to express an opinion.

In fact, it may be said of Mr. Green, that imagination was his foible, no less than his forte. The sturdy and resolute opposition he has met with in certain quarters may, undoubtedly, be attributed to the provoking vague viewiness of his book nearly always and everywhere. Some sides of history can only be treated with success in a certain large vague way, by suggestive adumbrations of indefinite, yet momentous social phases, of which the chief feature is precisely a want of firm outline; and the writer who cannot attain to this freedom of handling, is unequal to the higher functions of the historian. But these higher moods of historical inspiration need to be controlled by an austere judgment, and to be indulged in with sober reserve. It is no injustice to say that Mr. Green was, in this matter, far from sufficiently cautious. Respectable teachers report that it is well-nigh impossible to teach English History from his pages, and any one who examines the book with a view to obtain precise information, will admit that the reproach is true. We hardly ever touch the *terra firma* of precise, full, and definite statement; but are continually held aloft in a prismatic atmosphere of picturesque reflection on facts, always bright and lively, sometimes true and suggestive, occasionally wholly false. Mr. Green was a colourist of no common order, but he could hardly draw at all. His chapters are a series of dissolving views, and have a tendency to resemble those interesting exhibitions, especially at the moment when one scene is passing into the other. Let any one read the 4th Chapter, and try to form from it a clear and consistent conception of Edward I.'s reign, and he will readily perceive the truth of this assertion.

Mr. Green is fond of a style of reflexion which is nothing short of irritating to persons who attach a definite meaning to words, and dislike general statements, openly contradicted by notorious facts. Here is an instance; the writer is commenting on the French defeat at Cressy:—

"The lesson which England had learned at Bannockburn she taught the world at Cressy. The whole social and political fabric of the middle ages rested on a military base, and its base was suddenly withdrawn. The churl had struck down the noble; the bondsman proved more than a match in sheer hard fighting for the knight. From the day of Cressy Feudalism tottered slowly but surely to its grave." (Chapter 5, section I.)

There is no injustice in calling this pernicious clap-trap, exactly fitted to please the indolent and ill-informed. No one statement is correct. The social and political fabric of the middle ages did not rest on a military base. It rested chiefly (though not exclusively) on the tenure of land. If it had rested on a military base, how was that base withdrawn by the defeat of Cressy? When the base of institutions is withdrawn, they may be assumed to disappear. Did Feudalism disappear in France or in Europe for the next three or four centuries?—and were the bowmen, whose mastery of the only arm of precision in the period gave such superiority to the English troops, really bondsmen and churls? Were they not rather sturdy yeomen, animated by a stubborn spirit of independence? The explanation of the French defeats is not far to seek, and has been completely found in the different social conditions of the two countries, in the harmony of classes in England, and in their mutual hostility in France. But to pursue this topic would lead us beyond our limits.

Inaccuracies in names and dates, the specks and flaws that Mr. Rowley's microscopic eye revealed, are pardonable errors, and most of them have been corrected in the Library Edition. But there is a looseness of texture in the very warp and woof of the work which no revision can remove; due not to hurry, or unfavourable conditions, but to looseness of thought and a lack of the calm sobriety and cautious induction of the philosopher. Hence it is that, while admiring the brilliant genius of the *littérateur*, we cannot assign to Mr. Green a place among the great historians.

CORRESPONDENCE.

PICTURES FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Will you allow me space in the *Journal of Education* to ask your readers if any of them are disposed to help me in organizing a scheme for supplying elementary schools with photographs and engravings of good pictures? I have sometimes wished that something of the kind might be done by the enterprise of School Boards, or even by the direct interference of the Education Department. But, apart from the practical difficulties that may hinder official action in this direction, and the objections that the majority of ratepayers would probably raise to the expenditure of public money on a purpose so difficult to justify to utilitarian consciences, I am inclined to believe that the thing would be really better done (in the beginning at all events) by the voluntary subscriptions of private persons who were satisfied that it was worth doing. I cannot doubt that many managers of schools, who might hesitate to use, for such an object, money got by rates or local subscriptions for general educational purposes, would yet gladly accept, as a present, half-a-dozen photographs for the decoration of their schoolrooms. Therefore, what I would propose is that, if there are many persons who believe, as I do, in the good influence exercised upon the mental, moral, and even physical development of young children, by the constant presence in their daily lives of a few really beautiful pictures—we should unite together to raise a fund for the purpose of presenting, year by year, sets of such pictures to as many schools as our means would permit. In inviting managers of schools to apply for the pictures, it might perhaps be desirable to stipulate that a small sum should in future be devoted annually out of the regular school funds for the purpose of increasing their number, so that the pictures given should be but the nucleus of a larger collection independently made. But this is a detail upon which, as upon all details of the matter, I should be glad to hear other opinions than my own.

If the scheme I am suggesting should ever get into working shape, I fancy we might count on co-operation taking many forms besides that of pecuniary contribution. Some people have neglected stores of photographs and prints which they might be willing to give us. Others would perhaps help by procuring photographs from abroad, or looking out for prints offered at low prices in the shops. Others, again, who are so happy as to possess good pictures, specially calculated to interest and influence children, and of which photographs do not happen to exist, might render us very valuable service by allowing their pictures to be photographed.

Such help in kind would, of course, make the direct expenditure of money very unequal in different cases, and the consideration of it as a possibility makes it difficult to estimate cost in advance. I think, however, that it is very desirable to have a definite sum in mind as the outside limit of expenditure upon any one school, and I am inclined to name £7 as a sum that would be sufficient and not excessive. After looking through the photographs of the London Autotype Company, I calculate that £5 would suffice to buy and frame from six to ten photographs, suitable in subject and in size. I think it would add greatly to the usefulness of our gifts, if the remaining £2 were spent upon books bearing in some way upon Art: either lives of painters, editions of standard works of literature with illustrations by good artists, or miscellaneous volumes containing stories of old-world myth and legend. But, as it is not to be expected that the majority of the teachers in elementary schools should possess any wide familiarity with works of art, it would be well to consider their needs as much as those of the children in the choice of books, and to give some volumes which, on first thoughts, might seem beyond the intelligence of the schools. Such a book, for instance, as Mrs. Jameson's "Sacred and Legendary Art," would, in my opinion, be a most useful addition to a school library. It gives the sort of information that helps most to interest un-

educated people in pictures—it tells the stories they illustrate; and so, by awakening interest in the subjects of painting, prepares the way for intelligent interest in paintings. I believe that among many causes hindering popular interest in Art at the present day, not the least is the increasing indifference among people of all classes to the ideas and stories which furnished themes to the great masters of painting.

I dare not go into the great question of why these old stories are more beautiful than any new ones, or how the old masters exercise a power at once over our senses and our spirits to which the new masters never quite attain. I can only appeal to those who feel with me that it is so, and ask them to consider whether it is not worth while to try, by some such simple means as I have suggested, to bring the influence of this beauty and this power to bear upon the children of the working-class. I do not propose, however, that we should choose all our pictures from among the works of mediæval painters, or confine ourselves to subjects of a religious character. Side by side with the saints and angels, and holy families of Christian art, we might offer portraits of great men, scenes from history, pictures of animals, landscapes,—representations, in short, of anything noble, beautiful, true, and simple in the life of man or nature. The object is to attach children to pure and noble types of humanity, and to beautiful aspects of nature; and this may be done, in a measure, by any good work of art. But we cannot count on its being done by any picture, however elevated in feeling and excellent in intention, that falls short, through imperfect execution, of being a work of art; and it will therefore be necessary to exclude rigorously all inferior forms of reproduction, even where the original is a great and beautiful picture—and also the best reproductions of originals that are neither great nor beautiful.

I am, sir,

Your obedient servant,

MARY ELIZABETH CHRISTIE.

Kingston House, Kew.

April 4, 1883.

P.S.—Having, by your kind permission, kept back this letter, and circulated it privately in proof, I have been able to obtain many promises of support, and from some friends I have already received subscriptions. Mr. Ruskin assures me of his warm sympathy in the letter I enclose, and I am authorized to publish the following names as expressing general approval of my scheme:—Lord Aberdare, Lady Aberdare, Mr. Matthew Arnold, The Rev. Stopford Brooke, Mr. Oscar Browning, Mr. Sidney Colvin, Mrs. Montague Cookson, Mr. Thomas Hardy, Mr. Frederic Harrison, Mrs. W. D. Hertz, Mr. T. C. Horsfall, Lady Hoskins, Mr. George Howard, M.P., The Rev. Brooke Lambert, Lady Locock, Mr. James Cotter Morison, Dr. J. F. Payne, Mr. W. B. Richmond, Mrs. Richmond Thackeray Ritchie, The Rev. Sir F. L. Robinson, Bart., Mrs. C. P. Scott, The Hon. Mrs. L. A. Tollemache, Dr. Waldstein, Mrs. F. Williams Freeman.

I hope next month to be in a position to ask you to publish a good beginning of a subscription list.

Brantwood, Conistow, Lancashire.

13th April.

DEAR MISS CHRISTIE,—I have read with great interest your letter of intercession for some effective use of Art in children's schools,—said letter being forwarded to me by the kindness of Mrs. Ritchie. I think you can scarcely but be aware, before I say so, how entirely I concur with you in feeling of what is needed in such matters, and how heartily I hope for your success in setting the movement on foot; but I think, before the letter is printed, you might say a word or two—which I feel sure would suggest themselves on your thinking the matter over in that light—of the material there is for such instruction in merely domestic scenes, the peasant life of different countries, if it were all rightly painted. I hope Mr. Herkomer might assist you in obtaining very lovely photographs. I have myself given to our village school chiefly pictures (coloured) of birds and their eggs—but one very pretty water-

colour painting of a wood girl carrying home a faggot, which cost a good deal more than £5!

The St. George's Museum also contains exemplary pieces of water-colour copies from the Old Masters.

Believe me always,
Dear Miss Christie,
Your faithful servant,
JOHN RUSKIN.

FINSBURY TRAINING COLLEGE.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—I am constantly being asked by those who take an interest in the "Finsbury Training College"—and I am glad to say the number of these inquiries—for information as to what we are doing, and how far we have been able to realise our programme up to the present. It has accordingly occurred to me that a plain matter-of-fact account of an actual week's work might prove of interest to some of your readers.

One of the most prominent features of our training is the preparation and criticism of "Notes of Lessons." We write down at the top of our sheet of paper the subject of the lesson, its proposed duration, the age of the pupils, whether the lesson is the first of a series on the subject, or what the pupils may be expected to know, the general aim in giving the lesson, the method of effecting our aim, the main or central point of the lesson. Then the several heads are set down, and the treatment of each is sketched opposite to it. In the case of "object lessons," the apparatus used is given in the form of a list at the end. These "notes" are carefully written out by the students, and minutely discussed with each by me. As soon as they are satisfactorily done, they are given as class-lessons (after the preliminary discussion and correction) in the *practising* class. The present number of students allows me to watch the giving of these lessons throughout—I sit quietly in a corner, and do not interfere—and afterwards I point out privately to the student his faults of delivery, management, proportion of parts, &c. &c. So far, this term, we have written and corrected "notes" on the following:—(1) Object-lesson—*Form*—Generation of plane figures by sections of solids; (2) The construction, meaning, and use of Maps; (3) Barons, Church, and King (Henry I.); (4) Object-lesson—*Material*—Chalk; (5) Literature-lesson on Lowell's "Dandelion"; (6) Forms of Adjectives and Adverbs; (7) First lessons in Simple Proportion and Practice. Our next lesson is on the British Colonies in Asia and Africa—a sketch; and then we come to an Object-lesson on *life*—Sea Anemones and Corals. I need not continue our list. Last term, which was rather a short one, we got through some sixteen or seventeen such "Notes of Lessons." This term we shall probably accomplish twenty-five.

We begin at ten o'clock every day with a *practising* lesson, given, as I have said, wholly or partly in my presence. On Monday a lecture follows on the History of Education—Pestalozzi to be followed by Locke, this term—and then comes correction and discussion of "notes." The afternoon is partly spent in reading for the London Matriculation, and partly in the *practising* class. On Tuesday, after the "practising-lesson" follows a model-lesson given by me to the Sixth Form in the presence of the students, and then "the preparation of notes." In the afternoon, "preparation for Mental Science," and a lecture on Mental Science, take up all the time. On Thursday, there is another model-lesson to the Sixth Form (These "model" lessons to the Sixth Form consist, this term, of a series of lessons on *English Literature*). On Friday I give a "model" lesson to little boys on the same subject as the students have treated in their ordinary *practising* lessons during the week, and a lecture on the *Theory of Education* and *School Management*. The afternoon is again occupied by Mental Science; and the afternoons of Wednesday and Thursday are partly spent in the *practising* class and partly in preparation for London Examinations. All other available hours are spent in the preparation and correction of "Notes of Lessons."

As soon as the number of students increases, and we have a *bonâ fide* Upper Division, we shall add "Physiology and Health," and "Criticism Lessons," i.e., lessons given by the students before an independent outside critic, and discussed by themselves in his presence and under his guidance. These will be in the afternoon, and will occupy some of the time now given to the London Matriculation; but I shall take care that those students (especially in the *Lower Division*) who are working for London Examinations shall still have some time left them, and shall receive all the assistance the College can give.

I have determined to make one group of school-subjects each term the *special* object of our attention in the "Notes of Lessons." Last term it was "English Grammar." This term it is "Object Lessons."

I shall not attempt any remarks on the value of our work. This is what we are doing this term; the public and those who are intending to become schoolmasters must decide whether it is likely to be valuable or not.

I am, Sir,
Finsbury, Your obedient servant,
May 19th, 1883. H. COURTHOPE BOWEN.

THE LONDON SCHOOL-BOARD STORE DEPARTMENT.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—In your short article on the London School Board, in the current number of the *Journal*, you say that you "reproduce one statement that has not been contradicted. In order to distribute £36,000 worth of goods, a cost of 9 per cent. on the amount distributed is incurred in the matter of wages alone." I have not felt myself called upon to contradict every incorrect statement that has appeared in the newspapers; but will you allow me to explain that more than one-third of the wages paid in the Store department have nothing whatever to do with the supply of the goods, and would have to be incurred supposing the distribution of them were done by contract. It would not be right for me to go further into detail, seeing that the School Management Committee are at the present moment inviting tenders with the object of ascertaining whether the business can be done as cheaply by contract as by the existing plan.

I am, yours faithfully,
17 Pembroke Square, J. H. GLADSTONE.
12th May, 1883.

WORDS AND THINGS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—I am glad to see that, in his address of February 16th, Professor Huxley has pointed out a mistake in teaching science—the too great stress which is frequently laid upon the mere acquiring of names and definitions.

I recollect once hearing a school-girl say, "I like Mineralogy; but I don't like Botany,—it's a science only made by man." She was questioned as to the meaning of this singular expression, and it turned out, that in Botany, as yet, she had been taught nothing but definitions. "A leaf-stalk is called a petiole, a flower-stalk is called a peduncle; leaves and flowers with no stalk are termed sessile, &c." She felt that she had learned nothing fresh about the plants themselves; and that Botany was therefore nothing but a series of arbitrary names, or, as she put it, 'a science made by man.'

Too many persons are content to teach science in this way—that is, some sciences. Nobody ever yet prepared to give a Chemistry lecture; without substances and apparatus; nor is any school-book ever written on the subject, but with the assumption that these are at hand, and the author never mentions the name of any substance without also giving its component parts (if it be a compound) and properties. But many a teacher will lecture on Geology without specimens, and a school-book of Geology will sometimes give long lists of palæontological names without any diagrams, or even any full descriptions; so that the pupils, after all, learn nothing but words. Some boys and girls could, if you asked them, name half-a-dozen trilobites of the Carboniferous period, without knowing any difference between one and another. That, some teachers will say, belongs to a more advanced stage of learning; you cannot expect beginners to be able to identify

every fossil they see. But why, then, load their memory with the terms which convey no meaning? It does them little good to know that the mammoth's other name was *Elephas primigenius*, and that it lived in the Pleistocene period, if, at the same time, they picture it in their minds as no larger than a modern elephant; or, as Bulwer most unluckily describes it, with "tusks curving downwards to its knees."

When one of my pupils, ten years old, has defined an extinct volcano as "one that won't work," I feel convinced that he understands the matter more than if he had stammered out, "one that is not subject to eruptions." And when another, still younger, comes back from Weymouth, after a four-days' stay, and tells me he has found 100 fossils,—“lots of shells, and those finger-things that you said were part of a cuttle-fish; and lizards' bones, like those you showed us,”—I do not need to hear the terms, “*lamellibranchiata*,” “*belemnite*,” “*saurian vertebræ*,” to know that he is thoroughly interested in the science.

I do not by any means counsel that children be not taught long names, nor am I an advocate of the German system, where in Greek and Latin scientific terms are replaced, as far as possible, by native ones. There is a certain degree of awkwardness about such words as “*Wasserstoff*,” “*Sauerstoff*,” “*Kohlstoff*,” and they do not thoroughly convey the meaning required. Science has, and should have, its nomenclature. But no scholar should ever be taught a scientific name without being made thoroughly to understand it,—to know not only its meaning and etymology, but also to know *what* it is he is learning about. Most children, in beginning grammar, think that a noun is a *thing*, not the name of a thing; and have to be corrected. It is a still worse mistake when, in studying science, they learn to think only of the name, and not the thing.

K. B.

[Only the other day a child at a London Kindergarten of some repute brought back as the notes of a first lesson in Botany, “The vegetable kingdom is divided into the three classes of Exogens, Endogens, and Acotyledons.—Ed.]

NEWSPAPER LATIN.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—The *feuilleton* is spreading to English newspapers, and while Mr. Payn is running one of his clever novels simultaneously in several country papers, you furnish us with monthly instalments of what the vulgar will reckon as a charming romance, though I do not doubt that, to the initiated, *Florimel* conveys some esoteric and strictly professional meaning. I, Sir, for one, have no quarrel with you, and am grateful for a relaxation after what seems to us dull fools the harsh and crabbed philosophy of the Education Society. But I do wish to run a tilt against a new kind of *feuilleton* that educational journals have introduced. The writers of school class-books have conspired with the publishers to bring them out a chapter at a time in weekly and monthly journals. Next to an article on Middle Class Schools, I find “The Plurals of French Adjectives”; Corporal Punishment suggests “The a Declensions,” and a wood-cut of Charles James Dawson, Esq., is faced by notes on Julius Cæsar. I should like to know for whom these scraps and fragments of knowledge are designed. Who, for instance, reads 78 lines, neither more nor less, of Shakspeare in a month? I cannot see the use of these dribbles even if they are good, and, to judge from a cursory glance, they are generally very bad. I have just received that excellent periodical, *The Practical Teacher* for May. I find “Lessons in Latin by a Cantab. M.A., formerly examiner of schools to Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate.” The lessons consist of exercises *à la Henry's First Latin Book*, and instructions in pronunciation. Of the latter I will give one specimen: “In Latin every vowel is sounded, so that ‘*amare*’ becomes *a-ma-ry* not *a-mayor*.” Of the sentences I will trouble you with five:—(1) *Quam ad oppidum venis ut carmen discas?* (2) *Cras prandium habebis si dictata recitem.* (3) *Sororem non laedam quia patri laborat.* (4) *Puer et puella trans viam currebant ut flores et uvæ carpant.* (5) *Nonne leporem filii cani occides?* I fancy, from the context, that the correct rendering of *cani* is “with a dog,” but giving “M.A.” the benefit of a doubt and translating “of the grey-haired son,” I would ask who are the masters who feed their pupils with such refuse instead of the cheap and wholesome food of Abbott, Gepp, and Dr. Smith?

From the wide circulation of the *Practical Teacher* I calculate that they must be reckoned by thousands. They are, I fear, past praying for, but Heaven help their scholars!—Yours, &c.,

ANTIBARBARUS.

JUNIOR UNIVERSITY EXAMINATIONS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—As, I believe, teachers generally are agreed that it would be a boon to all concerned with or undergoing examinations, to diminish, as far as possible, any undue strain, I venture to suggest (at a time of year like this, when this matter presses upon our attention more even than at others), to our University examiners and all who have influence, whether the time is not ripe for taking some step to make the Junior University Examinations more useful, and efficient to secure such an end.

Would it not be possible to get English Grammar, pure and simple, Outlines of English History, ordinary Political Geography, Arithmetic, including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions, and even fair elementary knowledge of one language—Latin or French—out of the way for pupils, generally, by the age of sixteen?—or that the mere passing of such an examination, at any age, should emancipate them from undergoing others in such rudimentary subjects, upon which they now spend much time to very slight advantage, or even to their disadvantage? Take the London University Matriculation Examinations as an instance. The strain would be greatly reduced, and the mental discipline undergone be more valuable, if these subjects could by such means be eliminated, and some period of English or Foreign History, Literature, or Language, or a special science, substituted. It is the drudgery in the afore-mentioned subjects which makes pupils nervous and weary, and tends to check interest during the time of preparation, and afterwards (a chief bane of examinations) in a higher kind of work.

Again, if these subjects were satisfactorily done by pupils in the Oxford and Cambridge Junior Examinations, they might surely be omitted on going up for the Senior or Higher.

We should endeavour to secure that these subjects should be intelligently taught and learnt, but not allow them to be an incubus, or hindrance, to higher training and advanced work, to which they should be but stepping-stones.

If a well-considered scheme of this kind could be worked out, I feel convinced it would be a relief to all concerned, and do much to silence an outcry, which is not without foundation, against examinations generally.

I am, Sir,

Yours faithfully,

A. CHRYSOGON BEALE.

Belmont House, Leicester.

May 15th, 1883.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL LATIN PRIMER.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—I had thought myself the discoverer of the Appendix in the Latin Public School Primer. I had even written part of a series of exercises, to a considerable extent illustrative of parts of it. A letter in this month's *Journal of Education* tells me that it was discovered three years ago; thus the knowledge of the new discovery has been slow to spread, yet the Appendix *might* have become a very useful part of the Primer. Will it do so now?

Large additions have been made to it—additions incomprehensible to young boys. But let any candid person, putting boys aside, examine what is now called Appendix II.; let him take the first paragraph, for instance, under the heading “The Conjunctive Mood,” and not merely understand it, but explain it to ordinary boys below the age of sixteen, and see by questioning that it is understood, especially the part printed in italics. His task will be hard,—perhaps hopeless.

But, to leave the unknown land of the Appendix, and look at the Syntax. Take rules 107, 125, 126, 130, 132, 137, 140, and almost the whole of 141, 143, 146, 152, and 158. Even if most of these rules can be explained, yet what a waste of time! Are some of the rules ordinary common-sense rules? Are some of them needed? How interesting is 146! Is 152 of use? What does 158, *as it reads*, mean?

But Dr. Kennedy tells us we have mistaken the object of the book. The Primer is no primer, or, at any rate, is not concerned with us,—is a *Public School* Primer; so we at least should be no longer troubled. Let us have, if possible, an authoritative Grammar for Preparatory Schools, written by a man who is simple-minded (not childishly-minded though,—boys hate to be thought children), and accustomed to understand the small boy—the boy below fourteen, at any rate; let him take the good and simple parts of the Primer; let him copy, for instance, the arrangement of the anomalous verbs on pages 64 and 65; let him bring in the good and simple parts of other Latin Grammars, and form a book to be understood of the world of small boys.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

AN USHER IN A PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

P.S.—Our difficulties will not be over, unless there should be found or made a Grammar capable of being used not only in Preparatory Schools, but in all save the higher forms of Public Schools. The Accidence of all Latin Grammars might be much the same, perhaps.

- SANCTA SIMPLICITAS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—I have now been a schoolmaster for 40 years; and I spend an ever-increasing amount of thought and pains on the subject of "Sancta Simplicitas." I quite agree with Miss Beale, that it is a grave mistake to avoid probing a boy's conscience in the case of a suspected lie, or to shrink from any amount of self-sacrifice that may be involved in investigating, judging of, and pronouncing upon such a case. But great caution is sometimes necessary. Sometimes a bold stroke is best, and settles the matter at once, to the great advantage of all concerned. But I must say that there are cases when, even if you are morally sure a boy is telling you a lie, you have no resource but to accept his *positive assurance* that he is not doing so. More harm than good would, I think, arise from any other course. In the case spoken of by Dr. Farrar, I do not see how he could have done otherwise than he did. If he felt sure *one* of the boys was guilty of untruthfulness, how was he to know which it was? Indeed, the narrative goes to show that, had he charged the lie upon *one*, it must have been on the *innocent* one. This would, in my opinion, have been a far more serious matter than the escape of the culprit. The whole matter of lying and deceit is one that calls for great honesty, firmness, and tact on our part; and I think that, in the instance referred to, Dr. Farrar took the most prudent course.

Yours sincerely,

E. R.

- STATE SUPER ANTIQUAS VIAS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—At a time when everything modern seems to be jumped at by those engaged in Education—when "Selections of Poetry" and "Music by Modern Composers" are presented to us daily by enterprising publishers,—I think a note of warning by one of a previous generation may not come amiss.

The following passage is from a private letter, written two or three years back, by one who, though not engaged in Education himself, has always taken a keen interest in all matters connected with school work:—

"I hope you will continue to keep up the 'artistic and high order' of the Music—which I hope means keeping to the older Masters and works that have stood the test of several generations. If I had my way, I should like to send out boys from school familiar with only *old* standard works, whether of Art or Literature, except History and of course Science. They would soon find out what is to their taste in modern styles, and assimilate it; whereas they will probably never, of their own accord, get their heads or their hearts out of the turmoil of mixed good and bad of the Present."

I am, Dear Sir,

Yours truly,

W. W.

May 21, 1883.

OXFORD AND CAMBRIDGE SCHOOLS EXAMINATIONS.—Many readers of our Occasional Notes this month will desire to refresh their memories with the last statistics furnished by the Joint Board. From the ninth annual report for 1882, we learn that 60 boys' schools and 23 girls' schools were examined. The corresponding numbers for 1881 were 57 and 24. The number of candidates for certificates was likewise almost the same as the year before, 734 against 731; the certificates awarded were 385 against 366, and the distinctions 140 against 132. Next to elementary mathematics, which is compulsory, Latin is the most popular subject (645 candidates, 491 passes, 51 distinctions); next, Scripture knowledge (631 candidates, 486 passes, 25 distinctions); next, Greek (618 candidates, 468 passes, 50 distinctions); fourth comes History (497 candidates, 344 passes, 42 distinctions). Additional Mathematics, French, and English follow in order. The numbers of German, of the two branches of science, and of botany and geology are still insignificant. All allowance made for the defects of the University scheme, the figures would seem to show that the science teaching in our public schools is still illusory. From the summary of accounts, it appears that the cost of examination per head amounts to something over six guineas. It is gratifying to see that nearly three-fourths of these fees go to the examiners, the working expenses being moderate.

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THE STUDY OF BEAUTY.*

By T. C. HORSEFALL.

THOUGH it is impossible to give an exact definition of Beauty, it is possible, and for my purpose to-day it seems desirable, to make a few statements of almost unquestionable truth respecting its nature. There is a kind of beauty perceived by the eye which has a close analogy to some of the simpler kinds of beauty perceived by the ear in music. Colours, seen singly, and certain colours seen together, give pleasure to our senses, as certain sounds and combinations of sounds do, partly by giving activity to part of our nervous system which needs activity for health. This is probably also the case with certain forms.

But the pleasure felt in seeing colours and forms, and in hearing sounds, is hardly ever due only to this cause. The effect on our feelings and thoughts of even the simplest thing, and even the first time it is perceived, is probably made somewhat different from what it would otherwise be by recalling the effect, or part of the effect, of something more or less similar; and a second experience of the same thing is complicated by association with the effects of the first experience. Shakespeare's Northumberland tells us that "the tongue of the first bringer of unwelcome news sounds ever after as a sullen bell, remembered knolling a departing friend," and almost every thing we see, almost every sound we hear, in very early life is either a bringer of unwelcome or of welcome news to some part of our nature, or has a close connexion with some bringer of such news; and thus almost everything gains the power of producing on us pleasant or unpleasant impressions, to some of which we give the names of beauty and ugliness.

It is interesting to think of some of the innumerable ways in which associations between things and pleasant sensations must form at the beginning of our lives, partly for our intellect, partly for that part of our nervous system which is affected by outside things, and has a life and memory of its own which affects our intellect profoundly, but of which the intellect seldom takes note. For instance, our whole system feels that warm sunshine is good for it, and in spring, when the cold and darkness of winter are replaced, for a few days at least, by sunshine, we gain new pleasure from it. But in

* A Lecture given to a Manchester audience.

spring innumerable colours and forms, which winter had destroyed, also return, and give our nervous system pleasure by causing healthy activity, and by reviving the memory of past pleasure; and sunshine and bright colours and revived forms being enjoyed together, each of them gains associations for the nervous system and the intellect with the pleasure caused by the others. Associations of innumerable kinds, which have much to do with our finding some things beautiful and others ugly, are formed in countless other traceable and untraceable ways. I shall speak of only one. We find certain lines or colours often in things which we admire or love, or which cause some other strong feeling in us, and when the lines or colours are seen by us in other things, the feeling or thought which they cause is affected by the feeling or thought caused by the things in which we have before seen them. Thus, certain combinations of lines give by association the idea of great immovable strength; others, that of a supple strength applicable to innumerable purposes. Though, as I have said, the pleasure given us by colour or form must almost always be affected by association, and association must almost always involve some activity of intellect, I shall, for the sake of convenience, call the kinds of beauty I have hitherto spoken of, sensuous beauty. Respecting this kind of beauty, it seems to me certain that it owes its charm to its giving to part of our nervous system activity which is conducive to health,—that it is as certain that a thing which we feel to have sensuous beauty gives part of our system that which it requires for health, as that a kind of food which we think of as pleasant to the palate gives us something conducive to health.

There is another very important element in beauty besides the sensuous element. When we feel that a person, or that a thing which we know has some function to perform, is beautiful, that means in the main that the appearance of the person or thing tells us that he or it has the qualities which he or it ought to have. In other words, in these cases beauty, in the main, is an appearance of rightness.

I propose now to consider whether knowledge and love of beauty are of much use to people, and, if we find that they are, whether we Manchester people know enough and care enough for beauty; and, further, if we find that we do not care as much for it as we ought to do, how we can increase our own knowledge and love of it, and how those who do care much for it, can best induce those who do not to try to do so.

There is one aspect of the matter which, as a loyal Manchester man, I must deal with first. Knowledge of beauty, which implies love of beauty, has great pecuniary value. The power of making good designs is of great importance in many of the trades which give employment to so large a part of the population of England—in calico printing, the making of most kinds of textile fabrics, the making of pottery, glass, metal-work, and in many other trades. Makers of designs cannot attain excellence unless they have a strong love of beauty; and a community in which love of beauty is common will, therefore, have great advantages in the competition with others. Look, now, at the influence of knowledge of beauty on happiness. It is obvious that but for the beauty of one extremely beautiful thing, sunshine, we should lose some of the keenest physical pleasure we know, but just imagine what a poor, wretched, motiveless life we should all have if we ceased to feel the charm of beauty in other things; if women and children, if blue sky and clouds, if sea and lake and river, if flowers and leaves and birds, and the other innumerable beautiful things we see, ceased to seem beautiful to us, and we could hope to see nothing of which the appearance could give us a pleasanter sensation than is caused by the appearance of a cotton mill or a row of Manchester houses. Under such conditions we should all soon die of dulness, or seek escape from dulness in the indulgence of physical appetites, which would kill our higher life. For it is certain that pleasant sensation of some kind is necessary for health; that the life of man, which has been likened to "a tale that is told," must, in one sense, be a sensation story; that the deprivation of wholesome pleasant sensation causes a craving which few people can long resist, and that therefore it is our duty to so order our lives,

and, as far as we can, those of other people, that the craving may be prevented by pleasant sensations conducive to physical, mental, and moral health. If this truth were generally known, the well-meaning people, who see with much distress that so many of their fellow-creatures seek pleasant sensations from the excessive use of beer and spirits, and tobacco and opium, and in other injurious ways, would not confine their efforts for the welfare of their fellow-creatures so much as they now do to attempts to close public-houses, but would take a great deal of trouble to train all children, and all other people who have not yet formed bad habits, to form the habit of finding pleasant sensations in other and safer ways. Of these safer kinds of pleasant sensations there is no source so abundant as, and none more wholesome than, that which is opened in Nature and Art to those who acquire a strong love of beauty. Every bank in every country lane, every bush, every tree, the sky by day and by night, every aspect of Nature, is full of beautiful form or colour, or of both, for those whose eyes and hearts and brains have been opened to perceive beauty. Richter has somewhere said that man's greatest defect is that he has such a lot of little defects. With equal truth it may be said that the greatest happiness man can have is to have a great many little happinesses; and therefore a strong love of beauty, which enables almost every square inch of unspoiled country to give us pleasant sensations, is one of the best possessions we can have. Indeed, when one has a very strong love of beauty, pleasant sensations may be gained in places where people in whom the love is less strong would feel only pain. Professor Newton once wrote to me:—

"An artist who knew Flaxman told me that he once walked with him through St. Giles'. The great sculptor was for ever stopping him, and pointing out some group of ragged, squalid children, in which his artistic eye saw the elements of a beautiful composition in terra cotta. His companion, though also an artist, was driven to despair when it became clear to him that he was so inferior to Flaxman in the faculty of seeing. He could see in each group only the squalor and the rags; he had not arrived at that higher stage of cultivation when the eye can separate and abstract the beauty, though so closely associated with dirt and rags."

Is the pleasure which beautiful things give to those who have great susceptibility to beauty, simply pleasant sensation, of which the best that can be said is, that it prevents our seeking noxious pleasure and itself is innocuous; that it does not ruin us in health and waste our means, as the pleasure given by drinking so often does? Far more than this can be truly said of it. It is in great measure through this pleasure that people who have sane minds (observe this condition) acquire knowledge of, and reverence for, the highest qualities of human nature, deep religious feeling, desire for, and insight into, the nature of a noble morality.

I should certainly think that there cannot be any doubt, did I not know that many sensible people feel great doubt, that a strong love of beauty must make those who have it more desirous and more able to live rightly than they would otherwise be,—in other words, that there is a close connection between love of beauty and morality. For, as I have said, what we feel to be beauty is in most things not only qualities of appearance which give pleasure directly to our senses, but is in great measure the appearance of qualities of essence which we know that the thing ought to have,—that is, delight in beauty is to a great extent delight in, approval of, an appearance of *rightness*. If we can learn to feel keen delight in the appearance of rightness in one set of things, is it not certain that we shall be led,—that, at least, we shall be helped, if we have sane and active minds,—to desire an appearance of rightness in all things, and especially in those which have the greatest power to affect our welfare? Where can we draw the line? If we learn to care a great deal for beauty in pictures, and sculpture, and blue china, and textile fabrics, and architecture; if we care very much for the appearance of these things, when it reveals that they possess the qualities which we believe that they ought to have, is it possible for any one but an idiot to stop there? Can we fail to care a thousand

times more that our children shall be beautiful, that our own life shall be beautiful, that the community of which we form a part shall be beautiful? And, as an appearance of rightness can only be given to a thing by its being right, must not a strong love of beauty lead us to take a great deal of trouble to get things right? In the region of those things with which morals are concerned,—and hardly anything which we have anything to do with lies outside that region,—love of, desire for, beauty of appearance, and love of, desire for, moral rightness, are not *two* mutually helpful feelings. They have coalesced and become one. For we cannot exclude the idea of outside, of appearance, from that of inside, of essence, or that of outside from that of inside, and desire rightness in one without desiring it in the other also.

The reason why all sensible people do not see that every one ought to be carefully trained to love beauty is not far to seek. We all have some love of beauty, and owe to it part of our deepest convictions, best feelings, most sustaining hopes; but our love of beauty has chiefly been gained in very early life, and we can as little imagine what much poorer creatures we should be if we had not gained it, as we can how much lower our views of life would be if we had not known the love of parents in infancy, or how much weaker our sense of duty, if we had not been judiciously thrashed in days which we no longer remember.

This subject is one which is of great importance, and ought to be of great interest, to every community, even to a community, if such a one existed, in which the conditions of life were very favourable to the gaining by every one of knowledge of beauty. It is of extreme importance to the educated classes in England, on whom education, and the possession of some leisure and wealth, imposes the duty of endeavouring to establish a mode of life for all classes fitted to maintain them in physical, mental, and moral health. For the conditions under which the majority of the people, even of the middle and higher classes, in England are living, are not favourable to the acquisition of much knowledge and strong love of beauty; and the conditions under which the working classes are living in those large towns, which already contain more than half our population, and seem destined to contain at least five-sixths of it, are more unfavourable to the acquisition of a sense of beauty than, I believe, any conditions which affect elsewhere, or ever have affected, the life of human beings. Here is some evidence as to the ignorance of Nature prevailing amongst children in parts of Manchester. Doubtless ignorance as complete prevails in similar districts in all our large towns. Mr. H. E. Oakeley, Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools, says:

"I have often found, in places like Ancoats and Bradford, that children scarcely know what a flower is, and have seldom, if ever, seen a primrose or a violet. A short time ago, a young lady, daughter of a clergyman, came from the country to a school in Ancoats to give a lesson before me, as a preliminary step towards becoming a certificated mistress. She selected as her subject 'The Bee,' and commenced her lesson by placing a picture of a bee before the class. The children looked blanker and duller as she went on, and, after a few minutes (seeing tears in the poor girl's eyes, who felt she was failing), I interposed, and found, by speaking to the children, that they had never seen a bee, and had no idea what it was like, or where it might be found."

Ignorance of what a bee is like, and where it may be found, may not at first seem to be very serious evils. But remember that ignorance of what a bee is like involves ignorance complete, or almost complete, of all natural objects; of the beauty of grass and flowers and birds and trees; and, in short, of all that natural beauty, recollection of which is, as it were, the back-ground to nearly everything which passes over the stage of our consciousness. And remember, too, that people's minds and feelings will have, must have, thoughts and sensations which must be, in great measure, the result of what their eyes and ears are familiar with; and then, if you will also remember that these children, while they are forming their views of life, their hopes and desires, are quite familiar with the sights and sounds of the lowest parts of our town, the fact of their not knowing what a bee is like will seem to you, as it does to me,

rather a terrible one. The last report of the Head-master of the Manchester School of Art supplies some notable evidence as to the influence of this ignorance of beautiful things, on the aptitude of Manchester workpeople for gaining that skill in design which is so necessary for success in many kinds of manufacture. Mr. Mückley writes:—

"Owing to this neighbourhood always having been so very utilitarian in its character, there appears to me to have been but little chance for the cultivation of an art instinct among the population, and without this faculty at the root, mere teaching cannot produce good results. With the masses, art is neither understood nor cared for, and the chief work of a teacher for a long time to come, I am convinced, should be mostly confined to an endeavour to create an art fibre, so to speak, in those with whom he may come in contact as pupils; the sowing of art seeds carefully and well, so that the next generation may get the benefit of the work; and should he be fortunate enough to see, now and then, a solitary plant spring up in health from his sowing, he must be satisfied, for he will get no more. It has been assumed that designers for ornamental art might be produced in Manchester as in other places. This is assuredly a mistake, as there are no materials by which they may be educated, no sources from which they may derive ideas; in short, no food on which they could feed."

Are the chances in the struggle with manufacturers in other countries so much in our favour that we can afford to let the greater part of the population remain burdened with an ignorance of natural form and colour which must prevent them from ever becoming good designers? Are they so predisposed to strong religious feeling, elevated views of human nature, desire for rightness, that we can safely let them lack any of the influences tending to give these desirable feelings? And are they so averse to degrading, brutalising pleasures of sense that we can, consistently with duty, let them remain ignorant of those pure and elevating pleasures of sense which for most people are necessary as a protection against the temptations of the lower sensual pleasures?

Such ignorance of beauty in nature, and, I hardly need add, in art too, as is common amongst the inhabitants of the poorer parts of large towns, is not found of course in many people of the other classes. We, I repeat,—all of us—are more or less familiar with some beautiful things, and owe to that familiarity, whether we are conscious of the debt or not, much of what happiness and civilisation we possess. But signs that our love of beauty is of the most incomplete and untrained kind are visible everywhere. There is hardly a house in which hangings of bad and discordant colours, furniture of extreme ugliness, "ornaments" of ridiculous shape, are not common. Nine people out of every ten who attempt to arrange flowers show that they do not at all know how to make forms and colours co-operate to give a beautiful effect. All this proves that we do not notice, and therefore do not get pleasure from, a hundredth part of the beauty we see, and that we are incapable of receiving more than a very small part of the pleasure from the beauty we do notice which it could give us.

I must ask the same question respecting our class which I asked respecting the working class. Is goodness, is high thinking, is love of rightness, so common in our class, so easy of attainment for us and our children; are we and they so averse to degrading sensual pleasures and mean thoughts and feelings, that we can afford to lack the largest measure attainable of knowledge and love of beauty?

Only one answer can be given by sensible people to this question, but some persons will probably say that much knowledge and love of beauty can be attained only by persons of exceptional endowment; that the majority cannot possibly acquire great sensitiveness to beauty. Happily, however, this is not the case. That which is true with regard to music is true with regard to beauty of form and colour. Because a great many grown-up people, in spite of great efforts, find it impossible to sing correctly, or even to perceive any pleasantness in music, it used to be commonly supposed that a great many people are born without the power of gaining love of, and skill in, music. Now, it is known that it is a question of early training, that in every thousand children there are very few—not, I believe, on an average, more than two or three—

who cannot gain the power of singing correctly and of enjoying music if they are taught well in childhood, while their nervous system can still easily form habits, and has not yet formed the habit of being insensible to differences of sound.

There is every reason to believe that susceptibility to beauty of form and colour can also be gained through proper training in childhood by almost every one. And though probably there are many grown-up people who, from lack of early training, cannot hope to gain a strong sense of beauty, it is quite certain that every one, however old, who has some sense of it, may greatly increase it, and that those who are hardly conscious of having any, may acquire a strong love of, at least, some kinds of beauty. One of the best-trained lovers of beauty I know, who is now an elderly man, tells me that he finds his perception of beauty stronger every year.

There is an old saying that one ought not to argue about tastes, which implies that liking goes chiefly by mere fancy. The saying is as untrue as many another, old and new. If it were true, training of the eye would not lead different persons to care for the same things. Yet, when people pay much attention to colour, though at first their ideas as to what is beautiful may be very different, their study brings about agreement amongst most of them. Every one who studies colour carefully, feels the beauty of the combinations of colours used by Titian and Veronese in their pictures, and there is almost as complete agreement respecting the colours used in other kinds of art by Mr. Morris. It is safe to take for granted that beauty of colour is a name for a relation between certain colours and healthy, sensitive human nature as unvarying as is the relation between musical sounds and healthy, sensitive ears.

It may be of some use to mention some of the conditions which seem to me necessary for the gaining by a community or an individual of a strong love of the sensuous and the intellectual elements in beauty. The first thing needed is *will* to gain it. Wordsworth, in one of his poems, speaks of the gain which comes to us through "a wise passiveness," and asks:—

"Think you, 'mid all this mighty sum
Of things for ever speaking,
That nothing of itself will come,
But we must still be seeking?"

This question was asked of life by "Esthwaite Lake," not of that in Manchester. In such circumstances as ours there is no such thing as "a wise passiveness." If we are to attain to a high morality or to strong love of beauty, attainment must be the result of strenuous effort, of strong will. Such will cannot be felt in this busy life of ours by many people till the minority who have time for thought effectively teach that without a high morality, without a strong love of beauty, the best happiness attainable here cannot be gained. We must strive to have beauty in everything, small and great, unimportant as well as important, but most of all in important things. A strong rational desire for beauty will find innumerable means for gaining its object. As it is only in childhood that the keenest susceptibility to beauty can be acquired, and one of the kinds of beauty which rational people most long for is that which good training gives to their fellow-creatures, such people will, of course, take great care that their own children shall, while they are very young, see as often as possible, and be led to notice and enjoy as much as possible, beauty in both Nature and Art; and they will also give as much help as they can to the work undertaken in Manchester by the Art Museum Committee, who are placing in schools beautiful hangings, casts of fine sculpture, beautiful pictures of those beautiful natural objects which town children see sometimes, but see so seldom that now they hardly notice them, and who are also placing in the museum beautiful things suitable for every one's use in houses, as well as good pictures and sculpture, and other works of art.

I have also said very little about the study in Art of those kinds of beauty which are peculiar to Art. This I do not much regret to leave undone. For, till strong love of the beauty of Nature is common, power to get much good from those ex-

pressions in good works of art of artists' impressions of natural beauty, which necessarily differ much from attempts to imitate that in the appearance of Nature which is perceived by almost every eye, will not be common; and those who gain a strong love of natural beauty will feel, with little training, some of the charm which good artists give to their expression of that which in natural beauty has most impressed them, or seems to them most expressible. Only of one use of art in the study of beauty will I speak here. In "Fra Lippo Lippi," Mr. Browning says:—

"We're made so that we love
First when we soo them painted, things we have passed
Perhaps a hundred times, nor cared to see;
And so they are better, painted—better to us,
Which is the same thing. Art was given for that—
God uses us to help each other so,
Lending our minds out."

This indicates one of the uses we can make of art in helping ourselves and other people, especially children, to feel the beauty of Nature. Show people the best pictures you can get of beautiful common things; make them notice the beauty of form, all the curves and combinations of lines, and the beauty of colour, and when they next see the thing which the picture represented, they will see in it beauty which, but for the picture, they would not see.

REVIEWS AND MINOR NOTICES.

Rise of Constitutional Government in England. By C. RANSOME, M.A., Professor of Modern Literature and History, Yorkshire College, Leeds. (Rivingtons. 1883.)

The aim of this little book is declared in the Preface. Mr. Ransome desires to present the results of the investigations made by the standard critics on Constitutional History in such a form as may enable busy men to gain a general idea of the subject, and may serve to guide and help those who intend to study it more closely. Writing with this aim, he has wisely refrained from loading his book with a mass of facts, and from bewildering his readers by the introduction of side issues. By keeping clear of these dangers, he has succeeded in compiling a readable little volume, and has given a short and fairly satisfactory account of the principal features in the growth of the English Constitution. No view of the subject can be complete, or indeed intelligible, which does not comprehend the political institutions of our forefathers, in their old homes. In the first chapter, on "The Dawn of the Constitution," the connection between these early phenomena and the organisation of the State after the settlement, is clearly brought out; though the description of our ancestors as only "one of a number of small German tribes," and as "dwelling along the banks of the Elbe," is strangely insufficient; and the explanation of the term *duces* by *herzogen* suggests the idea that they talked High-German. From the struggles of contending states arose at length the predominance of Wessex. The union, under the over-lordship of Egbert, was frail. It needed the pressure of Danish invasion to give it strength. At no period before the Norman Conquest, was the union of England so thoroughly realised, as under the administration of Eadgar and Dunstan. It is true, that their policy of centralization was premature, and that it broke down under an incapable king; but what does Mr. Ransome mean by saying (p. 18) that the struggles of the great Earls in the reign of the Confessor was "the condition of things to which the policy of Eadgar and Dunstan had brought the great kingdom of Edward the Elder"? Does the reign of Cnut count for nothing? The local divisions of Æthelred's reign were, indeed, a sign that Eadgar's work was premature. The personal rivalries of the time of Edward the Confessor arose from other causes. And when did the Confessor "play the pitiful part of a mediator" between these great Earls? From the dis-

organisation which marked the later days of the native kingship, England was saved by the strong government of the Normans. While, however, the Norman king stood at the head of the administrative system, both as lord of the land and as sovereign of the people, he preserved, as Mr. Ransome has duly pointed out, those local institutions which were the seeds of future liberty. To these institutions is rightly referred (p. 65) the rise of the system of parliamentary representation. That this system was not adopted by the framers of the Great Charter, seems to Mr. Ransome "rather curious than otherwise." A little reflection would have shown him that such a change would have been altogether alien to the purpose of the barons; and that the smaller tenants-in-chief were not as yet merged in the great body of freeholders.

Parliamentary history began with the reign of Edward I., for the famous assembly of Earl Simon was, to adopt the rather queer description given of it in this book, "a casual institution." Mr. Ransome describes, in a short and fairly comprehensive sketch, the growth of the power of Parliament, from 1295 to the overthrow of the Lancastrian dynasty. That Parliament had lost much of its power, even before the wars of the Roses broke out (p. 90), seems to be contradicted by the action of the Commons against the Duke of Suffolk, and indeed by the whole tenour of the history of the time. In the anarchy which followed the first battle of St. Albans, constitutional life declined, and seems, after a while, to have collapsed altogether. Perhaps the success of the Yorkist cause was due, in no small degree, to the impatience with which all classes regarded the violence of the time, and felt the losses produced by the suspension of trade. The fall of the power of the nobles led to the establishment of a strong Government. In imitation of the brilliant writer who has so lately been taken from us, Mr. Ransome calls the period of the Yorkist and Tudor sovereigns, the New Monarchy. He has not been fortunate in this gleaning from the "History of the English People." Our constitutional history has no violent interruption such as this term implies. No new monarchy has ever succeeded to the old. The kingship of Henry VII. was no new thing; it was the adaptation of the old system of administration to the wants of the time. By this adaptation a firm government was established, which was just that which England most needed at that particular crisis. At the same time, the forms of political freedom survived amid the despotism of the sixteenth century. Their survival determined, in the next century, the character of the struggle between the King and the Parliament, which is justly described, in Chapter XII., as the reassertion of privileges. In the chapter on this struggle, the constant appeals to precedents made by both sides, the way in which Charles managed to irritate all classes at once, and the conservative character of the great rebellion, are fairly brought out; and considerably more knowledge is shown of the history of this period than appears in the treatment of the earlier part of the subject. The last chapters of the book are marred by the omission of the long and triumphant rule of the Whig aristocracy, and of the constitutional effects of the ministry of Walpole. A strange reticence about the rise and growth of religious liberty is maintained through the work. On the other hand, the history of the Reform of Parliament is pleasantly told, and forms the best chapter in the book.

Along with some evidences of careful work, Mr. Ransome has, unfortunately, shown such utter want of accuracy as to seriously impair the usefulness of his book for educational purposes. We shall refrain from multiplying instances of this failing, because we do not wish to appear wholly to condemn his work. One example will be enough. We are told that, on the death of the Conqueror—

"A council of prelates and barons was summoned, and to them William was proposed. His election was secured by the influence of Lanfranc, and by the support of his father's old friends, the Beaumonts. On his election, William began a practice which was followed by several of his successors—he granted a charter, or rather made a promise to Lanfranc, that he would, in everything, observe justice, fairness, and mercy," &c. (p. 30.)

No assembly, either of prelates or barons, was held to elect William II.; there is no record showing that he ever was elected,—indeed, we may be certain that no form of election took place at all in his case; the only "Beaumont" who can be called an old friend of the Conqueror was Roger of Beaumont, and he certainly did not secure the promotion of Rufus; no opposition was made to the accession of the new king, and the promise made at his coronation cannot be described as the grant of a charter. This amazing concatenation of blunders puzzled us for a few moments, until we saw that Mr. Ransome had jumbled together the accession of William II. and Henry I. He must surely have "crammed" his facts hastily, remembered them imperfectly, and combined them ingeniously.

Lysias—Orations XVI. By E. S. SHUCKBURGH, M.A.
(Macmillan & Co.)

We congratulate Mr. Shuckburgh on having produced an excellent book, full of genuine work, and we heartily recommend his edition of *Lysias* to teachers who are on the look-out for an author "who writes excellent Greek," who "is not hard," and "is not dull," to serve as a bridge between Xenophon and Demosthenes. There is a capital introduction on the life and style of *Lysias*, and on the value of the speeches for the light they throw upon life at Athens. Each section is preceded by a short summary of the argument; the notes are full, and to the point; there are careful appendices upon the "Thirty," the meaning of *ἀτιμία*, and other matters; and copious indices. The latest works upon archæology and scholarship, such as Hicks' "Manual of Inscriptions," and Rutherford's "New Phrynichus," have been laid under contribution. A minor fault—the number of misprints in accents and breathings over and above those corrected in the "Errata"—we hope to see corrected in a future edition.

We have, however, noticed two rather important misapprehensions. In Or. iv. (10), l. 78, ἀποπον ἂν εἴη [ἀφείναι] τὸν δόξαντα κτείνα φάσκοντα ἀνδροφόνον εἶναι ὅτι ὁ δῶκων ὡς ἔκτεινε τὸν φεύγοντα διωμόσατο, the translation runs, "though he pleads that he is a homicide, whereas the prosecutor swore that he 'killed.'" This "whereas" conveys a wrong impression. There appears to be some corruption in the passage, but, as it stands in Mr. Shuckburgh's text, it should be translated, "It would be absurd to acquit one proved guilty of 'slaying,' on the plea that he is a 'homicide,' because the accuser, in his statement, swore that the defendant 'slew'" (instead of using the word "homicide"); and there should certainly be a note on the conjecture δόξαντα (for δείξαντα), and the strange accusative after διωμόσατο (the so-called figure *antiptosis*).

Again, in Or. v. (12), l. 48, foll. (the speech against Eratosthenes), "They determined to arrest ten, and of these two should be poor men, in order to provide themselves with a defence against the other eight, that the measure was not taken for mercenary motives, but for the interests of the State—ὅσπερ τι τῶν ἄλλων εὐλόγως πεποιηκότες." Müller, in the "Oratores Attici," translates *quasi ulla unquam re iuste et honeste egissent*, as though it were ὡς δὴ; our editor renders, "by pointing to the fact that . . .," which would surely be ὡς . . . πεποιηκασιν. Finally, in Mr. Jebb's "Selections" we get the undoubtedly true interpretation, "just as (they might have defended themselves) for any other measure adopted for sufficient reasons," the nominative πεποιηκότες, after ἀπολογία ἢ αὐτοῖς, being the common construction κατὰ σύνεσιν.

We also take leave to differ from Mr. Shuckburgh on his interpretation of καὶ μὲν δὴ, ἀλλὰ μὲν δὴ, where he is at pains to show the antithesis implied in μὲν; thus [iv. (10) 25], "καὶ δὴ introduces a point in the argument, and μὲν points to a suppressed but implied clause." Now, these phrases constantly occur in *Lysias*, the first being with him a favourite formula to introduce a new fact, "and farther"; and in no case can a succeeding antithesis be supplied, even in thought, without violence to the plain sense. The fact is, that the editor is still in the bonds of the old doctrine, formulated by Jelf and others, that, as μὲν is connected with εἰς (*μεῖς*), so its first meaning is "on the one hand." But, if we consider that εἰς never was

μεις (the stem *έν*- being connected with *sin-guli*, *sem-el*, *sim-plex*); that in the oldest Greek—Homer, for example, and Theognis *passim*—*μίν* is not merely a strengthening particle (*ἦ μίν*), but is even adversative (*οὐδέ μίν, ἀλλά μίν*); that in Attic we have the common *μέντοι* standing in answer to a preceding *μίν*, and in Xenophon, even *μὰ τὸν Δία οὐ μίν δή*, in answer to a question—we shall conclude that the formula of Lysias is a survival of the older, simply emphatic, force of *μίν*. He says *καὶ μίν δή*, where another would have said simply *καὶ δή*. In point of fact, Mr. Shuckburgh is not quite consistent in his view, for in xi., l. 184, he says *ἀλλὰ μίν δή* is antithetical to a following *δέ* (where, in our opinion, *πρῶτον μίν* stands in opposition to both *ἔπειτα* and the following *δέ*); but in vii., l. 334, he says (if we understand him aright) that *ἀλλὰ μίν δή* is simply equivalent to *ἀλλά* = *at enim*.

In ii, (7), l. 27, we should have liked a note on the forms of the verbs for *buying* and *selling* in ordinary use, as in vi. (13), § 71, the verbs for *striking*. In a few instances, we miss a note where one is required, as in ii. (7), l. 124, on *ἀλλήλων ταῦτ, ἴσασιν*, "Know such of each other's concerns as," &c.; on l. 202 *δέομαι ὑμῶν . . . ένθυμουμένους*; on the use of the present *αὐτὸς γεωργῶ* = "I have been cultivating it myself," which might have been illustrated from the common French idiom.

But enough of fault-finding. The book has been real pleasure to ourselves to read, and we confidently believe that it will be a boon to teachers and learners alike.

A Short Constitutional History of England. By H. S. C. FEILDEN, B.A. (Oxford: Blackwell. 1882.)

A small book on a great subject may be a good book. If, however, it is to be good, it must be written by one who knows the subject well, and could treat it satisfactorily at much greater length. It is, at least, as needful that such a book should be the production of a scholar, as it would be if it were ten times the size. Unfortunately, this Short Constitutional History does not impress us with the idea that the writer is familiar with his subject. He has crowded a large number of facts into a small space, and that is all. No sign appears of his being able to grasp what his facts teach. He has made a "cram" book; and he has unfortunately packed it so densely, and so rigidly shut out from it all aids to digestion, that probably no one will be able to profit by it. The writer seems, from the Preface, to have "coached" men for the Modern History Honours School at Oxford. It is easy to imagine the delight of the undergraduate, too weak or too lazy to attack the standard works in his subject, when he believes that he has found his Stubbs, his Hallam, and his May reduced for him to about 300 pages. It is easy but painful to imagine his dismay when, on sitting down to his Constitutional History papers, he finds how little of those pages he can remember, and is painfully conscious that, as to what he believes he can remember, he is in a hopeless muddle. Mr. Feilden has analyzed three or four of the best English works on Constitutional History, and has arranged the results, which he calls his "notes," in ten chapters. He has done his work with some care, but with little intelligence or power. By far the greater part of the book is taken up with facts picked out of the "Constitutional History" and the "Select Charters" of Dr. Stubbs. When he passes beyond the limit reached by these works, his information seems scanty. It would have been well if, even within that limit, he had never strayed from Dr. Stubbs to authors who are less trustworthy on constitutional matters. Then we believe that we should not have had again to meet our shadowy acquaintance the villain in gross (p. 223), in whom the law books express so firm a belief. As to the history of modern times, Mr. Feilden's knowledge seems uncertain. He has no sure guide. For example, it is a strange opinion that the King's policy made the coalition of Fox and North necessary (p. 144). On the death of Lord Rockingham, it was open to Fox to continue in the administration of Lord Shelburne, who, by the way, was not "the King's Minister" in the sense in which Mr. Feilden seems to use the term, for he was a Whig, and the King seems to have disliked him. Or Fox might have

formed a separate party. What he did was to take by far the worst course possible. Again, in the next pages, Mr. Feilden says, "In 1806 the Whigs under Fox formed a coalition with Lord Sidmouth, Lord Grenville, and the King's party." The statement is true, but at the same time it certainly conveys a wholly wrong idea as to Lord Grenville's politics and position. Like many a half-informed writer, Mr. Feilden evidently thinks that a statement is worth nothing unless it is decisive. He does not hesitate to declare his knowledge on matters about which wiser men are content to be in doubt. And so (p. 126) he says, "The House of Lords is a Court of Record, which the Lower House is not." If he had consulted Sir Erskine May's "Parliamentary Practice" he would, we believe, have found that as regards the House of Commons he was speaking far too decidedly, and would have been reminded of the fervent wish of Sir E. Coke (1621) that "his tongue may cleave to the roof of his mouth that saith that this House is no Court of Record." We wish no evil to Mr. Feilden's tongue, for it has not offended us; but we may say that, if his ink had dried in his pen before he wrote this book, neither teachers nor learners of Constitutional History would have suffered loss.

Etyma Graeca. By E. R. WHARTON, M.A. (Rivingtons. 1882.)

This little book, unpretentious in outward form, is within such a monument of patient industry that we feel it scarcely possible to do justice to it upon a short acquaintance. Like the poems of the Greeks, "nocturna versanda manu, versanda diurna," it can be only after long and careful study of the method pursued by our author, that we are justified in pronouncing decisively upon the value of his results. The book is no less than an abstract of all that has been written hitherto upon Greek etymology: the labours of Fick and Schmidt and Curtius, and the other great masters of Greek philological lore, not to mention the authorities in Latin, Celtic, and the Teutonic languages, are "boiled down," as it were, into the shape of a convenient hand-book. We propose, therefore, to indicate briefly the form and contents of the book, to examine how far its method is, *à priori*, likely to be productive of satisfactory results, and then to illustrate by working out a few examples from each part of the book.

It consists of two parts. In Part I. are arranged alphabetically all Greek words (amounting to 5,000) which are neither derivatives nor compounds; after these words are placed, first the meaning, then related words in the same or kindred tongues, and, finally, numerical references to Part II., by the help of which the connection can be traced according to definite principles. In Part II., words are arranged according to the etymological processes involved in them, without discussion, and tabulated, with lists of the words illustrating each separate change placed alphabetically under each head. Thus, under § 1, we have all instances of *πρόσθεσις* collected and arranged; under § 24, all instances of metathesis; and so on. Finally, in Appendices we have complete lists of onomatopœtic words and loan-words.

The first and abiding impression is one of admiration for the ingenuity of the plan. The book is much more than a book of derivations; it cannot but serve the cause of Greek etymology. For, since every assumed change is only to be accepted upon sufficient evidence—that is, in default of direct historical evidence, upon the number of analogous changes which can be brought together to support the view—it is plain that the labour of the inquirer is infinitely lightened by having before him a conspectus of the analogies adduced in favour, not of one change, but of all. The next impression is, that this short and simple method will lend itself to dogmatism. As if to guard himself against this view, the author admits in his preface that "many of those (derivations) given must be regarded as suggestions rather than as certainties." But he supplies the young student with no test to distinguish true from false. It is undoubtedly a feature in the book, necessary from the plan adopted, that *all the principles are presented as standing upon the same plane of authority*. Thus, in any given list of vocalic or consonantal changes, will be found all com-

monly recognised instances, and all doubtful instances as well, with no mark of distinction. We shall also show that principles have been admitted as true which are not accepted by all philologists; but this was almost necessary to Mr. Wharton, in order to give his book an air of completeness, and leave a few blanks as possible. In tracking out cognate words according to his method, we have perpetually in our mind the warning of Epicharmos, so wisely insisted upon by Curtius—*νάφε καὶ μέμνασ' ἀπιστεῖν*. The mistake, if it be a mistake, lies in the form of the book, and of course many may consider that its handiness compensates for disadvantages arising from over-compression. But, that our criticism is justified, we hope to show in what follows.

We open the book at random, and take a word. We find “*λαυηρός* swift, ἀρπάζω, 25, 17, 24.” Under § 25 (Part II.), we find “Labdacism: change of *ρ* to *λ*,” which will give us *ράψηρός*. Section 17 asserts, that the diphthong *αι* is due to the loss of a nasal before another consonant; we thus get the nasalised *ραν-* from *ραν*, seen in Latin *rap-ia*; finally, instances of the metathesis in *ἀρη-αζω* are collected in § 24. So far, all is fairly probable, though not one of the instances of initial interchange of *ρ* and *λ* is certain or convincing, or is given as otherwise than doubtful by Curtius. We continue the hunt, and look out ἀρπάζω, where we find “ἀρπάζω seize . . Lat. *rapio*, λύπη,” and under λύπη we have “pain: Lat. *rumpo*. . Eng. *bereave* . . Sk. *lup* break, ἀρπάζω.” The inference plainly is that *ραν* = *ραν*, and we find ourselves on the threshold of a formidable controversy as to the extent of vowel-degradation (*ablaut*) which may be assumed in the history of a root, without a word of explanation. In the same way κτάομαι and κρίζω are connected by means of *κρα*, the “radical open vowel” of which, according to § 12, “becomes close.” The very few instances adduced in support of this view make us regard it with suspicion. The brevity aimed at by the author precludes his giving more than one interpretation, and an appearance of finality is attained which is really false. Thus in πτόλις, which Curtius (following Kuhn) explains from πτόλις [compare, in the case of a guttural-sonant, the Dorset labourer’s “gharden-plot”] by assimilation, Mr. Wharton brings in the *analogy* of σπ=πτ by loss of *σ*, which seems far less probable. He further quotes *πτέρων*, and connects it with *σπαίρω* “shake,” and takes no notice of the much more reasonable ascription of *πτέρων* to *πτέρ* by metathesis (see, besides Curtius s. v., Schleicher Comp. § 92 on or. suffix *-ra-*). Again, we find *ήκω* connected with *άκως*, on the theory of false aspiration, where Curtius assumes *έ*=Skt. *śā*, and compares dialectical presents with perfect stems, such as *δεδοίκα*, and the modern Greek *στήκω*, *γρηγορώ*. In turning out the references for this word, we observe, under the head of “vocalic change,” *ω=η*, *ο=ε*, *αι=ει*, &c., without a hint on the subject of vowel-intensification. Often etymologies are suggested, without any clue as to the connexion of thought, as though the author were carried away by the mere form; thus *οίκτος* (through *οίγτος*): *έπ.ειγ.ω*, looks very tempting, especially since the form *έποίγω* is also quoted; but, on considering the meaning, it seems to us that forms like *δυσ.οίζω* and *διμάζω* favour the traditional onomatopoeic derivation from *οί*. Mr. Wharton rejects the connexion of *δήν* with *diu* and *diem*, through *δFην* or *δFάν* for *διFάν*; but by what process of thought he unites *δήν*, “long,” with *δένομαι*, “want,” *δύω* “enter,” *δίεμαι* “hasten,” we fail altogether to fathom. It may be said that the fundamental meaning is “go,” and that if you “go from” a thing, you are without it, and therefore “want” it; but this is merely playing with words. And who shall bridge the gulf between *μέροψ* “bee-eater,” *μέροπες* “men,” and *μάρπω* “greedy”?—or between *μάρπω* “seize,” and *μαλακός* “soft,” in spite of the Latin *mulceo*? Certainly, many of the suggestions are remarkably ingenious. Thus, *τενθίς* “cuttle-fish,” on the principle of nasal reduplication (as in *παμφάινω*, *δενδίλλω*) with loss of the nasal and compensation, is connected with *θνώ*, just as *ποιπνύω* is connected with *πνέω*. Again, *σπαρίλη* and *σκάρ*, gen. *σκατός* (for *σκαρός*), are brought together on the analogy of *ύδωρ* and *ύδατος* (for *ύδαρος*). But when *κρίνω* [under which might have been quoted the dialectical *hriddle* = “sieve”] is also brought

into comparison, we demur. Curtius pronounces *έναντός* an unsolved riddle; our author boldly compounds thus: *ένιο-φετος* = *ένιο-ντος* = *έναντός*; omitting to say what sense *ένιος* (“other” or “there”) bears in such a connexion, and overlooking the words *δί-ετος* *τρί-ετος* (*biennis triennis*) which point to a different etymology. As might be expected, *πρόσθεσις* plays an important part throughout, and *ά-κούω* is unhesitatingly connected with *κούω*, *θνο-σκύος*, and *άλόπηξ* with *νολρες*; while under *έκαστος* we find,—“*ά-* [that is, a copulative, **σεμ-*] = *έ-* on the analogy of *έν*, + *κού*,” an analogy rendered doubly improbable by the fact that in *inserr. έκαστος* is found with the digamma, so that *έ* seems to connect itself with *έ=σφε* = Latin *se*.

Almost involuntarily, in reviewing a book of this kind, one singles out for comment that from which one dissents. It would, however, be most unjust to Mr. Wharton not to admit that, in by far the greater number of cases, his etymologies are thoroughly sound, and even those which seem doubtful are based upon fairly tenable grounds. We have already expressed our opinion of the great value of the lists in Part II. Given a certain amount of previous training, and a wisely sceptical attitude, his book may be used with great profit. It is certainly fascinating to the philologist. One comment, however, we are bound to make. We disagree *in toto* from the etymology, on the principle of false division of words, suggested for *αία* (*παριδα* *quasi* *παριδα γ' αϊαν*), for *έιβω* (*δάκρυα* *λείβων* = *δάκρυον* *έιβων*), for *ηγατέος* (for *ήγατέος*), which have been suggested by Mr. Sayce on the analogy of the popular, but to our thinking impossible, derivation of *νήδυμος*. It is idle to adduce analogies like “newt,” and “nugget,” where the corruption springs from the use of an indefinite article almost necessarily employed before the word, while there is an obvious reason why *καλόν* should not have been used perpetually before *ήγατέον*—it would not scan. And for the much-discussed *νήδυμος*, we venture to suggest that as *νή-γρε-τος* is formed from the root of *έγειρω*, so is *νη-δυ-μος* from that of *δύη*, *δδύνη*, and so “painless.” It seems to us, in the same way, that *νη-ε-μος* from *αν* should be so divided, and not *νη-(α)νε-μος* as if compounded with *άνεμος*.

Into the region of loan-words we cannot follow Mr. Wharton through lack of knowledge. We confess that we should like to see this section independently worked out, and a statement of the reasons why this word is classed as *Cyzicene*, that as *Mariandynian*, and on what principle *άνηθον* *διθύραμβος* *ίζαλος* *οϊσπη* *σανίς*, and a good many others, are put down as foreign. We should have thought that words for “greasy wool” and “plank,” were necessary to the Hellenes at a very early stage of their existence, nor do the words sound un-Greek to our uncritical ears.

We feel that the book has been imperfectly reviewed, because, from the limit of time, it has been but partially studied. We intend to pursue the study, and recommend it to all our readers with a liking for philology.

The Functional Elements of an English Sentence. By W. G. Wrightson. (Macmillan & Co. 1883.)

Mr. Wrightson explains in his Preface the objects and methods of his interesting little book. English Grammar may be made the foundation for the study of kindred languages if it be taught on the right method. That method is the analysis of sentences, which ought to “lay bare the elements of spoken thought.” But analysis will succeed in doing this only if pursued with a recognition of English as it was, no less than of English as it is; or, in other words, of its historical development.

With all this English scholars must heartily sympathize. Systematic Grammar is grammar proper, but the only way to keep it from being arbitrary is to make it historical and comparative. Perhaps in his introduction Mr. Wrightson wanders rather far afield, and his references to Aryan forms suggest the story of the arithmetician who would not write on Numeration till he had learned Arabic. But, on the whole, his fault is rather in not being historical enough than in being too historical. We fear, despite his Anglo-Saxon quotations, he regards English

too much as a propaedeutic for the classical languages, and not enough as an independent Teutonic growth, far nearer German than Latin in its structure, but separated widely even from German by its uninflected character. And this leads him into a double series of very doubtful assertions.

In the first place, he makes a good many actual errors when he deals with historical English. *Get thee gone* (p. 95) shows a discarded reflexive, not an ethical dative. *At* before the infinitive (p. 106) had never any special locative force, but was merely a peculiarity of the northern dialect. It is true (p. 18) that some strong verbs in Anglo-Saxon have twelve inflections, but weak verbs have only eleven, and from the weak verb that Mr. Wrightson instances he omits the present subjunctive plural; moreover, in modern English some strong verbs (e.g., *take*) have seven, not five inflections, and most have six. The statement (p. 104), which also occurs in Bain's Grammar, that only adverbs of quantity and degree or their equivalents can qualify adjectives, is incorrect, e.g., *a man naturally benevolent*. Mr. Wrightson's theory (p. 143) of the origin of *than* as a comparative conjunction is quite wrong: the oldest relatives in English were of demonstrative origin, and *sonne*, *than*, though it sometimes meant *then*, could also mean *when*; cf. the Latin *quum* and *quam*. We know no authorities for his conjecture that *shall* and *will* as auxiliaries were first used in the conditional mood.

In the second place, he gives explanations which would be the natural ones in an inflected language, but which for English are far-fetched. Thus, no English grammarian would consider *then* and *every-day* as adverbials, or as anything but adjectives in the phrases, *the then king*, *every-day events* (p. 57): they are exact equivalents of the German, *der damalige König*, *alltägliche Ereignisse*, minus the primary and secondary suffixes. Again, in such expressions as *I am surprised that you are here* (p. 59), the dependent sentence is in no way a cognate accusative, but an adverbial clause. The elliptical use of *that*, with the sense *because* or *in that*, is not uncommon. Dr. Abbott quotes from Richard II.:

"Like silly beggars

Who, sitting in the stocks, refuge their shame

That (because) many have and others must sit there."

Or, again, such anomalous passives as *he was offered the post*, *dancing was taught him*, illustrate nothing but the fact, that English makes no distinction in form between the dative and the accusative; hence verbs of *teaching* are often conjugated like verbs of *giving*, and verbs of *giving* like verbs of *teaching*. It seems necessary to mention such points, to show that, when we welcome this book, we do so with full knowledge of certain obvious weaknesses. These are certainly outbalanced by its merits, and it is more likely to help on what we may be allowed to call the very difficult study of Analysis, than many of the commonplace handbooks that avoid all risk of accident merely by sticking in the mud. There is much to be learned from it, for Mr. Wrightson, if not always correct, is often suggestive. His account of the cognate accusative is highly interesting, and in English Grammar, at any rate, quite new. His treatment of the conditional sentence (page 138) could not be better. His recognition of defective and anomalous structures is worthy of all praise; and his system of marks, if over-elaborate as a whole, may be profitably adopted in part. Altogether, we fear the circulation will be within, and not beyond, the merits of the book.

Three Lectures on Education. Read at Newton Hall, November, 1882. By F. G. FLEAY. (Reeves & Turner. 1883.)

Any Essays on Education, by one of Mr. Fleay's high University distinction and wide practical experience, must naturally attract the attention and excite the interest of the more thoughtful of English teachers; and this particular set of three lectures, delivered to the Positivists, and heralded by a preface written by Mr. Frederic Harrison, will not, we think, prove an exception. And yet, on the whole, we cannot help saying that, after having read them, we are left with a feeling of disappointment. We would willingly have given up Mr.

Fleay's elaborate scheme of scientific education for a clear and forcible exposition of Comte's own views on the theory and art of Education, illustrated by apt and telling quotations. And this feeling comes upon us with especial strength when we find Mr. Harrison saying that "Positivism itself, at least for the present, is in effect a scheme of general education." We do not mean to say that Mr. Fleay tells us nothing about Comte's views; but that he tells us too little, and, in the second and third lectures, mixes up his own views and Comte's in such a way as must considerably puzzle an ordinary reader.

In the first lecture, which seems to us the one fullest of interest, we have one good specimen at least of what we had hoped Mr. Fleay was going to give us. We will quote the passage in full:—

"Comte tells us that Education must be real, useful, certain, precise, organic, relative. It must be real: it must not deal with fancies and imaginations; no hypotheses of providential government of the universe, of social contract, of vital spirits, of chemical affinities, of electric fluids, and the like, must enter into it; it deals with methods and laws, not with metaphysical abstractions or theological entities. It must be useful: it must tend to the development of the intellect, only as the servant of the heart; with science only as leading to action; mere antiquarianism, dilettanteism, study of detail, not useful for explanation of general law or application to life, must be excluded. No grammatical pedantries, or quasi-historical minutiae, no scholastic trifling of any kind, can be allowed. It must be certain: mere conjecture, historical, philosophic, or theological, must be altogether relegated to the sphere of specialism; we have enough to occupy our short lives without that. It must be precise: that is, scientific. . . . It must be organic: it must be definitely arranged on a truly philosophic scheme, in which each portion shall occupy a well-defined space in proportion to its importance. It must be relative: never introducing anything on the principle, which was once so popular, of knowledge for its own sake, but always for the sake of being able to foresee, and therefore to act prudently and well; knowledge not being the end, but the way to the end, viz., how to live for others, how to aid in the orderly progress of humanity."

We so heartily agree with such statements that we naturally want to hear more on the subject. But we hear very little more, definitely or connectedly, though a good deal is to be picked out here and there from where it lies in parenthesis. What we do hear a good deal about is the lists and order of the sciences, into the very elaborate and somewhat puzzling discussions of which we cannot pretend to enter in so short a notice. Indeed, it would take a pamphlet as long as Mr. Fleay's own to discuss his and Comte's views adequately. The general impression left upon our minds is, that either Education from 14 to 21 must be made wholly scientific, or that at least one-third of the work proposed must be left out. In the fifteenth century the renaissance of Latin and Greek filled men's minds and warped their views on the subject of Education. It seems as if the nascent Science in the nineteenth bids fair to effect just as one-sided a piece of work in a different direction. In the consideration of the period from 7 to 14, however, the balance is far more evenly held, and Mr. Fleay gives us a good synopsis of the views which last year he expounded so fully to the *Education Society*, and which were published in this journal. On the whole, teachers as well as Positivists have a good deal to be grateful for to Mr. Fleay in putting forth these lectures on Education.

Stray Papers on Education, and Scenes from School Life.

By B. H. (Kegan, Paul, Trench, & Co. 1883).

These essays, by a lady, gather up the experiences of a long life of teaching, and are well worth the attention of teachers, and especially of mothers and governesses. They deal mostly with the moral side of education; and the chapters on Kindness, on Obstinacy, and on Truth are full of ripe wisdom, and, though written in the simplest language, evince a profound knowledge of child nature. Of intellectual training, comparatively little is said; and to several of the writer's *obiter dicta*, we are disposed to take exception. Thus, we read that "the safest course is to let a child's understanding alone," whereas "the exercise of memory is purely mechanical, and may be freely used." The distinction between intelligent and

unintelligent memory seems wholly ignored. Again, "It is not wise to encourage children in asking questions to a great extent, nor to credit them with a laudable desire for information." This seems to us rank heresy. But when the author treats on moral questions, she treads on firm ground; and we rarely find ourselves inclined to dispute her judgments. One point we may notice, as it has given rise to a friendly debate in these columns. "B. H." holds with Canon Farrar that a child's word should be accepted implicitly. Even if our trust has been betrayed, even to "seventy times seven," we must forgive, and trust as if we had never been deceived. This is, doubtless, preferable to the opposite extreme of sending a child to Coventry as a punishment for a single deceit; but it seems to us none the less an error. The natural punishment of falseness is the withdrawal of trust, and to affect to believe an inveterate liar is neither a Christian doctrine nor common sense.

Thirteen Satires of Juvenal. Translated into English by H. A. STRONG and ALEXANDER LEEPER. (Macmillan & Co. 1882.)

This translation of Juvenal by two professors in the University of Melbourne is a decided advance on previous prose translations. The latest of these, by Mr. Lewis, has, in our judgment, been greatly overrated. It is fairly accurate, though the finer points of scholarship are often missed, but it rarely rises above schoolboys' English, and is deformed by schoolboy blunders, such as "*Catalina*," and "*fierce*" for *ferox*. Messrs. Strong and Leeper are better scholars, and, though not always successful, there is an attempt at style. A contemporary, in reviewing the book, maintained that Juvenal was an easy author to render, and that after Lewis there was no room for a fresh translation. We hold that Juvenal is full of difficulties for the translator, and that even Messrs. Strong and Leeper have not said the last word. To make good our opinion, we need not go beyond the first Satire. In l. 5, *plena jam margine libri*, is translated "who has filled the border at the end of the roll;" read, "for the border is already crammed." Line 12, *convulsa marmora*, not "ruptured," but simply "split." Line 23, *nuda teneat venabula mamma*, "bares her breasts and handles the lance," is a strange confusion of numbers. Maevia, like an Amazon, bares her right breast and handles the two lances. Line 61, "handling the reins himself, and showing off to his Bloomer mistress." We greatly prefer to put a full stop at Automedon, and translate, "For he held the reins himself, while he paraded his skill to his love in jackets." Line 79 is a good instance of the difficulty of translating Juvenal—"Even if Nature says no, indignation makes verse." What can be tamer? We would suggest, "If mother-wit stints me, passion prompts the line;" or "Even the proudest wight is goaded into verse." Line 86, *discurus* "fuss." The word is fairly right in sense, but it jars here. Read "their goings and comings." Line 92, *sestertia centum*, is of course 100,000 sesterces, not "a hundred." In line 109, *omne in praecepiti vitium stetit*, "all evil has attained its zenith," misses the metaphor, "is toppling to its ruin." Of the greatest difficulty which confronts the translator of Juvenal, we have said nothing. Modern ears will not tolerate Juvenal's *simplicitas priorum*, his primitive plain-spokenness. The present translators have not attempted the sixth and ninth Satires, yet the sixth is unequalled in fire and vigour, and in almost every Satire there are lines as brutally coarse. In these cases a paraphrase is the only resort, and it would be unreasonable to quarrel with Messrs. Strong and Leeper for paraphrasing freely. But we do complain that they have often watered down the original without any such necessity. Two instances will suffice. Juvenal writes, "Where Numa kept his nightly assignations with his leman," not "where Numa kept nightly tryst with his goddess-mistress." Juvenal writes, "This only unmarried women that this adulterer leaves alone," not "an adulterer who confines his attentions to married women."

Cicero Pro P. Cornelio Sulla. Edited for Schools and Colleges. By J. S. REID, M.L. (Deighton, Bell, & Co. 1882.)

In this edition, Mr. Reid introduces us to a speech of Cicero

which has hitherto not been widely read in England. It was delivered the year after his Consulship (62 B.C.), in defence of P. Cornelius Sulla, who was accused of participation in the treasonable designs of Catilina, and may thus fairly claim attention as an illustration of an important period of Cicero's life, though it can scarcely be called one of the orator's happiest efforts, and we doubt whether its intrinsic interest is sufficient to gain for it a wide popularity.

The present edition is preceded by an elaborate and carefully written (if somewhat dull) introduction, containing so much of the political history as is necessary for the understanding of the text. In the analysis of the speech itself (pp. 28—33), we think Mr. Reid has made a mistake in following the divisions and terms employed by the Roman teachers of rhetoric, which are likely to confuse instead of assisting the reader. A shorter and less technically worded analysis would have been more intelligible.

The notes are sound, and give adequate explanation of all difficulties; indeed, they might, perhaps, have been made somewhat shorter with advantage. Eighty-seven pages of commentary (small print) upon thirty-five of text may seem rather a disproportionate allowance. As an instance of superfluous annotation, we may refer to p. 84, where, upon the text that the words, "*deinde id quod vidimus omnes*," form the end of a hexameter, Mr. Reid has an elaborate note.

Two appendices are added, one devoted to critical remarks on the text, the other to the orthography. As regards the first, we must enter a protest against the liberty Mr. Reid has taken in constantly making emendations against MSS. authority, frequently on the very slightest grounds. "*Victi*" for "*victi*" (p. 35), "*concuratione*" for "*concuru*," "*mediocriter*" for "*mediocri*" (p. 40), "*adstatis*" for "*adestis*" (p. 46), are four instances out of a much larger number; and these readings, it should be noticed, are not offered as suggestions, but embodied in the printed text, without any distinguishing mark. Conjectural emendations are, at best, to be accepted with suspicion, even when due to editors who have made a study of manuscript reading (Mr. Reid, if we understand him rightly, does not profess acquaintance at first hand with more than one MS., and that a late one of the fifteenth century); and we cannot think it permissible for any editor to improve upon his author by substituting on his own authority what, in his judgment, Cicero ought to have written.

A First Greek Writer. By A. SIDGWICK. Third Edition, revised. (Rivingtons. 1883.)

That we should not have noticed this admirable little book till it had reached a third edition, we would rather set down to the rapidity of the sale than to our own dilatoriness. The plan of giving all the exercises in a narrative form, instead of disconnected sentences, which Mr. Sidgwick introduced with such success in his "*Greek Prose Composition*," has been followed in this elementary volume; and the difficulty of weaving a connected period in the earlier exercises has been happily overcome by giving in brackets the part required. This is the natural method, and, as Mr. Sidgwick says in his preface, the plan of familiarising the learner with certain common forms of the verb, before he comes to learn them, is not only unobjectionable, but advantageous. The stories of Scholastics, the Weavers, the Cat's Pilgrimage, &c., are charmingly told; and, though written to be turned directly into Greek, the English idiom is never violated. We have only one criticism to offer. We hold that, for beginners, the distinction of tenses is not marked with sufficient clearness. Against the Revisers, Mr. Arnold doubtless scores a point when he observes that the Greek aorist was made for man, and not man for the aorist; but, for beginners, it seems to us dangerous to translate, without comment, as Mr. Sidgwick does, *ὑπηρετοῦμεν αὐτῷ*, "we served him"; *ἠφέλιμον εὐρομεν*, "we have found it useful"; *οὐδὲν ἐμὲ ἤδικει*, "he inflicted no injury on me." *Relative attracted*, § 27, should precede § 25, and, on p. 163, *δὲν* is a misprint for *ἔν*.

Ovid's Epistles from Pontus. Book I. Edited, with notes, by A. C. MAYBURY, D.Sc., M.R.C.S., F.G.S., &c. (London: Baillière, Tindall, & Co.)

Candidates for the Matriculation Examination of the University of London are a hardly-used body of persons. To the injuries of examiners must be added the insults of editors. With what joy must

many a "private study" candidate, who was looking forward to the horrors of journeying either alone, or accompanied only by the faithful "Bohn," through the *terra incognita* of "Ovid's Epistles from Pontus," have hailed the appearance of an edition by a Doctor of Science of the University! And what must have been his chagrin to find that, asking for bread, he had received a stone from the scientific editor. The Doctor has filled his pages with long extracts from Smith's Dictionaries; has carefully abstained from attacking the difficult passages—not a few—in the book; and has thrown in a handful of general grammatical notes, often misleading, sometimes quite appalling in their obstructiveness. What is to be said of an editor who, while dilating with scientific elaboration upon the distinction between the *teredo* and the *tinca*, "explains" *Unde tamen vivat vaticinator habet* (i., 42), by the note, "*Vivat* is governed by *ut* understood?" and who offers to assist the student over *duri oris* (i., 80) with the suggestion that it "*= verecundii oris*" (sic! Does Dr. Maybury mean *inverecundi oris*?) It may be too late to prevent students from buying this book; but it may still be worth while to warn them not to trust to the broken reed of Dr. Mayhury's scholarship.

A Synthetic French Grammar for Schools. By G. E. FASNACHT. (Macmillan & Co. 1883.)

The subject of French Grammar for Englishmen may, in one sense, be said to have been exhausted. The actual facts of grammar, from the comparative point of view, have all been treated in the best handbooks. But, as methods of teaching in all departments change for the better, there is still ample scope left to improve upon the existing grammars in the manner of treatment. On this head, chiefly, we are able to pronounce a favourable judgment on Mr. Fasnacht's new grammar. He has handled the well-worn subject in a manner which, by its thoroughness and originality, fully makes up for the triteness of the matter. Accidence and elementary Syntax are here combined, from the very first chapter, so as to make the pupil learn the examples to the rules in a way that shall leave no doubt in his mind as to their proper application in the language itself. Yet the paradigms of Accidence, which some time or other must be learnt separately to ensure a correct knowledge of inflection and conjugation, have been printed so as to stand out distinctly from the context. This mode of presenting Accidence and Syntax together, the author has indicated in the title by the word Synthetic. We cannot but take objection to the strained sense in which this word has here been applied, as well to its inapplicability as an epithet to grammar. Five chapters on Pronunciation and the irregularities in the Plural and Genders of Nouns and Adjectives, which could not possibly be made to fit in the plan aforesaid without losing their practical use, have been added to the First Part of the book in the shape of Appendices. All these chapters are very complete, and the first on Pronunciation is as good, if not better, than that in any grammar we are acquainted with. The division of the French *i* into *short* and *long* is somewhat arbitrary, since it is not a matter of quality of sound as in the other vowels, but only of quantity regulated mostly by accidental accent or following vowels. Furthermore, it is misleading to English students, who may be apt to mistake what is here called the French short *i* in *dit* for the exact equivalent of the English short *i* as heard in *hit*. The French sound of *oi* in *roi* and *soir* is wrongly represented by the English sounds *o-a*. The first element in this diphthong is short *oo* and not *o*.

The Second Part, or Syntax proper, is as satisfactory for its completeness and sound treatment, from an educational point of view, as the First. The rules are very clearly enunciated, and the comparisons of idioms and peculiarities of construction in French with those of other languages receive their full due. We cannot bestow equal praise, however, on many of the examples in this Part. In several of them, the English is not the exact rendering of the French. *Je lui serrai la main* is translated by *I shook his hand*, instead of *by I shook hands with him*. *Je ne m'en soucie quère* is not the French for *I hardly care for it*, but for *That does not trouble me much*. In many other cases the English is either faulty or, if grammatically correct, of such a kind as would only be used by foreigners and not by Englishmen. Thus, *Il lui prit envie de se coucher* is rendered by *The fancy took him to go to bed*. He was seized with a fancy for going to bed, or some such phrase, would be the English expression. "*His godfather has stood instead of a father to him.*" "*The mill is mine, as much so, as Prussia is the king's.*" "*He shall not enter here, if I live, for while I am alive.*" "*He was born a Frenchman (for He is a Frenchman by birth), but he is now a naturalized Englishman.*" These are some of the many un-English specimens of English, which mar an otherwise excellent book, and which need not have offended the eye, had Mr. Fasnacht, like so many gram-

marians in his position, submitted his manuscript to the revision of an English friend, with a more unerring ear for true English idiom than can be expected of a foreigner.

Elements of French Composition. By V. KASTNER. (Hachette. 1883.)

In the absence of any standard French Grammar holding the same rank as the "Public Schools Latin Grammar," the author of a book on French composition is almost driven to write his own syntax. Allowing the necessity, we find little to blame, and much to praise, in M. Kastner's syntax. That there are neuter pronouns in French, and that the so-called partitive article is a product of the imagination of grammarians, are small mercies, for which we are thankful. On the other hand, what is the use of a rule like the following:—"In French, all cardinal numerals, except *un*, require the accompanying noun to be in the plural"?—or of a remark like this:—"A French Marchioness, buying a pair of gloves in Paris, will call *Monsieur* the man at the counter"? There are occasionally confusions of thought as well as Gallicisms, as, "When we say a *vase of bronze*, the noun *bronze* abdicates, so to speak, his substantival nature, to play the part of an adjective qualifying the word *vase*."

The Composition is in two parts,—(1) Exercises on the Syntax, consisting of short sentences, which are well chosen as illustrations of the rules, but somewhat "copy-hooky," e.g.,—"Charity should love its name, were it influenced by so mean a motive as human praise"; (2) Continuous pieces, mostly anecdotal, which are well graduated in point of difficulty, and interesting in themselves. The book is well worth purchasing for the sake of these.

Othello. Edited by E. K. PURNELL, M.A. (Rivingtons. 1883.)

"Othello" was set for the Sandhurst examination, and this edition incorporates the notes given to a class of candidates at Wellington College. The first observation we have to make is, that the play is absolutely unfitted for reading in form. The editor has expurgated freely, but much of what is left is too gross to be explained, and without explanation would, fortunately, be unintelligible to a school-boy. Naturally we cannot give instances. Suffice it to note, that the clue to Iago's character, and indeed to the whole play,—Iago's suspicion of a former intrigue between Othello and his wife,—is almost certain to be missed. The play ought never to have been set. Mr. Purnell asks for corrections from the merciful; and we are disposed to be merciful, not only because, as he tells us, this is a first effort, but, as we have shown, an impossible effort.

1. Philology and grammar, even "with the guidance of Skeat and Abbott," are full of pitfalls, and Mr. Purnell has fallen into not a few. "*He wrought upon her. Wrought* from 'wring,' 'to twist,' 'to work upon.'" "*Shaked.* The old infinitive being 'shaken.'" Elizabethan writers frequently used the form *ed* for the participle." An absurd explanation of the simple fact, that a few verbs that are now strong were weak. "*Enchafed.* *En* was a favourite prefix with Shakspere. Perhaps with participles he likes some kind of prefix as a substitute for the old prefix." There is absolutely no warrant for such a conjecture; with the doubtful exception of "star-i-pointed pyramid," there is not a trace of the prefix *y-* in Shakspere. "*The doing it.*" "*The* frequently precedes a transitive verb." "*Doing*, of course, is a substantive, and the older phrase was "*the doing of it.*" Possibly the contracted form is due to the substantive being a verbal (like the Latin "*quæ tibi hanc tacito est*"), but this is a very different matter. "*Epilepsy*, from the future of *ἐπιλαμβάνω*." Etymology is not Mr. Purnell's forte.

2. Of wrong explanations we can only note a few. *Native* ("the native act and figure of my heart") is not "congenial," but "congenital," "natural"; but this is, perhaps, a malapropism, as "contrariety" for "contradiction" (1, 3, 62). "I have but an hour of love, of worldly matter, and direction to spend with thee," is annotated, "an hour which will be interrupted by the call of business." The meaning is, "an hour in which to care you, and to give you directions on business matters." "Opinion, a sovereign mistress of effects," is explained "opinion, that overawes all plans and their results," instead of "opinion which works miracles"—*possunt quia posse videntur*.

3. Notes beside the mark or superfluous:—

On "What cannot be preserved when Fortune takes, Patience her injury a mockery makes."

Mr. Purnell notes, "In other words, '*Che sara sara.*'" The reader will complain, "*Davus sum non Cædipus.*" When a prose speech begins, Mr. Purnell notes, "The Duke here speaks in prose." Queen Anne is dead, and there are milestones on the Dover road. With "the surge seems to cast water on the burning bear," Mr. Purnell compares Ovid's lines, which describe the Bear as never setting, and with "false as water," Keats's epitaph, throwing in a picturesque

description of the cemetery. That a virtue means a good quality, and that opium is made of poppies, is not beyond the intelligence even of an army candidate.

4. Misprints abound. "German *yener*, 'that';" "my whole course of life;" "*metuent* *aequore* *tingui*;" "*regime*" (*sic*); besides variants between notes and text.

We have extenuated ("palliated") nothing, nor, we hope, set down ("exaggerated") aught, certainly not in malice; but we confess that, being wrought, we are perplexed in the extreme,—on the last phrase Mr. Purnell has not supplied us with a running commentary.

The Book of French Exercises and Composition. By GUSTAVE H. DORET. (Hachette & Co. 1883.)

This book is formed on the plan of classical class-books, and is in advance of the average French composition-book. M. Doret has, however, chosen as a model the older "Arnold" type, instead of the more recent "Sidgwick" type, and consequently in the first part he has not avoided the fault that he himself stigmatizes in the preface, "the constant sameness of isolated French sentences which will only weary and disgust." The third part, consisting of passages of original English, is well graduated, and a judicious amount of help is afforded in notes.

Practical Mechanics. By JOHN PERRY, M.E. (Cassell, Petter, Galpin, & Co. 1883.)

This book has been written chiefly for the pupils of the City and Guilds of London Technical College. This College is an experiment, and it is, therefore, not surprising to find one of its professors strike out a new line, and produce a book that must be looked upon more or less as an experiment. Mr. John Perry believes that most illiterate men may be rapidly taught Mechanics, if we only approach the subject from their point of view,—i.e., from that of men of common sense, who, in their daily experience have understood and become familiar with a great many of the results of philosophic theoretical teaching,—rather than compel them to approach it from ours. In fact, it is a short cut from the teacher to the mind of illiterate men with some practical knowledge, who frequently are repelled from educating themselves by the pedantic, long-winded methods of the schools. The author vouches for the practicability of his method by a test of several years at the Imperial College of Engineering in Japan. And Englishmen ought surely not to be beaten in this respect by Japanese! To those who, like ourselves, have been taught Mechanics as applied Mathematics, it may seem doubtful whether some of the more difficult portions of the subject, e.g., the problems on Graphical Statics and on Periodic Motion, lend themselves to the above method. But there can be no doubt that a great part of Elementary Mechanics may be practically taught to those who have simply a knowledge of Arithmetic. The author has covered a great deal of ground in a small space. His explanations are lucid, and his method of illustration is good, and, in many cases, most, felicitous. We can, therefore, recommend this book, but only to those who are chiefly or solely concerned with Practical Mechanics.

A Skeleton Outline of the History of England. By A. H. DYKE ACLAND, M.A., and CYRIL RANSOME, M.A. (Rivingtons. 1882.)

The aim of this little book cannot be better indicated than by the concluding words of its preface, in which the authors state that, whilst keeping steadily in view the principle of continuity in history, they have endeavoured not to encourage "cram," except so far as this sometimes misused word may include accurate and well-arranged knowledge. We know of no better book than this to be given into the hands of pupils, and used by masters in schools where History is taught on the only plan intelligible to us; viz., by means of oral teaching in simple lectures, and not by asking questions on a previously prepared lesson from a text-book. Those who are acquainted with the authors' larger Handbook of English Political History, of which this is an abridgment, will easily understand the spirit in which it is conceived. Its thorough treatment of the whole, as well as of those side issues which so often throw an entirely new light upon intricate questions, and the accurate proportion preserved between the different parts, render this book most valuable both to teachers and pupils.

Illustrated English History. Part I., B.C. 55—A.D. 1485; Part II., 1485—1688; Part III., 1689—1880. By S. R. GARDINER. (Longmans & Co. 1883.)

Having already stated our opinion that Mr. Gardiner's "Outlines" is far and away the best of the simple Histories of England (an opinion that constant use of the book in class has confirmed), we need only add that its essential features have been reproduced in these three Reading-books, which are a model of what a child's first History should be,—the language simple, but never childish;

with plenty of stories, but not fabulous or gossipy; few dates and names, and lots of pictures.

The History of England for Elementary Schools. For Standards V., VI., & VII. Illustrated. (Cassell, Potter, Galpin, & Co. 1883.)

This book is well got up as to letterpress and illustrations, but these are the only points which deserve unqualified praise. The style is correct, but dry and unattractive. There are many facts given in a tolerably small space, but they are communicated in a manner which frequently resembles that of précis writing. We have lately had so many very good history books for the young, that there seems hardly room left for a piece of inferior bookmaking like the present.

Chambers's Historical Readers. Book IV. England from the Revolution to 1882. (Chambers. 1883.)

This is the fourth and last part of a series of Historical Readers, of which we have reviewed the preceding parts on a former occasion. Like its predecessors, it can be recommended as a clearly written History Reader, taking count of the social as well as of the purely political events and situations of the periods treated. The illustrations are fairly well executed, and the small maps in the text appropriate.

Moffatt's History Readers. Book I. Stories from English History. (Moffatt & Paige.)

With one or two exceptions, these stories are well selected and well told. We cannot, however, approve of the unnecessary details, given for the benefit of young children, of the execution of Charles I., or of the insertion of two whole chapters on the Plague. The illustrations and small maps are mostly fair, but in several instances secondary.

The Standard Author Readers. (Griffith & Farran. 1883.)

This series has been arranged and annotated by the editor of "Poetry for the Young," and the selection shows the same literary taste and sound judgment that we commended in the "Poetry." The author is true to his title, and has given none but the best literature. Of this rule we heartily approve, but we think that, without lowering his standard, he might have admitted with advantage a few less serious pieces—specimens of wit and humor, of comedy and romance,—"*Dogberry* and *Verges*," "*Tom and Maggie Tulliver*," a chapter of "*Our Village*," "*The Waits*" in "*Under the Greenwood Tree*," "*The Deacon's Shay*,"—we take at random samples of the sort of matter that we miss. Yet, where all is so good, we hesitate even to hint a fault.

Globe Readings from Standard Authors.—A Book of Golden Deeds, by Miss YONGE; *Lamb's Tales from Shakspeare*; *Coventry Patmore's Children's Garland*; *Marmion and the Lord of the Isles*; *Lay of the Last Minstrel* and *Lady of the Lake*; *The Task*; *John Gilpin*, &c.; *The Vicar of Wakefield.* (Macmillan & Co. 1883.)

This excellent series of reprints is specially adapted for elementary schools, and we hope that it will be widely used. These standard authors, we are certain, will appeal to children, and interest them far more than many of the Readers written expressly for them. One or two of the volumes, as the *Scotts*, are unattractive in form, from the smallness of the print and the absence of margin, but the *Golden Deeds* and the *Children's Garland* are admirable in every respect.

Geography Reading Book. Part V., for Standard V. (National Society's Depository, Westminster.)

The writer of this Reader has not fallen into the mistake of overcrowding his chapters with facts, and, as his narrative is very simple, the book may be pronounced a very good specimen of its kind. It treats of the countries of Europe and of the rudiments of Physical Geography. The graphic explanations of longitude, latitude, the earth's daily motion, the seasons, &c., are excellent; they form not the least meritorious part of the book.

Geographical Readers. By W. G. BAKER. Nos. III. & IV. (Blackie & Son.)

These two Readers are adapted for Standards III. and IV. The first contains an outline of the physical and political geography of England, with some very good chapters on the chief industries pursued in the different parts of the country; the second covers the same ground, as well as British North America and Australia. The illustrations in both books are good, and the little maps most excellent.

Royal School Series—The World at Home. A Geographical Reader adapted to Standard III. (London: Nelson & Sons. 1883.)

The requirements of a Reading-book have been kept in view in this volume, more in one sense and less in another, than those of the Geography, which it is intended to illustrate. It has, on the plan of most general Readers, lists of difficult words, with accentuation and

explanations at the end of each chapter. On the other hand, the style is more like that of a manual of Geography, loosely connected and at times even abrupt.

The Map and the Compass. (Marcus Ward & Co. 1883.)

An excellent Geography Reading-book for Standard I., which explains, in the simplest language, with the help of illustrations, the meaning of a picture, a plan, and a map, together with the use of the compass.

SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES.

OXFORD.

Mr. A. Marshall, of University College, Bristol, has been appointed to the Lectureship in Political Economy, vacant by the death of Mr. Toynbee.

The appointment of Mr. Kitchin to the Deanery of Winchester has been approved by all Oxford men. He has for fifteen years filled with ability the difficult post of Censor of Unattached Students, and given valuable assistance to the Clarendon Press as Literary Adviser.

CAMBRIDGE.

Mr. Leslie Stephen has been elected to the Clark Chair of English Literature at Trinity College. Among the candidates were Professor Dowden, Mr. E. Gosse, Mr. Bass Mullinger, and Mr. A. Bradley.

The Porson Prize has been adjudged to Mr. Rowlatt, of King's College, and the Powys Medal and the Bronze Medals for Latin and for Greek Epigrams, to Mr. H. V. Macnaghten, of Trinity College.

The Lightfoot Scholarship in Ecclesiastical History has been awarded to Mr. A. R. Ropes, of King's College.

CHRIST'S COLLEGE.—Mr. Ward, Lecturer at Owens College, Manchester, and a First Class in the Natural Science Tripos of 1879, has been elected to a Fellowship.

The Special Boards of Studies have sent in their statement to the General Board, and the report of the latter is awaited with keen interest, as on it depends greatly the organisation of University teaching for many years to come. The Board has no easy task in adjudicating the claims of different studies. For instance, the sums requisitioned by the Special Boards amount to five times the total that the University has at its disposal. Of the Modern Language Tripos we have spoken elsewhere. We hear, however, that considerable changes are contemplated in the tentative Scheme set forth by the Syndicate. It is, we believe, proposed now to follow the scheme of the Classical Tripos—*i.e.*, to hold a first examination in French and German, and a second in which candidates will be allowed to specialise. Italian is to be admitted as a special subject, and certain books or authors will be named. This seems to us a great improvement on the first scheme.

NEWNHAM COLLEGE.—The Scholarships offered by the Council for competition in the Cambridge Senior Local Examinations have been awarded as follows:—The Stevenson Scholarship to Miss Henrietta Bishop, Plymouth High School; The Birmingham Scholarship to Miss Edith Saunders, Handsworth Ladies' College. During the past year a wing has been added to the South Hall, containing rooms for nine students; and it was opened in the Lent term, all the rooms being occupied. On the ground floor of the wing is a new Library, which will be for the use of the students in both Halls. The College has received donations, amounting to nearly £500, for books; and the cost of the wing has been covered by the donations made to the Building and Endowment Fund.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

On May 16th, Earl Granville, as Chancellor of the University of London, distributed the diplomas, prizes, and certificates to the successful students, of whom thirty, or about one-tenth, were women. Mrs. Mary Ann Jacomb Scharlieb, a married lady, who has been five years in this country studying medicine, and qualifying herself to practise in India, received her M.B. and B.Sc. diplomas and medal. The same medical degree was conferred upon Miss Edith Shove. In the list of Bachelors of Arts the following were called:—Miss Kate Alden, Miss Mary Collin, Miss Edith Maudo Thompson, and Miss Annie Townsend, of Bedford College, London; Miss Selina Bostock, Miss Henrietta Clay, Miss Olivia Dymond, Miss Annie Page, and Miss E. H. Sturge, of Ladies'

College, Cheltenham; Miss Louisa Heppel, Miss Mary Leonora Johnson, Miss H. C. Miall, Miss Edith Rosa Williams, and Miss M. L. G. Petrie, of University College; Miss Edith Mary Thompson and Miss M. Topham, of Queen's and University Colleges.

SCOTLAND.

The Principal and Professors of St. Andrews University have sent a memorial to the Lord Advocate, urging several reasons why the University should not be abolished. They refer to its antiquity, the increasing attendance at the United College, the expediency of maintaining a small University, where each student can receive particular attention and supervision; the beauty, salubrity, and quiet of the town; and the possibility of immediately extending its usefulness, especially by expanding its scheme of local examinations and providing University education for women. They further object to clause 8, section 4, of the Bill, on the ground that the probable extinction of the University will prevent students from entering their names on the College lists for the session 1883-4, as they will not be willing to have their undergraduate career suddenly cut short.

A University Endowment Scheme has been set on foot, and Mr. Stephen Williamson, M.P. for the St. Andrews burghs, has intimated his intention of contributing £1000 to it.

The Conservative Association of the Edinburgh University have made arrangements for supporting the candidature of Sir Stafford Northcote at the Rectorial election.

The University Buildings Extension Fund now amounts to over £26,000. The Merchant Company of Edinburgh have agreed to subscribe an additional sum of two hundred guineas for the purpose. The Mackay Smith Scholarship for Natural Philosophy, of the annual value of £50, tenable for two years, has been awarded to G. N. Stewart, M.A.; and the same Scholarship for Chemistry has been awarded to H. R. Mill, B.Sc.

At the second ordinary meeting of the Edinburgh Mathematical Society, Mr. Munn, of the High School, gave a series of demonstrations connected with the geometry of the nine-point circle; and Dr. Knott gave an account of Newton's "Opticks."

Mrs. Bain, one of the members of the Edinburgh School Board, has died suddenly. A lady of great learning, and of untiring energy in the interests of education and of every good work, her loss will not be easily repaired.

The Directors of the Morningside College, a magnificent new school for boys, which is to be opened, to the south of Edinburgh, have appointed Mr. A. H. Anglin, B.A. Cambridge, to be Vice-Principal and Mathematical Master; and Mr. William Coutts, M.A., Assistant to the Professor of Humanity in Aberdeen University, to be Classical Master. Dr. Drinkwater, F.C.S., of the Edinburgh School of Medicine, is to be Lecturer on Chemical Technology.

The Aberdeen School Board have taken the unusual step of appointing one of their own members to be French teacher in the Grammar School. That gentleman, Mr. William Brebner, offered to undertake the duties gratuitously, but this the Board would not agree to, so he has accepted the usual duties and emoluments. The difficulty of finding in the town a French teacher sufficiently acquainted with the English language, has led to this proceeding.

The Principal and Professors of Dundee University College have been giving a series of Popular Lectures in St. John's Church, while the College buildings are in course of erection. These lectures have been largely attended, and excite great interest in the town. The lectures are given twice a week, and thus each professor lectures once in three weeks. The strong point of the instruction to be given, when the classes open, will be Science, a special sum of money having been allowed by Miss Baxter for the erection of a laboratory. Another very interesting feature will be the evening classes, which are to be conducted so as to suit those who have received no classical education. Besides Miss Baxter's gifts, amounting in all to £130,000, and the £10,000 left by Dr. John Baxter for the endowment of the University College, it is expected that many of the Dundee merchants will found Scholarships. One, at least, has already offered £500 for the purpose. It is even said that another £100,000 may be forthcoming from the Baxter family for the establishment of a Medical School. This is exactly the sum which is wanted for the Edinburgh University Medical School, and of which little more than a quarter has as yet been subscribed.

IRELAND.

The results of the examinations for Fellowship at the University of Dublin were declared on Trinity Monday, the 21st ult. Mr. Edward P. Culverwell, M.A., the new Fellow, graduated as a Double Senior

Moderator in Mathematics, and in Experimental Science in 1877. The real contest on the present occasion, however, was well understood to lie between Mr. J. H. Bernard and Mr. J. B. Bury, for the Madden Prize, for the first unsuccessful candidate; the former being a representative of the Mathematical, and the latter of the Classical teaching of the University. The marking has been—Mr. Culverwell 833, Mr. Bernard 744, Mr. Bury 728. Mr. Bury only took his degree in last December, so that his present performance has justly won him great distinction. There were two other candidates.

At the same time were announced the results of the election to the 13 vacant Scholarships. Of these, 9 were conferred for Classics, and 4 only for Science. This disparity is even beyond expectation; but the superior answering on the Classical side has been generally recognised.

The first annual report of the Association of Irish Schoolmistresses has just been printed. The variety and peculiar fitness of the matters which this young Association has already had to deal with, afford illustration of the eminent need there was that such a representative body should exist. We observe with pleasure that the Committee have felt it their duty to reprint in this report the more important memorials which they had forwarded to public bodies in the name of the Association. It is not merely that the members should be intimately acquainted therewith, nor that the criticism of these documents is, in a way, an education to the members; but it is of importance that publicity should be given to the action of all such bodies, and that the character of their influence should be upon record.

The Intermediate Education Board for Ireland was an experiment in State education of such magnitude and originality that its annual reports must possess for many years wide interest and historic importance. The report for 1882 is the first which shows the effects of the sudden failure of the endowment to meet the claims made upon it. The great diminution in the Results Fees has led to this: the total of boys examined, instead of leaping up by thousands, as in all previous years, has barely reached the same figure; while the total of girls, instead of being increased by some 500, has fallen back by 344. We notice, further, by an examination of the various centres of examination, that this falling off has taken place in the country schools, since no large town, except Dublin, shows this decline. Also, it is almost wholly confined to the Junior Grade,—*i.e.*, to girls whom the influence of the schoolmistress would have mainly induced to enter. Now, where Boys' Schools are located in country districts, they are usually endowed schools; and it would appear to be proved by the present report that the expenses of bringing teachers from a distance to prepare for these examinations cannot be borne at the reduced rate of Results Fees. Financially, the reductions have given the Board a surplus on the year of somewhat over £3,000, and would seem, therefore, to have been made on rather too large a scale.

Turning to other points, we find that the increased standard, *viz.* 25 per cent., has lowered the passes among the boys from 66·8 to 57·8 per cent.; yet the passes among the girls have gone up from 68·3 to 69·6 per cent. It should be mentioned that the percentage of passes is always lower than it should be, because very many of the students in the great Junior Grade are sent in considerably under age. The subjects—Mechanics, Natural Philosophy, and Euclid—were taken up last year by the boys to a much greater extent; but Algebra continued to go down, as it has done for the last three years. The great fall in Classics of the year 1881 has not been continued last year. Turning to the girls, we find an extraordinary growth in Euclid, Natural Philosophy, Trigonometry, Mechanics, and Animal Physiology; this is, above all, noticeable in the three subjects last named, which the Board has, nevertheless, prohibited to girls for 1883! We regret that our limits prevent us going more fully into this report. One most important feature in it is an Appendix, giving copious extracts from the reports of the several examiners, published this year for the first time.

SCHOOLS.

BLACKHEATH PROPRIETARY SCHOOL.—The performance of the "Acharnians," on May 18th and 19th, was a decided success. The arduous part of Dicaeopolis was rendered with much spirit by M. A. North, who spoke his lines with great distinctness, and made all his points in a clear and intelligent manner. C. R. Isaacs was a formidable Lamachus, and G. Dill played the small part of the Country Farmer capably. Great praise is due to the Chorus, and their Choragus, Mr. Lawrence, especially in the earlier scenes. The costumes were very effective, and had evidently been the subject of much careful study. Euripides looked altogether too youthful and jactadaisical, and had more the air of a "love-sick maiden" from

Patience than of the great tragic poet. If the interest flagged a little towards the end of the play, the poet is to blame rather than the performers.

CHELTFENHAM COLLEGE.—Prince Louis Jerome Bonaparte, second son of Prince Napoleon, has entered the College this term. He is, to use the German phrase, a ripe student, born in 1864, and a B.-ès-L. of the Paris University.

DULWICH COLLEGE.—Both of the medals offered by the Royal Geographical Society for Physical Geography have been won by Dulwich boys,—the gold medal by T. Rose, and the silver medal by S. W. Carruthers. The Rev. H. R. Verry, for seven years an Assistant Master in the College, has been elected Head-master of the Grammar School, Stamford.

ETON.—The School numbers just over 900 boys this school-time; 56 new boys having been entered. P. Williams, Esq., has been unable to return this half, owing to ill-health, and his place has been temporarily taken by F. H. French, Esq., of King's College, Cambridge. On Saturdays, April 28th and May 5th, Mr. W. L. Carpenter delivered two most interesting and instructive lectures on Electricity. He illustrated his subject with numerous photographs and experiments, projected on a screen by a powerful electric lantern. To judge by the large number of boys who filled the Drill Hall, and the silence with which they listened, the lectures were most successful.

GATESHEAD.—HIGH SCHOOL FOR BOYS.—The school was inaugurated on May 10th, and opened on May 15th with 120 boys. The High School for Girls has in three years reached the number of 800, and there is no doubt that, under the Rev. T. Adams, the Boys' School will be equally successful.

HARROW.—Entrance Scholarships.—£80, Williams, from Elstree; £60, Hopkins, from Aysgarth, and Grosvenor, from Cherbourg, Great Malvern (for Mathematics); £30, Cassell, H. Butler, Cohen from Elstree, Fawcett from Aysgarth. *Prizes gained in the School.*—Greek Epigram, W. G. Headlam; English Poem, B. Pares. *Distinctions outside the School.*—Gold Medal of the Geographical Society for Political Geography, S. C. Farlow. On the evening of April 24th, the Rev. T. Field lectured to the School on his experiences in Russia during the last Christmas holidays. On Saturday, April 28th, a considerable number of the School were entertained by a "Talk about Sicily," from Mr. A. G. Watson, who had just returned from a holiday visit there. The new pavilion on the cricket-ground is just completed, at a cost of little under £1000 for fabric and fittings. The architect is Mr. W. C. Marshall. It is much admired, and most conveniently arranged. The ground is considerably enlarged and improved by the removal of the old pavilion.—Acceding to a very numerous signed request, Dr. Butler has consented to sit to Mr. Herkomer for a portrait, which is to be placed in the Vaughan Library. The Earl of Bessborough's portrait, by Mr. Weigall, has just been hung there. It was subscribed for last year by his Harrovian friends and admirers.

HAWKSHEAD.—The Rev. R. M. Samson, Assistant-master at Reading School, has been appointed to the Head-mastership.

HUDDESFIELD COLLEGIATE SCHOOL.—A. N. Brown has been elected to a Berry Exhibition at Queen's College, Oxford. Mr. T. Amsys, of Trinity College, Dublin, has joined the staff this term.

HULL.—Mr. Bond, the Principal of the Hull and East Riding College, has taken charge of the Hull Grammar School, which is without sufficient funds to erect new buildings, and is forbidden by the Charity Commissioners to hire temporary accommodation any longer out of the proceeds of the sale of its former site and buildings, which were condemned as unsanitary. The last report of the Directors of the College shows that financial prosperity has been restored, and that the number of pupils attending the College has increased more than fourfold since Mr. Bond's appointment in 1881. The College is organised as a modern school of the first grade, with just so much Greek as is necessary for matriculation at the Universities.

ROSSALL.—The Examination for Entrance Scholarships commences on June 26th, at Rossall and Oxford simultaneously. Eleven Scholarships vacant, value from 70 guineas to £20. Seniors must have been under 15, Juniors under 14, on 25th March last. Mr. H. B. Bush (O.R.), of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, is taking work this term, in the temporary absence of Mr. Rennard. The School met on May 4th.

RUGBY.—*Prizes gained in the School.*—Queen's Medal—S. M. Kingdon; Greek Prose—G. I. Simey; Latin Lyrics—1. J. H. Badley; Greek Iambics—1. J. H. Sargent; English Verse—1. J. H. Badley; Latin Hexameters—1. G. I. Simey. The place of Mr. Lee Warner, who is absent for this term on account of his health, is being taken in school by Mr. M. T. Tatham, of Balliol College, Oxford. His house is in charge of Mr. C. H. Hodges. The new Racquet

Court is rapidly approaching completion, and the Close has been improved by the gravelling of the paths, which in some places have been lately almost impassable. The cricket has been very much interfered with by rain, but it seems to be under vigorous management, and it is to be hoped that an attempt will be made before long to provide room for more games than the Close can at present accommodate. The space is already in the possession of the school, and a small amount of levelling would serve to accommodate a large number of players. At present only about half the school can play cricket at once. A new magazine, the *Leaflet*, announced with some parade, has not at present fulfilled the expectations which it raised. Possibly the succeeding numbers may be an improvement on the first. Mr. M. H. Bloxam has presented to the Temple Reading Room several ancient and valuable MSS., and two fine editions of "Don Quixote" in Spanish. This is only one of many gifts made by Mr. Bloxam to the school.

SEDBERGH SCHOOL.—The following boys were elected to Exhibitions last term:—W. Balderston, to a Hastings Exhibition of £90 for four years at Queen's College, Oxford; C. Toppin, to a Wilson Exhibition at Queen's College, Oxford; B. E. O. Pain, to an Exhibition at Corpus Christi College, Cambridge. The old "Great School" has been fitted up as a chapel, and licensed by the Bishop of Ripon. The opening services were held on May 6th, and a sermon preached by Archdeacon Prescott.

WESTMINSTER SCHOOL.—The following elections were made on the result of the examinations at the end of the last term:—*To Christ Church*: R. H. Williams, Q.S., O. Scoones, Q.S., F. T. Higgins. *To Trinity College, Cambridge*: H. W. Waterfield, Q.S., W. G. Hewitt. To Waterfield and Hewitt were also awarded Triplet Exhibitions of £30 apiece, and one of £50 to J. R. Pryce, Q.S. The examiners were—Rev. H. L. Thompson, M.A., late Senior Student of Christ Church; J. Gow, M.A., Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge; and W. Rouse Ball, Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. The annual election dinner took place on May 7th, and among the guests were the Dean of Westminster, Earl of Devon, Sir Watkin W. Wynn, Sir J. Mowbray, M.P., Sir P. Colquhoun, Dean of Bangor, Archdeacon Farrar, Canon Bull, Admiral Phillimore, Mr. Evans Williams, M.P., and Mr. J. G. Talbot, M.P. Dr. Scott retires from the Head-mastership at the end of the ensuing term. A movement is on foot to recognise his long services to the school by some permanent memorial, and a meeting of old Westminsters, and others interested in the subject, will be held in the College Hall on June 13, at 4.30 p.m.

UPPINGHAM.—The following were elected to Entrance Scholarships at the Examination held at the end of last term:—£50—A. S. Logan, Rev. A. N. Malau's, Eagle House, Wimbledon, and E. M. Watson. £30—E. M. Brass, Mr. Malden's, Brighton, and R. R. Pilkington, Mr. Basset's, Dublin, and C. H. Wilson, *æq.* Scholarships for those under seventeen, open only to those who have been at the school for some time—Rossiter, *ma.*, and Valentine-Richards; *Proxime accessit*, Fitzpatrick.

TRANSLATION PRIZE.

For each month, till further notice, there will be set a passage, generally from a French or German Poet, to be translated into English verse. A PRIZE OF TWO GUINEAS will be offered each month for the best version. Initials or a nom de plume must be adopted by competitors, but the successful competitor is required to send his real name and address to the Prize Editor for publication. Versions must be forwarded to the "Prize Editor" of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, 96 Farringdon Street, E.C., not later than the 15th of the month. Any translation which is sent with an addressed envelope and six postage stamps, will be returned with corrections. A First Class is entitled to a copy of "Prizes and Proximes," which will be forwarded on application. Those who have already

received "Prizes and Proximes" may apply for a copy of "Maria Wuz."*

"S. Y. Y.," the winner of last month's prize, is Charles Sankey, Esq., Bury St. Edmunds.

The prize for the best translation of Gerhard's hymn is awarded to "H. C. B."

Geh aus, mein Herz, und suche Freud
In dieser lieben Sommerzeit
An deines Gottes Gaben:
Sieh an der schönen Fluren Zier,
Wie lieblich sie sich dir und mir
Nun ausgeschmückct haben.

Die Bäume stehen voller Laub,
Das Erdreich decket seinen Staub
Mit einem grünen Kleide:
Narzissen und die Tulipan,
Die ziehen sich viel schöner an
Als Salomonis Seide.

Die Lerche schwingt sich in die Luft,
Das Täublein fliegt aus seiner Gruft
Und macht sich in die Wälder:
Die hochbegabte Nachtigall
Ergötzt und füllt mit ihrem Schall
Schon Hügel, Thal und Felder.

Die Glücke führt ihr Vöcklein ans,
Der Storch baut und bewahrt sein Haus,
Das Schwäblein speist die Jungen:
Der schnelle Hirsch, das leichte Reh
Ist froh, und kommt aus seiner Höh
Ins tiefe Gras gesprungen.

Die Bächlein rauschen in den Sand
Und zieren lieblich ihren Rand
Mit Bäumen, reich an Schatten:
Der Schaf und Hirten Lustgeschrei
Erschallet fröhlich hart dabei
Von grüner Wiesen Matten.

Die unverdrossne Bienenschaar
Flencht hiu und her, sucht hier und dar
Ihr edle Honigspeise:
Des süßen Weinstocks starker Saft
Bringt täglich neuo Stärk und Kraft
In seinem schwachen Reise.

Ich selbst, ich kann und mag nicht ruhn,
Des grossen Gottes grosses Thun
Erweckt mir alle Sinnen:
Ich singe mit, wenn Alles singt,
Und lasse, was dem Höchsten klingt,
Aus meinem Herzen rinnen.

By "H. C. B."

Sweet summer's come,—go forth, my heart
This summer-time, and take thy part
In all this God-sent pleasure;
See how the gardens now display
For me and thee their fresh array,
To glad us without measure.

The trees are full of leafy shade,
The russet earth herself has clad
In raiment green and tender;
The many-coloured tulips' hue
And tall narcissuses outdo
E'en Solomon in splendour.

The laverock quivers high in space;
The rock-dove leaves her hiding-place,
And seeks the wooded cover;

* "Maria Wuz and Lorenz Stark; or, English Prints of two German Originals," reprinted from the *Journal of Education*. Crown 8vo, price 4s. 6d. (Longmans.)

Hark to the rich-voiced nightingale !
Field, forest, upland, hill and dale,
With song are brimming o'er.

The clucking hen leads forth her brood,
Storks build and guard their house of wood,
From eaves there peep young swallows ;
The stag leaps down the mountain pass
To batten on rich meadow grass,
Behind the roe-deer follows.

The brooklets hum a merry stave,
*And paint their banks and crystal waves
With glossy myrtle tresses ;
The pasture meadows all around
Are echoing with the joyous sound
Of sheep and shepherdesses.

The bees are fitting to and fro,
All day from flower to flower they go
Their honied sweets distilling ;
The vine each day puts forth new shoots,
With lusty sap from deep-set roots
Its dainty tendrils filling.

Go forth, my heart! how can I rest,
When all around supremely blest
My every sense upraises ?
I needs must sing when all is singing,
I needs must praise when all is ringing
My great Creator's praises.

We class the 138 versions received in the following order:—

First Class.—S. Y. Y., B. L. T., Nondum, Hector, L. A. M., Steeple, A. M., Enid.

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A Prize of Two Guineas will be given for the best translation of the following passage of Renan.

Une des légendes les plus répandues en Bretagne est celle d'une prétendue ville d'Is, qui, à une époque inconnue, aurait été engloutie par la mer. On montre, à divers endroits de la côte, l'emplacement de cette cité fabuleuse, et les pêcheurs vous en font d'étranges récits. Les jours de tempête, assurent-ils, on voit, dans le creux des vagues, le sommet des flèches de ses églises ; les jours de calme, on entend monter de l'abîme le son de ses cloches, modulant l'hymne du jour. Il me semble souvent que j'ai au fond du cœur une ville d'Is qui sonne encore des cloches obstinées à convoquer aux offices sacrés des fidèles qui n'entendent plus. Parfois je m'arrête pour prêter l'oreille à ces tremblantes vibrations, qui me paraissent venir de profondeurs infinies, comme des voix d'un autre monde. Aux approches de la vieillesse surtout, j'ai pris plaisir, pendant le repos de l'été, à recueillir ces bruits lointains d'une Atlantide disparue.

* I adopt the reading: "Und mahlen sich und ihren Rand
Mit schatten-reichen Myrten."

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The Journal of Education,

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still arranged to suit the convenience of housemasters; and only slight modifications are introduced for the benefit of day-boys. Morning school begins at 9, and ends at 12.30, but the dinner-hour is not until 2.30, and afternoon school lasts from 3 to 5. All, or nearly all, the boys dine in masters' houses, and, as their breakfast must be over soon after 8 to enable them to start for school in good time, they have to wait more than six hours for their next meal, greatly to the profit of keepers of "grub-shops," but of no one else. Then those who live at any distance from the school do not reach home much before 6 o'clock, and, what with the evening meal and preparation for next day, parents complain that it is impossible to get boys to bed in decent time. On Saints'-days attendance at 8 o'clock service in the Abbey is required, and exemption can only be purchased by the *peine forte et dure* of learning the Collect and Gospel for the day.

THE Birmingham School Board, at a meeting on June 8th, approved the scheme of its Education Committee for training its pupil teachers on the central system. A director of training classes is appointed, at a salary of £400, per annum, whose duty it will be—(1) to be responsible for the selection of all candidate pupil teachers and pupil teachers; (2) to organize and superintend the day and evening classes for them; (3) to give instruction to the ex-pupil teachers in the Science and Art of Education. The central system has already been adopted by London, Liverpool, Leicester, and Sheffield, and so long as our cheap and nasty pupil-teacherage (so Mr. MacCarthy justly characterized it) prevails, it is the best system that can be devised; but, as Talleyrand said of English public schools, the best is bad.

In one important point the Birmingham scheme is in advance of all existing schemes. It is the first attempt of a Board to enable its ex-pupil teachers to obtain their certificates without passing through a Training College. The obvious corollary of Board Schools is Board Training Colleges; but the Education Department is not logical, and will not consent to their establishment. It is even doubtful whether they will allow the teachers trained under the Birmingham scheme the modest grant of £10 or £15, which is promised under the New Code to ex-pupil teachers who pass the Government Examination. This is the injustice of which we complained in our last number, and on this head Dr. Crosskey furnished some telling statistics. For a million of children in undenominational schools there are Training Colleges for only 500 teachers; while for about a million and a half children in denominational schools there are Colleges for 3,255 teachers, and £112,000 of national money is expended every year upon denominational Colleges.

THIS seems to us a sufficient answer to Mr. Faunthorpe's

vigorous attack on our position. In assuming that we advocate a non-religious education, he wholly mistakes our standing-point. With him and Mr. M. Arnold, we hold that conduct is three-fourths of life, and that any teaching which does not regard conduct is unworthy of the name of Education. But we do not hold that moral training is continuous with the Westminster Confession or the Thirty-nine Articles. Let the Denominational Training Colleges make such provision as seems good to them for religious teaching and services; but, if they continue to be subsidized by the State, they are bound to accept a conscience clause. The Universities, the Public Schools, the Elementary Schools, are all subject to a conscience clause; why should Training Colleges alone be exempt? Does Mr. Faunthorpe consider that Oxford and Cambridge, Harrow and Eton, and every State-supported school in the kingdom, is a godless institution?

AFTER the astonishing revelations of "Seven Years at Eton," a book whose charming candour and naïve indiscretion have amused the public and covered with confusion more than one of the older Eton masters—we trust, at least, that such has been the effect,—it is pleasant to turn to the memorial of an Eton master in the last number of the *Eton College Chronicle*. Edward Coleridge shows the best side of Eton life: the friendly intercourse between master and pupil, scholarship valued for its own sake, not for the prizes it may win; religious earnestness without cant or asceticism. Coleridge was the first to enforce on Public Schools their duties to the poor, and to his example may be traced the various home missions now supported by our great schools.

WE have several times called attention to the "Holiday Colonies" of Switzerland and Germany, and to similar schemes in this country for giving town children, whose world is made up at best of streets and squares, and too often merely of courts and alleys, a change of scene by sending them for a fortnight into the country. The example set by Mr. Barnett in Whitechapel is now being followed by some managers of Board Schools. Although such holidays may do more to forward the children's education, both physical and intellectual, than many weeks of schooling, the rates cannot be used to defray expenses. But we trust the experiment will not be allowed to fail for want of funds. Contributions will be received by Miss Bryce, 7 Norfolk Square, W., and by Miss Honor Brooke, 1 Manchester Square, W.

PROFESSOR PALMER was unrivalled as a linguist, and we eagerly scanned his biography in the hope of discovering what was the secret of his method, or at least of finding an attempt to analyze the mental powers on which his marvellous faculty depended. The question is discussed by Mr. Besant, but his account of Palmer's system will not afford much help to schoolmasters. It is, shortly, to acquire the

vocabulary and let the grammar take care of itself. "Inflections, suffixes, and so forth, resemble each other, and therefore come quite easily to the man who has begun with the words." To Palmer, no doubt, they did. Whether the average school boy could be trusted to pick up unconsciously the French irregular verbs, is more than doubtful. We fully agree with Mr. Besant that grammar plays too large a part—that it ought to follow, not precede, reading,—but we cannot allow that it or written exercises can be dispensed with in class-teaching. Palmer taught himself by talking and listening; and if each boy could have a master told off to him, the colloquial method would doubtless be the best. Even then we doubt whether, as Palmer maintained, any intelligent person could learn to read a language in a few weeks, and to speak it in a few months.

THE Froebel Society's Conference on the introduction of the Kindergarten into Elementary Schools revealed considerable divergence of opinion among Froebelians as to the age at which reading and writing should be begun. The orthodox, represented by Fräulein Heerwart, would have no book learning before the age of seven; the officials, represented by Mr. Williams and Mr. Fitch, held that it was hopeless to induce the Department to postpone the First Standard for a year; Miss Lord and the majority were for a compromise—to begin reading and writing at five, and *en revanche* to carry on the occupations till ten or eleven. We hope that English Kindergartners will note and profit by a shrewd observation of Mr. Fitch. The occupations that Froebel devised were adapted mainly to German rural life; but those who teach his system in London must adapt his philosophy to London life. Froebelism will never take root in England till it has cast its German *Pelz* and clothed itself in English broadcloth. Why does not the Froebel Society set to work to give us English songs and English games? The practical outcome of the Conference was a resolution to arrange courses of lectures and lessons for London Elementary Teachers, to help in disseminating a knowledge of Froebel's system. The instruction at present given by the London School Board is ludicrously inadequate.

WE gladly print Mr. E. T. Cook's able and temperate defence of the *London Society for the Extension of University Teaching*, and freely acknowledge that our criticism of its work was in some respects too severe. In particular, it was unreasonable to expect of the Society the same success, either in degree or kind, that the University of Cambridge has attained in the North of England. Agreeing as we do with the Secretary that the Society thoroughly deserves the support of the public, we think that an argument with him on points of detail would serve no good purpose. The one point where Mr. Cook convicts us of actual mis-statement of fact, requires a word of explanation. "The examiners," Mr. Cook states, "were in no case them-

selves lecturers." As regards the reports referred to at the Mansion House meeting, we accept the correction, but it is none the less true that it has been the habit of the Society to choose its examiners from its staff of lecturers, though of course no lecturer has been appointed to examine his own class. Professor H. Morley, for instance, whose literature paper has so provoked our correspondent, "An Examinee," is one of the Society's regular lecturers.

ONE parting counsel to the Society we would reiterate. Secure for your lecturers young men—men who are fired with the enthusiasm of Professor Stuart, and who have not only energy, but time to devote to the work. It is quite true that in several cases the London Society engages "the identical men who also lecture for Cambridge," but we adhere to our paradox that "in travelling south they leave their enthusiasm behind them." We know of one case only in which the London lecturer has made the work of the Society his sole occupation, whereas with the Cambridge lecturers this is the rule. A correspondent of the *Pall Mall Gazette* makes a good practical suggestion. Let University extension work count as College work. This concession would enable many young Fellows to devote themselves to a congenial employment without imperilling their prospects for life.

THE following circular has been addressed to most Headmasters in the kingdom. Though it is marked "private," we feel no scruple in publishing it. There are, we fear, masters mean enough to take such a commission, and employers foolish enough to accept such recommendations.

104, Southampton Row, London, W.C.
June 19, 1883.

SIR,—If you can introduce youths to first-class vacancies as pupils or apprentices, we shall be glad to halve our fees with you. After considerable outlay, we are prepared to recommend berths in any profession or trade in any part of England. By introducing to really desirable vacancies only, we are giving every satisfaction to all parties. Our charges are paid by the employers, and are generally 10 per cent. on the amount of premium.

Yours sincerely,
T. H. BAKER,
pro BOLL & BAKER.

WE learn, to our great satisfaction, that Mr. Thring's new book on Teaching, which we mentioned some months ago, is already in the printer's hands. It will be published, like Mr. Fitch's *Lectures*, by the Cambridge Syndicate, at the University Press. The Syndicate is doing good service to Education by adding valuable works to our scanty stock in this branch of literature. Not less welcome is the announcement that Madame Michaelis and Mr. H. K. Moore are engaged on a translation of selections from the writings of Froebel. English teachers will never read Froebel in the original, and no author more demands or will suffer less by translation and condensation. Froebel's style is *not* the man.

ON THE TEACHING OF PHYSICAL SCIENCE.

By Prof. E. W. CLAYPOLE, B.A., B.Sc. (Lond.) F.G.S., &c., New Bloomfield, Perry Co., Pennsylvania.

WANT of time, and the desire to put what I had to say into small space, induced me to delay taking earlier notice of Mr. Steel's late paper in the April number of the *Journal of Education*. It is also possible that the Editor does not wish to continue the discussion. Truth is, however, sometimes elicited by collision, and the contributions of different pens may set it in a clearer light than any one of them could do alone.

By way of introduction, let me assure Mr. Steel that here in the United States the practice of lecturing on science to boys is *not* common. Borrowing a term from the entomologist, I will call this the "larval" stage of scientific teaching. It was *very* common in England not many years ago, and still survives, especially in private schools, many of which do excellent work in other departments. So common was it that a class of men, not yet extinct—science-lecturers—obtained their living by going from school to school giving lectures, and sometimes showing experiments with portable apparatus. Nor were they and their work altogether deserving of condemnation. They often created an interest in science where none was felt before; and in days when nothing better was within reach, and in places where nothing better is now within reach, the plan was, and is, not without its advantages. Mr. Hutchinson's paper in the *Journal* for November, 1882, showed that this was the earliest adopted at Rugby, and was followed by instruction given by some of the "classical masters with scientific taste," and, later, by the mathematical masters. But Rugby has outgrown this larval stage and come forth in full "imago," I must not say "perfect" condition, with well-equipped chemical and physical laboratories, natural history society, and annual reports.

I alluded to the "larval" stage of scientific teaching, far from perfect, yet better than nothing. Here in America, I regret to say, that with few exceptions we have not yet reached this "larval" state. The scientific teaching in our schools is still in the egg. It consists, for the most part, in setting a passage of a text-book to be learned by heart and "recited" in class, or in some slight modification of this plan.* In a few schools, mostly in the large cities, better methods have been adopted, but we are still far from realizing that, to obtain the full benefit of science as an engine of education or as an investment of labour, experimental teaching—doing, not learning—is the first condition of success. In due time, I doubt not, we shall emerge from this condition, and sooner or later reach the full-fledged "imago" stage, when all the sciences, physical and natural, will be taught experimentally from the very beginning.

It is on this point that I join issue with Mr. Steel; with much of what he has written I fully agree. I appreciate his dislike of mere "analyzing machines"—a term for which I thank him,—such as are turned out of our chemical mills by hundreds every year. They are not the highest products of chemical teaching, nor the fitting outcome of scientific study. Yet Mr. Steel will, I am sure, admit that there is a demand for them, and that many boys and young men who take up the study of Chemistry will never, for want of capacity, become anything more. Moreover, it will often happen that an "analyzing machine" will gain his bread and cheese where a scientific chemist would starve. The supply is probably created by the demand. It is not always the case that the

* "A teacher of natural science whose conception of method does not rise above the conventional text-book instruction is an educational incubus. He has no business in the profession, and his retention in it excludes some more worthy man. It is quite true, however, more is the pity, that the majority of so-called professors of natural science in America belong to this class."—*Address of Prof. D. S. Jordan before the Indiana College Association in December, 1882.*

education that best develops the man is the education that the times require.

The point before us, however, is the method of teaching physical science so to secure the best result both for mental discipline and for future profit. Could we separate the boys into two classes, one containing those whose brain-power fitted them for going with advantage over a wide scientific course, and the other containing those who never could run out of a narrow groove, we might adapt our teaching to both. Or, could we know who in future life will use their knowledge of physical science as a means of general culture, and who would need it to gain a living, we might also adapt our method to the two classes. But both classifications are equally impossible. Consequently, our method of teaching must cover the ground for all.

At the outset, then, I must express a decided opinion, that one of the first objects should be to awaken an interest in the subject, if it does not already exist. This is only a special case of the proposition, that, in teaching any subject, our efforts should always be put forth to this end. The laws of mind teach us that to work easily, and to retain results, the faculties must be "attentive," and interest is the surest way of awakening attention. Especially is this true of young scholars, whose control of themselves and whose "continuity" are not sufficient to enable them to command their own attention when not interested. With older pupils, much may be done by appealing to other motives, but even with them, unless their interest is somewhat excited, progress will be slow, and backsliding swift and sure.

Consequently, I cannot approve of Mr. Steel's advice that a boy should attend a course of lectures for many months, perhaps for a year, before he is put into the laboratory. I do not wish to imply that Mr. Steel does not obtain good results from his plan. Otherwise he would not be satisfied with it and recommend it. But I submit that for general adoption it is not the right one. On the contrary, I would say, "Put a boy at once into the laboratory with simple apparatus and material suitable to his age and attainments, and set him at work forthwith among the substances with which he has to deal. It is vastly better that he should know the thing without its name than the name without its thing. As John Locke says in his *Essay* (Bk. III., ch. ii.),—"Words are many of them learned before the ideas are known for which they stand; therefore some, not only children, but men, speak several words no otherwise than parrots do, only because they have learned them and have been accustomed to those sounds."

By attendance at lectures without simultaneous handling of the substances spoken of, a boy learns names with very cloudy and imperfect ideas of the objects for which they stand—a very common danger in education, and one that cannot be too carefully avoided. Moreover, the elementary facts of the science are learned much more quickly, and retained more tenaciously when they are learned by several senses by experiment, than through the ear alone (or with some slight help from the eye) by listening to a lecture.

It may also be noted in passing, that not all or many boys can spare the time for a year's course of lectures preparatory to commencing the real practical study of any science. Time is short, and growing shorter every year. New subjects crowd upon us, and few old ones can be left out. Consequently, as Mr. Steel has well said, "the acquisition of the ability to learn well and rapidly should be made as easy as possible." For this purpose, all the senses should be engaged upon a subject rather than one or two. More knowledge can get in through five or six gateways than through one, and the intellect is more likely to be awakened.

Further, by giving a boy a small set of chemical apparatus, which costs little, and the aid of a book or lecture to guide him at the outset, the study may be commenced at a much earlier age than otherwise. A child of twelve or even of ten years old is often quite able to make an efficient beginning in this manner. Time is thus saved, and a good foundation laid for higher work in the future. Progress must and will depend

on the different faculties and tastes, or, rather, on their relative development in every case. But this is true with all methods.

Again, another advantage of beginning actual work in science at the outset is, that in early life the observing faculties are the best developed. They lead in the order of nature, and are followed by the reflective and reasoning faculties. It is consequently more "natural" to appeal to the observation than to the reason in early years. A fact is often observed by a child more quickly and vividly than by an untrained man or woman. Indeed, one of the worst evils of our modern system of education is the deadening and dulling of the observing faculties by too much "bookwork." To such an extent does this sometimes go, that I have many times met with students past their boyhood or girlhood who seemed to have completely lost the power of observing, or of feeling any pleasure in it, and who would vastly prefer reading a statement in a book or hearing it in a lecture to seeing the fact for themselves. Than this, nothing is more to be deprecated. It is the secret of much of the dissatisfaction prevalent concerning "Modern Education." It leaves one great part of the mind undeveloped, and that one of the most important parts, in view of the condition of our modern life—the faculties of observation, and of reasoning from observation. To it we may attribute much of the "gullibility"—the blind and slavish faith in the printed book or paper—so common in these days of reading overmuch. It checks and stifles that wholesome scepticism which is the foundation of all real knowledge. As an engine of mental discipline, therefore, not less than as a means of accumulating knowledge, let experiment accompany or precede the lecture, and observation go before reasoning.

I may put these recommendations in a stronger light, and so further test their value by an argument from analogy. They are in harmony with our modes of teaching other subjects. Who, for example, would lecture to a student of any age in Latin or French, before putting him to read or write those languages? I may put a similar question in regard to Mathematics. And, to come yet closer to our present subject, would any art student be recommended to attend lectures on art for a year before taking pencil in hand? Would not every one say it was beginning at the wrong end? The younger the pupil, the greater would be the waste of time. The universal consent of teachers—the common sense of mankind—puts the student, young or old, to work at once with just sufficient advice to enable him to do something. All the higher departments are reserved for the future, when the elements are so completely mastered that they are the pupil's own property, and can be appealed to by the master, recalled by the learner without effort. Geometrical and aerial perspective, the use of colour, choice of subjects, harmony and contrast, proportion and balance of parts, all these are postponed until *practice, daily practice*, has rendered the elements almost things of intuition and instinct.

And what is true of Drawing is equally true of Music. If it would be waste of time to require a long attendance at lectures before beginning to draw, it would be greater waste to require the same before beginning to sing or play. What would be gained by listening to a lecture on the voice or on a musical instrument, instead of learning to use it, even with many failures? Young children can begin both Music and Drawing experimentally long before their faculties are sufficiently developed to understand the principles underlying what they are doing. And in the same manner I am tempted to ask, "What is the use of spending time in listening to lectures on Chemistry and Physics instead of commencing at once with the test-tube and blowpipe, with the scales, the glass-tubing, the cheap galvanic cell, &c., &c., &c., a practical course of elementary physical science? Want of space prevents my entering into detail, and it might be rather egotistical to relate in full my own experience in the teaching of Physics and Chemistry on both sides of the Atlantic. But the gist of the matter is expressed above—*Practice before Theory*.

I note that Mr. Steel himself admits that a boy may begin

with practical work in Physics, and am at a loss to see why the same is not true with regard to Chemistry.

I will conclude this paper, which has grown larger than I intended to make it, with two remarks.

The first is, that I wrote advisedly that many an average boy's head is in a fog at the end of a course of lectures on Chemistry when he has done no practical work himself. And I am strongly of opinion that the experience of many others would confirm the remark. The chemical substances being to him only names or tickets, and not ideas, he is liable at any time to use the wrong ticket without any consciousness of the blunder he is committing. This is the natural consequence of cramming of all kinds, and the study of Physical Science by mere bookwork is only a form of cramming. In this connexion Mr. Steel has allowed himself to make a contemptuous remark on the intellect of the boy who could make such a blunder, or on that of the teacher who trained him. Possibly the contempt may be deserved by both. But experience leads me to doubt it. On this topic I will not now enlarge, but Mr. Steel will allow me to remind him that in all discussions where truth is the object of the efforts of both parties, all expressions of contempt, sarcasm, and ridicule are out of place. None of them is argument. They are of more weight than the most solid logic with the ignorant and untrained, but with the educated and trained their value is nothing. They are liable to injure the cause in which they are employed. "The clear, cold logic-engine" is the only agent that avails anything in the search for truth by discussion.

I have purposely confined myself to Physics and Chemistry in order that the field might be defined. It is more profitable to discuss a small subject, strictly limited, than to ramble over a large one. Much of what I have written applies with equal force to the study of the natural sciences, but I refrain for the present from applying it thereto, and even from making any allusion to that immense subject.

APOLOGY FOR "FLORIMEL"

"No, Leto never, the chaste spouse of Zeus,
Brought forth such folly. Rather, I believe,
The banquet Tantalus spread for the Gods
An impious fable. Gods ne'er feasted on
A boy's flesh, but a murderous tribe of men
Laid on the god their own iniquity,
For no one of the gods, methinks, is base."

EURIPIDES, *Iphigenia in Tauris*.

ANTI-BARBARUS conjectures that "Florimel" probably conveys to the initiated "some esoteric and strictly professional meaning," and others, catching at the idea, urge me to reveal that meaning to the uninitiated.

It was certainly in the hope that the letters would convey some such meaning to the readers of the *Journal of Education*, and that their professional experience would enable them to find the key to the problem suggested by my friend's wild flight, that I published the papers; and it is not a little disappointing and embarrassing to me to be called upon to solve my own riddle. Indeed, I decline the attempt. Only so much let me say: it was in no hope of transforming all the mock Florimels of London society into true Florimels of the wild, that I printed the letters. Nor did I think they would induce the admirers of the London lady to desert *en masse*, and become followers of the prophetess of the moors. I am not visionary enough to entertain the first thought; I am too humane for the second. Moreover, I have a genuine liking for the mock Florimel, and I am not at all sure that I should get on with the true one. Florimel the First is the child of the world to which I belong: she is what that world has made her, what it and I want. Florimel the Second is what the moors and the factory have made her, what the moors and the factory want, but most decidedly not what I and my world want. As far as I can remember, I never met her during her sojourn in

London; but if I did and have forgotten it, it is exceedingly probable that I found her a bore, possibly awkward and underbred. None the less, I do not hesitate to acknowledge that she is the nobler woman of the two, and that in listening to her counsels and returning to the simpler influences of the rustic life in which he was bred, X. has gone the right way to recover his lost inspiration. But when my friends press me to say what definite result I look for as the outcome of this strange flight into the desert of one whom, now that he is gone, they speak of as at least a minor prophet of his day, I am at a loss for an answer to give them. They wish me to promise them that X., having found the mysterious Mothers, and caught a spark from the glowing tripod, will produce straightway an epic poem, or a circle of dramas, or a volume of sonnets. And in my heart I doubt very much whether he will ever produce anything more. But, then, it is to me a matter of absolute indifference whether he produces or not. Should he, in the course of a year or two, or of ten or twenty years, write a magnificent poem, no one will read it with more pleasure than I shall,—provided, of course, that I am still alive. But, in the meantime, the world has epic poems enough, and dramas enough, and sonnets more than enough, to satisfy my poetic appetite. I can do so well without a new poem, that I cannot feel it to be a momentous question whether X. is going to produce one or not. Neither can I feel any excitement about the parallel questions put to me concerning his new Florimel. Some ladies, for whom I have a sincere regard, are troubled by doubts whether so remarkable a woman is not wasted on factory work and in factory society. They are as sure as X. himself that she is a born teacher, and they think that, if she would only come to London and work hard for two or three terms at University College, she might have a brilliant career as a public lecturer. And they appeal to me to confirm them in their opinion that it is a great pity London society should be deprived of the advantages that would come to it through the presence of such a shining light. I don't like to remind these ladies that Florimel once came to London, and was not appreciated by its society, because that would look like a reflection upon them. I don't like to suggest that possibly Florimel, in spite of her great gifts, is not qualified to shine in London society, because that would look like a reflection upon her. I am reduced to the humiliating necessity of meeting all questions with the formula used by the aged porter of the Castle of Orgoglio—"I cannot tell."

There is one question, however, to which I grant that this is not a permissible reply. That question was put to me obliquely by Florimel herself—the mock Florimel, of course. By some wild freak of chance, the numbers of the *Journal* containing X.'s letters have fallen into her hands, and she has read them without guessing their authorship, or recognising her own portrait. I was at her house last night, and she spoke of them to me. I heard her with some confusion, and had a momentary impulse to confess my part in the publication, and ask her pardon. But I reflected that by doing so I should give her pain, and unfairly compromise X.; so I kept my counsel, and endeavoured to listen without betraying too keen an interest, while she expressed her appreciation of the character and surroundings of her rival. She touched my sympathy by the plaintive envy with which she dwelt on the advantages of the life of retirement lived by the new Florimel. And though I know perfectly that transportation to L. would suit the London woman no better than transportation to London suited the Yorkshire woman, still I felt that this envy was not wholly simulated. I know it to be akin to a perverse mood that lurks in a corner of my own consciousness, like a survival of ancestral instinct, and puts me in a sort of theoretic sympathy with all the rebellious children of nature who find themselves coudemured to live a town life against their will. I know that a town life suits me best, but I like to imagine myself revelling in Arcady. And because I am content with the mere fancy, and have no impatience to turn it into a reality, I make a very comfortable confidant for the desert-passion of my more earnest friends.

It increased my respect for Florimel to find her doing

justice to a life and character so differently conditioned to her own. And I felt guilty towards her when she said at last,—“Still, though the letters have interested me, I cannot make anything of them, and I don't see why B. published them. If they are genuine letters, it seems to me that he has committed a breach of trust. If they are fictitious, I think the author, whoever he may be, should have given them a clearer moral. And I wonder you do not agree with me,—you who always take such a practical view of things.”

I replied that I considered the moral quite plain enough, and, as far as I could read it, I found it practical.

“Then,” said Florimel, “it is evident that we do not use the word ‘practical’ with the same meaning.”

“Possibly not,” said I.

“Certainly not,” said she.

“I wonder what your idea of a practical person is!” I said.

And she replied that she considered herself a practical woman.

I smiled, incredulously I suppose.

“Ah,” said she, “I see you think I am not practical, because I don't do things with my hands; and, of course, I am not practical in that sense, though I think I might be if I had time. But, in a London life, one does nothing if one attempts to do things in person; one must show one's practical talent, not by the number of things one does oneself, but by the number one gets done. The moment a woman has an established position in society, I consider it her duty to give her name and influence to as many good works as possible, and to extend her acquaintance widely, because that is a sure way of increasing influence. But one cannot do everything, and so one has to leave the actual work to other sort of people.”

“To what sort of people?” I asked.

“To quiet, slow people, who live in a small world, and are glad enough to give all their time and thought to the doing of one thing well.”

“The people,” said I, “whom I call practical.”

“Perhaps,” she replied. “But I assure you that is the very last name they are entitled to. They waste their lives in dreams, and accomplish nothing outside the one work they have taken up. I have had to do with them on committees, and have always found them mainly obstructive. But for the existence of busy people, like myself, who positively must have things settled out of hand, no work would ever be done in the world. When one has every day of the week crowded with more engagements than can by any possibility be kept, one realises that life is too short for efforts after perfection.”

“That, unfortunately, is true,” said I. “We are too busy to do anything well. But do you never find yourself wondering what law you are obeying when you undertake to do so many things? I confess that I rather liked the way X.'s Florimel seemed to settle for herself that she had a right to be idle when her factory work was done.”

“Oh, yes,” said my friend, “that sort of people always make a virtue of idleness. But I was brought up to think one should be industrious. One may easily find an excuse for doing nothing, by declaring that nothing is worth doing.”

Florimel amuses me when she takes a moral tone. Her maxims come out so pat. She is so complacently satisfied that she always acts from the best motives, that it never occurs to her to excuse or justify herself by reference to fact, or to personal feelings. She simply picks up the first appropriate good sentiment that comes to hand, and endorses it for immediate use. And you pay her back with corresponding readiness in the current coin of conventional cynicisms. Talk with her is merely a reflex action of the conversational organs; and a very restful process it is. It involves no effort of thought at the time, and entails no duty of recollection. She speaks from the surface, and from the surface you reply. The difference between your part and hers is, that she believes this to be the only way of talking; while you, probably, know that it is not. And the advantage is all on her side. You may be disturbed now and then by a twinge of conscience, as you realize that you are playing a rather ignoble trick, which it took you much

trouble long ago to learn. But she, having inherited the trick, has no suspicion that it is one, and consequently no compunction in practising it. In this, as in all things, she shows herself the child of the last stage of culture, beyond which there is nothing but decadence. But this, also, you know, and she does not: the charm of her society lies in the fact that her unconsciousness gives you a momentary reprieve from the remorse you are otherwise never quite free from for your part in bringing this sterile culture to pass. That sentimentalism born of impotent regret, which X. declares to be almost the only form of imagination left to our day, has no place in her composition. She has arrived at the heaven of perfect forgetfulness; and no ghosts from the past haunt the serenity of her flatly positive mind.”

We were silent for a few seconds after her declaration of her sentiments on the score of idleness. But she is not fond of silence, and she meant me to answer. She said, blandly, “You have no more sympathy than I have with this nonsense about leisure. Don't you think it breeds superstition?”

“Possibly,” I admitted. “But then I have a sneaking sympathy with superstition.”

“You!” she cried, fairly bewildered. “I thought you were as modern as myself.”

“My dear lady,” said I, “the supposition was a monstrous anachronism. I am your senior by twenty years, and, therefore, by so much your inferior in modernism.”

“Ah, but these things are not measured in that way,” she said, with a smile as peculiar to herself as the smile of the other Florimel is peculiar to her. I will not, however, venture upon so detailed a description of my London lady's smile as X. hazarded in the case of his lady of the moors. The truth is, that it is a most difficult smile to define. It seems to mean so much until you ask yourself what it means, and then you begin to suspect that it only meant you to suppose it had great meaning.

“These things are not measured in that way,” she said; and she leant back in her chair, and the indescribable smile seemed to spread over her whole person.

I found myself growing irritated—with the smile, of course. Florimel herself never irritates me. As I have said before, I find her conversation soothing and restful. But her smile provoked me, and I found myself talking to the smile, in a tone that was positively petulant.

“But, indeed, things are measured so, and can be measured in no other way. If you are born before the days of railroads, you will have in your composition some glimmering recollection of the days of coaching. If you are born after the coaching system has quite gone out, you can't by any possibility remember it. Similarly, if you are born in the days of imagination, you will be sure to have some notion of what imagination means,—some vestige of sympathy with it, and with the conditions of social life that are favourable to it. But if you are born in the days of complete culture, when education, or what is called education, has cast out imagination, then you can't possibly have any imagination, and, as a fact, you have none. . . .”

“None?” she said, opening her eyes wide. “No what? Oh, no imagination, of course you mean. No, I suppose not. But why introduce imagination into the question? I spoke of superstition.”

“Superstition,” said I, “is imagination in its nonage, and again in its dotage.”

“Well, perhaps,” she said meditatively. “But, as you said just now, education has ‘cast out imagination,’ and all sensible people are in favour of education. By the way, how is it that those words have a familiar ring, like a hackneyed proverb? Was it Solomon who said them first?”

“Not Solomon, but Marcus Aurelius,” I replied, rather reluctantly.

“Ah, well!” she said; “I don't read Marcus Aurelius, so that is not how I know them. Stay!—it comes back to me.”

She rose from her chair and went to a bureau, and, unlocking a drawer, took from it what looked like a child's copy-book.

“You did not think I was so sentimental, did you?” she

said. "But look here: this is the copy-book I used when I was eight years old, and here it is at the third page. 'Cast out imagination.' Fancy my having written the sentence over and over again all those years ago, and having never discovered till now whose it was!—Marcus Aurelius was a wise man."

"Doubtless. He adapted himself to the circumstances in which he was placed. It was his fate to live in an age of corruption and decadence. It was his duty to govern an empire that was being torn in pieces by powers of destruction too mighty for any single will to cope with. His life was lonely. The present afforded him no sympathy. In the future he could see no consolation. There was no point of the horizon on which his imagination could dwell with profit. But he recognised, as a just and wise man always must, that it was none the less his duty to live according to the highest revelation of truth and duty that he knew; and, in order to do this, he must repress with a stern hand whatever disposition of his mind tended to weaken his sense of duty, and his conviction that there were no better things to be had in life than justice and truth and right reason. Among such dispositions, in such circumstances, must always be counted imagination. Where decadence is the national prospect, and annihilation the final hope for the individual, imagination cannot occupy itself with the future, and it ceases to be creative. It must either linger on as a sort of intellectual hysteria—what X. calls 'a wistful back-look of yearning memory'—or it must die—if indeed imagination can die."

"And, you doubt, then, that it can die?" said Florimel.

"I think I do," I answered. "But I am sure that it can be cast out."

"And that we do best to cast it out?" she added, in her most complacent tone.

But to this I would not agree. I made no answer, but continued to flutter the pages of her old copy-book. It amused me to trace a resemblance between the large innocent text-hand of her childhood and the faultlessly fair penmanship of her notes of to-day. She is not a woman whom you would ever think of calling childlike, but you cannot know her long without discovering that she is in some respects like a child. All her ideas are so simple, in the sense of being so undeveloped. There is also about them a peculiar sort of unconsciousness of their inter-dependence. She knows the why and the wherefore of nothing in herself, and of nothing outside herself. Her mind is, in one word, as unformed as the characters in her old copy-book. And, as I held the book before me, I could not refrain from amusing myself with the reflections it suggested.

Annoyed by my absorption, she repeated her last remark with a distinct emphasis of interrogation.

"And you think it best that we should cast out imagination?"

"I think," said I, "that we have no choice in the matter. The whole machinery of the society to which we belong is employed in casting it out. The question that interests me is, what will become of it when we have cast it out?"

"Ah, now I cannot follow you," she said, in a matter-of-fact and perfectly uninterested tone.

"But perhaps you will," I said, "if you will listen to this fable that I find at the end of your copy-book. Do you remember writing this also?"

"No, not that," she said; and a flush of deeper feeling came into her face. "I did not write that. That was written by my daughter when she was a little girl at the dictation of an old friend, whom we used to see a great deal of at one time. One day when I was teaching Flora—I had time for that sort of thing then—he came in and interrupted us, and sat and talked till I was obliged to go out, and then he said that he would give the child a lesson in dictation to make up for the loss of time. And I left them together, and, when I came home, I found she had written that. It is the story of Iphigenia. I know."

"Yes," said I, "and I am going to read it to you." She made a sign of assent, and I began to read.

"Now, when the ships of the Hellenes were all collected together in the bay of Aulis, and the princes were impatient to set sail for Troas, there fell a calm upon the sea, so that it was not possible for the fleet

to get under way. Then Agamemnon inquired of the priest what he should do to propitiate the gods, and raise a favourable wind; and the priest, after inquiring diligently, obtained this answer,—that the favour of the gods would only be obtained when the fairest thing in the land should have been offered to Diana in sacrifice. And the fairest thing in all Hellas was known to be Iphigenia, the virgin daughter of Agamemnon, whom he had left in his palace in Argos, in charge of her mother, Clytemnestra. Agamemnon consented unwillingly to sacrifice his daughter in order to win the favourable wind, to further the enterprise of the princes; and, knowing that Clytemnestra would refuse to bring her child to Argos for so cruel a purpose, he feigned to her that Achilles had asked their daughter in marriage, and that he was sending for her to celebrate her nuptials; and accordingly Clytemnestra came gladly, bringing her daughter, for she rejoiced to think that her daughter was to wed a hero. But, when she came to Aulis, and learned the cruel fraud that had been practised upon her, she was filled with bitter hatred against Agamemnon. Iphigenia, however, consented willingly to be sacrificed for what she was told was the glory of her country, and the honour of her father."

"There, that will do," said Florimel. "I know the story well. Iphigenia was placed upon the altar, and all the usual rites were observed; but, as the priest raised his hand to slay her, a cloud enveloped her, and when it passed away Iphigenia was gone, and a ram was there instead."

I asked if she knew the sequel.

"Yes, I think so. My friend was very fond of the story, and he used to read it to me in a sort of impromptu translation from the Greek. For many years nothing was heard of Iphigenia. In the meantime the Trojan War came to an end. Troy was sacked and the princes of Greece returned home victorious. But Clytemnestra had never forgiven Agamemnon for the murder of her child, and having been unfaithful to him in his absence, she slew him, partly in terror and partly in revenge, as soon as he came back to his palace. Then Orestes, the son of Agamemnon, slew Clytemnestra to avenge his father, and for the curse of matricide was pursued constantly by avenging furies. At last, to obtain peace, he was commanded to go to the wild country of Tauris, where a lost image of Diana was reported to be hidden, and it was promised him that, if he brought back this image to Greece, then, for the good service rendered, he should be counted pure of the sin for which he had been so long tormented. He found Iphigenia officiating at the altar of Diana, and subject to the barbarous king of the country. With difficulty she saved him from the common fate of strangers, which was to be sacrificed to the goddess; and the two returned together to Greece.—There, that is the story; but, whatever you do, I beg of you not to expound it to me. I hate everything of the nature of an allegory, and I only have a kindness for this, because it is connected in my mind with pleasant days. But even this would bore me in expositio. Besides, I see pretty well what you would say. We cast out imagination, and we think it is dead, and then suddenly we find it cropping up again in some barbarous, outlandish place, or among rough, uneducated people. Florimel flies from London, and is discovered at Heymoor; X. finds the imaginative faculty driven out of him by the bustle of society, and rushes off to the moors, where it comes back. Iphigenia stands first for one thing, and then for another—for Florimel one moment, and for the lost inspiration of X., another; and the whole thing affects me like a tedious conjuring trick. Pray spare me the application."

"As you will," I said; "but the value of a fable depends upon its being capable of many and various applications. It is in this way that fables and allegories, and indeed all creative art, resembles the teaching of Nature, from which it is, in truth, but one step removed."

"But," said Florimel, "I am many steps removed from Nature,—as you have told me several times, I am a child of the last stage of culture, and it is my duty to cast out imagination—as Marcus Aurelius did. It is a comfort to know myself in such good company."

There was no answer possible. I realised that it was late, and wished her good night.

* * * * *

As I walked home, I felt that she had had the best of the argument. And this is what I always feel when I try to justify the children of Nature against the children of Culture. The practical people—the men who are working the great machine of government, the women who are turning the merry-go-round of fashion, the educationists who are shaping the young generation after the exact pattern the generation in power thinks the right one,—they all have the best of it whenever it comes to argument. And the reason is simple: they know what they want, and how to get it. They strive after a definite goal, and generally reach it. But one thing they do not know, and that is whether there may not possibly be better goals than theirs to be reached by the bye-ways they neglect,—whether there may not be priceless treasures among the lumber of imagination which they cast aside as a vain encumbrance to their strenuous march. I have said already that I have no personal inclination to go out in search of these neglected good things, or to explore the obscure bye-ways. But I cannot get rid of my surviving instincts of sympathy with those who have such an impulse. And every time I see man, woman, or child falling out of the ranks of our well-drilled army of purposeful progress, I ask myself whether it is not possible that the deserter of to-day may prove the pioneer of to-morrow. New revelations steal on us unawares: they come not to the strenuous seekers after this truth or that, needful to prove one theory, or confound another: but to those who, dowered with the hapless faculty of “seeing beyond their bourn,” find a saddening discord in the vaunted harmonies of the social present, and, doubting their power of reading the future destinies of man, turn for enlightenment to Nature, and recover their souls’ balance in communion with the universal forces that are akin to their individual impulses. In the infinite variety of the Great Mother’s moods there is sympathy for all her children. And, in the atmosphere of sympathy, each one best discovers the extent and the limits of his powers. It matters little whether these powers are great or small. But it is of supreme importance, to the least as well as to the greatest of us, that we should know whereof we are capable, and seek our happiness there where it really lies. For thus only can we attain to that serenity of mind upon which clear vision depends,—so only arrive at the knowledge of our share in the general scheme. Therefore, again I say, I care little whether X. is in the road to fame or not, but I care infinitely to know that he is in the way to grow to the full stature of which Nature made him capable. Some of us see the fruit of our development in our own generation, in works of our own doing; others go out into the desert, and prepare the way for workers of another generation. These will always be mourned over by their busy contemporaries as reactionists and obstructives; but posterity may be trusted to recall the censure, and hail them as prophets in the day when their prophecy is fulfilled, and the order that seemed to them disorder, has given place to a better.

For myself, I say once more, I have no pretension to a place among the prophets.—

“In the world

We jostle,—but my flag is not unfur’l’d
On the Admiral-staff,—and to philosophize
I dare not yet!”

But when I read novel after novel from the circulating libraries, and find each more destitute than the last of thought, and feeling, and beauty, and I am told that this is the sort of literature that pays; when I see the walls of the Royal Academy hung with countless square yards of clever but soulless realism, and I hear that this is the sort of art that sells; when women tell me that, in order to advance their husbands’ professional interests, or to secure a good social position for their children, or to serve some public cause, they consider it a duty to sacrifice the sweet realities of friendship to the forms that keep up a colossal acquaintance; when I go into a schoolroom, and see teachers grudging down the imagination of boys and girls on science primers and skeleton histories, and dry abstracts of noble thoughts, and I am assured that this is the best way of training children to

be useful citizens of a manly and practical state: when I see these things, and hear these things, I think of Clytemnestra speeding in her chariot to Aulis, lured by the false promise that her virgin daughter is to be wedded to the hero of the camp, and finding that her child’s death is all that is required. And I ask myself, wondering, whether it can be true that material prosperity is well purchased by the destruction of whatsoever thing is fairest in the land.

This question, in one form and another, has been with me constantly for many years. When X.’s letters came, they suggested the happier question: *Is there for our time also a Tauris as well as an Aulis, whence regeneration shall come when lust and greed have spent themselves at last?*—I could not refrain from putting the new question to the public.

B.

THE OXFORD LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.

WE are glad to find that the Oxford Local Examinations Syndicate has at length determined to make an effort to set things on a better footing. The Local Committee of the London Centre has not been alone in repeatedly urging that it was unwise to make “Religious Knowledge” a compulsory subject, and that the beginning of June was a time very ill suited, from a school point of view, for holding the examinations. But, up to the present, the Oxford Syndicate has refused to listen. The following figures show that it was not without reason a change was advocated.

1881. Seniors 767, Juniors 1575; total 2342.
1882. „ 711, „ 1426; „ 2137.
1883. „ 662, „ 1219; „ 1881.

A decrease of 461 in two years. These figures refer to the centres as a whole. But the figures for the London Centre alone are quite as significant.

1881. Seniors 71, Juniors 161; total 232.
1882. „ 72, „ 134; „ 206.
1883. „ 54, „ 105; „ 159.

Showing a decrease of 73 in two years.* In the face of this, it was manifestly impossible to resist a change any longer. The Oxford Syndicate have therefore at length issued a new set of regulations in which they propose to hold *two* examinations; the first commencing June 9th, 1884, and the second July 14th, 1884. By the results of this experiment the Syndicate will be guided hereafter. The “Religious Knowledge” is not, however, made entirely optional, as it should have been. The objectionable words “on conscientious grounds” are omitted, it is true, and a parent or guardian may refuse to let a son or daughter be examined in “Religious Knowledge” *without giving a reason*; but, unless an objection is made, every candidate “must be examined in at least one of the divisions” of the subject. This is a somewhat peculiar rule; for the candidate is, in this way, only required to be *examined* in, not necessarily to show any knowledge of, the division he or she chooses. There are one or two other changes worth noticing. Junior candidates are no longer allowed to take up *both* the subjects set in Latin and in Greek. They must choose one Latin and one Greek, if they take up these sections. No English poetry to be learnt by heart is any longer set,—not a great pity, if the choice was to be for ever restricted to second and third-rate verse; but a great pity indeed, when one thinks of how much first-rate poetry there is to choose from. The remaining alterations are of this kind:—“Candidates may not offer both French and Italian; or both Music and Mechanics; or both Greek and Botany, Zoology or Geology.” These read somewhat strangely, but of course refer to the construction of the examination “Time-table.” Surely the schools themselves are the best judges as to whether a boy should take up

* It should be noted that during these very same years the numbers at the Cambridge Locals and College of Preceptors’ Examinations have *increased* rapidly and largely.

both this and that subject—especially when they are so unlike one another as “Music” and “Mechanics,” “Greek” and “Botany.” Restrictions made by the Syndicate should refer exclusively to the internal divisions of a section—not to the sections themselves. The fact is, the Syndicate has not even yet learnt that it is not their mission to tell the schools what the candidates ought to learn and what they ought not. What they should do, if they wish to make their examination a success—which it is far from being at present—is to make themselves better acquainted with the wishes of schools, and to arrange things so that a candidate shall not be excluded from a subject because it does not suit the Syndicate’s timetable that he should take it up.

CORRESPONDENCE.

LONDON SOCIETY FOR THE EXTENSION OF UNIVERSITY TEACHING.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Our Society has to thank you for many notices of its objects and operations, and, not least, for the frank and friendly criticism of the article in your June number. But this article contained a few somewhat misleading statements, which may do us harm at a time when we are making a special appeal for public support, and to which I trust, therefore, that you will allow me to refer.

In the first place, you speak of the “extravagant hyperbole” of talking of “bringing the Universities to the working-man’s door.” This rebuke is a little hard, because it was for fear of such hyperbole that the Society avoided in its title the ambiguous though colloquially convenient phrase of “University extension,” and burdened itself with the “sesquipedalian name,” of which none have more reason to know the inconvenience than those who most often use it. All that we pretend to do is, to show to our students, by however small a sample, what is meant by “University teaching,” as distinguished from “popular” lectures on the one hand, and “practical” or technical instruction on the other. As Dr. Westcott said the other day at Cambridge, the movement is in two respects worthy of the best traditions of a University: the lecturers are all men of guaranteed efficiency, and the work they do is, so far as it goes, thorough. You, Sir, “discount” the satisfactory reports of our examiners, by saying that “the examiners were in several cases themselves lecturers,” and that “less than a tenth of the students obtained certificates.” As a matter of fact, however, the examiners were in no case themselves lecturers, and the reason why less than a tenth of the students obtained certificates is, that only very little more than a tenth (10.7 per cent.) of them entered for examination at all. The taste for being examined can hardly be expected to be very strong in students of mature years; and as, in nearly every instance the lecturers complained that their best students were not among the candidates, the results may, I think, be fairly taken as representative of the average run of the work.

In the next place, you seem, Sir, to suggest that we are guilty of something like false pretences in our allusions to the “working men.” But we have nowhere pretended that working men form the bulk of our students. Except in Whitechapel, where our classes (numbering last term 265 entries) are almost entirely composed of artisans, we have only a sprinkling of them. But it is equally wide of the mark to suggest that our students are mostly “lawyers and clergymen.” If this were the case, we should certainly not appeal for public support. The bulk of our students is drawn from the lower middle class, which we believe to be as much in need of public endowment as of instruction. The experience of the Colleges which have happily been the outcome of University Extension lectures elsewhere, seems to bear out this view; the expenses

of such Colleges being met either by endowments or by municipal grants, whilst the students’ fees form only an inconsiderable supplement.

And, lastly, you draw a comparison between our lecturers and those employed under the Cambridge scheme, very much to the disparagement of the former. But the fact is, that many of our lecturers are the identical men who also lecture for Cambridge, and I see no reason to suppose that, in dwelling south, they leave their “enthusiasm” behind them. They certainly do not “complain that the class-teaching is a useless appendix to the lecture, few staying and few answering questions.” On the contrary, the advantages of the class-teaching are now thoroughly appreciated, and lecturer after lecturer has reported that the time allotted to the class was all too short. During the past year, 48 per cent. of our students were in the habit of staying after the lectures for the class-teaching, and 18 per cent. wrote weekly papers; the figures under the Cambridge scheme were 54 per cent. and 21 per cent. severally.

In this, as in other respects, we are well aware that our work falls short of that done under the Cambridge scheme, and the longer time during which the latter scheme has been at work, together with the less favourable field which for many reasons London offers, is perhaps not enough to account for our deficiencies. Nevertheless, I have felt bound to ask you to insert these few explanations, for fear that public generosity should be averted, by a description of our work as more unsatisfactory than it really is.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

E. T. COOK,
Secretary.

22, Albemarle Street, W.
June 9th, 1883.

DENOMINATIONAL TRAINING COLLEGES.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—It is, I hope, not too much to ask, that the “Occasional Notes” of your Journal, characterized as they are by ability, should not sacrifice truth to point. An Occasional should be pointed, but surely also true, in fact.

You say, “that Denominational Colleges, which are supported mainly from the public funds should be allowed to impose religious tests, is a violation of the very principles of the Education Code.” Will you quote page and article for that statement? “Mainly from the public funds.” Yes, to the extent of 75 per cent. of their *approved expenditure*. Where does the other 25 per cent. come from? And of those who contribute to the public funds, what proportion are not only willing, but anxious, that their contributions should be so appropriated? There are some 16,000 churches in England, and some 20,000 chapels of various denominations. Are the congregations of all these to be quietly or noisily ignored? Is legislation for them so very *mesquine*? And if those who believe not are *jalouse*, why don’t they build another college? But who founded and for a long time supported these Denominational Colleges? And are you certain that they do “impose religious tests”? What religious test do the Roman Catholic Colleges impose? and who wants to enter one of them except a Romanist? And the Romanist schools require the masters and mistresses trained in them, unless they find employment under School Boards. But Roman Catholics contribute to the public funds, and have not yet complained of any violation. Why should you? And what religious test do the Wesleyans impose? Must a boy or a girl be “converted,” or a class leader, or &c., before he, or she, can enter?

And what religious test is imposed at Homerton, at Borough Road, Darlington, Swansea? They are Denominational, or un-Denominational Colleges, and you say they are *allowed* to impose religious tests. If so, what? And what religious test is *imposed* in the Church Colleges? Have you made out that the simple Entrance Religious Knowledge Examination is *imposed* at all? But Churchmen and women founded these colleges for Church teachers. They employ many of these teachers, and many of the best of them are doing yeoman service under the

School Boards. And Churchmen contribute to the public funds, and have not yet complained of the misappropriation of their money. Why should you?

The fact is, that English men and women require that the teachers of their children shall be, as far as possible, religious men and women, and they take means to have such trained; and to prevent this would be a violation, not of the Education Code of England, but of the Eternal Code of Almighty God. I suppose you to say, religious education is voluntary. May I say it is not, but highly compulsory.

And you gratuitously find it strange that a good Liberal like Mr. Mundella should defend the system. A somewhat late discovery. The Vice-President's public utterances have not left any doubt on any reasonable or unreasonable man's mind, what he thinks education ought to be, and what, so far as he can make it during his term of office—which every "good Liberal" hopes will be long—it shall be.

And, in your final opinion, it is a survival of "*une législation mesquine et jalouse*, and as such is doomed."

Well, if it be, no doubt it is.

But, first, are you so sure of the meanness and shabbiness of it? Do you honestly think, then, the Eternal verities no longer to be reckoned with? and are we indeed landed by our schoolmasters and *Journals of Education* in the Serbonian bog of everybody's opinion being better than everybody's else's; and specially the opinion of those best, who have no data at all for opinions?

You evidently think education a matter of communicating knowledge. It is not so. It is a matter of compelling people to do right. You evidently think religious tests a monstrosity, and would have them imposed on the same terms as small doses of poison, duly labelled. How do you look after the spoons at home, and the cash-box in the office?

As such it is doomed! Yes, Sir, humbug is doomed; and if religion be humbug, then the sooner the better. But while the Denominational Colleges do £100 worth of work honestly and well for £75, what rational sceptic will doom them?

I am, yours faithfully,

JNO. P. FAUNTHORPE,
Principal of Whitelands College,
Chelsea, S.W.

MR. GREEN AS AN HISTORIAN.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—In your article on Mr. Green as an historian, whilst you allow that "in imaginative reproduction of the past he has not signally failed in any portion of the wide period between the Saxon Invasion and the reign of Queen Victoria," you take much exception to his power of teaching facts. "Respectable teachers report that it is well-nigh impossible to teach English History from his pages, and any one who examines the book to obtain precise information will admit that the reproach is true." Now, sir, I am not a professional teacher, but I claim to know something about education. An educator has two functions,—one to inspire enthusiasm, the other to inculcate facts. The teacher who has the divine gift of rousing the enthusiasm of the student, is not less a teacher than the one who inculcates those facts which are so precious in these days of examination.

Now, I claim for Mr. Green that he is an historian and a teacher of history, on the ground that his work does stimulate the students to enthusiasm. An Oxford man writes to me that "the Short History has, as a matter of tutorial experience, done more to stimulate the intelligent study of History than any other work." Can any man in a work of 820 pages, covering so large a period, at once excite the interest and enter into minute detail? Heaven save us from Præraphaelitism in school books!

May I say that you hardly seem to me to do justice to the originality of the conception,—a fact in itself which gives Mr. Green a claim to rank among historians? The grouping of events round certain social periods, instead of round certain

royal names, is a new departure in English History. To complain that you cannot teach History from a book which crystallizes facts which were before in solution, seems to me a strange complaint. You may not be able to get the dictionary details, the components of the crystals, but then the crystals are to rivet the eye, and to impress the mind—to teach History.

Passing from the general scope of the article, I see you characterize a certain passage as "pernicious clap-trap." Any one who knew Mr. Green, and the careful way in which he built up his thoughts, will treat the accusation of his being led into inaccuracy by any desire for effect, as one which it is hardly necessary to answer seriously. But to those who did not know him it may be necessary to say that every word he wrote was carefully weighed. In the rigid condensation which the space at his disposal forced on him, statements may mar an aspect of imaginativeness. But if you will compare the passage quoted—shorter History, cap. v., sec. i., p. 221, with the views set forth in the Library Edition, Vol. i., Book iv., pp. 419—21, you will see what was in Mr. Green's mind, and what he meant when he seemed to confuse the military and the social aspect of feudalism.

However, only a portion of Mr. Green's historical ability finds vent in the shorter, or even in the longer History of the English People. He hoped to treat in detail certain portions with that minuteness, which would have revealed his clear insight and his grasp of authorities. The "*Making of England*" and the "*Conquest of England*" (shortly to appear) were, in his view, the books by which his claim to be considered an historian—a claim recognised by Freeman, Stubbs, and Bryce—should be judged.

The Vicarage, Greenwich.
June 9th, 1883.

BROOKE LAMBERT.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL LATIN PRIMER.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—I am surprised to find the Appendix to the Latin Primer spoken of as a new "discovery." On my first introduction to the book, I made acquaintance with the more important parts of it, and have always insisted upon these being learnt in connexion with those sections of the Primer they are intended to supplement. I speak more particularly of the Notes on Etymology and Syntax; and doubtless many other teachers will have shared my surprise, that such necessary information as (*e.g.*) the declension of *bos, senex, &c.*, the construction of *juvo, jubeo, &c.*, passive construction of *doceo*, and the like, should have been relegated to an obscure and subordinate position. As regards Part II., the strictures of "An Usher, &c.," upon much of its phraseology, are, I think, just. The facts, however, must be learnt somehow, by all who aim at a sound elementary knowledge of Latin; nor is there any lack of good manuals in the way of exercise-books, containing all that is needed for the purpose, clearly and concisely worded. These may be used with advantage, instead of the corresponding sections in the Primer.

I confess that I do not share in the objections of many to the increase, within due limits, of *technical* terms. In Grammar, as in every science, such terms are unavoidable; and, as the Primer says (p. 160), "it is often more really pedantic to avoid terms than to use them." Among the new ones introduced into the Primer, I would instance *Tractive*, *Suboblique*, *Conjunctive* (with its subdivisions), *Petio Obliqua, &c.* (as divisions of *Oratio Obliqua*), *Quid-, Cui-, and Cui-quid Verbs*, as in my opinion a decided gain.

I cannot agree with your last correspondent in his condemnation of some of the sections in the Syntax, which he has selected for criticism. Those on the Infinitive and its Cases (140—144) I consider indispensable, excepting § 142, which is surely superfluous. Rule 152, if well learnt and digested, would save many vexatious errors as to "government" of moods by the respective particles. No. 158, however, is very obscurely worded; perhaps it would be better to have put this in the next two sections under a separate heading, "Figures of Speech." Portions of 107 are open to serious objection. The term "Ethic" Dative wants explanation, and the rendering "*my Celsus*" in the example is calculated to mislead, and does invariably do so. Whatever the precise construction of *mihī* may be in the sentence, "*Vir mihī semper abest*," it certainly does not depend upon *abest* in the sense of "absent from me." This would require a *me* for *mihī*, and "*abest mihī*" could only

mean "fails" or "deserts me." (Horace's "*irenti canities abest*" is not a case in point; *i.e.*, does not literally mean "is absent from thee in thy green youth.") Rule 126 also wants explanation, such as is given in Noto A in the Appendix, but might be more clearly put.

As the Primer is not intended for beginners, it is obviously unfair to judge it by the standard of what is required for Junior Classes. But its compilers have provided two manuals *professedly* for this purpose:—(1) "The Child's Latin Primer," by Dr. Kennedy; (2) "The Child's Latin Accidence, containing all that is necessary to lead boys up to the Primer." Neither of your correspondents notices these works, nor am I in a position to say to any one, "*Experto crede.*" I shall, however, be glad if any master, who has tried either or both of the above-named works, will give us the benefit of his experience.

Yours faithfully,
ASSISTANT-MASTER.

June 12th, 1883.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—An "Usher in a Preparatory School" will find "An Elementary Latin Grammar" published in the Clarendon Press Series by my friend and namesake, John Barrow Allen, M.A., Head-master of the Perse Grammar School, Cambridge, free, I think, from the blemishes he discovered in the "Public School Latin Primer." He will find also in it most of, if not all, the desiderata he requires in the last sentence of his letter.

I am, Sir, yours very truly,
THOMAS ALLEN, M.A.

Alleyne's Grammar School, Uttoxeter.
June 21st, 1883.

P.S.—"First Steps in Latin Grammar," by F. W. Conquest, B.A., is a useful book for beginners.

JUNIOR UNIVERSITY EXAMINATIONS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Will you permit me to follow up Miss Beale's valuable suggestion that any undue strain in examinations should be diminished, by directing the attention of teachers and students to the change in the Regulations of the Oxford Local Examinations for the Examination of Women? In former years "women over eighteen years of age" only were received as candidates; that restriction has this year been removed. The First Examination of Women is now much easier than the Senior Girls' Examination, and I have, at every opportunity, suggested that it should be selected in preference by intending candidates, because it advances them a stage, enabling them to enter the following year for the Pass Examination and the Examination for Honours. For the use of those of your readers who are not familiar with the Regulations, I extract from copies before me.

"In the First Examination of Women, every candidate must satisfy the Examiners in—I. English Composition; II. Any two of the following languages—(a) Latin, (b) Greek, (c) French or Italian, and (d) German; III. Arithmetic; IV. (a) *Euclid*, Books I. and II., or (b) *Algebra* to Simple Equations, &c.; *Latin*, *Cæsar*, Bell. Gall. I., II., *Virgil*, *Æneid* I."

"In the Senior Examination of Girls, every candidate will be required to satisfy the Examiners in English Grammar, Analysis, and Composition, and either in the Rudiments of Faith and Religion, and one of the sections marked B, C, D; or in two of the sections marked A, B, C, D. The Latin this year is *Livy*, Book II., and *Virgil*, *Æneid* XI. *Mathematics*—Four Books of *Euclid*, and *Algebra* to the end of Quadratic Equations."

Miss Beale advises well that pupils who have been successful in the Junior Examinations should be emancipated from the strain of further examination in the rudimentary subjects, and have the more valuable mental discipline gained by limiting their study to some special period of English or Foreign History, Literature, or Language, or a special science.

Studying for the Women's Examination for the University of Oxford, as a sequence to the Junior Examination, would never interest in preparation, and lead on to a higher kind of work without undue pressure.

The making Mathematics and two languages compulsory has been objected to; but a middle-class English girl can now scarcely be called well educated unless she knows at least the first and second books of *Euclid*, with elementary *Algebra*, and has some knowledge of *Latin* or *German*, as well as of *French*.

For the Pass Examination, only one section, in addition to "A.

Languages," is required; the other sections may be taken singly at, subsequent examinations.

I am, Sir, yours faithfully,
MARY V. JEFFERY,
Hon. Secretary to the Ladies' Committee,
Oxford Local Examinations.

Bath, June 1st, 1883.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Will you allow me to offer a suggestion respecting the Local Examinations, which, if accepted by the Syndicates, would, I believe, stimulate the more thorough teaching of elementary work in Higher Grade Schools, and lessen the strain on the older boys by reducing the number of subjects under consideration at one time?

My suggestion is this,—that the mark of distinction should be given to junior students who pass a good examination in the preliminaries, and that such students should be excused the preliminary subjects in the Senior Examinations.

All who have read the Examiners' reports on these subjects for the last few years will, I think, agree with me, that it would be unwise to remove them from the list unless some such arrangement as that sketched above were carried out. Many teachers, fairly successful in the Locals, do not hesitate to boast that they have discovered the minimum of knowledge of English and Arithmetic which will enable a boy to scrape through the preliminaries.

I am, Sir, faithfully yours,
The Foundation School,
Burton-on-Trent. H. R. HIND.

A BAD EXAMINATION PAPER.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—You give from time to time model examination papers. Can you for once find room for a sample of what, in my humble opinion, an examination paper ought not to be? Our lecturer impressed on us the importance of reading the originals the futility of getting-up manuals of literature. For answering Mr. Morley's paper he could not have given us worse advice. Mr. Morley's "Literature" will furnish all the knowledge required; indeed, any history of literature will do, for the questions are of that vague, viewy, voluminous character which delights the crammer, and will, I am sure, have disgusted our lecturer, as they did me. I will not criticize in detail the omission or commissions. The paper speaks for itself. The slipshod English of Question 3 seems to show that it was dashed off in hot haste. Whether it was or not, Mr. Morley has repented at leisure, having taken just two months to look over the answers of six candidates.

I am, &c.,
AN EXAMINEE.

LONDON SOCIETY FOR THE EXTENSION OF UNIVERSITY TEACHING.—
CAMDEN ROAD CENTRE.

Examination in English Literature: April 1883.

Examiner—Professor HENRY MORLEY.

1. Point out some of the chief characteristics of the age of Queen Anne and George I. Account for them as far as you are able.
2. Give some illustrations of the relation of Politics to Literature between the years 1700 and 1744.
3. Sketch the lives of Steele and Addison. Add a detail of the chief facts that explain the origin and development of the *Tatler* and *Spectator*.
4. Tell the chief facts in the life of Swift, omitting all conjecture founded on them. Briefly describe the *Battle of the Books* and the *Drapier's Letters*.
5. Discuss in your own way *Gulliver's Travels*. What is the date of its publication? 6. Sketch briefly the life of Pope. Add as full an account as time allows of his *Essay on Man*, *Satires*, and *Epistles*.

WORDS AND THINGS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Your correspondent "K. B.," in the course of some very sensible remarks on the above subject, says: "Most children, in beginning grammar, think that a *noun* is a *thing*, not the name of a thing; and have to be corrected." Can nothing be done to correct their teachers, and those who write books for their use? I have before me three sets of little books on English Grammar, prepared expressly for elementary schools, to meet the requirements of the new Code. One book tells the unlucky learners of it, that "The great use of a verb is to tell us what a noun does." As they had previously been informed that a noun is a *word*, it follows that when a child sees the sentence "The lion roars," or "The horse kicks," he is to understand that a certain *word* "roars" or "kicks." A book is dear even at a penny when it

contains such rubbish as the above. Another work, with more affectation of scientific analysis, tells the learners that "'Birds fly' is a sentence. In this sentence there are two distinct things, (a) something spoken about—birds," &c. So that the creatures that fly are parts of a sentence; that is, are words.

In one of the books of the third series I read,—“In every sentence there must be at least two notions or ideas in the mind, (i.) what is spoken about; (ii.) what is said about it” (as though a word in a sentence were identical with an idea in the mind; and again,—“All words expressing action are verbs. When the action passes over from the subject to some other word in the sentence called the object,” &c., &c. So in “The cat killed a rat,” the action “killing” passes over from the word “cat” to the word “rat.”

What can our school inspectors and the teachers of training schools be about, that such arrant nonsense as the above should have a chance of being accepted? Yet the books in question are rather widely used in Board Schools.

Your obedient servant,
GRAMMATICUS.

“COLLEGE.”

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

Sir,—Will you kindly afford a very old schoolmaster space for a few lines on a practice which greatly excites his ire? He sees around him men who establish schools for boys and call them colleges. To me this appears no better than vulgar pretension, disgraceful to our noble profession. To my thinking, a man has no more right to call his school a college, than he has to call himself a knight. The creation of colleges is a portion of the Royal prerogative; and can be legally done only with the Royal license. Properly speaking, tuition is not the business of a college—especially that of boys. A college consists of a body of men united by some common interest in matters of science and learning, and generally sharing in some privilege or endowment. At the universities the several colleges consist of the Master and Fellows, who depute certain of their members to be tutors to the young men who resort to them for tuition. And although these pupils are generally spoken of as members of the college, they are so only in name.

Even at Eton, the school is an appendage to the college. One never hears of Harrow or Rugby being called colleges. In London, you have, appended to the University College, a school of about six hundred boys, with sixty masters, and one of the finest scholars of the day at its head; but it still retains its proper name of school.

I am, Sir, yours sincerely,
CENSOR.

16th June, 1883.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON TEACHERS' DIPLOMA.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

Sir,—Allow me to point out a slight numerical mistake in your Occasional Notes for this month. Four gentlemen (not five, as you state) and one lady received the diplomas in the art, theory, and history of teaching. Lord Granville was equally mistaken in speaking of them as five gentlemen in his address.

I am, Sir, faithfully yours,
R. THURSFIELD.

Lynton House, Witney, Oxford.
June 2nd, 1883.

CONFERENCE OF HEAD MISTRESSES.—The Annual Conference of Head Mistresses of Endowed and Proprietary Schools was held at the Croydon High School for Girls on June 9th. Thirty-six Head Mistresses, from all parts of England, were present, the number of pupils represented being 8,130. Miss Beale, Principal of the Ladies' College, Cheltenham, read a paper on “Education versus Teaching”; and Miss Connolly, Head Mistress of Aske's School, Hateham, read some interesting strictures on the reports given by the outside Examiners of Schools, and several points of school organization were discussed. The main interest of the Conference centred in the consideration of Miss Buss's proposal to form a Teachers' Guild, which is intended to deal with various practical questions concerning all teachers, and, notably, the question of thrift, and provision for sickness and old age. The Association of Head Mistresses undertook, as a body, to assist in establishing the Guild, and nominated nine of their number as representatives on the Committee about to be formed. The Association were hospitably entertained by Miss Neligan, Head Mistress of the Croydon High School, who invited a large number of guests to meet the Head Mistresses in the evening at a conversazione, which was held in the beautiful hall which forms part of the school buildings. The Conference will meet in 1884 at Clifton.

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EDUCATION VERSUS TEACHING.

A Paper read at the Conference of Head-Mistresses, June, 1883.

By DOROTHEA BEALE,

Principal of the Cheltenham Ladies' College.

ONCE every teacher was expected to take all the subjects with her class. Such was the plan deliberately proposed to me twenty-five years ago. Now the tendency is in the opposite direction, and Head-mistresses find an increasing number of teachers, who wish to take one subject only. As the exaggeration of the former system was an evil, so I believe is the tendency now to exaggerate the advantages of the latter; and I wish to impress upon those who are to be our successors, the great importance of taking a comprehensive view of our work, as not simply teaching, but the harmonious development of the whole nature of the child, and I believe those can never be efficient educators, who narrow their own nature by a one-sided development. We must have enough knowledge of each subject of education to see its bearing upon the whole, and, if we would be more than empiricists, we must have some theory which will give unity, interest, direction to our inquiries; something which scientific men call a "working hypothesis"; some boud of thought to form a setting for our facts; some belief upon which we can act, as to what education is, the material on which we have to work, the end to be attained, the means that can be brought to bear. Besides, I am sure that those who are content to leave unanswered the great questions which deal with the meaning of life, the destiny of man, the relation of time to eternity,—who have no clear conception of the final cause of their work,—must fail as educators, and, if they succeed as teachers, it will be at a ruinous cost. We condemn those who, in the past, spun theories and neglected facts, and would not give up their theories, though they heard a great voice—the voice of truth—speaking to them, and commanding them to write what they heard; yet, in many cases, these false hypotheses led on to a true one; but facts without an hypothesis lead no whither. We cannot steer the vessel, if we know not the port to which we would go. Is it not true that some teachers are so perplexed by difficulties which they had not seen when education was narrower, that they shrink from enquiries which lie at the very basis of education? "Theorists have erred," they say. "I will have no theory; the daily work is enough, the stress and strain of

thought too much. My vessel shall dance upon the waves. Maybe we have to float here for awhile, the sport of wind and sea, and then we shall plunge beneath and be no more." They shrink from the conflict by which alone we can rule over circumstance; from the spiritual discipline by which alone the beauty of the human soul can be perfected. Such can be no true Agonistes, able to train others for the conflict of life, but mere slave-pædagogues. The children trained by them may become skilled in winning prizes, capable of performing feats of arms,—they will not develop into the glorious types of an heroic age.

Such teachers feel, and rightly, that they can only teach, not educate. They have sight, but not insight. The literature of religion and theology they cannot touch, except they treat them as branches of *natural history*, specimens of human thought. In Science, they see no revelation of wisdom and goodness which can kindle, as in Kepler, a glow of love and admiration; in History, no delivery of a righteous law, no kingly lawgiver; in the soul of man, no unfolding of infinite life. So they take refuge in externalism: they will try to escape from human questions; they will be specialists, teach Classics, or Mathematics, or Science; they will be musicians and painters. Some try to silence thought by the activities of work and society. They will keep to facts and avoid error. Yes, we may avoid error, but only on one condition—that we renounce truth. For we attain truth by no direct course; as Bacon teaches, we have to try the false, and, by gradual elimination of error, to attain the true.

There must be something wrong if it is a fact, as Headmistresses tell us, that it becomes increasingly difficult to get teachers to see, that learning is important above all for the training of character, and to undertake the direction of the studies as a whole.

Let me not, however, be misunderstood. I am not condemning those who give themselves specially to cultivate one branch of human knowledge; but I am insisting that this must be seen, not as an isolated thing, but in living organic relation to all other knowledge. One who, through some one science or art, gives intellectual or emotional utterance to the universal, is not in my sense a specialist. But those are specialists, to whom their art or their science is the "thing in itself;" who talk of art for art's sake; in whom it is not the expression of the spiritual, but the interpreter of mere sensation; who touch only the surfaces of things, tickle the senses, or the fancy. Such art, instead of ennobling us, poisons the spiritual nature: it grows on the tree of knowledge of good and evil; whereas true art, science and philosophy, draws its nourishment from the tree of life, which transforms, metamorphoses, transfigures the things of earth by the spiritual ideal which is within.

For us teachers the problem must be, not to give knowledge, not to make skilled workmen, but to educate, to develop the true life. I would say nothing against a teacher's hearty devotion to one pursuit, if this be seen in its true relation to the work of education, if the devotion be genuine, and there be ability to attain *excellence*; but all this involves a wide culture. Everything will then be sought for that illustrates or throws light on the subject of our devotion,—everything done, that can make us abler, more intelligent, more energetic teachers. I know teachers of Music whose souls are refined by poetry and philosophy, to whom the influence of art on character is of supreme importance; teachers of Science and Mathematics, who regard these as chiefly important, because they are a means of training us in the unflinching search for truth, and obedience to the truth; teachers of language, to whom words are shrines of thought, and therefore living things, not so many specimens to be classified and put in museums, but to be accounted for; teachers, it may be, of one subject, but whose minds are receiving light from every quarter, for every new thought is correlated to some older, and awakens ever fresh thought in themselves and their pupils. But what is often meant by being a Specialist? Is it this?—that we offer an untiring

devotion, like that of many men who consecrate themselves to one branch of study, who spare no pains in enquiry, in experiment, in reading, so that they may be eminent in that branch; or does it mean that we take up something that will cost us little trouble and preparation? There are many who claim to be profound, simply because they are narrow. Such men as Whewell and Professor Smith,—not to mention the living,—and such women as Mrs. Somerville, teach us that depth is not incompatible with width. A specialist in the right sense is one who, through his art or science, reads and utters the universal, the real, the divine thought; a specialist in the wrong sense is one who walks the world in blinkers, seeing only his own narrow pathway, and, even if he deals with great subjects, he utters only "words, words, words"—he never rises up into a sense of the infinite, he aspires not to reality in thought and deed, and, by whatever name he goes, he is an idolater, for to him the tangible stands for the real. I would condemn only those who wish to specialise which is prompted, not by the desire to sound the depths of thought, but by the sense of incapacity to enter into the great questions which meet us as educators,—an incapacity which proceeds generally from a want of courage and energy and devotion, and which hinders those who yield to it from developing any real power in their children. Such may be good mechanics, but they want the sympathy, the spirit of self-sacrifice, without which no virtue can go out of us; without which we can kindle no enthusiasm, call forth no thought, awaken no emotion in another. Surely all teachers should hold with our great poet—that, for us, the development of a soul is the matter of deepest interest, of highest concern. One grieves to hear even teachers speak, as though the end of education were to make us able to do certain things, instead of to be; as though children were "hands" to be trained to *do* certain things for Society,—not also living, self-determined beings, who have come into the world to learn the law of liberty, to develop their moral nature, and to enter here upon an endless progression, by acting ever up to their highest, purest ideal, and by setting before themselves an ideal ever higher and higher of truth and of conduct. I am anxious that none who aspire to be teachers should rest, until they have thought out the meaning of their life, the final cause of their work, and found a home for their intellectual life in some consistent system. Certainly, those who do think, will ever continue rising out of the imperfect into the fuller light, and ever see more and more into their work. Only those who go through life without questioning themselves, without caring, need remain stationary—or, rather, sink into a lower state,—need become automatic teachers, a sort of grinding organ to produce dead music.

But some say, "How gladly would we lead upwards if we could see the path; but what if the blind lead the blind? and we are blind, as you would say, for we cannot see what to you are spiritual truths. Shall we teach doctrines which we do not believe?"

No! a thousand times no! Not if you *could* make the truth of God abound through your lie. It must be *your* truth, ere you can utter it. That seems the worst sacrilege—in the name of religion to utter falsehood; to offer polluted bread on God's altar, the leavened bread of hypocrisy.

But three things you can do. Lead your children into all the positive truth you know—"whereto we have attained, let us live by the same, let us teach the same,"—for truth is light, and its nature is to unfold the mind and character to life and beauty, so you can never do harm by that; and help them to see any truth that has become for you a living truth—get as far as you can into it, and teach up to your knowledge and insight, not below it—that crested billow, which rolls far along the shore, and leads up the tide, towered aloft only after many a wave had risen and sunk down, sighing out its failure; upon these the conqueror is at last borne in triumph. We must look, not at the greatness, but at the vitality in a seed. This daily works wonders; it removes mountains in the natural world, though it be but as a grain of mustard seed. We need not say,—“I must wait until I have attained truth.” The

flower has one function, the seed another, in the perpetuation of life: things which feed our spiritual being at one time, become a dead letter in another; and the teaching we could not assimilate once, is our life now,—so a teacher in one stage of development has to do that which would be impossible in a later. Hence we may be comforted by the thought that our incompleteness may be the condition of our usefulness now; our very imperfection is temporal perfection, for the flower is perfect, though it is not the fruit,—

“For imperfection means perfection hid,
Reserved in part to grace the after time.”

In the world's history, those partial realisations of the truth, which we call false religions, formed part of God's education. Each colour has its own special function in calling forth life, and decking our earth with beauty; and each is but a “broken light,” part of the rainbow by which we see a ray of that dazzling glory, the unity of all, upon which none may gaze and live.

Secondly,—Go on seeking truth, and live by what you have. “Whereto we have attained, let us walk in the same.” Never rest in the same—never substitute opinions for thoughts, but ever keep the childlike spirit; for it is not, as Plato taught long ago, ignorance, but the conceit of knowledge which makes the acquisition of wisdom impossible.

Thirdly,—Do not despise what to others is truth. If you cannot ascend that ladder by which others have climbed to heaven, attained the consciousness of the Divine, do as you would in studying Astronomy or Chemistry. In learning Science, you sit at the feet of those who know; some of their teaching you follow, some you cannot verify, but you believe what they tell you of space infinitely great, of atoms infinitely small. So stand beside the true spiritual seers of old and the spiritual seers of to-day: you will win some sort of faith, and you may grow to think the fault is in yourself, when they speak of a light which is above their horizon, but which you are not tall enough to see. You may get at truth, perhaps, first through authority; but, if you take their faith as your working hypothesis, if you try to live their lives, you may find the facts so fit into that hypothesis of theirs, that it may become to you a faith, realised, if not in thought, yet experimentally.

Is it not clear, however, that our work as educators can have no consistency without we have thought out, or at least adopted, some system of thought,—otherwise we shall be directed now by one, now by another current of popular opinion.

There are three principal theories of life—what I may call the materialistic, the humanistic, and the spiritual.

To those who hold the first, mind is a mode of matter; man is the victim of external forces, a self-deluded automaton. Knowledge is only objective. Of a true subject they have no conception. For such, duty and morality are names which have lost all the meaning they had for those who believed in a God, the Father of all, and in eternal life. Except for the traditions of their earlier life; except for the instincts which rise up against evil, there would seem to be nothing to save such from losing their human characteristics, from entering the swine, and running down a steep place into the sea.

2. There is the humanistic theory. Those who teach this, bid us rely upon the altruistic impulse, born of sympathy for our fellows, which goes forth in deeds of sacrifice—patriotism enlarged and glorified. Yes, this is a divine thing—it is love. The enthusiasm of humanity is the utterance in man's soul of Him who loved the world; and yet without the thought of the Divine, of the larger, the eternal life in which humanity is enfolded, without the thought of a divine Fatherhood, the only basis of true being, even this love, this gift of God, is but a mortal thing, it has but a feeble vitality. It satisfies the ideal as long as we remain upon the heights. View man in due perspective, and in moments of exaltation, one feels the enthusiasm of humanity; but look nearer: the love dies to pity, and pity may even sink into contempt, unless we see in man the Ideal

Man,—possibilities unrealised,—a being to be developed through infinite time, unless we see him *sub specie aternitatis*.

“If Death were seen
At first as Death, Love had not been,
Or been in narrowest working shut.”

For man without a vision of something beyond, we feel we can do little indeed; we must have a *πῶν στῶν* or we can never move the world.

3. There is a spiritual philosophy which embraces this, and something more: that which is reached after the preceding are found to be inadequate, self-contradictory; that which recognises one Life, the basis of all Being, revealed in nature the unconscious, to man the self-conscious. If we enter into this larger thought, it profoundly affects our whole method, for we regard it as our work to manifest this life, to unfold the Divine ideal in the external, to develop the true life in the internal, the spiritual; it makes us educators, not teachers, it energizes us and our pupils. When we have attained and gone beyond scientific ideals; when we have recognised that atoms, forces, independent of, external to, a thinking subject, are mere unthinkable fictions—a correlative without a relative—a north without a south,—that the old dualism is unthinkable, which made minds passive to some objective reality; when we have learnt that only by forms of thought existing in a conscious subject, only through the power to organize heterogeneous phenomena, could an intelligent mind exist,—then we see that the conscious *Ego* cannot be the victim of unconscious force. By an internal necessity, we must rise to a conception of a larger unity, which embraces in one living relationship all that is. Then, regarding our children not as products whose faculties are to be sorted and worked up, not merely as living organisms to be fed by supplies from without, not as mere “hands” to be trained to do certain work for society, not as mere existences, but as true beings, self-conscious, self-determined, living for themselves as well as for others, and for the whole,—then our work will be by loving sympathy, by example as well as precept, to educate, to draw forth to higher, to more vigorous life, the wondrous power which characterizes what we call the spiritual: the power of going out from self, and so entering into the not-self, as to realise the self. For what is it that characterizes the living? It is the power of gathering in the dead, the unorganised, into the stream of its own life, penetrating with its own energies that which we call the external; but in the act of differentiating, it integrates,—in losing its life, it finds; in giving, it receives. Thus is the bodily organism built up. Thus through sense is the intellectual life nourished. Thus does the moral nature grow through the power of sympathy. So if we teachers would do any true work, we must embrace in our hearts the whole being of our children; and then, with a being enriched by true love, we shall be able to enrich their life, and bring home to them the meaning of a spiritual fatherhood—a fatherhood which gives to them an independent life, and then fosters, feeds, and develops that life by sympathy and love. We must help them to realise the thought of that unity, through the conception of which alone rational thought is possible; to feel after that ideal order and beauty, by faith in which alone man has dominion over the earth, and has achieved victories in the world of sensation; to seek, above all, for the ideal of moral beauty, the perfect wisdom and goodness by which man rises above the world, and enters into the regions of the Infinite, the Eternal. Yet there are those who fail to trace the correlation of the physical, intellectual, and moral; who think that man (or at least woman) could flourish as an animal, when the highest faculties of his being are inactive,—that his intellectual life can remain unimpaired, when he is shut in by the prison-walls of time and space. Only if the kingdom of righteousness is set up first, will all other blessings be added—vigour of intellect, health of body. We begin at the wrong end when we take these things first. Failing to recognise the correlation of all parts of our three-fold being, we must fail as educators.

We must not shirk responsibility; not ourselves be

passive in the presence of the currents of thought and feeling which sway the unthinking; or we may be capable of setting others in motion, incapable of calling forth life in them. Above all, we must never lead our children to the battle-field where religious partisanship shouts its war-ery. We must instil such reverence for truth, that unseemly clamour and hasty conclusions would shock them; we must make them feel, through daily experience, that no truth is final for creatures of time, limited as we are, but there can be only an endless progression in our knowledge of the Infinite. Thus we are to work, not only for, not only with, but *in* our children, animating them to desire to labour for the true, the real, the eternal. We must seek knowledge only that we may transform it into the living tissue which is the dwelling-place of the soul, not that we may build with it a palace in which a dead soul may dwell, a whitened sepulchre to conceal and beautify corruption. We must sacramentalise by an inward and spiritual energy all that in the dead soul is lifeless, inoperant, and this spiritual energy will gradually extend its working, will gather all animated nature into our family, which embraces humanity in a divine life and love.

As the body would die shut in from the all-embracing atmosphere of our world; as the intellect *cannot* work unless it believes in a unity underlying all phenomena—a relation of cause and effect which is without exception,—so the moral being requires to recognise the spiritual unity which embraces all that is, and to which the human soul has ever turned, as the flower to the sun, in the light of which alone we can live. It seems that the one object of our life here is to grow into the knowledge of the true, the beautiful, the good, all that is embraced in the idea of God; to grow, through the power of love, in ever-increasing conformity to that ideal, and in a fuller realisation of our union with all. Only in the full development of the moral being can our joy be fulfilled; and this, being a supersensual passion, will energize the intellect as no worldly ambition can; it will guide, control, reinforce the passions, so that they shall lose their transitory nature, and become eternal. "Whoever drinketh of the water that I shall give him, shall never thirst."

It seems to me that all who really think, who care for something higher than success, must go on rising out of the materialistic, or merely humanistic, to the larger spiritual conception. But this is more or less energizing, as it is more or less true for us, more or less in harmony with that inward self; as the microcosm can receive into itself more or less perfectly the macrocosm.

But here, too, within the spiritual, there are gradually ascending stages—steps around the throne. There is the Deistic, which thinks of creation as a past fact, and of God as apart from the powers which He once wielded; which implicitly, therefore, acknowledges another power, which thinks of God as some Demiurge, not as One in whom all live and move and have their being.

There is the Pantheistic, which buries God in Nature, and makes it the vast sepulchre of the Unconscious.

There is the Theistic, which recognises all the truth contained in Deism and Pantheism, but which rises above the conception of an Almighty force, into that of a Father all-wise, all-good,—revealing Himself through the mystic characters of inanimate creation to intelligent creatures, showing them his own ideals, drawing them into communion with His thought, making them sharers in His own work—leading them on by desire, until at last the veil is rent, and we enter the holiest shrine, the holy place, where we see not only the burning bush, not only all creation glowing with Divine life: we hear the voice of God among the trees of the garden, but we hear it more clearly in the moral being of man; we draw near to a glorified, transfigured human form, from which is breathed out life and light and power, we recognise in man the express image of the Godhead. Then there opens for us a vision of infinite possibilities for humanity, and we glorify God, "Who has given such power unto men:" we enter with a fuller insight into the doctrines of Him who was pre-

eminently the Teacher,—we become His disciples indeed. But upon this theme I must not enlarge here.

It seems to me that a new era has opened for women. Ever have our spiritual perceptions felt after the true and the good, and now, as never before, it is given us to flood our spiritual being with the light of knowledge and truth, but at the same time that the *res angustæ* which shut us in, are broken down, we find ourselves in possession not only of the wealth of the world of thought, but we have position, society, the fruit not only to be desired to make one wise, but that which is good for food and pleasant to the eyes. Shall we be diverted from the race by the golden apples?

To sum up what I have said: All, but especially teachers, must regard special knowledge as part of one great unity—must use the knowledge attained, if they would attain to higher knowledge—must be ever-seeking to rise to larger and more comprehensive truths.

For a teacher, her own growth, her own culture will be only means to a higher end; her joy will be to see her children's souls open to the light of heaven, and transfigured in its glory. She will desire that as her powers become greater, as her sympathies expand, she may be able to go out of herself, to strengthen, to bless others, to increase their knowledge, to enlarge their powers by the music of beautiful thoughts, to draw them through the power of sympathy into sunshine, into liberty. I conclude with the words in which the great apostle of education expressed his creed: "In all things there lives and reigns an eternal law—revealed in Nature, the External; in Spirit, the Internal; in Life, which unites the two. This controlling law is based on a living, all-pervading, energetic, self-conscious, eternal unity—God. The divinity in each thing constitutes its essence. The life-work of each is to unfold this essence externally, to reveal the divinity. Education consists in leading man to a clearer insight into nature, therefore to peace with nature as a whole—to unification of his life in all directions with his kind, his neighbour, society; but, above all, with the principle of being, the Alpha and Omega of life, that is, with God."

PICTURES FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

THE scheme for putting photographs and prints of good pictures in Elementary Schools, propounded by Miss Mary Christie in our last number, has been warmly taken up, and on Thursday, June 21st, at a drawing-room meeting, held to consider its merits, a Committee was chosen to carry out the work. Mr. FRANCIS STORR, who was in the chair, read letters of sympathy and interest from various persons who were unable to attend. Mr. Basil Champneys advised the friends of the movement to bear in mind the uncultivated surroundings of the children for whom they were going to cater, and to beware of offering them subjects out of reach of their sympathies; he insisted, however, on the importance of choosing pictures which should be thoroughly good art in their own kind, and only hoped that such helps in awakening interest as personal beauty and heroic incidents would not be neglected. The Rev. R. W. Dale, writing from Birmingham, said that most of the schools in his town had already been provided with beautiful pictures by the generosity of a lady on the School Board, and expressed his belief that the time was coming when School Boards will see that works of art are as necessary a part of their school apparatus as the maps and natural history charts which are now provided out of the rates. Mrs. Merritt gave reasons for not attending the meeting, but offered to help the cause by devoting one day in every month, for a year, to taking sets of school children round the National Gallery, and explaining the pictures to them.

Miss CHRISTIE, in explaining the practical side of her scheme, deprecated any immediate expenditure of time and thought on the organization of a scheme of distribution. She hoped that the moderate sum of £100, which was enough to begin work

with, would soon be raised, and that the Committee would occupy themselves for the next three or four months in buying and framing about a hundred carefully selected pictures, in making a descriptive catalogue of these for circulation among school managers and teachers, and in preparing a report of schools favourable to the scheme. These things done, a general meeting might be held in November, at which the pictures should be exhibited; after which it would be time to appeal to the public for funds to carry out the work of distribution.

Mr. J. C. MORISON, in moving the adoption of the scheme, answered the objections of those who dispute the good influence of art. He granted that there was some apparent justification for the fear of art influences, in the fact that there had been periods in history when great moral corruption had prevailed contemporaneously with a great blossoming of art. But he pointed out that the corruption was not the effect of the art in these cases, but that the two facts were independent results of a complicated set of social conditions. He also touched upon the politico-economical argument that we should wait till there was a demand on the part of the schools for what we were offering to supply, saying that the adoption of this principle would defer all education until the time when infants should beg to be taught the alphabet, and boys the Latin accidence.

The Rev. BROOKE LAMBERT said the movement was valuable, if only as testifying to belief in the power of good and beautiful influences, in a time when our very earnestness in social reform made us too apt to dwell almost entirely upon the power of evil. He deprecated pictures of mediæval saints as morbid, unreal, and uninteresting.

The Rev. Canon DANIEL regretted that there were no good cheap photographs of pictures in the National Gallery. Of all the great pictures in foreign collections you could purchase excellent photographs for a franc or two.

Mr. FITCH, H.M.I.S., expressed a hope that reproductions of pictures in the National Gallery would be used, and that care would be taken to tell their stories to the children. The mere presence of pictures was not enough. The South Kensington policemen and the custodians of the National Gallery had not developed exquisite taste and æsthetic culture.

Mr. GEORGE HOWARD, M.P., pleaded for the inclusion of historical subjects and landscapes, and mentioned that some admirable photographs of the principal pictures in the National Gallery had been executed by the Dresden Company whose office is in Rathbone Place.

Professor COLVIN reminded the Committee that a great many good photographs and engravings were not capable of indefinite reproduction, and that, therefore, as their work grew, the difficulty of procuring pictures in sufficient numbers would grow also. On the other hand, he said that there were many beautiful designs of F. Walker and others, originally intended for illustrations, of which the plates were capable of almost infinite reproduction, and these, he thought, could be obtained without much difficulty.

The following Executive Committee were appointed, with power to add to their number:—Rev. Stopford Brooke, Mr. Courthope Bowen, Mr. Sidney Colvin, Mr. Basil Champneys, Mr. Roger Gaskell, Mr. George Howard, M.P., Mr. Wynnard Hooper, Mr. Marcus Huish, Mr. J. C. Morison, Rev. Brooke Lambert, Mr. Arthur Mackmurdo, Mr. Chambery Townshend, Mrs. Frederic Harrison, Mrs. Francis Storr, Miss Chadwick, Miss Mary Christie, Miss Emily Guest, Miss E. Nevinson, Miss Agnes Ward.

When the formal part of the proceedings was over, the meeting occupied itself with looking through collections of photographs, engravings, etchings, and Arundel prints, which had been lent for the occasion by various art publishers, as well as by private friends of the movement. Among the modern subjects, some of the most suitable were generally felt to be Mr. Millais's "Princes in the Tower," and the "Angelus" and "Gleaners" of F. Millet. There were also a great number of charming etchings from the "Portfolio," which were not only suitable, but possessed the great recommendation of being cheap.

We are asked to announce that subscriptions and donations are being received by Miss Mary Christie, of Kingston House, Kew. Contributions of photographs and prints are also invited.

FRENCH CLASS-BOOKS.*

By F. STORR.

AS this paper is the first of its kind, I may perhaps be allowed a few words by way of preamble. I sincerely wish that the lot had not fallen on me to lead off, but when, by accident or of malice prepense, our Secretary singled me out, I thought it would be base to make excuse, as I had myself proposed the course. The reason that made me propose it was, that I hoped thereby to make the Society more widely known, and in some measure to justify its existence in the eyes of a somewhat sceptical and very conservative public—the Public School masters. Whenever I urge upon my friends the claims of the Education Society (and I am as importunate as a parson who is building a church), I get, as a rule, one of two answers. A. says,—“I have no doubt that there is something in the Science of Education, and, by dint of hammering, you scientific gentlemen will knock out something valuable. When you do, mind you tell me, and I will read and try to apply it. I am sorry that I cannot help you, but I find that all my time is fully occupied in drilling my ragged regiment, and I have none to spare for experimenting and theorizing.” B. is blunter, and when I ask him for his guinea, he says,—“I refuse to answer with a pistol at my head.” If I press him further, he turns and tells me plainly, “I don't believe in your Society. A Science of Education is all moonshine. I'm content to teach as Arnold, and Temple, and Bradley taught; they knew nothing of the Science of Education. You're a set of *doctrinaires*. You've all got Bain on the brain, and if you could construe it, I should recommend you to read the *Clouds of Aristophanes*.” *E pur si muove*. The empiricists have so far advanced that, though they do not yet believe that training is needed for themselves, they allow that it may be useful, or at least can do no harm, to middle-class teachers. And, as to the literature of the subject, it is amusing, and at the same time satisfactory, to see how they have shifted their ground. Before Mr. Fitch's lectures were published, they used to say, “Teaching cannot be taught; it is a gift of nature, or a mystery of the guild of Public Schools.” Now they say, “Mr. Fitch in his masterly volume has said all that is to be said. Even we have got some hints from it, and we always recommend it to young masters. But now that they can obtain a cyclopædia of pedagogy for a few shillings, we cannot advise them to waste their time at Mr. Quick's or Mr. Ward's lectures, instead of studying their Madvig or their Cobet.” Now it seemed to me, that if, without deserting the *prima philosophia*, the Education Society would for a time descend from generalities to particulars, and apply first principles to a practical criticism of existing school-books, some of these careful Marthas and doubting Thomases might be converted, and condescend to lend their aid to us poor struggling mortals. Nothing is farther from my thoughts than satire or irony. I make my appeal in all seriousness, and say to them, in this work of the Society we can do nothing without co-operation and collaboration. It is surely worth the schoolmaster's while to find out the best class-books in each subject; and this, I maintain, can only be accomplished by collecting the experiences of competent masters. The proof of a school-book is in the using, and any expert who has studied the minor notices in the weekly press will allow that the general critic is wholly incompetent to form an opinion on the merits of school-books. In a lecture I once heard a Professor of Education give on Grammar teaching, he strongly recommended a certain grammar, which I knew by experience to be utterly bad from the teacher's point of view. I ventured, after the lecture, to question the Professor about the book. He explained that he had not seen the book himself, but he had read a most favourable review of it in last week's *Academy*. Literary polish, or even a lively preface, weighs more with the reviewer than the solid qualities of order, graduation, suggestiveness, which recommend a book to the teacher. To give a single instance, the reviewers have lately been telling us that Mr. Green has written the one complete School History of England. I cannot conceive any schoolmaster who knows his business, using the History of the English People as a class-book.

My preface is already longer than I intended it to be; but, before joining the battle of the books, I must still crave permission, like a Greek general, to address a few words to the combatants. If I have rightly divined the intentions of the Committee, these papers should

* A paper read before the Education Society.

discuss as little as possible principles and methods, and as much as possible the various applications of principles and methods as embodied in books. But it is, of course, impossible rigidly to exclude the former from our discussion, least of all can we do so in any subject where teaching French is capable of at least two distinct interpretations. Some definition is clearly necessary before proceeding to criticism. One obvious limitation may be laid down at starting. All books written for the individual student must be ruled out of court. Thus we may, I think, fairly exclude the large class of books of the Ollendorf genus. Secondly, instead of discussing the ideal of French teaching, I shall attempt to judge of books from the point of view of those for whom they are written; and, acting on the principle I have laid down, that the only valuable criticism is criticism at first-hand, I shall speak chiefly of those books that I have proved by use in class, leaving it to other speakers to supplement my many omissions. I am afraid that I shall offend many worthy authors by not naming their works, but I assure them that my silence is due to ignorance, not ill-will. I am afraid that to my audience I shall seem dogmatic. Please ascribe it to my desire for brevity. "I have, God wot, a large field to ear."

To begin with infant literature, of which I know something from assisting in the teaching of my own children. Books in the first stage of French are altogether a mistake. All attempts at conveying the pronunciation of French by transliteration is a certain failure. Look at the lessons in French now appearing in the *Governess*, where *entendu* is rendered *ên-tôn-dû*. Except a notice of peculiarities of pronunciation (rules of *liaison* and final consonants), I would cut out this chapter from all the grammars. We cannot all have French *bonnes* for our children, and books must begin far sooner than is ideally right. They should start at once with short phrases, passing as soon as possible into a connected narrative. I do not know any French book that corresponds to Mr. A. Sidgwick's First Greek Writer. "*Le Petit Précepteur*," which my children learn at school, and which has reached its 51st edition, is thoroughly bad. It is chock full of misprints (I find five on pages 14 and 15),—a bee is *une mouche à miel*, and a newspaper is *un papier de nouvelles*; but far worse than these blunders is the inverted order which makes the child learn the French for medlars, hang-nails, warts, boils, corns, and whitlows, before learning that *je suis* means "I am." The book still survives, and sells by the thousand yearly; the only explanation I can find being that M. Grandineau was French Master to Her Most Gracious Majesty. Her Majesty has been the innocent cause of much suffering to the rising generation of her subjects. In dealing with this early stage, I may notice a point to which I shall have to recur again—the strange neglect of Philology. Even an infant cannot help noticing some similarities between English and French words, but books and teachers rarely do anything to call his attention to such as are not obvious, or to work this inexhaustible mine. I find my children learning *J'ai faim*, "I am hungry"; *une chaise d'osier*, "a wicker-chair"; *une robe blanche*, "a white dress"; without a notion that *famine*, *osier*, *robe*, and *blank* are cognate words, and consequently hating their French lessons. On the other hand, I find my youngest daughter, who has not yet been *blasée* by school lessons, beseeching me to give her what she calls her French lesson, and learning with delight, *J'ai une poupée*, "I have a puppet"; *Je desire des violets bleus*, "I desire blue violets," and so on. The next infants' book I must notice far less fully than it deserves, since a proper appreciation of it involves the discussion of a new method. Mr. H. C. Bowen, in his "First Lessons in French," plunges straight into a simple story, with an interlinear translation, and makes the child evolve his own accidence and syntax as he goes along. The great merit of this system is, that it turns what is generally a pure work of memory into an exercise of reason, while the permutations and combinations of the text are so numerous and various that the child will remember Big Claus and Little Claus to his dying day. What I fear is, that he will hate Big Claus and Little Claus as fervently as I hated Balbus and Caius. An obvious improvement suggests itself to me, which I hope Mr. Bowen will see his way to carry out. Instead of taking at random a German Märchen translated into French, I wish he would write himself, or rewrite, a French story to serve his purpose. With a little ingenuity, he will be able to introduce inflections and words as he requires them. I do not want a royal road, but a partial clearing of the forest primeval. The present course is too much of a steeplechase—"Nescit equo rudis haerere ingenuus puer."

Analogous to Mr. Bowen's method is the well-known Mastery method, the secret of which is by constant repetition, and by ringing the changes on a limited number of the most essential words and constructions in the language to be learnt, to make that portion a part and parcel of the pupil's mind; so that, for instance, "How long have you been a widow?" suggests *Depuis quand êtes-vous veuve?* as automatically and instantaneously as twice-two suggests four. Mr. Prendergast

has, in my opinion, grasped a true and valuable principle of language teaching, but has not been very happy in working it out. I have no doubt that the pupil who conscientiously worked through his book would have a better grip of the French language for conversational purposes than one who had followed the regular routine of grammar and translation. But the model sentences are so hopelessly dull that few will endure to the end. And if the method is dull for the pupil, what must it be for the master! A drill-sergeant's work is lively in comparison.

There is a little book by a colleague of my own that has been adopted by the London School Board, and has already run through seven or eight editions,—Buc's First French Book. It has to recommend it, cheapness, simplicity, and the fact that it begins from the first with sentences. The chief fault I find with it is one that infests almost every French grammar,—that it aims at completeness, and inflicts on the child irregularities that are wholly useless to him, and worse than useless, because they are confusing. What is the use of teaching a London School Board child, or indeed any child, the plurals of *baïl*, *soupirail*, *vantail*, *vitrail*; the difference between *ciels* and *cieux*, *travails* and *travaux*; the feminines of *Grec* and *Turc*, of *accusateur* and *enchanteur*? How often is he likely, in the course of conversation or reading, to want to express stained-glass windows, bed-testers, brakes for shoeing horses, and female accusers? To put it in the mildest form, this is exacting tithe of mint, anise, and cummin, before the weightier matters of the law are satisfied—the French for "to cost," "what is the way to?" "what is the name of?" We are reminded of the Mathematical Professor who, before treating of numeration, advised his pupils to study the rudiments of Arabic. The fact is, we move in a vicious circle. Examiners ask for these words because they are in the books, and the bookmakers put them in because they are asked. "They were ignorants," said a London University examiner of a batch of matriculation candidates," and I plucked them wholesale. I asked them the female of *loup*, and they gave me *loupe*." Let us look into the glass and see how our reflected image appears. A paper on English Grammar for Frenchmen.—(1) Give the plurals of *rhinoceros*, *hippopotamus*, *vertigo*, *cherub*, and *Miss Jones*. (2) Add predicates to show the construction of "More than one —," "Neither you nor I —." (3) What is the possessive adjective that corresponds to the pronoun *on*? (4) When do you use "if I be" and when "if I am"? (5) Which is correct, "an historian" or "a historian," "twice two are four" or "twice two is four"? This is hardly a parody of some French examination papers I have seen, and it is on these papers that must be fathered the swarm of London Matriculation books and of Grammars "especially adapted for pupils preparing for examinations," such as D'Oursy's "French Grammar at Sight," and Hunt and Wuillemin's "Oxford and Cambridge French Grammar." Ignorance is bliss in more senses than one. "Magna immo maxima pars sapientiae est quaedam aequo animo nescire velle."

To pass on to more advanced grammars. Grammar writers seem to me to fail in not clearly setting before themselves the object they have in view. A grammar may be used as the Eton Latin Grammar was in the good old days, to be got by rote from cover to cover. Or it may serve as a dictionary or book of reference; and this is the use to which the modern schoolmaster is more and more inclined to put it. In the first case, it should give in the shortest and tersest form the bare necessities of the language. It should avoid all subtleties, all irregularities of rare occurrence, and it should use all the arts of typography to appeal to the eye. I hope that some one to-night will tell us of some such grammar. I have sought for it in vain. Perhaps the best way of showing what I want will be to take one of the most favourable specimens of existing grammars and show where it fails.

I take the Public School French Grammar. The original is the work of a distinguished French philologist, and it has been adapted for English schools by two distinguished Public School masters. Extensive modifications have been introduced in the accidence, and the syntax has been entirely re-written. Such a combination ought to give us a workable grammar, embodying in a practical form the latest results of the philosophy of speech. What do we find? An ill-arranged congeries of philological information, including much that is not worth knowing, certainly by the schoolboy, and excluding much knowledge that is absolutely essential to him. Such a sweeping assertion requires some substantiation, and I will give a few samples of the faults I find. In the first book we read that a diphthong is formed by one vowel followed by another vowel, *piano*, *moabite*, *douanier*, being given as examples. Book II. begins by defining the parts of speech. They are divided into two classes, variable and invariable, and the participle figures among the invariable. Surely this is neither logically nor historically correct. Gender is defined as "the difference or distinction which is made between male and female beings,"

according to which definition, to take off your hat to a lady is feminine, and to nod to a friend, masculine. But this may be thought a frivolous objection. Is it credible that, while the pupil is taught the difference between *chasseresse* and *chasseuse*, between *orge* masculine and *orge* feminine, there is not a hint given as to the gender of nouns ending in *-ion*, *-son*, *-ment*, &c. ? Here surely, if ever, Philology should be the handmaid of Grammar. A reference to Latin will explain nine-tenths of the difficulties of French genders, and three-fourths of them to a boy who has only got as far as Caesar. Yet how few of the French grammars in use even hint at this! I do not know which is worse—the silence of M. Brachet, or the elaborate rules and more elaborate exceptions of the ordinary French grammars. I pass on to the verbs. Here we have the old French nomenclature of the tenses, which, as far as my knowledge goes, is universal. And yet how absurd and indefensible! Is it not absurd that the wretched boy when he is learning English Grammar should be taught that “I have loved” is a present perfect, and when he is doing French that *j’ai aimé* is a preterite or past indefinite? There are, of course, difficulties, and it may be advisable to retain the name *past anterior* (though, considering the rarity of its use I should relegate it to a note, and call it a bye form of the past perfect); but why add to the number? Why are Englishmen bound to follow the nomenclature of French grammarians? Of the syntax I have only time to quote the first sentence, “Every proposition contains three terms—the subject, the verb, and the attribute.” “Surely this is cruel work!” as Struvel Peter has it. No less cruel is it to dispose of what is generally called the partitive article, and here (Heaven knows why!) called the indefinite article, in six lines. Cruellest out of all, to polish off the use of the subjunctive (the hardest chapter of French as of Latin Grammar) in a page and a half, of which the following is the summary:—“If the idea expressed in the subordinate proposition is looked upon as certain and positive, the verb is put in the indicative. If the idea expressed is considered as doubtful or simply probable, the verb is put in the subjunctive;—” by which rule, if we want to express our belief that Queen Anne is dead, we ought to say, “Il faut que la reine *est* morte,” and, if we have any doubt about the fact, we ought to say, “Je ne sais pas si elle *soit* morte.” I dwell on this because it is the accepted theory of the subjunctive in French grammars. Thus in the 45th edition of the *Grammaire des Grammaires*,* I find, “The indicative is the mood of affirmation, the subjunctive that of doubt and indecision.” *Errorem expellas furca*, you may pitchfork error out of English Grammar, — *tamen usque recurret*, it’s sure to creep back in the French.

Of the dictionary type of grammar there is an *embarras de richesses*. I have myself for the last three years used in form Eve and Baudiss’s, and the more I use it the more I like it. It is accurate, it is logical, it follows in the syntax the main outlines of analysis laid down in the Public School Latin Grammar: it uses philology as a help without obtruding it, or introducing facts that the pupil cannot verify. The chief defect I have to find is, that there is not an accompanying book of exercises. This is a serious drawback, for there can be no doubt that the best way of teaching syntax is to give exercises in illustration of the rules. These, for many reasons, should form a separate volume, not, as is generally done, be incorporated in the body of the grammar. The Marlborough French Grammar has an excellent book of illustrative sentences, and this constitutes its chief recommendation. There may be other grammars as good as Eve’s, but I only know of two which can come into competition.—Chassang’s, which has the advantage of being in various sizes for various forms, but is debarred by being in French; and Eugène’s, which on a cursory inspection seems to me admirable.

On the subject of reading-books, I wrote to one of the oldest and most successful of Modern School masters for hints. His answer is too characteristic to be spoiled by stealing:—“It would be well if all annotated school-books were at the bottom of the deepest water known to any member of the Education Society. All annotation should be limited to elucidation of the text. An editor of Shakespeare’s ‘King John,’ has no business to mention the tradition that the king was baptized in a church near the editor’s home, or, if not in the church, in the font now in the church; any more than Prof. Wagner, in his notes on the ‘Knabenjahre,’ need tell us that he was born in Frankfurt, and is therefore much interested in Goethe’s descriptions. Elucidation, too, I would limit very narrowly. Cut out all that the pupil cannot discover for himself from an ordinary dictionary and grammar, and what would be left of most modern editions? The only

* This is the grammar that continues in its 45th edition to call *en* and *y* relative pronouns. The explanation of its popularity is simple. The exercises are composed so as to admit of only one rendering. Thus, by help of a key, they can be corrected by masters who are wholly ignorant of French.

addition I would allow is, to call attention to points a boy is not likely to notice for himself. The best form for such notes is generally a question. For good annotations of French books you may look in vain, except perhaps an occasional edition of a French classic by some Gorman, but you may find at Hachette’s any number of examples how not to do it; and at the Clarendon Press, too, though the Pitt Press is just as bad.” This is trenchant, one of those “naked truths” that one gets in a private letter without “the admixture of a lie,” which *les convenances* require in a public review, and which “doth ever add pleasure” at least to the reviewed. But it is not my intention to shelter myself behind my anonymous correspondent, and I will briefly state how far I agree with him, both in his theory and in his criticism of performances. First, I should be loth to confine the annotator to the strict and narrow limits that he assigns. One good custom is a bad custom, and there is room for the illustrative, the anecdotal, and even the gossipy editor, provided always that the illustration, the anecdote, and the gossip are good of their kind. We remember how old Mrs. Linnet looked out for words like “pony chaise” and “dropsy” in the religious books with which her daughters deluged her. So the schoolboy will hail an epigram of Voltaire, a *bon mot* of Talleyrand, or even a personal reminiscence of the editor when plodding through his *Cid* or *Siècle de Louis XIV.* Another kind of note which he will not hail, and which my friend would ruthlessly condemn, seems to me to have its use—the note on idioms of word or phrase suggested by some word or phrase in the text. The best specimens I know of this sort of annotation are George Sand’s “Molière,” and Mérimée’s “Colomba,” edited by M. Karher. Take the first two notes in the “Molière.” “*Fourgon*, baggage wagon. This is the usual meaning of ‘fourgon,’ though the word is also the French for ‘poker.’ *La pelle se moque du fourgon*, the pot calls the kettle black.” “*Au faite*, at the top. Paronymous words:—*la faite*, the summit; *la fête*, the festival; *le fait*, the fast.” Now this information is all to be found in the dictionary, and therefore *ex hypothesi* is superfluous. But the ordinary boy would not have found it in the dictionary, whereas, when it is brought under his nose, the master can, so to speak, hold his nose to the grindstone.

As to the University Presses and Messrs. Hachette, my own experience bears out that of my friend, with a few notable exceptions which I will mention later on. The chief faults I note are:—

1. *Etymological notes*.—If Etymology is to be studied (and I have shown reason why I think that, at least in classical schools, it should be studied), the pupil should be provided with Brachet’s Dictionary, and Brachet’s “Historical Grammar.” The *rédacteur en chef* of the Pitt Press Series has made the discovery that the pronoun *en* comes from *inde*, and he repeats this about every other page with, at lesser intervals, the inevitable quotation from Terence. All this stuff should go.

2. *Superfluous grammatical notes*.—The adverbial *toute*, the redundant *ne*, a consecutive subjunctive (generally wrongly explained) are, to borrow a schoolboy phrase, safe “draws.” In the absence of any authorised grammar, it is perhaps undesirable that an editor should eschew all such notes, but at any rate he need not repeat himself in the same volume.

On the other hand, notes on differences of style, as distinguished from verbal idioms, in the two languages are still to seek; and, when I remember the wretched twaddle, the scholastic logic, the barren formulas of English books of rhetoric, I feel some hesitation in inviting such notes. Yet it is an easier task to compare the structure of two languages, than to lay down the laws of style in one, and a competent editor would do a really useful work by pointing out how a French period differs from an English period, the superior elasticity and flexibility of the one language, the clearer logic and the *netteté* of the other.

After all, what we want is, not so much good editions as suitable books to read. I will note a few that I have found particularly successful, and hope that other masters will contribute. Masson’s Selections from *A. de Musset* (the stories admirable for a low form), *Erckmann-Chatrian* (“Waterloo,” “Le Conscrit,” and “Madame Thérèse” I have found the best; beware of “L’Ami Fritz,” which is rather vulgar and full of Alsatian), *Delavigne*, “Grandeur et Servitude militaires” (delightful stories), *Balzac*, “Le Recherche de l’absolu” and “Les Chouans” (for those who like selections there are Van Laun’s). George Sand’s “L’Homme de Neige,” and for juniors “Contes d’une grand’mère.” *Daudet*’s “Lettres de mon Moulin.” *About* is the schoolmaster’s Bible. *Malot*’s “Sans famille” (I should like to see an abridgment). I know a master who has read nothing but “Le Roi des Montagnes” for the last thirty years. I should think Miss Mary Ann would pall, but Haji Stavros is a joy for ever. The “Mariages de Paris” is particularly good, as you can ensure getting to the end of a story. Of modern plays I would signal out Ponsard’s “L’honneur et l’argent”

and Sardou's "Rabagas." I have confined myself to modern French, and almost entirely to novels. I confess to a weakness for novels, the honey which reconciles the English schoolboy to his cup of absinthe. My friend Mr. E. E. Bowen, of Harrow, (whose excellent editions of Thiers' "Campaigns" I recommend in passing) will never read a novel, and he desiderates editions of early French writers—Villichardouin, Joinville, and Froissart—for schools. *Chacun son goût.* If French were really studied in Classical Schools, if four hours a week instead of one or two were devoted to it, I should like nothing better than to study Montaigne, or Buffon, or Pascal, or a selection of St. Simon. The last writer I think is quite as hard as Tacitus. But such a fancy is *in nubibus*. One thing my experience as an examiner has taught me. To set to beginners in French, who have no knowledge of French history to start with, books dealing with a complicated period like that of the French Revolution, is to ask for bricks without straw. If the Cambridge Local Syndicate would read the translation of "Lazaro Hoche" in the current numbers of the *Governess*, they would see the absurdity of continuing year after year to set such a book for middle-class schools. But *Fas obstat*, the Pitt Press must be fed, and University blunders are stereotyped.

Conversation books are so much the order of the day that I must say something about them, though I cannot speak from personal experience, never having attempted to use them. *Toute méthode est bonne excepté l'ennuyeuse*, says Voltaire, and a lively and natural conversation-book is a contradiction in terms. Still, there are degrees of dullness, from the proverbial Ollendorf to the "French Studies" of M. Havet, which so high an authority as M. Demogot calls "a pretty little book that makes disappear all the difficulties of grammar under the amusement of a continual *causerie*" (I have given a very literal translation for fear of weakening the force of M. Demogot's fine compliment). Well, I take from this book which M. Demogot pronounces varied and piquant, and of which the author tells us that the subjects are all of an interesting and instructive character, a conversation *ad aperturam libri*. "Have you written to the Duke? No, but I have written to the Duchess. Have you spoken to the German gentleman? No, but I have spoken to the German lady. Has the Emperor spoken to the Bishop? Yes, he has spoken to the Bishop, after having spoken to the Archbishop. Do you prefer spring to winter? Yes, I prefer it also to summer and autumn." And so on, and so on. Remember that, according to M. Havet's method, which I take it is the accepted method of the Conversationists, these conversations are to be learnt by heart, questions as well as answers, and in the exact words of the book, though in a more advanced stage M. Havet would allow a little more latitude "if the learners display taste and judgment in their replies." Poor learners! by that time any germs of taste or judgment they possessed will assuredly have been killed by the dull mechanic exercise, and, like Macaulay's Italian, who preferred the galleys to Guicciardini, they will think the multiplication table lively, and impositions amusing, compared with Havet's Studies. The only conversation-book that I can conceive to be of use to a Form-master, is one where the English and French are apart (better in two volumes, so that both may be kept open in preparation), and even then in learning the lesson I should not insist on a verbatim reproduction of the original.

But a far preferable method of teaching fluency in rendering into French is to take some novel or story-book that has been translated, and require the pupil to read off the French from the crib. The difficulty is to find suitable books which have been decently translated. Jules Verne's "Tour du monde" is excellent for the matter, but the translation is vile. I can recommend one or two of *Eckmann-Chatrian's novels, "Madame Thérèse" and "Le Blocus," and I believe that some of About's have been fairly translated; but I note as a desideratum an idiomatic and at the same time a faithful version of some modern French plays,—those, for instance, of Augier, Sandeau, and Sardou.

I have left myself little time to treat of Composition, which is perhaps an advantage, as I have little of value to say. My anonymous friend shall lead off. "As to composition," he writes, "the first question to be considered is, what do you mean by teaching it? What can a master want to teach? I always tell my boys, 'I do not pretend to teach you French composition; all I try is to prevent you from forming bad habits, to cure you of 'à les, quoi-qu'il a venu, après vainqueur, &c.,' while you are teaching yourself by reading to write French." This is to aim at a bush, though I would not take Herbert's advice and aim at the stars. When an Oxford and Cambridge examiner sets my boys a difficult page of Macaulay's history, and reports that their French style is very defective, my withers are unwrung. I know that an angel from heaven could not get boys of the calibre of a modern school to pass in the space of six months or a year from "Have you

seen my old grandmother's new gown?" to the character of Somers I doubt whether there are ten living Englishmen who could write off-hand a translation of such a passage, that would pass muster with a jury of Frenchmen like Renan, Taine, and Sarcey. Good French prose is, in my opinion, quite as hard, if not harder, than Latin prose. But there are all degrees of excellence, and I think a master may well attempt not only to weed out errors, but to secure a passable style. The fault of most books is, that they give far too much help, and help, moreover, of the wrong kind.

I have myself used for the last year *Blouet's Composition*. The exercises are well graduated and interesting. There is too much grammatical help, and the constant back references are confusing, and I have found that boys will not use them. Moreover, there is a key, which is an almost fatal objection to the book for use out of school. In the strong language of a correspondent,—“A key is the devil; some villain gets hold of it, and you only discover the fact when, perhaps, a good, weak boy has been led into a course of dishonesty.” *Kastner's Elements of French Composition* is composed on much the same lines. A grammar takes the place of the grammatical notes, which is an advantage. On the other hand, the earlier exercises are terribly dull. *Mariette's Half-hours of French Translation* is a popular book, but I have not found it answer. There is no method or system; the first exercise is as difficult as the fiftieth, the help given in the first part is so excessive that the exercise becomes a mere process of bricklaying.

As my own experience in this province is limited, I append some criticisms furnished me by a Modern School master whose judgment I can trust.

"*Karcher and Cassal's Graduated Course of Translation from English into French*, is a well-chosen collection in two parts. The stories are mostly amusing; mostly about the right length for an hour's work. The help is rather in excess, but it forms a dictionary, and that makes the help less objectionable. A boy must think and discriminate, not merely copy the foot-note, and if he can he will remember instead of looking out, as being less trouble. *Havet's French Composition*.—Too much help, but good and literary, and some exercises at the end which are good *vivâ voce* practice. *Gasc* for Upper Forms useful without being first-rate. I have found the key to a French book excellent for a middle division. *Cours de Thèmes anglais à l'usage des classes supérieures*, par J. Sévrette, published by Eugène Belin.—It is particularly good in the respect I spoke of above, that there is very little mere dictionary work, and it is full of small turns showing difference of idiom; and the pieces are amusing and new. *Fasnacht's French Course, Third Year*.—Good exercises, fair prose pieces, but not enough; cheap, because syntax is combined, and the syntax is very well done; but I don't believe in *courses* except for single pupils. For *Exercises* to be done at home, I know nothing so good as the *Marlborough*. This does not set too much on one rule at a time; a fatal mistake. *Chardenal* is bad,—it does not teach French; it is a series of puzzles, and a dexterous boy can do excellent work without acquiring any knowledge. I do not think I have used any other books; at any rate, no other has struck me."

The best method of all is undoubtedly to write one's own exercises. In this way only, a master can teach a boy the habit of applying immediately the vocabulary and idioms that he acquires in his French reading, and correct by iteration what he finds to be the besetting sin of his pupils. But such a method demands a first-rate teacher, and what first-rate teachers can rarely command—much leisure. A French *Stylistik*, of the same calibre as Bradley's *Latin Prose* or Sidgwick's *Greek Prose*, is still a desideratum.

Speaking generally, it seems to me that the only method of producing satisfactory class-books is a system of collaboration. Few Frenchmen can speak and write English correctly, fewer still can write it idiomatically, and those select few have probably lost something of their native idiom. M. Karcher wrote at the same time for the *Spectator* and the *République Française*, and Louis Blanc could have done the same; but these are black swans, and men of such powers are not likely to devote them to the production of school-books. Read the prefaces of books edited by Frenchmen. They are, with few exceptions, written in a sort of pigeon-English, and often deformed by absolute blunders. It may seem a small matter that *gnaw* should be spelt *knew* (Shirley Brooks spelt *gnat*, *kniat*), or that the editor of *Adrienne Lecouvreur* should write that she was not strong in the comedy, or that they have *bidden* their time. These are straws, and good to tickle the fancy of the school boy, who is never so happy as when detecting his master in a fault (some teachers, I am told, make faults on purpose, but it is not well to print them), but these mistakes, which deform nine-tenths of the books edited by Frenchmen, show that the editors have not really mastered the English language, and are wholly unfit to treat of the finer *nuances* of idiom. Frenchmen cannot write English, any more than Englishmen can write French.

* Mr. Prior instanced the authorised version of *Le Conserit*, which renders *Qu'avez-vous, Conserit?* what have you, Conserit?

I have reached my limit, and, now that I have said my say, I am oppressed by the consciousness of having given little practical help to teachers of French. My criticism has been mainly destructive, and I again appeal to the Society to set to work and issue a trustworthy bibliography of French class-books. All I have attempted is to clear the way, and lay the ghosts of some bad books that live on when the brains are out of them. I hope that I have not broken the Sixth Commandment as expounded by Milton—"as good kill a man as kill a good book,"—or been corrupted by a study of "Murder considered as one of the fine arts." But a story of De Quincey that I have just been reading in Mr. Carlyle's letters has, I fear, too obvious an application, and will account for the lecturer's boldness. "He fears no foe who has not writ a book."

"A boy of the English Opium-eater who told me once he would begin Greek presently, but his father wished him to learn it through the medium of Latin, and he was not entered on Latin yet, because his father wished to teach him from a grammar of his own, which he had not yet begun to write."

REVIEWS AND MINOR NOTICES.

Guest's History of English Rhythm. Edited by W. W. SKEAT. (Bell & Sons. 1882.)

Whatever views we may be disposed to take of certain of Dr. Guest's theories, there can be but one opinion as to the volume in which they are set forth. With all its faults, no more interesting or valuable work exists on the subject; and many a pleasant hour may well be spent in turning over these pages, whose unnumbered and apt quotations everywhere reveal a mind that counted no labour lost, did it but result in the discovery of a single fresh fact, or suggest some hitherto unthought-of argument. Indeed, when we reflect that in the earlier years of the present century scarcely any of our old authors were yet in print, thus demanding a direct reference to the MS. for perhaps nine-tenths of his quotations, we must acknowledge that it would seem almost impossible to rate too highly the untiring zeal with which Dr. Guest overcame difficulties that, even in these days of abundant and zealously-edited texts, still remain very great. Too often, however, it happens that such pioneers of research meet with but scant recognition from those who profit by their labours; and we have, therefore, all the more reason to be very grateful to Prof. Skeat for his share in this excellently edited re-issue of a work that, originally published in 1838, has for many years been practically inaccessible to the student. Through causes which need not here be entered into, it laboured, at its first appearance, under the double disadvantage of careless printing and necessarily inadequate revision. How much has now been done to remove these and other blemishes, may be gathered from the preface; and, although we may at times have occasion to regret that the editor did not allow himself a wider discretion, the general arrangement of the work leaves little to be desired. In the case of the longer passages from Anglo-Saxon and Early English, most of which must of necessity be accompanied by a translation, it might perhaps, in any future edition, be as well that the somewhat perplexing manner in which text and illustration are at times intermingled should be avoided by the use of double columns. Moreover, in dealing with the Early English, the rendering might, where possible, be so arranged as not to obscure the rhyme, which, in the case of Michael of Kildare and many others, is a very important element in the verse. Take, for instance, simply a couplet from "Havelok,"—

"Spoken and gangen on horse riden,
Knictes and sweynes bi here siden."
"To speak and walk and ride on horse,
Knights and servants by their side."

The merest change in the order of the words here and elsewhere would be sufficient.

Under the old system of scansion, an English line was treated simply as if it were made up of such feet and such quantities as are found in classical prosody. The results

obtained by this undoubtedly false method were, strangely enough, fairly satisfactory; and, even in these more enlightened days, the chances are that, in scanning a line, we prefer to fall back upon terms that our school training has made us familiar with. Towards the close of last century there arose a new school, or, rather, the revival of an earlier one, which cast aside the classical tradition in favour of such a broader faith as may be found in the accentual rhythms of "Christabel." This was a great advance on what had gone before; and, though still very far from perfection, it must form the basis of any final settlement of the question. Dr. Guest adopts a third method, that of classifying verse mainly by the *sections*, or stated groups of accented and unaccented syllables of which it is built up. With the exception of a very few of our shorter and longer measures, every line is held to be composed of two sections, each containing from two to three accented syllables. These are divided by one, or at most two, unaccented syllables, and the line must be broken by a strong *middle pause* falling between the two sections. This pause is indicated by a colon, and the mark / following a syllable denotes that the accent is to be placed thereon. The Table of Rhythms contains thirty-six *sections*, arranged in twelve groups of three each; and a combination of any two of these makes a line. Groups 1 to 4 open with an accented syllable, which is in Groups 5 to 8 preceded by one, and in the remainder by two unaccented syllables. The leading section of each group closes with an accent, but, by appending one or more unaccented syllables thereto, the *lengthened* and *doubly lengthened* sections are obtained. Thus, under the classical system, Group 1 would be represented in the following manner:—

1. ——— (ordinary section).
1. l. ——— (lengthened).
1. ll. ——— (doubly lengthened).

Against these rules we have little to urge. They are merely our old friends, Accent and Cæsura, under new names, and with new powers. It is against the arbitrary application of them that we would protest. Were every line that fails to conform to these conditions to be mercilessly condemned, our loss would indeed be great. One of the chief beauties of English verse should be the ever-varied character of its rhythm—

"Not like to like, but like in difference";

and yet Dr. Guest would virtually destroy this "dearest bond" by insisting on too exact a carrying out of his theories. He deals very hardly with Milton's "Il Penseroso," as may be seen from the following passage:—

"When we meet with such verses as these—
'Guiding the fiery:—wheeled throne,
The cherub Con: temptation,'—

I do not see how we can treat them otherwise than as false rhythm; or, if the middle pause be disowned, at least require that they should not intrude among verses of a different character and origin. If the poet make no account of the pause, let him be consistent, and reject its aid altogether. . . . Both foreign and English rhythm are injured by being jumbled together in this slovenly and inartificial manner." (page 185.)

Now, to us it appears that any false rhythm here is entirely of Dr. Guest's own making. Why should we, in this form of verse or that, have to confine ourselves strictly to some tame and monotonous rhythm, simply because our metre chances to be in its origin an exotic, and may, in its own land, reject any bolder or more varied flow? These *sections* are as often accidental as not, and many a fine line may be marred by the inevitable middle pause thrusting itself into a position where, save for the sake of the theory, it would be utterly inadmissible: nay, we might even go a step farther, and assert that in English there do exist perfectly rhythmical lines, in which absolutely no cæsura occurs. Far too much stress would seem to be laid on this middle pause, which is virtually upheld as the sole basis of Anglo-Saxon prosody. That it has great importance is certain, but more prominence than it really deserves has been forced upon it by the manner in which what was in all probability originally composed as a couplet has been

treated as one long line; for, though the fact of most MSS. having been written as prose, leaves us free to adopt either view, it is somewhat unlikely that any school of poets would persistently place a full stop in the very middle of a line. In spite of all that Dr. Guest may advance to the contrary, it would seem much more reasonable to believe that the system actually followed by Cædmon and his fellows was, in the main, that of the ancient Scandinavian *Narrative Verse*. Rask's much-assailed prosodial system is a simple one, and may be briefly stated thus:—Verse takes either vowel or consonantal alliteration, the latter demanding an exact correspondence between the initial letters, whereas the former, on the contrary, prefers that they shall not be the same. Guest's long line is by Rask treated as two short ones, the first of which must have two syllables, and the second one syllable, possessing the same initial letter. These syllables may occur either at the beginning or in the middle of a word, so long as they strictly coincide with the place upon which the stress falls. Verse is divided into three great classes,—*Narrative*, which takes alliteration, but never rhyme, and allows considerable license in the *Complement*, or number of unaccented syllables; *Heroic*, which moves within narrower limits, but to alliteration adds internal rhyme; and *Runic*, or *Popular*, which is alliterative, but substitutes final for internal rhyme. There is probably very little in these rules that is not applicable to Anglo-Saxon as well; and they are, perhaps, quite as satisfactory as anything Dr. Guest would replace them with. It is evident that there exists a close affinity between Anglo-Saxon and the *Narrative Verse*; indeed, some of our Early English poems—"Piers Plowman," for instance—are written in this metre:—

"With Merkes of Marchauntes
y-Medled bytwene."—*The Crede*.

And traces of it remain even so late as Gasecoigne's time. Magnusen has suggested that it may have originated in a Hellenic hexameter which has been broken up into three short sections, and, without giving undue importance to any such fanciful theory, we think that a closer investigation of the subject might afford valuable and unexpected results.

We cannot agree with Dr. Guest as to the great dependence to be placed on the Saxon MSS. It is, perhaps, not too much to say that they too plainly reveal the carelessness of their transcribers. Pauses are misplaced or ignored, letters omitted, and words transposed or exchanged for their synonyms, thus often destroying the alliteration, and also largely reducing the value to be placed upon the rhythm which is apparently employed. Moreover, there can be but few cases in which we possess the true text. Mr. Green ("The Making of England") would even set down the whole of the poems passing under the name of Cædmon as merely a late *West Saxon* version of the original.

Professor Skcat's notes are both numerous and valuable, and often call attention to curious errors, such as that at page 383, where "The Traveller's Song" is thus rendered:—"When we two (the shilling to share)," etc., instead of "When I and Scilling with clear voice." He has, however, passed over some weak points, two or three of which we may here allude to. One variety of our *Short Metre* is supposed by Dr. Guest to have originated in the 18th century, since, though in the 16th this measure sometimes split the verses, he cannot find any case in which it took the *interwoven* rhyme. It is strange he should have thus overlooked Wyatt's curious poem,—

"I lothe that I dyd love,
In youth that I thought swete,
As time requires for my behove,
Methinks they are not mete,"—

especially as it was hence that Shakespeare drew his famous *Grave-digger's Song*. The *interwoven* rhyme is used throughout this poem, and is also found in others during the first half of the 16th century,—Surrey for one, and Hopkins (Psalm lxx.) for another. George Herbert employed it a century later for his well-known lyric, "The Elixir," since which date it has become very popular; as have certain rhythms quoted by Dr. Guest

as "always rare and now quite obsolete." One of these in particular, 5 l. : 5, has of late years been much used, possibly owing to Coleridge's strong praise of its *Alcaic* movement, as exemplified in Schiller's song,—

"Der Eichwald brauset: die Wolken ziehn."

It is a pity that Dr. Guest should not have drawn somewhat upon German literature, where may be found as many fine rhythms—amongst others, "Lebe wohl, lebe wohl, mein Lieb," and "Du, du liegst mir im Herzen,"—that have hitherto been far too sparingly used in English verse. A rich harvest of these unusual cadences may, however, be reaped from such poems as "Edward Gray" or "Miss Ingelow's "Divided." The anonymous quotation on page 77 should be assigned to Book III. of the "Arcadia." W. C. Bryant is in one place spoken of as Briant. At page 250 we observe a very strange *Alexandrine* under the head of "1. l. : 1,"—

"And/what un/known ra/tion: there/cmpeo/pled were/."
Færie Queene, 1, 10, 56.

When, however, we refer to Todd, we find that his reading is "*unknown*," which entirely does away with the difficulty. In Book IV. the distinction between the *Rondel* and *Rondeau* would appear to be barely appreciated, while the French *chant-royal* is described as a *short poem*, it being in reality an extremely lengthened form of *Ballade*, consisting of no fewer than 60 or 61 lines. We also observe several instances where words in which the final *e* should be sounded are treated as monosyllables; nor can we agree with the opinion expressed in Book II. as to elision, that "if a short and evanescent syllable may be obtruded, so may also a long one." Mr. Swifte's note (page 709) on the beauty of Gray's "In lingering labyrinth creep," is far more to the point.

In conclusion, we would notice the suggestion thrown out at page 103, that the Irish system of classing vowels, as regards time, under the heads, not of short and long, but of long, *middle*, and short, may perhaps not have been altogether unknown in Anglo-Saxon. It may be that some such system, which would divide syllables into *strongly* accented, *moderately* accented, and *non*-accented, would afford valuable results in dealing with the many heroic lines that do not conform to the normal allowance of five accents, but apparently vary from four to seven. Traces of such a system, probably survivals from their classical prototype, may be discerned in Tennyson's "Boadicea" and "Locksley Hall," which form groups of four syllables, with but one absolutely strong beat, far oftener than of two; and we can only regret that Dr. Guest should not have discussed this side of the question also. Where, however, each page has some new charm for us, it seems almost ingratitude to complain.

Specimens of French Literature. By GEORGE SAINTSBURY.
(Clarendon Press. 1883.)

Every history of literature should incorporate or be accompanied by illustrative extracts, and Mr. Saintsbury has done a good work for schools in giving us this companion volume to his admirable *Short History of French Literature*. It was once the reviewer's duty to examine a Ladies' College in French literature. They knew all about the *Pléiade* and the *Rhétoriciens*, the *Hôtel de Rambouillet* and the *Académie*; they compared the genius of Racine and Corneille; they wrote epigrammatic essays on the style of Ronsart and du Bellay. But when it came to *vivâ voce*, it appeared that not one girl had read a single passage in a single one of the authors mentioned. Such a *reductio ad absurdum* of the study of literature in schools, we have reason to believe, is not exceptional. Mr. Saintsbury's two class-books will leave such teachers without excuse. The *Specimens* have been chosen with this sole object—to illustrate the *History*, and so present, as it were, a museum of French literature. In this respect the book is superior to previous collections, such as *La France Littéraire*, Staaff & Ploetz, though for the same reason the passages chosen are not in themselves so interesting. Another drawback is in such a collection almost unavoidable. The allotment of space bears

no proportion to the importance of the author. We observe, however, that the editor's conscience is not quite easy about giving Gautier more space than Musset, and, he might have added, than Voltaire. We think he would have done well to exclude altogether the dramatists and novelists. A single scene from Racine and a couple of pages from George Sand are like the proverbial sample brick. Mr. Saintsbury begins with Villon, and ends with Victor Hugo, excluding all other living authors. With the *terminus ad quem* we have no quarrel, but the *terminus a quo* seems to us somewhat arbitrary, unless, as we hope may be the case, the editor meditates a second volume of illustrations from earlier French literature. Only on this plea can we acquiesce in the exclusion of Villehardouin, Joinville, and Froissart, and of all the riches of early French poetry which Mr. Saintsbury knows and appreciates so well, as he has proved by his *French Lyrics*.

Dalgleish's Grammatical Analysis. Ninth Edition.
(Oliver & Boyd.)

There is not much to say about the new edition of this little book. Its graduated series of exercises is good; its arrangement and principles do not differ much from those of other text-books. It would be well, in section 33, to widen the statement that subject or object can be "an adverb used as a noun." The same is true, in that sense, of preposition, conjunction, or any other part of speech. Further, the statement (p. 31) quoted from Bain, that, in the 17th century, *that* was used exclusively in a restrictive sense, is incorrect.

MR. A. K. ISBISTER.

On the 28th of May, too late for an announcement in our last number, the Dean of the College of Preceptors died at his house in Milner Square, after a lingering but painless illness. The facts of his life, which, though singularly prosperous, was not uneventful, are shortly told. Born in 1822 at Fort Cumberland, he was sent over to Scotland, the original home of his family, to be educated. In his fifteenth year he returned to Canada, and, after serving for a short time as a pupil teacher, he entered the service of the Hudson's Bay Company. Seeing little prospect of advancement, he threw up his appointment, and in 1843 returned to Scotland and studied for the next five or six years at Aberdeen and Edinburgh, at the latter of which universities he took the degree of M.A. During those years he supported himself by contributing to the *Encyclopædia Britannica* and to Messrs. Chambers's *Educational Course*. In 1849 he came to London, and, definitely adopting education as his profession, accepted the post of Second Master in the East Islington Proprietary School. A year after he became Head-master; five years later he was appointed Head-master of the Jews' College in Finsbury Square, and in 1858 he passed to the Mastership of the Stationers' Company's School, which post he held till within a year of his death. His connexion with the College of Preceptors began in 1851. In 1862 he was appointed editor of the *Educational Times*, the official organ of the College, and in 1872 he succeeded Dr. Jacob as Dean of the College. We have only to add that he was the author of numerous elementary school books which have enjoyed an extensive circulation.

It is not as the schoolmaster or the writer, but as the Dean, that Mr. Isbister will be remembered. He found the College impecunious, disorganized, struggling for bare existence. He left it a united body, well organized, covering the whole of England with a network of examinations, and with a balance at its bankers' of close upon £10,000. The qualities which enabled him to achieve this success were patient pertinacity, and a marvellous sagacity which was rarely at fault. His friends have often said of him that he was a great lawyer lost, and any who, like the present writer, have discussed with him the proposed bills for the registration of teachers, or seen him gather up the tangled threads of an illogical and divergent committee meeting, will allow that he could have held his own on the Bench or in Parliament. His natural instincts were conservative, and he is not likely to be included among Mr. Quick's Educational Reformers, yet no one would think of him as a reactionist or an obstructive. If he did not lay new foundations, he consolidated and repaired the old. We can ill spare such men. But for the energy they have stored up and conserved, the Reformers would work *in vacuo*.

SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES.

OXFORD.

THE Chancellor's Prizes have been awarded as follows:—Latin Verse (*Scientia quæ dicitur Electrica*), W. R. Hardie, Scholar of Balliol; English Essay *The Universities of the Middle Ages*, H. Rashdall, B.A., late Scholar of New College. The Latin Essay (*Antiquarum gentium navigationes*) was not awarded. The Newdigate Prize for an English Poem has been awarded to J. B. B. Nichols, Balliol.

The Gaisford Prizes for Greek Composition have been awarded as follows:—Greek Verse (Homeric Hexameters) on "The Death of Zohrab and Rustum," C. H. Russell, Scholar of Trinity; Greek Prose (in the style of Herodotus) on "The Wandering Jew," W. E. Long, Demy of Magdalen.

The Ellerton Theological Essay ("The Influence of St. Augustine on the Theology of the Church in Subsequent Times") has been awarded to A. Potts, B.A., Unattached Student. The subject for 1884 is "The Communion of Saints."

The Rev. W. W. Jackson, M.A., Fellow, Sub-Rector, and Tutor of Exeter, has been appointed Censor of Unattached Students, in succession to Dr. Kitchin. Mr. Jackson was at one time Secretary to the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board.

Mr. Robinson Ellis, the learned editor of Catullus, has been appointed to the Readership in Latin Literature. This is the first appointment of the kind under the new statutes, and we hail it as a good augury.

The Council have finally rejected the petition for the admission of women to the examinations of the University, and no change in their decision can be hoped for till a new Council is elected. Meanwhile the pick of our Girls' High Schools will be sent to Girton and Newnham, and Somerville and Lady Margaret's Hall will be heavily handicapped.

It will not be Mr. Jowett's fault if his Vice-Chancellorship does not make him a ruling as well as a reigning sovereign. At the end of last term he took a step which has caused no little flutter at Oxford. It has been the long-recognised rule in all the public examinations of the University to decide the position of the great majority of candidates by paper-work. Only in those cases where a candidate is hovering about the line between one class and another, or between "pass" and "plough," has the *vivâ voce* examination been anything more than a formality; and it has been always believed by the undergraduate that he may improve, but cannot damage, his chances by his personal interview with the examiners. This is all to be changed. A circular was sent out to all the examiners, from the Vice-Chancellor and Proctors, calling attention to the statuto which relates to *vivâ voce* examination, and requiring that in all cases this should be made a substantial part of the whole examination. The examiners met together, and, with something like unanimity, resolved to protest and rebel. A reply was sent to the Vice-Chancellor, asking from what authority the circular proceeded; and in due course they were informed that it came from the Hebdomadal Council. Upon this they applied to the Council, and were told that no resolution of the sort had been passed, but that an opinion had been given in the course of an informal discussion, at the instance of the Vice-Chancellor and Proctors. The constitutional rights and wrongs of the question can be very shortly stated. The Vice-Chancellor and Proctors have the power of supervising the conduct of examinations and of removing examiners for misconduct. On the other hand, neither the Vice-Chancellor and Proctors, nor the Hebdomadal Council, have the power of *interpreting* statutes. The Council is strictly *pro-bouleutic*—i.e., has the initiative of all University legislation,—but there its sufficiently extensive powers begin and end; nor do its members appear to have put any further claims forward. The merits of *vivâ voce* are a matter for doubt and discussion; but there can be no question that such a change as has been suggested would make much greater demands upon the time and trouble of the examiners than can be met by their present rate of remuneration.

CAMBRIDGE.

THE Adams Prize for an essay on the action of two closed vortices in a perfectly incompressible fluid has been awarded to Mr. J. J. Thompson, of Trinity.

The new degree of Doctor of Science has been taken by Mr. Ronth, of Peterhouse, and Mr. Besant, of St. John's.

The first of the Tyrwhitt Hebrew Scholarships has not been awarded. The second has been awarded to W. H. Bennett, B.A., St. John's. The undermentioned candidates passed the examination

with credit in the order given:—W. H. Bennett, B.A., St. John's; R. Petit, B.A., Corpus Christi.

Dr. Michael Foster has been elected to the Professorship of Physiology; and Mr. Macalister, of Dublin, to the Professorship of Anatomy.

Professor T. McKenna Hughes, the Woodwardian Professor of Geology, has been elected to a professional Fellowship at Clare College; and Professor G. H. Darwin, the Plumian Professor of Astronomy, has been re-elected to a Fellowship at Trinity.

GIRTON COLLEGE.—*Mathematical Tripos*, Parts I. and II., 1883.—Wrangler, E. Perrin (between 20 and 21); Senior Optime, M. S. Sprague (equal to 62); Ordinary Degree, U. K. Dovo and A. A. Gallenga.

Classical Tripos, Part I., 1883.—Third Class, First Division, H. Carlisle, L. H. Haynes, and E. Macleod; Second Division, J. W. Beggs.

Classical Tripos, Part II., 1883.—First Class, Section B, C. M. Calthrop; Second Class, Section C, C. A. Hutton; Third Class, Section C, K. Jox-Blako.

Natural Science Tripos, Part I., 1883.—Second Class, B. Lindsay.

Natural Science Tripos, Part II., 1883.—First Class (Physiology), M. Greenwood; Second Class, E. Steodman; Third Class, A. Edge.

Historical Tripos, 1883.—Second Class, F. M. A. Gadsden; Ordinary Degree, S. Fletcher (equal 1 and 2).

NEWNHAM COLLEGE.—On the 9th of June, there was a large gathering of the Council, old students, and friends of the College, when the new wing of the south hall, containing a handsome library, was opened, and the portrait of Miss Clough, by Mr. W. B. Richmond, was unveiled. Besides the seventy-seven present students, some ninety former students were present, among whom there were several Head Mistresses. The College has been founded only twelve years, but already it outnumbers several of the men's Colleges, and can hold its own against them in the Honour lists.

UNIVERSITY OF ST. ANDREWS.

The following is the official return of the results of the L. L. A. Examinations, held in April, 1883, at the various centres:—In Latin, 9 passed (1 with Honours); in Mathematics, 2; in Logic and Metaphysics, 8 (1 with Honours); in Moral Philosophy, 6 (4 with Honours); in English, 109 (68 with Honours); in Natural Philosophy, 1; in Education, 111 (33 with Honours); in Political Economy, 15 (4 with Honours); in French, 115 (24 with Honours); in German, 43 (19 with Honours); in Italian, 3; in Comparative Philology, 14; in History, 47 (9 with Honours); in Chemistry, 1 (with Honours); in Physiology, 48; in Botany, 17 (7 with Honours); in Zoology, 2 (1 with Honours); in Geology, 10 (7 with Honours); in Church History, 3.

The progress of the scheme will be seen from the following table:—

Year.	Candidates entered.	Passed in one or more subjects.	Received the title and diploma of L.L.A.
1877	9	8	3
1878	32	27	3
1879	72	67	14
1880	92	81	29
1881	175	149	33
1882	255	215	64
1883	440	382	76
Total	1,075	929	222

IRELAND.

The Summer Commencements at the University of Dublin, will be held on Friday, 29th June, will prove of unusual interest this year. Honorary Degrees have been voted to Earl Spencer, to Lord Wolseley, to George H. Kidd, M.D., and to Robert Crawford, Professor of Civil Engineering. Trinity College is to be *en fête* for the day; no pains are being spared to make the reception of Lord Wolseley, and of the popular Viceroy, a public ceremony of more than academical significance. The College Buildings have been repainting for some weeks, and the ancient organ in the Examination Hall, having been thoroughly overhauled, will awake from its long silence to dignify the occasion. In the afternoon there will be a garden party in the handsome grounds attached to the Provost's house, and in the evening a banquet in the great dining-hall.

The Archbishop King's Lectureship in Divinity, vacated by the death of Archdeacon Lee, has been hitherto confined to Fellows of Trinity College. But the Board, in view of the changed and uncertain position of the Divinity School, has now opened the office to

all graduates in holy orders who have taken the B.D. of the University. The emoluments are over £700 a year. The coming election will have an important influence on the future position of the Divinity School.

The resignation of Dr. Alexander Macalister, in order to take up the Professorship of Anatomy at Cambridge, is a matter of deep regret to all connected with the University of Dublin. He has been Professor of Anatomy and Chirurgery since 1879, but had been Professor of Zoology before that. The Professorship of Comparative Anatomy was instituted for him in 1872, and he has retained it since. Of untiring energy, and an eager student in many branches of learning, his name was a power in Dublin. His presence will be missed, not alone from the scientific and archaeological societies, but from the many medical and public bodies with which he has connected himself. He was an active member on the Standing Committee of the Senate of the Royal University. The emoluments of his new charge are not equal to those he has enjoyed in Dublin. The election to the vacancy will not be held until September.

The monotony of the Academical Term has been agreeably diversified by a series of public lectures, delivered by various Professors on Saturday afternoons, which were instituted by the Senior Lecturer, Dr. Haughton. Perhaps the most interesting, certainly the most novel, was a short course by Professor Mahaffy on Greek Art, with photographic illustrations, projected on a screen by Professor Fitzgerald. Though marred by a very needless and unsupported tirade against the Intermediate Board, the Professor's plea for the foundation of a Museum of Classical Archaeology in Dublin produced a strong impression upon his hearers, and this brief but charming course of lectures may yet bear permanent fruit in this direction.

The results of the University Examinations for Women were conveyed to the candidates by circular in the last weeks of May. For the three grades the numbers of candidates have been—Juniors, 43; Intermediates, 18; Senior, 1. Good work has been done in the Junior year, the Trinity College Junior Scholarship having tempted two or three candidates in particular to remarkable answering. But the answering in the two other grades, with one brilliant exception, has been indifferent. On the whole, it is made yet clearer that these examinations conduce to no profitable end, but rather hinder improvement. Schools too weak to attempt even the lower grades of the Intermediate Board, find in this First Year examination an easy channel to a counterfeit distinction. The other two examinations, as it appears, attract no candidate, and are in themselves of so injudicious a nature, that this failure is rather a matter of congratulation than otherwise. The Wilkins Memorial Prize, for Mathematics, has not been awarded this year.

The Intermediate Examinations commenced at the many centres all over Ireland, on Monday, 18th June, and will not be concluded till the 28th. The opening day was one for girls only, the subjects fixed being Botany and Domestic Economy, which are not open to boys. For some reason not yet explained, the Board has not allowed the numbers of candidates who have entered for the examinations to be definitely stated this year. But it is generally known, that the great falling off in the number of girls last year has been carried much farther this year, and the number of boys also now shows a very ngly decline. No one hesitates in ascribing this marked, though only incipient decline, to the great lowering of Results Fees. It is hardly worth the while, and in many cases impossible, to graft the Intermediate Programme on the general work of the schools, since that unfortunate step became necessary.

News from Scotland is unavoidably held over till the Mid-monthly Supplement

SCHOOLS.

ABINGDON.—The Rev. W. H. Cam, M.A., Head-master of Dudley Schools, was on Monday last elected to the Head-mastership of Roysse's School, Abingdon, in succession to the Rev. E. Summers, B.D., who is resigning at the end of the present term. Mr. Cam was formerly Scholar of New College, Oxford, and, at the close of his University course, obtained a First Class in the Final Classical School. He held the post of Assistant-master at Wellington College for five years, until his appointment to Dudley School. There were 67 candidates. Mr. Reynolds and Mr. Saunders, of Merchant Taylors' School, were among the select three.

BEDFORD GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—The annual Speech Day was held on June 19th. Earl Cowper, K.G., commented upon the rapid rise in numbers of the school, from 300 in 1880, to 460 in 1883, and also on the Honour List, which included two E.I.C.S. appointments direct

from the school, and a third a lower place, after a year elsewhere. He subsequently laid the foundation-stone of the new buildings, planned to contain nine additional class-rooms.

CHELLENHAM.—The twelve Scholarships which were competed for last month have been awarded as follows:—Senior Classical—D. Willson and J. D. McLachlan. Junior Classical—Clayton, Lorimer, Woodhouse, and Thornton. Senior Mathematical—C. A. Ryder and C. H. Heycock. Junior Mathematical—B. S. Pottinger, Wilkins, C. Robertson, and Manley. Of these, Clayton is a pupil of Mr. Lloyd Walter Griffith, Tooting Common; Wilkins, of Mr. Clement Newcomb, Trowbridge; Thornton, of the Rev. J. M. Brown, Hunstanton; Lorimer, of the Rev. C. L. Austin, Cheltenham. The rest are pupils of Cheltenham College.

DURHAM.—The Governors of the North Eastern County School have elected the Rev. F. L. Brereton, M.A. Cambridge, to the post of Head-master.

ETON.—The living of Mapledurham, vacant by the death of the Rev. E. Coleridge, Fellow of Eton College, has been presented by the College to the Rev. St. J. Thackeray, Assistant-master.

FRENCH COLLEGE, BLACKROCK, DUBLIN.—Six Entrance Scholarships, and four College Scholarships of £20 each, will be competed for in September.

LEATHERHEAD.—The Rev. A. F. Rntty, Head-master of Basingstoke Grammar School, has been appointed to the Head-mastership of the St. John's Foundation School. Among the selected candidates were the Rev. C. E. Prior, of Merchant Taylors', the Rev. — Parsons, of Bromsgrove, and the Rev. H. Foster, of Malvern. The last gentleman retired, on finding himself among the selected candidates for Oundle. Mr. Rntty's candidature was actively supported by his old Head-master, Archdeacon Hessey, who is one of the Governing Body.

MARLBOROUGH.—The following School Prizes have been awarded:—Senior Mathematical, A. S. Weatherhead; Junior Mathematical, H. A. Casson; Cotton English Essay Prize, L. T. Hobhouse; Honourably mentioned, E. C. C. Firth; Greek Iambic Prize, A. B. Poynton; Master's Translation Prize, M. M. Beeton. At Oxford—A. H. Hawkins, *proxime accessit* for Lothian Prize; W. J. Hemsley has gained a Scholarship at Jesus College; and J. F. L. Hardy, Scholar of Hertford, has been elected to a Tancred Common Law Scholarship at Lincoln's Inn. In the Cambridge Mathematical Tripos, H. M. Elder, Scholar of Trinity College, is 19th Wrangler, and F. G. Eyres, Scholar of Christ's College, has gained a First Class in the Classical Tripos, Part II., Section e. The following elections have been made to Scholarships at the College:—*Senior*—1. E. H. Miles, Marlborough College, Middle v.; 2. R. B. Burnaby, Marlborough College, Lower v.; Honourably mentioned—R. F. C. de Winton, Marlborough College, Remove (a). *Junior*—1. R. G. Alexander, Marlborough College, Lower v.; 2. R. W. A. Whitestone (House Scholar), Mr. Lloyd's, Winchfield; 3. R. C. Abbott, Marlborough College, Upper Shell (b); 4. R. Vickers, Marlborough College, Lower v.; 5. T. L. Davies, Marlborough College, Upper Shell (a); 6. H. M. Fletcher, Marlborough College, Upper Shell (b); 7. F. D. P. Oldfield, Marlborough College, Remove (a). Honourably mentioned—C. G. Spencer, Marlborough College, Upper Shell (b); A. G. Kembal, Mr. Radcliffe's, Tisbury, Salisbury; L. Dale, Mr. Wilkinson's, Aldeburgh. Recommended to the Council for nomination—A. G. Kembal, Mr. Radcliffe's, Tisbury, Salisbury. Modern School Scholarships—Senior, not awarded; Junior, E. Eardley Wilmot. Author's Scholarships—English, not awarded; Mathematics, H. M. Lewis; Honourably mentioned, J. J. Guest. The whole holiday given on June 6th, at the request of the Archbishop of Canterbury, who visited us last term, passed off most pleasantly. The weather was extremely fine, and several enjoyable expeditions were made to Stonehenge, Silchester, the White Horse, and other places near. It is hoped that the work of the new buildings will be finished by the beginning of next term, and at least so far advanced before Prize Day that the court may resume its former trim and tidy appearance on the occasion of the visit of the Duke and Duchess of Albany, promised for that day, July 23rd. The various collections of the Natural History Society are gradually taking their places in the new Museum, under the care of Mr. Preston, who is devoting his whole time to the work. His school work is being taken by E. G. Ashwin, Esq., and J. A. Lloyd, Esq., has taken Mr. Holme's place as Art Master. The Assistant Curacy of the College Mission at St. Mary's, Tottenham, will be vacant at Christmas next, and it is much wished that it should be filled by an old Marlburian, if possible. The school eleven plays against Cheltenham at Marlborough, on July 6th and 7th, and against Rugby on July 25th and 26th, at Lord's.

RADLEY.—The following have just been elected to Junior Scholar-

ships:—F. St. B. Gregorie, St. Peter's College, Radley, late of Mr. Maclaren's School, Summerfield, near Oxford; G. Barber, St. Peter's College, Radley. Exhibitions:—A. J. P. Carmichael, from Mr. Young's School, Cherbourg, Malvern; H. A. Pollock, from Mr. Wilkinsons, Tudor House, Durdham Down, Bristol; A. D. Ingram, Radley, late of Mr. Mums, Cordwallers, Maidenhead, was honourably mentioned. There was a larger competition than usual.—Mr. S. H. Joyes, M.A., of University College, has been giving some classical lectures, and taking some composition with the 6th this term. Mons. Alfred Lafargue has been having a colloquial French class in the Upper Moderns.—The Commemoration Sermon is preached this year by the Rev. the Warden of Keble College. In response to an excellent lecture on Classical Art by Mr. Upcott, of Marlborough College, a commencement has already been made of a Classical Art Museum. The old music-hall is given up to the purpose, for which it is very well fitted, while a new Music School has been erected elsewhere. Further servants' accommodation has been built, whereby the school gets more studies. The school has been quite full this term.

ROSSALL.—Prizes gained in the school:—Latin Lyrics, A. H. Davis; English Essay, H. S. Jones; Translation Prize—T. H. Vines. Distinctions gained outside the school:—K. P. Wilson is in the Second Division of the First Class, and W. H. Bather in the First Division of the Second Class in the Cambridge Classical Tripos; G. Mason well up in the Senior optimes in the Mathematical Tripos. A. C. Wratisslaw has been appointed to a Student Interpretership in the East.—A meeting was held, early in term, to promote the interests of the Rossall Mission; the offertories for it in the past year amounted to some £55. The Rev. J. E. Mercer (O.R.), late of Lincoln College, has been appointed Curate of Newton Heath, near Manchester, in connection with the Mission. The concert and Prize Day are fixed for the last two days of July, on which days also the annual Past v. Present match will be played. The school breaks up on August 1st.

RUGBY.—Prizes gained in the school—Mathematics: VI.—1. Kingdon; 2. Martley; Upper School—1. Hemming; 2. Romer, *ma*. German, Richards; French, not awarded. The speeches went off successfully enough on Saturday, June 16th, in the presence of an unusually large company. The speech of the Head-master, before reading out the list of honours for the year, was imperfectly heard, but was happy, as usual, in its allusions to old Rugbeians, both present and absent, and gave a pleasant account of the position of the school. The performance consisted chiefly of comic acting,—Aristophanes, Shakspeare, and Molière, of which the Shakspeare was the best. It is, perhaps, to be regretted that nothing of a serious kind is now performed at the speeches. It should not be forgotten that Macready won his first triumph in a scene from *Hamlet* at the Rugby Speeches; and some declamation of English prose or poetry might with advantage be substituted for the reciting of prize exercises, which is poorly done as a rule, and with an execrating mixture of styles in Latin pronunciation.—The mosaics in the Chapel are finished, and certainly much improve the East End. The monument to Dean Stanley is being constructed below that of Dr. Arnold, in the north transept. It was announced upon the Speech Day that the Scholarship fund, which was being raised as a memorial to the late Archbishop of Canterbury, had reached £1800.

TONBRIDGE.—School Honours—R. M. Pattison, Emmannel College, Cambridge (10th Wrangler 1882), a First Class in the Law Tripos; R. Lachlan, Trinity College, 3rd Wrangler. The Rev. A. Lucas gave us an interesting lecture at the beginning of the term on Pompeii. We have also had two lectures on British Animals from J. E. Hasting, Esq.; and one on Geology from Professor J. W. Judd; and, on the 1st of June, the Rev. A. Moore, Incumbent of the parish of Holy Cross, King's Cross, where some of the school property is situated, gave us a very graphic description of his life and work among the London poor. Our summer concert took place on May 16th. On Sunday, May 27th, the Annual School Confirmation was held in our chapel by the Archbishop of Canterbury.

WESTMINSTER.—A large and influential meeting of Old Westminsters, parents and others interested in the school, was held in College Hall on the 13th of June, Sir Watkin W. Wynn, Bart., M.P., in the chair, to consider what form a Memorial of Dr. Scott's services should take. Lord Devon proposed a resolution, which was seconded by Lord Richard Grosvenor, M.P., "That, in recognition of Dr. Scott's long services, and untiring devotion to the welfare of the school, a subscription be raised among Old Westminsters, and others interested in the subject, and that the proceeds be devoted to the foundation of a School Library, bearing Dr. Scott's name, in addition to some personal gift; and that the balance (if any) be applied at the

discretion of a Committee to be appointed, as they may judge best for the interests of the school." This was carried *nem. con.* A Committee, headed by the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Duke of Richmond, K.G., was then appointed to carry out the above resolution. Speeches were made by Earl Amherst, Sir Watkin Wynn, the Dean of Westminster, the Dean of Llandaff, Bishop Short, Admiral Phillimore, and Mr. James Lowther, M.P. The proceedings throughout were characterized by the greatest unanimity, and by a cordial sense of the services rendered by Dr. Scott during his twenty-eight years' tenore of the Head-mastership, of which services we will speak in detail in a future number of this Journal.

WIGAN.—Mr. James Ohm, M.A., has been appointed Head-master of the Grammar School, in succession to the Rev. A. Evans, M.A., who has accepted the Head-mastership of St. Andrew's College, Chardstock.

TRANSLATION PRIZE.

For each month, till further notice, there will be set a passage, generally from a French or German Author, to be translated into English. A PRIZE OF TWO GUINEAS will be offered each month for the best version. Initials or a nom de plume must be adopted by competitors, but the successful competitor is required to send his real name and address to the Prize Editor for publication. Versions must be forwarded to the "Prize Editor" of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, 96 Farringdon Street, E.C., not later than the 16th of the month. Any translation which is sent with an addressed envelope and six postage stamps, will be returned with corrections. A First Class is entitled to a copy of "Prizes and Proximes," which will be forwarded on application. Those who have already received "Prizes and Proximes" may apply for a copy of "Maria Wuz."*

"H. C. B.," the winner of last month's prize, declines to give his name for publication. At his suggestion we have forwarded a cheque for two guineas to the "Pinsbury Training College" account.

The prize for the best translation of Renan's passage is awarded to "K. S."

Une des légendes les plus répandues en Bretagne est celle d'une prétendue ville d'Is, qui, à une époque inconnue, aurait été engloutie par la mer. On montre, à divers endroits de la côte, l'emplacement de cette cité fabuleuse, et les pêcheurs vous en font d'étranges récits. Les jours de tempête, assurément, on voit, dans le creux des vagues, le sommet des flèches de ses églises; les jours de calme, on entend monter de l'abîme le son de ses cloches, modulant l'hymne du jour. Il me semble souvent que j'ai au fond du cœur une ville d'Is qui somme encore des cloches obstinées à convoquer aux offices sacrés des fidèles qui n'entendent plus. Parfois je m'arrête pour prêter l'oreille à ces tremblantes vibrations, qui me paraissent venir de profondeurs infinies, comme des voix d'un autre monde. Aux approches de la vieillesse surtout, j'ai pris plaisir, pendant le repos de l'été, à recueillir ces bruits lointains d'une Atlantide disparue.

By "K. S."

Among the legends most common in Brittany is one of a town Is, which is supposed, at some unknown period, to have been swallowed up by the sea. The place where this fabulous city stood is shown on several points of the coast, and the fishermen tell you strange stories about it. They declare that,

on stormy days, the summit of its church spires may be seen in the hollow of the waves, and that, in days of calm, the sound of its bells is heard to rise from the abyss chiming the daily hymn. I often fancy that, at the bottom of my heart too, there lies a town Is, still ringing its church bells, never wearying of summoning to service worshippers who no longer listen. I stop sometimes to lend an ear to these trembling vibrations, which seem to me to come from infinite depths, like voices of another world. As old age approaches, I have taken an especial pleasure during my summer rest in gathering up these distant murmurs of a lost Atlantis.

We class the 570 versions received in the following order:—

First Class.—Learned Judgo, Delta, Gentian, Unit, Yesi, Aroostook, M. L. B., Che faro, W. W. S., Elle U. U., B., Tilberthwaite, C. S. J., Knowle, Cordelia, A. H. Clifton, Winton, K., T. Washe, H. A. Macdowell, Gneiss, Lethe, Dromelina, Jacques, Quis, Will o' the Wisp, Glen, J. J. J., G. R., G. L. T., M. G. L., Sea-mew, J. H. E., D. P., H. W., Fossil, A. C. A.

Second Class.—Gladdiswold, Earthworm, U. C. R., Yorkshireman, Lionel, Lucile, A. D., Quis judicet judices, Nondum, Elic de Beaumont, O., Aleais, M. R. M. Shetland, Stork, Venezia, L. E. S., Grisigona, Patch, Cacsarea, C. S. S., Phaedon, Con amore, Volo plus l., Iris, Hermione, Frieda, I. J. F., Prospero, Gk., Mew, J. H. H., Juanita, Malfilâtre, Etincelle, Jenny Lind, Aleph, Helen G., Q. in the corner, Yvonne, Eisor, Prentice, Thornbury, Sixteen, Semel, Nil Desperandum, E. C. M., Rina, Down, Vera Cruz, Toea oeh Gota, Hal, Beata, Jeanne, Méline, Recca, Fleur de lait, Marguerita, Lo Cadet, Thémis, W. Tekay, Theo, M. A. P., Esor, Baron, Little Cassino, Kytho Clinton, Bretonna, Teregram, Vert-Vert, Magnat, Solitaire, Ora, Janet Donne, Phoenix, L. A. Hⁿ, Squeers, Gas, Jaquet, E. S. N., Stoker, John, Mildew, Dunean, J. W., Kitchens S., A Lancashire Lad X², H. R. Poole, M. S., M. W. C., Patience, Mel, Uekfield p.m., Noon, J. Maskell, Kilda R. C., Roy, H. L. W., Mus, Bettws-y-coed, Hamadryad, Corneraik, Harold Skimpole, Queen T., J. M. A., C., Henrietta, Pensive gurgler, Poor Maria, Epimetheus, E. H. O., G. S. R., Pishashee, Ospray, Standard, P. H. I., J. junior, Z. A., Kitty-cat, Enid, Madame Brini, Nausicaa, Hermes, Daphne, Rus in urbe, D. A. W., Tantallon, A. A. R., Ridiculus mus, Danae, Duleamara, H. J. C., Melchir Grant, P. P., Elizabeth N., Pyrocles, M. H. C., A. M. J., C. I. G. A. R., E. D., Flaccus, H. P. T., Tregoney, M. L. H., F. A. C., Patsy, Maccabæus, Francess, Vorbei, Dick, Eden, M. or N., A. Tees, M. B. C., A. T. P., Alba, Janet Branston, Joso, Mervoly, St. Valentine's Day, B. L. T.

Third Class.—Neo, F. A. R., Loup garou, π and ν , Fest, O. C. R., E. A. N. H., C. E. L., Denise, Ink, Micraster, Falstone, Robert, Senlae, Sea-gull, Chica, Incerata, M. F. W., Fiji, S. F. S., M. L. E., Louis, Philorenan, Cauehemar, F. L. P., Azotus, Romeo, Chang, Kurz, Trilobite, Ade, Desormais, C. R., Dr. John, Aqua, Aunt Jane, Chicory, Luea, Nil admirari, Grand Young Man, A. T. T. A., Mare Aurèle, Nil Desperandum, John's child, Burghleigh, Auntie Em, Guk, Frawline, Viola, Ethel R. F., Gobo, Myra, L. S., Rummuragh, Knoekgwarah, Byl, Inconnue, Culter, Peacock, T. C. J., Alouette, Joan, Sky Terrier, A. C. B., Dryrot, Staffa, Eta, Daisy, Leather, A. A. Y., Anna, H. I. B., Charlotte, Brunette, Harts-tongue, Seapin, Emma, Hecla, Fan of fans, K. N. E., Diachylon, Ausonius, Zulu, L. M. C., C. M., Pupillus, W. H. P. H., Grannie, M. A. P., Pataugeur, Nemo, Elm, L. O. H., Walter Fürst, Audeo, Ammeo, Yrmod, Fritz, Paul, Pyrocles, J. Senior, Ear, Spinster, C. A. W., V. A. S., Ss., Rambler, Dorothy Draggletail, C. I. D., M. E. Y., Iris, E. S. M., G. H. H., Isabel Fleming, Falada, G. A. E., O. G. E. G., Clarissa, Goneril, Anemone, Guido, W. L. P., K. M., Cannes Daisy, Peter, Presto, Rat, L. H. C., Addiscombe, Me voilà, Mon repos, Gretchen S. L., Schoolboy, Holly, Kent, F. E. Tattersall, Ignorama, Matilda Elliott, L. A. M., Beethoven, Sukey, E. M. S., Joan, Maurus, Franc, D. E. F., Lunatic, Toby, Albulat, C. C., Sally.

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The exquisite passage from Renan's *Souvenirs d'Enfance et de Jeunesse* has attracted a larger field than ever. The French is extremely simple, and actual mistakes were rare. Consequently, a "faultily faultless" version may have sunk as low as a fourth class. What I went by chiefly, in assigning classes, was the sense or absence of rhythm. To give one instance,—“in the hollow of the waves the tops of the spires of its churches,” relegated to a second class. The commonest mistakes were:—(1) *Prétendue*, “pretended.” The word, of course, simply means “alleged,” without any notion of truly or falsely. (2) *Aurait été*, “had been,” or “must have been.” The strict force of the conditional is, “is said to have been.” (3) *Modulant l'hymne du jour*, “sounding in harmony with the hymn of the day.” Renan refers to the Angelus, which is chimed thrice a day by the bells of most French churches, and is also the regular summons to service. *Moduler*, like the Latin *modulari*, means to sing, to chime, not to harmonize. Neither “chant” nor “intone” is an appropriate word for bells. (4) *Offices*, “duties,” *passim*. (5) *Des fidèles*, “faithful ones.” This rendering misses the very point Renan implies,—that he is no longer faithful; that he no longer heeds the voice of the Church. *Les fidèles* means simply a congregation. (6) *Une Atlantide*, “A lost Pleiad,”—so some fifty, with perverse ingenuity. Everyone must know by name the New Atlantis of Bacon; and classical scholars are familiar with the sunken island of Plato.

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Que faire s'amour me laisse?	En ung beau bateau sur Seine
Nuit et jour ne puis dormir.	Qui est couvert de sappin;
Quant je suis la nuyt couchee	Les cordons en sont de saye,
Me sonvient de mon amy!	La voile en est de satin;
Je m'y levay tonte nue,	Le grant mast en est d'iviere,
Et prins ma robbe de gris.	L'estournay en est d'or fin;
Passe par la faulce porte	Les mariniers qui le meynent
M'en entray en coz jardrins;	Ne sont pas de ce pais :
J'ouy chanter l'alouecte	L'ung est filz du roy de France
Et le rousignol jolis,	Il porte la fleur de lis;
Qui disoit en son langage,	L'autre est filz...
“Veez cy mes amours venir,	Cestuy la est mon amy.”

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MEETINGS FOR THE MONTH.

Memorial Hall, Farringdon Street, E.C., 7.30 p.m.

Monday, July 23rd.—“The Relation of Drawing Teaching to Writing.” T. R. ABLETT, I.L.S.B.

SCIENCE DEMONSTRATION IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

By WM. LANT CARPENTER, B.A., B.Sc., F.C.S.

Read before the Physical Society of London, April 14th, 1883.

LESS than fifty years ago, a Prime Minister, Lord Melbourne, gave as his opinion on the education of the people, that “it were best they should be left alone;” while the Bishop of Durham added that “education was not likely to make its way among the poor.” It is possible that people may still exist who hold these opinions, but they do not, I think, venture to express them openly. It is difficult, however, on any other hypothesis, to account for some of the attempts to restrict and hinder progress which are occasionally met with.

If, however, the spirit of these two remarks which I have quoted be confined to the education of the poor in elementary Science, they would be accepted as expressing the openly avowed opinions of a larger number of people than I like to think of, and the concealed convictions of at least as many more. It is with the view of making known what has actually been done in this direction in two of the largest cities of the empire, Liverpool and Birmingham,—both as regards methods and results,—as well as of detailing the objections raised to the scheme, and the way in which they have been met, that the following remarks are offered to the Society. I venture to take it for granted that the Society would view with warm approval any well-considered efforts to bring home to the young of all classes the elementary truths and phenomena of Physics, Chemistry, and Physiology, not only for the sake of the actual practical knowledge thus given, but, and perhaps still more, for the sake of showing the immense value of Science properly taught, as an instrument of education. I specially say, properly taught, for the essence of the scheme of

which I am to speak consists in the manner of teaching; hence the title of my paper, “Science Demonstration in Elementary Schools.”

There is, I believe, good foundation for the remark that the best elementary schools of twenty years ago were nearly, if not quite, equal to those of to-day; and that the improvement in the intervening period, of which so much has been said, has been rather in the direction of the quantity of the work (by a multiplication of good schools of one pattern) than in its quality. It is to this latter that I am about to ask your attention.

It will, I think, be acknowledged by those whose experience enables them to judge, that one of the great shortcomings of the present system is the mechanical nature of the work done, which reduces the children to the state of machines rather than of thinking individuals. The Government inspectors complain unceasingly of the monotony, want of ease and power, and lack of “general intelligence” exhibited by the children. They read correctly, but the words represent or convey no ideas to their minds. “They can” (to quote an official utterance) “usually work ‘straightforward’ sums with quickness and precision, but they rarely succeed in solving the easiest problem.” In an able article in the April number of the *Modern Review*, on “The Overstrain in Education,” are various statements by teachers of large experience as to the evil effects of the “Payment by Results,” and of the individual examination system; I will only trouble you with two—“There is not time to train children to think,” and “What will pass, not what will educate, is the incentive.” In fact, of the two great mistakes which, according to the author of this article, vitiate the whole organization of English education, from the Elementary Schools upwards, the one with which we are concerned to-day is, the conception of intellectual training as the acquisition of information, rather than as the development of faculty.

That this deficiency in the present system has been lately, to some extent, practically recognised by Mr. Mundella, all true friends of Education,—using this word in the etymological sense of “drawing out the faculties,”—will greatly rejoice. Although the individual examination is to remain the same (not for many years longer, let us hope), an entirely new element is introduced in the shape of a “Merit Grant,” and henceforward the instructions to inspectors are explicit, that they shall in future take due account of, and give full credit for, the general intelligence of the children, as indicative of the manner in which they have been taught.

Few, if any, of those present, I think, will be disposed to deny the enormous, I had almost said the superlative, influence of Science teaching in thus quickening this general intelligence, as well as the very great practical value of the knowledge imparted, provided that the teaching is conducted in a proper manner. For this, I need scarcely say in this room, it is essential that the children should be so taught as to attach definite ideas to the words used by their instructors and by themselves. That great danger exists of their not doing so in their ordinary reading lessons, I have already tried to show; and this to a great extent disposes of the argument used by many opponents of reform, who nevertheless admit to a certain limited degree the utility of Science teaching, but who assert that Science can be properly taught, and reading improved at the same time, simply by reading short extracts upon scientific subjects in the ordinary school lesson-books. To scientific men such a statement carries its own refutation on the face of it, but it is extremely difficult to convince many people of the fact; and it is hoped that the education of the public mind upon this point may be to some extent improved, to however small an extent, by these remarks, and more particularly by the expressions of opinion on the same subject, from men far more qualified to address you on the general question than I am, which I trust we may hear in the discussion that follows this paper. [Here followed, in the paper as read, a brief description of a Public Elementary School, the Seven Standards, and the Ten Specific Subjects, with statistics of the examination in these last.]

The origin of the system to which I now invite your atten-

tion is thus described in a paper by Mr. Hance, clerk to the Liverpool School Board, published in the *School Board Chronicle* for Nov. 1st, 1879:—

"However important, I might say essential, may have been the system of Payment by Results introduced by the Revised Code, I think that there can be little doubt that the effects of it as first applied—and, to a modified extent, the same still holds good—was to reduce education in, I might say, the majority of Government-aided schools to a monotonous 'grind' at reading, writing, and arithmetic, of which the ultimate aim appeared to be the attainment of mechanical accuracy. This not only did very little, if anything, to develop the intelligence of the children, but was directly calculated to defeat that object by generating in a large proportion of cases a positive distaste for intellectual attainments. The Liverpool School Board, as soon as they had any schools of their own to manage, were, like most other School Boards, greatly impressed with the necessity of providing a somewhat more varied curriculum. They also felt strongly the importance of introducing some subject specially calculated to awaken and exercise the observing faculties of the children, and, by making this subject common to all their schools, to render it a distinctive feature in their educational system. With this object, they sought and obtained the valuable advice of Prof. Huxley, Col. Donnelly, and other gentlemen of eminence in the world of Science. The result would, if they had felt themselves entirely free, have probably been the adoption of *Elementary Physics* for both boys and girls; but, in view of the provisions of the New Code as to Government grants, and of the importance of having the work tested by independent examination, it was decided not to go outside of the subjects provided for by the Code. Under these circumstances, the Board, at the suggestion of the gentlemen before mentioned, ultimately selected 'Mechanics' for boys, and 'Domestic Economy' for girls, as the subjects most suitable for their purpose,—the definition of these subjects given in the New Code being of such a nature as to allow of the instruction being considerably expanded in the one case in the direction of *Elementary Physics*, and in the other in that of *Elementary Chemistry, Physics, and Physiology*. In reference to the system of instruction, it was, by the same advice, decided to absolutely abandon the use of text-books by the scholars, and to rely upon oral instruction, accompanied by, or rather explaining, appropriate illustrations and experiments."

The general idea of the scheme thus suggested was first worked out in detail in Liverpool, but was speedily adopted by the Birmingham School Board, and by them still further developed. If, in what follows, I lay more stress upon the Birmingham work, it will be simply because I have had the very great advantage of seeing the system in full work in the latter town under the guidance of my friend, the Rev. W. H. Crosskey, Chairman of the School Management Committee of the Birmingham School Board, and also of Mr. Davis, their energetic clerk.

The special feature of the scheme, and one which I regard as of the very highest importance in connection with it, is, that these Science-demonstrations are given, not by the ordinary staff of the school, but by a specially appointed expert, whose sole duty it is to go round from school to school, giving practically the same lesson in each one, until all have been visited. The apparatus necessary is kept, and the experiments are prepared, at a central laboratory, built at one of the schools, about which I may say more presently; and whatever is needed for a given lesson is carefully packed in neatly partitioned boxes (in a way with which those of us who, like myself, travel about the country with experimentally illustrated lectures on Physics, are very familiar), and is taken from school to school in a hand-cart, drawn by a boy employed for the purpose. In this way the Birmingham demonstrator, Mr. W. Jerome Harrison, F.G.S., is able to give four lessons per day, of about 45 minutes each, in as many different schools; and at present 28 schools are thus receiving such instruction, which is given to about 1500 boys and 1000 girls. Mr. Harrison has (or is about to have) two assistants; and it occasionally happens, as was the case at the time of my "surprise" visit, that he may be teaching Mechanics to boys, and one of his assistants expounding Domestic Economy to girls, in different rooms of the same school at the same time. Carriage of apparatus is thus saved. In Liverpool "the number of children under this instruction last year was 5008, of whom

3407 were examined by H.M. Inspector; more than one-half of these were in Standard IV.—a standard which for the future," writes to me Mr. Hance, the clerk to the Liverpool Board, "will be excluded from examination."

In Birmingham, the lessons are given fortnightly; one of the regular staff of the school is always present, and it is his duty in the intervening week to go over the lesson again to the class, and drive it home. After this, each child writes out notes of the lesson, often in reply to questions set, and these notes are revised by the demonstrator himself before he next visits the school. I looked over several of these notes, selected at hazard, and was much surprised at the ability displayed in some of the answers. I also conversed on the subject with my friend Mr. Poynting, Professor of Physics, &c., in the Mason College, Birmingham, who at the request of the Board had examined a number of boy candidates for a Scholarship offered in connection with the system, and he spoke in very strong terms to me of the excellent results noticeable throughout the examination, as well as of the individual excellence of the successful candidates. Two lads were so exactly equal, that, to borrow an illustration from Wimbledon, quite a large number of ties had to be shot-off before a decision could be arrived at. Some of the answers at this examination I lay on the table.

In his official report to the Board, he says:—

"Hardly any of the questions in my paper could have been answered without independent thought on the part of the candidates, and I had but very few answers showing a want of such thought. The boys showed that they had seen and understood the experiments which they described,—that they had been taught to reason for themselves upon them,—and that they were not merely using forms of words which they had learnt without attaching physical ideas to them."

The practice of having one or more of the ordinary teachers present at the demonstration is fraught with more important consequences than at first sight appears. Their attention is thus drawn to Science, and to Science *well taught*,—as the following quotation from a teacher's letter to Mr. Harrison will show (the writer was one of the hardest-working assistant teachers in Birmingham, and his testimony was spontaneous):—

"I have attended eight or ten Science classes, and gained several certificates, but from them all I have not gained so much knowledge as by listening to your lessons."

I venture to hope that this system of Science teaching in elementary schools by specially appointed demonstrators, will obtain authoritative endorsement as the right one. Dr. Crosskey tells me that he has had to fight for it against objections of the following kind:—

I. "The regular teachers can do all the Science, which is needed." Those, however, who know how completely their time is occupied under the present system, can see at once that there is really no time available for the necessary experimental preparations.

II. "Only a few elementary principles can be taught, and this special supply of apparatus and demonstrators is beyond the mark." To this it is sufficient to reply, that the careful scientific demonstration of the simplest principles is a necessity for their apprehension. As my father, Dr. Carpenter, said to me once, "I hold that *every child* should have his hand on an air-pump receiver, while the air is exhausted from beneath it, and should see for himself the circulation of the blood in the frog's foot." As his son, I can testify to the vividness of the impression made upon my boyish mind, at about 8 years old by these very things.

III. "It will interfere with the ordinary school work," was frequently urged. The best answer to this is, the results,—which show that the schools in which the Birmingham Board passes most in Science, are also the *best* in the ordinary school work, since the general intelligence is so much quickened.

The general scheme of instruction given in the various standards and years, upon the lines and in the manner

indicated above, may be thus summarised; it commences after the children have passed the 4th standard:—

Boys. 1st Stage.—Matter in three states, solids, liquids, and gases. Mechanical properties peculiar to each state. Matter is porous, compressible, elastic. Measurement as practised by mechanics. Production of a plane surface. Measures of length, time, and velocity.

In Birmingham this is given in twenty-one lessons, in Liverpool in thirty-four. Both courses include such practical subjects as the spirit-level, air-pump, barometer, syphon, water-pumps and valves, thermometer, clocks, hydrometers, filters, &c., &c.

Boys. 2nd Stage.—This comprises the meaning of Force, and the work done by it; gravitation and the three laws of motion; the idea of Energy, both kinetic and potential, and of its Conservation.

Boys. 3rd Stage.—This year they are taught the principles of the six simple mechanical powers, the hydrostatic press, and the parallelograms of forces and of velocities.

It was a class in this stage at which I was lately present in Birmingham, and was so much struck with the intelligence of the boys, and the way in which they drew upon their own and their parents' experience, to furnish illustrative replies. The experience at Liverpool is, that in every school some five per cent. or more of the scholars evince such marked aptitude and taste for scientific studies, as to make it clear that they would gladly avail themselves of further opportunities, and amply repay any trouble spent upon them.*

As arranged for the girls, the instruction in the so-called "Domestic Economy" is as follows:—

Girls. 1st Stage.—Functions of food, and its distribution by the blood; the chemistry of oxygen, hydrogen, carbon, and nitrogen; the proximate composition of various kinds of food; clothing and its uses, and the mechanics and chemistry of washing, both as regards the person and the clothes.

Girls. 2nd Stage.—Food, its functions and composition, treated more in detail than in the first stage; and the physical and chemical principles involved in warming, cleaning, and ventilating a dwelling.

Girls. 3rd Stage.—This comprises rules for health; the management of a sick-room; the preparation and culinary treatment of food; and lessons on expenditure and savings.

As regards the expense of the scheme, the cost to the Liverpool School Board was about £100 for the stock of apparatus, and £470 yearly for the instructor and his assistants. In Birmingham more than £200 has been spent upon apparatus, and the present annual expenditure is—Chief Demonstrator £300, Two Assistants £255, Two Juniors 10s. and 12s. per week, say £55; or a total of £610. It is obvious that, under this plan, a maximum of highly efficient teaching is obtained at a minimum of cost; since the same demonstrators and the same apparatus are available for a large number of schools—in Birmingham, at present, for sixty-two school departments. It may be objected that, although feasible in a large town, such a scheme is not practically useful in the number of smaller towns scattered over the country. Here, I venture to think, a lesson might be taken from the operations of the Gilchrist Educational Trust, for whom I have had the honour of doing much work during the last two or three years. The towns where lectures are to be given are grouped in fives, and on Monday and the succeeding nights of each week, a lecture (in my case always illustrated experimentally) is given in a different town. Hence, except in the very smallest and most distant places, there is nothing to prevent schools in nearly every town from reaping the advantages of such a scheme as this.

As carried out in Birmingham, however, the duties of the demonstrators are by no means confined to the day lessons given to the boys and girls in the three stages above named. On two evenings in the week, there are four classes held, in

which 180 pupil teachers, exhibitioners, &c., are receiving instruction in Chemistry, Electricity and Magnetism, Physiology, and Physiography.

Children who really distinguish themselves are granted Scholarships of £10 per year (in connection with South Kensington) or free admissions, and come to evening classes at the new Science Rooms, just opened in connection with the latest school erected by the Board. This part of the system is now just developing itself; an assistant will in future be stationed at this central laboratory, and selected pupils will go there to do practical work at fixed times. Here also is kept the store of apparatus, and here the experiments are prepared for the school demonstrations. I carefully went over the arrangements of this new laboratory, and was much struck with the completeness of the appliances for demonstrating to classes the elements of Physics and Chemistry, and for encouraging actual work by the pupils themselves. The small lecture-room on these premises for the selected pupils, under-teachers, &c., is quite a little gem of its kind. I may, perhaps, take this opportunity of remarking that all the new Board Schools in Birmingham are built upon what is known as the class-room system, which greatly facilitates the Science demonstration.

Further, Mr. Harrison, the chief demonstrator, devotes at least one evening per week in the winter months to giving elementary popular lectures at the various schools, illustrated with photographs and transparencies projected by a very good bi-unial lantern presented to the Board for such purposes by Mr. Tangye, of Tangye Brothers, who also gave £250 to found Scholarships. Of this work Mr. Harrison says, "The effect in improving the general intelligence of the children, in attracting them to school, and in improving the regularity of the attendance, is, I believe, unquestioned." I may add that, for such purposes, the series of lantern photographs illustrating Physics, already published by York & Son, and the series illustrating Biology, at present in course of publication, are especially suited.

In this connection, also, I ought to mention that, acting upon a deficiency in their system pointed out by H.M. Inspector for the Birmingham district, the Board have just issued "Suggestions regarding the preparation of progressive schemes of object-lessons, in boys', girls', and infants' schools," in order to help the teachers to prepare the scholars of the first four standards systematically for the Science courses which they enter upon when the 4th Standard is passed. The number of new lessons in any one year is fixed at 36; and their aim is "to place the child in intelligent connection with the phenomena by which it is surrounded." The lessons, however, are confined to "objects," *i.e.* matter; those which need reference to force being left until the 5th Standard is passed.

The results which have been incidentally mentioned in the course of the paper may be thus put together.

1. The general quickening of the intellectual life of the school.
2. The sending of a large number of lads to Science classes, after leaving school, at the Midland Institute and elsewhere.
3. The finding out lads of exceptional scientific ability, and setting them on their road.
4. The attracting the attention of the ordinary teachers to Science and the results of its teaching.

In conclusion, I wish to impress strongly two points upon the Society as to this scheme.—

I.—The success of it, which has been admitted to be great, depends almost entirely upon the employment of a specially appointed demonstrator, who shall go from school to school with apparatus, and shall encourage the children to assist him in the performance of the experiments, and to handle his specimens.

II.—Under this system, instruction is given in elementary Science to every child above the 4th Standard. This it is very important to note, because in many "Upper Grade Schools," under Boards, it may be (and is) admitted to be a good thing to give such practical instruction, and in some towns they say that they are doing it. They are not, however,

* In an article upon this same subject, but treated from quite a different point of view, in the *Modern Review* for July, will be found some remarkably interesting statistics of the Liverpool work.—W. L. C.

really doing it in the sense in which I am now urging it; for they only give such lessons in the upper schools, to which a few poor boys come by exhibitions and examinations. The point that I desire to urge most strongly is, that these demonstrations ought to be a *part of the work of every school*. They are given in the "Penny Schools" in Birmingham, and, as Dr. Crosskey says, in words which I can most fully confirm from my own experience in Bristol, ranging over a period of more than 20 years, with a class of boys considerably rougher even than his, "It is a wonderful thing to see the power of experimental Science over the roughest lads. My own belief is that in our young blackguards we have a most amazing reserve power of scientific research. They are *alive* in every sense, and I have watched them at the Science lessons as keenly interested as if they were up to mischief in the streets." From my own experience of the last two years, both as a Gilchrist Trust Lecturer, and as a worker in Science exposition at the Victoria Coffee Hall, Waterloo Road, familiarly known as the "Vic.," I am inclined to extend the scope of Dr. Crosskey's remarks so as to include children of a larger growth, but equally rough. This, however, is a subject beyond the scope of the present paper. I may, however, perhaps mention, as a practical illustration of what I mean, that by teaching the elements of Geology to the colliers in the Leeds district, Prof. Miall has secured many valuable fossils for the Leeds Museum, which would otherwise have been thrown aside as rubbish on the pit-bank.

It has just come to my knowledge, also, that the discovery of the manufactory of dynamite in Birmingham was due, in the first instance, to a youth who passed through the Science system of the Birmingham Board Schools, including the evening instruction. He had, I believe, been taught the relation of glycerine to explosive compounds, and, living near Whitehead's premises, and seeing what he recognised as cans of glycerine, and carboys and bottles of acid, go in there, he communicated his suspicions to a friend, who happened to be a detective policeman!

I trust that the reading of this paper, and the discussion thereon, may have some influence in drawing attention to this essentially practical scheme for Science demonstrations in Board Schools—a scheme suggested by the matured experience of most eminent men of science; worked out in practical detail by Boards controlling the education of two of our largest centres of population; (would that it were adopted in London also!) and proved to have given, under their management, such admirable results. I will conclude by simply recording my very firm conviction that, if this work can but be set moving, it will end in an intellectual revolution for the mass of our people, and that the national results of it will be great.

NOTE.—After this paper was read, the chairman, Prof. G. C. Foster, invited discussion. Among the speakers, besides the chairman, were Dr. J. H. Gladstone (London School Board), Mr. Walter Baily (H.M. Inspector of Schools, London district), Prof. Chandler Roberts, and Dr. Carpenter, C.B. A unanimous expression of approval of the scheme was elicited, and Dr. Carpenter stated that he had for some time been waiting for a suitable opportunity to bring before the public just such a scheme, which he had worked out in his own mind. It afforded him very great satisfaction to find that it was already actually accomplished fact.

It may be noted also that, at the public Presentation for Degrees in the University of London last May, Sir John Lubbock, M.P. for the University, referred in terms of strong approval to this scheme.

W. L. C.

NOTES AND JOTTINGS.

So the old joke still holds good, and for at least another lustrum we shall continue to have in England a Minister of Rinderpest and Kinderpest. The same arguments that were adduced by the Government in favour of this arrangement would justify the combination in the same person of general

and admiral, of barber and surgeon, of schoolmaster and parish clerk.

THE *Saturday Review* was much exercised by the debate on Sir J. Lubbock's motion. To defend an anomaly because it is an anomaly, is a trite paradox and an easy text to preach upon. But to weave into the same discourse the usual abuse of Mr. Gladstone must have taxed the writer's ingenuity, and he was driven to that refuge of the logically destitute—"The exception proves the rule."

THE appointment of Mr. Rutherford has given rise to a lively correspondence on the subject of lay Head-masters in the *Pall Mall Gazette*. The *Pall Mall* having hailed the appointment as another triumph of laicism, "An Assistant-master" pointed out that, so far from this being the case, Mr. Rutherford would not have stood a chance had he not expressed his willingness to take Holy Orders. We need not repeat our own views on the subject, but we note with satisfaction the very sensible opinion of a Church contemporary, the *School Guardian*. "Where the man is good, and otherwise fit for his post, he will be a successful teacher, whether in Orders or not. If he have not the necessary qualifications, his being in Holy Orders will not make up his deficiencies." Would that all governing bodies were of the same mind!

THE controversy on overwork in schools has cropped up again, and the columns of the *Standard* have been flooded with letters from doctors, reporting cases of inflammation of the brain brought on by overwork; letters from teachers done to death by the cruel Code; letters from Inspectors who, in the course of twenty years, never knew of a case of illness occasioned by over-exertion of the brain. Till we have medical inspection of schools and medical returns, as in Belgium and France, such a conflict of evidence is inevitable, and neither party can convict or convince the other.

INSPECTORS generally, and in particular the Inspector who writes to the *Standard*, are a red rag to the *Schoolmaster*. "We do not impugn either the Inspector's blindness or his stupidity." "The spectacle of unmitigated density which is displayed by this individual," who "twists his facts in a manner which is at once clumsy and calumnious," and so on for a whole page. It may be, as our contemporary says, that "twenty years ago there was twice as much work done in the better class of elementary schools than (*sic*) now," but we mistrust the judgment of a schoolmaster who violates equally the laws of literary propriety and of the English tongue.

WE have only one contribution to make, but this is a weighty piece of evidence, as coming from one who is both an educationist and a physician. Dr. J. F. Payne, speaking from his experience of hospitals, at a meeting of the Education Society, stated as his opinion that the position of pupil teachers was the most trying for the health of any he knew. "The system," he said, "is, in fact, inhuman."

A CORRESPONDENT has pointed out an error into which we fell in estimating the cost of the Joint Board Examination. Our estimate of six guineas a head was founded on the balance-sheet published by the Board, which gives the gross receipts in fees, and the number of pupils examined for certificates. Of non-certificate pupils the Board takes no account, an omission which we failed to observe. Our calculation was, of course, greatly in excess of the true figure; but the particular instance that we quoted in our last number proves that the Board Examination is still a very expensive one. Yet, as far as we can see, there is no extravagance. The only way to lessen the expense is to modify the system by making the masters of schools conduct the examination under the inspection

of the Board; but against this change the Board have resolutely set their faces.

ON a minor point we are glad to learn that the Board have yielded to the representations of masters. At a Conference between the Board and the Committee of the Head-masters' Conference, the Board agreed to modify their syllabus of examinations so as to allow schools to take up any period of history or portion of history they might desire.

A PRIZE competitor has been good enough to send us the translation of last month's extract from Renan, as it appears in the authorised version of the *Souvenirs*, by C. B. Pitman, revised by Madame Renan. We doubt whether it would have reached a second class. It wholly lacks rhythm, and there are (*pace* Madame Renan) two or three positive mistranslations. *Une ville d'Is* is not "a city of Is," but "a town." *L'hymne du jour* is not "the hymn appropriate for the day." It would, indeed, be a magical city whose bells had 365 different chimes. Worst of all is *des fidèles qui n'entendent plus*, "a recalcitrant congregation." This would be to make Renan a Saul kicking against the pricks. The very point of the passage, and the charm of the book, is the "longing, lingering look behind." The fact is, that translation is the worst paid of literary work, and, consequently, one can count on the fingers of one hand the modern French and German works that have been worthily rendered into English.

"ANTIBARBARA" suggests that the French Examiner in the *Governess* must be the partner of the Latin Examiner in the *Practical Teacher*. "Good brothers" is *des bons frères*; 'if she speaks to me' is *s'elle me parle*; 'take two to —' is *prenez deux à —*, and so on; but we have not space for all the cumulative evidence by which "Antibarbara" attempts to establish the affinity.

MR. H. W. EVE, Head-master of University College School, has been elected Dean of the College of Preceptors, in place of Mr. A. K. Isbister, deceased. The College may be congratulated on its choice. Mr. Eve may be trusted not only to carry on the work of examination that has grown and prospered so marvellously under the late Dean's guidance, but to develop the other functions of the College, which have, perhaps unavoidably, been suffered to fall into abeyance.

OUR summer crop of examination blunders is just beginning. We can guarantee the following translation of *Hinc puer Æacides hinc Jove natus erat*, "Here the boy Æacides was born, here he was, by Jove." Also this answer to the question, "What do you mean by the synoptical gospels?"—"The first three gospels are synoptical, but St. John is divine." "Explain *Habeas Corpus*."—"You may have his body. The watchword of a gang of body-snatchers, of whom Burke and Hare were the chief."

THE Prussian Minister of Education has issued new regulations with regard to subjects that should and that should not be taught in public schools. In lessening the limits of Natural Science, the Minister observes that an acquaintance with the hypothesis of Darwin is not required, and that such subjects should be entirely excluded from the regular course of instruction in Natural Science. Doubtless, similar edicts are preserved in the Roman archives about the time of Copernicus.

IN Carlsbad and several other places of Bohemia, a part of the class-rooms in the government schools has been placed at the disposal of the public, as in the ordinary law courts. The floors of these portions of the school-rooms are well matted, so as to prevent any noise from disturbing the teach-

ing. Many parents avail themselves of this permission, and the lessons of some teachers are followed by them with great interest. M. Emile de Laveleye states that this exercises a good influence over both teachers and pupils. At any rate, he adds, it is but reasonable that the public should be allowed at times to see and hear in what manner instruction is given in the schools for which it pays so much money.

THE Minister of Education of Belgium has introduced the new Bill for Compulsory Education.

WE shall have more to say about Denominational Training Colleges next month. Meanwhile we call attention to a "note" on the subject by Mr. R. A. Armstrong in the *Modern Review*.

A MOTTO for the Emperor of Russia—*Urit me Glyceræ nitor* (nitro-glycerine).

SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES.

(Held over from July number.)

SCOTLAND.

The Edinburgh School Board have elected Miss Rainy, sister of Principal Rainy, a member in the place of the late Mrs. Bain; and Dr. W. F. Skene, Historiographer for Scotland, will fill the place vacated by the Rev. James Barclay, on his departure for Montreal. Two new schools, Warrender Park and North Merchiston, will be opened by the Board in September.

The Edinburgh University Local Examinations were held on the 12th, 13th, and 14th of June. The number of candidates examined is greater than that of any previous year. In Edinburgh alone there were 357, and the country centres furnished 554. For the last three years the numbers had shown a tendency to fall off, as similar examinations have been held in connection with the other Universities. It is expected that the results will be issued on the 5th or 6th of July.

A number of young ladies in Edinburgh and other parts of the country have been successful in passing the examinations in piano-forte playing, held by the Royal Academy of Music, London. Others have been successful in passing the musical examination in connection with Trinity College, London. The late Dr. William Chambers has bequeathed the sum of £5000 to the Watt Institution and School of Arts. Certain life interests in the money, however, interfere with its immediate application to the needs of the Institution.

A lady, Miss MacDougall of Perth, has lately died, and left about £10,000 for the foundation of bursaries for the benefit of students, natives of the city or county of Perth, who attend the Arts classes in the Universities of Edinburgh, Glasgow, or St. Andrews. The trustees expect that the annual income of the money will enable them to found three bursaries, of £50 each, in each of the three Universities.

The directors of the Edinburgh Academy have unanimously appointed Mr. George B. Gardiner, assistant to Professor Butcher in the Edinburgh University, to the Classical Mastership rendered vacant by the appointment of Mr. Merry to the Rectorship of the High School of Dundee.

A former dux and gold medallist of George Watson's College for Young Ladies, Miss Jessie Josephine McKean, has been appointed Vice-Principal and Mathematical Teacher of the High School for Girls, Dundee, at the salary of £350 per annum.

The Grocers' Company have awarded a Research Scholarship of the value of £250 to Dr. Matthew Hay, a candidate for the Chair of Medical Jurisprudence in Aberdeen.

A former pupil of Loretto School, near Edinburgh, Mr. W. H. Caldwell, B.A., has been elected Fellow of Caius College, Cambridge. He was lately elected to a studentship which was founded in memory of the late Professor Balfour, and has started for Australia to pursue his researches in connection with it.

Extensive improvements in the drainage, etc., of Fettes College are about to be put in operation, owing to the occurrence of two cases of diphtheria among the pupils. It has been deemed advisable, in order to prevent the spread of infection, to send the boys home for a time. The Trustees have elected thirteen boys for admission to the Foundation in September next.

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Address: The MANAGER, AUTOTYPE GALLERY, 74 New Oxford Street, W.C.

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THIS SOCIETY differs in its principles from other Offices.

INSTEAD of charging rates higher than are necessary, and returning the excess in the shape of periodical Bonuses, it gives from the first as large an Assurance as the Premiums will with safety bear—reserving the whole Surplus for those members (a majority of the whole) who have lived long enough to secure the Common Fund from loss.

A Policy of £1200 to £1250 may thus at most ages be had for the Premium usually charged for (with profits) £1000 only; while by reserving the surplus, large additions have been given—and may be expected in the future—on the Policies of those who participate.

The New Assurances have for years exceeded a Million.

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THE REALISED FUNDS NOW AMOUNT TO £4,500,000.

Not more than Two Offices in the Kingdom (both much older) have as large a Fund.

THE FIFTH SEPTENNIAL INVESTIGATION

showed a SURPLUS of £624,473, of which a third (£208,150) was reserved for after division, and £416,323 divided among 6662 Policies entitled to participate. Policies—say, of £1000—sharing a first time were increased to sums varying from £1180 to £1300 or more. Others which had previously shared, were raised to £1400, £1500, and upwards. A few of the early Policies have been doubled.

Examples of Premiums for £100 at Death—With Profits.

Age.	Payable during Life.	Limited to 21 Payments.	Age.	Payable during Life.	Limited to 21 Payments.
25	£1 18 0	£2 12 6	40	£2 14 9	£3 7 5
*30	2 1 6	2 15 4	45	3 5 9	3 17 6
35	2 6 10	3 0 2	50	4 1 7	4 12 1

Thus, a person of 30 may secure £1,000 at Death, by a yearly payment, during Life, of £20, 15s. This Premium in any other of the Scottish Mutual Offices, would secure £800 only, instead of £1,000.

[The non-participating rates of other Offices differ little from these Premiums, so that persons who assure with them virtually throw away the prospect of additions from the Profits without any compensating advantage.]

OR, if unwilling to burden himself with payments during his whole life, he may secure the same sum of £1,000 by twenty-one yearly payments of £27, 13s. 4d.—being thus free of payment after age 50.

† At age 40 the Premium, ceasing at age 60, is for £1,000, £33, 14s. 2d., being about the same as most Offices require to be paid during the whole term of life.

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Teachers are invited to examine the mode of Assurance by which a Member may secure for himself a Provision in Advanced Age, —the sum being at the same time assured to be paid to his family in the event of his dying before the specified age. On reaching the specified age, he could then obtain in lieu of the Capital sum an Annuity payable during his life, if that should better suit his circumstances.

The attention of Teachers is also invited to the method of providing for old age by Deferred Annuities commencing on the Member attaining a specified age. The rates for these will be found very moderate.

REPORTS with STATEMENT OF PRINCIPLES may be had on application.

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A Monthly Record and Review.

No. 169.—No. 66, NEW SERIES.

LONDON, AUGUST 1, 1883.

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NOTICE.—Advertisements for the September issue must reach the Office by the 23rd inst.

For Scale of charges, see p. 277.

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PRELIMINARY NOTICE.

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Classes will be opened 1st October, in London.

Friends and Teachers interested, or Students desirous to join the same, will receive full information applying to the Secretary, **E. A. SNOWDON**, L.L.A., care of Editor, 96 Farringdon Street, E.C.

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The Council will admit a limited number of Students for a single term to the "practical" part of the College course.

The Christmas Term will commence on Wednesday, September 19th.

For all information, apply to the Principal,

H. COURTHOPE BOWEN, Esq., M.A.

MRS. LAWRENCE, Fearegg House, Wimbledon Park, has **VACANCIES** for **TWO RESIDENT PUPILS.** Classes re-open Monday, September 24. For particulars, apply to **MRS. LAWRENCE.**

TO PRINCIPALS OF SCHOOLS.

—Miss **LOUISA DREWRY**, Professor of the English Language and Literature, will have time, after the summer vacation, for one or two more **CLASSES.** 143 King Henry's Road, London, N.W.

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190 Brompton Road, S.W.

Conducted by Miss **BROUGH**
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Rev. **E. A. ABBOTT, D.D.**, Head-master, City of London School, Victoria Embankment.

Miss **BUSS, N. Lond. Coll. Sch.**, Sandell Road, N.W.

Mrs. **WILLIAM GREY**, 18 Cadogan Place, S.W.

CHARLES SAVILE ROUNDELL, Esq., M.P., 16 Curzon Street, Mayfair, W.

Rev. **T. W. SHARPE, M.A.**, H.M. Inspector of Schools, Education Department, Whitehall.

The Dowager **LADY STANLEY OF ALDERLEY**, 40 Dover Street, W.

The dissolution of the Women's Education Union having caused the want of a centre of information on educational matters to be widely felt, Miss **BROUGH** (late Secretary of the Union) has endeavoured, partially at least, to supply the want by opening an Office for the **REGISTRATION OF TEACHERS** and for the **COLLECTION OF EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION.**

The **TEACHERS' REGISTRY** has, since the dissolution of the Women's Education Union, been conducted by Miss **BROUGH**, with the permission of the Committee of the Union.

Miss **BROUGH** has now established, in addition to the Registry, a department for giving information and advice respecting Schools, Classes, Examinations, &c., for which her connection with the educational movements of the last ten years gives her exceptional facilities.

UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH LOCAL
EXAMINATIONS.

The Subjects and Regulations for
June, 1884, may now be had.

The Report, with the above appended, and including the Examination papers set in 1883, will be published in August by **MR. THIN**, South Bridge Street, Edinburgh.

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TO SCHOOLMASTERS, GOVERNORS

of INSTITUTIONS, and others.—To be LET, on very advantageous terms, an extensive **BLOCK OF BUILDINGS**, situate near a great commercial centre in Lancashire, well adapted for a large educational establishment, sanatorium, or reformatory, and comprising head-master's house, class-rooms, dining and lecture halls, dormitories for 90 boys, chapel, swimming-baths, and covered playground; the whole standing in 15 acres of land. The furniture could be left if desired, or taken at a valuation; or the Freehold of the entirety can be purchased. For further particulars, apply to Messrs. **JABEZ JONES & SONS**, Auctioneers, Preston; or to **MR. ALFRED W. HEWER**, 28 Golden Square, London, W.

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of **MEDICAL STUDENTS.**—The **COLLEGE** of **PRECEPTORS** will hold an Examination for Certificates recognised by the General Medical Council as qualifying for Registration as a Medical Student, on the 4th, 5th, and 6th of September, 1883.

The Examination will take place in London, and at the following Local Centres:—Birmingham (Queen's College), Bristol (University College), Leeds (Leeds School of Medicine), Liverpool (University College).

Examination Fee, 25s.

Regulations and Entry Forms may be obtained on application to the Secretary of the College of Preceptors, 42 Queen Square, Bloomsbury, W.C.

C. R. HODGSON, B.A., Secretary.

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It includes actual Class-teaching in the Schools connected with the College.

The work of the Lower Division is preliminary to that of the Upper Division, and, besides instruction in Teaching, includes preparation for the Cambridge Higher Local Examination.

A Kindergarten Department will, it is hoped, be added in September.

As the number of Students is limited, early application for admission is advisable.

Address, for all particulars as to terms, scholarships, &c.—The **PRINCIPAL**, Training College, Skinner Street, Bishopsgate, E.C.

STOCKWELL KINDERGARTEN AND SCHOOL.
21 STOCKWELL ROAD, S.W.

The Misses CROMBIE, successors to **Fraülein HEERWART**, will resume work on September 10th.

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F.S.A., Author of "Familiar Wild Flowers," "Flower-painting in Water Colours," "Plane Geometrical Drawing," and various other books used in Art-teaching, is prepared to give instruction in Water Colour, Pottery Painting, Architectural and Engineering Drawing, Geometrical Drawing for Army Candidates, and all kinds of Art-teaching. Schools and classes visited. School lectures on Art subjects. Reports on drawings sent up, &c. Principals of schools desirous of establishing classes, either in London or elsewhere, are requested to apply by letter to **S. St. Alban's Road, Kensington, W.**

AUTUMN TERM for house-pupils commences September 17th.

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SCIENCE TEACHING.—A late Student of Newnham College, Cambridge, 1st Class Honours Natural Sciences Tripos (informally examined), wishes to give PRIVATE LESSONS or take CLASSES in Schools in London or the neighbourhood. Subjects—Zoology, Physiology, Chemistry, Physics. Address—Miss ALICE JOHNSON, Llandaff House, Cambridge.

MATHEMATICAL OR MODERN LANGUAGE MASTERSHIP in good School WANTED. The Advertiser has had twelve years' experience: two at New College, Eastbourne; two at The High School, Margate. Undergrad. Lond., reading for Honours. Good disciplinarian. Joint Author of Latin, French, German, and English School Books. Address—G. J. T., 10 Magdala Terrace, East Dulwich, S.E.

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A CLERGYMAN'S DAUGHTER wishes to find a Daily Situation as GOVERNESS in School or Family. Subjects: English, Arithmetic, French, fluent German (acquired abroad), elementary Drawing and Latin. Cambridge Certificates. Good References. M. B., 97 South Hill Park, Hampstead.

CERTIFICATED GOVERNESS (Cambridge Senior—Kensington) desires in September RE-ENGAGEMENT as JUNIOR GOVERNESS; good School or Family; English, good Arithmetic, French, Music, Drawing (certificates), rudimentary German. Address—E., Alexandre College, Taunton.

WANTED, ASSISTANT MASTERSHIP for September Term. Mathematics, Latin, English, Junior Greek and French. Resident Salary £50. A. J. LLOYD, The Crofts, Nantwich.

WANTED, HIGH SCHOOL RE-ENGAGEMENTS by TWO SISTERS, having certificates and experience. One as Junior Teacher, the other as Mathematical or Assistant Mistress. Address—Miss BRIER, Bath Buildings, Huddersfield.

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ASSISTANT MISTRESS required early in September for Middlesbrough Girls' High School, Certificated. Salary £100. Apply, stating age and qualifications, to the HEAD MISTRESS, High School, Middlesbrough. Middlesbrough High School.
July 21st, 1883.

NORTH WALES.—German or French MUSIC GOVERNESS required for September; also ARTICLED PUPIL, aged 15 or 16. Half Terms. House can be let for August. Lovely situation. Miss BARLOW, Denbigh High-Class School for Girls.

NEW ZEALAND.—A HEAD-MASTER is required for the High School at Christchurch, New Zealand. Salary £800 per annum. An allowance made for expenses of passage to the Colony. Candidates, to be eligible, must have graduated in classical honours at Oxford or Cambridge, and had experience in a public school. Vice-Chancellor Jowett, the Rev. J. M. Wilson, and Arthur Sidgwick, Esq., have consented to act as Selecting Commissioners.

Application forms and further particulars can be obtained on and after the 26th inst. of
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No. 7 Westminster Chambers, London, S.W.
July 14th, 1883.

QUEEN ELIZABETH'S GRAMMAR SCHOOL, KINGSTON-ON-THAMES.

The HEAD-MASTERSHIP of this School having become vacant by the retirement of the Rev. W. Rigg, the Governors will proceed to elect a Master in his place in August next. Candidates, who must be graduates of some University, are requested to forward their applications, accompanied by copies of testimonials, on or before Saturday, August 11th, to the undersigned, from whom printed particulars of the tenure, duties, and emoluments of the office may be procured. The Head-master will be required to commence his duties at the beginning of next Michaelmas Term.
(Signed) F. GOULD,
Chairman of the Governors.

Kingston-on-Thames.

WANTED, in September, a Fourth MASTER, to be Senior House Master in a Boarding School of some 90 boys. A trained Master who has taken a degree, or is preparing to do so, at London or Dublin would be preferred. He must be able to play the harmonium and take the choir practice. He would share with the Junior Master the out-of-school duty. The evening study is shared by four Masters. Stipend £30 a year, with board, lodging, and washing.

Address—Rev. The HEAD-MASTER, Baneroff's Hospital, London, E.
Copies of testimonials should be sent, which will not be returned.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE OF WALES, ABERYSTWITH.

The Council will proceed forthwith to the ELECTION of a PROFESSOR of LOGIC and MENTAL and MORAL PHILOSOPHY. Salary £250. Candidates are requested to send Testimonials to the Hon. Secretaries, Lonsdale Chambers, 27 Chancery Lane, London, on or before August 15th. Further information may be obtained from the Principal of the College.

E. J. EVANS, } Honorary
LEWIS MORRIS. } Secretaries.

July 10th, 1883.

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SCOTTISH PROVIDENT INSTITUTION,

EDINBURGH: No. 6 ST. ANDREW SQUARE.

LONDON OFFICE: No. 17 KING WILLIAM STREET.

The following are the results reported for the year 1882 :—

NEW ASSURANCES, £1,031,965, with £40,402 of Premiums, of which £7,430 by Single Payment.
NET PREMIUMS Received, £423,724.—TOTAL INCOME, £601,072.
REALISED FUNDS (increased in year by £307,797), £4,509,730.

EARLY PAYMENT OF CLAIMS.

A RESOLUTION WAS SUBMITTED PROVIDING FOR PAYMENT OF CLAIMS
ONE MONTH AFTER ADMISSION OF PROOF OF DEATH.

Mr. FERGUSON, of Kinmundy, in moving the adoption of the Report, said :—

THE REPORT just read is probably one of the most satisfactory ever presented to you. That in an ordinary year, without the stimulus of an approaching division of profits, or any other speciality to influence business, the large sum of One Million and Thirty Thousand Pounds of New Assurances should have been effected, is a matter for mutual congratulation. The business, moreover, has been of a safe and genuine character, being entirely a Home business, and not inflated by large sums on one life, requiring to be re-assured in other Offices; and it has been obtained at an exceptionally low cost, as I shall afterwards show. Another feature worthy of note is the moderate ratio of Claims to the Annual Income. These claims were in all £235,213, against an income of £601,072, evidently a very low proportion.

This statement leads up to a third, and that the most gratifying feature of the Report, namely, that the Realised Funds of the Institution have been increased in the year by the large sum of £307,797—their amount at the close of 1882 being £4,509,723, against subsisting Assurances of £15,350,000. This, I need not say, is a very high proportion, particularly for an Office in which, from the low average age of the members, the premiums will continue to be drawn for a lengthened period.

It was stated in last year's Report that "the Accumulated Fund has increased in the last nine years by upwards of Two Millions," and that "of a

Mr. JOHN COWAN, Beeslack, seconded the motion, which, with the Resolution for earlier Payment of Claims, was unanimously approved of.

THIS SOCIETY DIFFERS IN ITS PRINCIPLES FROM OTHER OFFICES.

Instead of charging rates higher than are necessary, and afterwards returning the excess in the shape of periodical Bonuses, it gives from the first as large an Assurance as the Premiums will with safety bear—reserving the whole Surplus for those members who have lived long enough to secure the Common Fund from loss.

The PREMIUMS are so moderate that at most ages an assurance of £1,200 or £1,250 may be secured from the first for the same yearly payment which would generally elsewhere assure (with profits) £1,000 only—the difference being equivalent to an immediate and certain "Bonus" of 20 to 25 per cent.

The WHOLE PROFITS go to the Policyholders, on a system at once safe, equitable, and favourable to good lives—no share being given to those by whose early death there is a loss. The FIFTH SEPTENNIAL INVESTIGATION showed a SURPLUS of £624,473, which, after reserving £208,158 for future division, was divided among 6,662 Policies entitled. Policies of £1,000 sharing a first time were increased to sums varying from £1,180 to £1,300 or more. Other Policies were raised to £1,400, £1,500, and upwards. A few of the earlier Policies have been doubled.

ANNUAL PREMIUMS FOR £100 AT DEATH (WITH PROFITS).

Age.	Payable during Life.	Limited to 21 Payments.	Age.	Payable during Life.	Limited to 21 Payments.	Age.	Payable during Life.	Limited to 21 Payments.
25	£. s. d. 1 18 0	£. s. d. 2 12 6	35	£. s. d. 2 6 10	£. s. d. 3 0 2	45	£. s. d. 3 5 9	£. s. d. 3 17 6
30	£. s. d. 2 1 6*	£. s. d. 2 15 4	40	£. s. d. 2 14 9	£. s. d. 3 7 5†	50	£. s. d. 4 1 7	£. s. d. 4 12 1

* Thus, a person of 30 may secure £1,000 at Death, by a yearly payment, *during Life*, of £20. 15s. This Premium would generally elsewhere secure £800 only, instead of £1,000. Or he may secure the same sum of £1,000 by *twenty-one* yearly payments of £27. 13s. 4d., being thus free of payment after age 50.

† At age 40 the Premium, *ceasing at age 60*, is for £1,000, £33. 14s. 2d., being about the same as most Offices require to be paid during the whole term of life. Before that period the policy will have shared in at least one division of profits.

PROVISIONS FOR ADVANCED AGE.

Teachers are invited to examine the mode of Assurance by which a Member may secure for himself a Provision in Advanced Age, —the sum being at the same time assured to be paid to his family in the event of his dying before the specified age. On reaching the specified age, he could then obtain in lieu of the Capital sum an Annuity payable during his life, if that should better suit his circumstances.

The attention of Teachers is also invited to the method of providing for old age by Deferred Annuities commencing on the Member attaining a specified age. The rates for these will be found very moderate.

REPORTS with STATEMENT OF PRINCIPLES may be had on application.

JAMES WATSON, Manager.

J. MUIR LEITCH, London Secretary.

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The Journal of Education,

96 FARRINGTON STREET, LONDON, E.C.

OCCASIONAL NOTES.

WE have reason to know that the scandalous case of cribbing to which we directed the attention of the Joint Board is under their consideration. Our purpose is served, and we should not have reverted to the matter but for the letter of a correspondent, who urges that, unless the Journal names the offending school, and makes good its charge, it will stand convicted of disseminating malicious gossip. We think we can prove to our readers the injustice of this Morton's Fork. The evidence on which we founded our statement is mainly that of boys who took part in the impugned examinations. Our witnesses, anxious as they are that the abuse should cease, are not willing to appear in public as the accusers of their brethren. Our correspondent will doubtless condemn such a fugitive virtue, but it does not, in our eyes, detract from their credibility.

WE grieve to learn that the Kindergarten Training College in Tavistock Place will close at the end of this term. The College has done good work, though, from a commercial point of view, it has failed to justify its existence. Into the causes of this failure it would serve no good purpose to enquire too closely. One only need here be noticed. The Kindergarten attached to the College never numbered five-and-twenty children. The respectable middle-class English parent who lives in Bloomsbury hardly yet knows the name of Froebel, and grudges the five pounds that it costs to send his infant to a Kindergarten, though he does not stick at the hundred or hundred-and-fifty that he pays at a preparatory school.

He believes in the "prison-house" of the boy; he does not believe in the heaven of infancy that Froebel has revealed.

GOOD comes out of evil, and the closing of the Kindergarten College has led to the opening of a Kindergarten Department at the Bishopsgate Training College. In housing the homeless the latter College have done a generous act, and they will have their reward in other ways perhaps than some of their Council dream of. Consciously or unconsciously, we are all Froebelians,—that is to say, all educators who deserve the name. If they knew their good, our head-masters would study Froebel no less than our infant school-mistresses. By combining the course of the kindergärtner and the higher teacher, both will gain. What is faulty and provincial in Froebel's methods will be eliminated; his principles, which are deductions from psychology and physiology, will permeate and leaven the whole of Education.

THE Council of the Finsbury Training College have resolved to admit a limited number of students for a single term to the practical part of the College course. Such a resolution is evidently due to the *verum novitas*, and we hope that the influx of full students will cause it ere long to be rescinded. Meanwhile, we may point out to Head-masters the advantage they will reap if, before engaging an assistant, they insist that he shall spend a term "in listening to model lessons, in preparing and giving lessons under supervision, and in observing the general working of a large school." The present Dean of Westminster used to say that for the first year a master lost the College more by his bad carving than he earned by his teaching, and most middle-class teachers must be still worse bargains. Yet, though one Public School Head-master, to our knowledge, has made attendance at the College a condition of appointment to a mastership, the middle-class masters have done nothing to support the College either by contributions or by sending students. They are not wise in their generation. As a matter of pounds, shillings, and pence, they would find it pay.

THE debate in the House of Lords on overwork in elementary schools was singularly barren, both of interest and results. Lord Stanley of Alderley, who introduced it, quoted the opinion of certain doctors as to the increase of brain disease, produced by over-study, and the statistics furnished by the Lunacy Commissioners, which, as Lord Shaftesbury showed, do not prove that insanity is on the increase. Lord Norton was naïvely inconsistent in his eagerness to kill with one stone both science teaching and the Code. "There were at Birmingham two demonstrators of science, who lectured on this subject, asked questions of the children, and, he had heard, *answered them themselves*. It was abundantly proved that over-work, with all its attendant evils, resulted from the system now in force."

Lord Carlingford, on the other hand, gave the stereotyped official answer,—“The Department had consulted the most experienced of their Inspectors, and these reported that, though there might possibly be individual cases of over-work,” &c., &c. As we have said again and again, we shall never know whether children are overworked or not till we have a regular medical inspection of schools.

MR. WREN is the monarch of crammers—the Indian Civil Service crowned him long ago; consequently he has to endure the fierce light that beats upon a throne. Like the great soap-king, Mr. Wren advertizes, and—unkindest cut of all—the *Times*, in which he advertizes, unlike the *Manchester Scholastic Journal*, turns upon him, and suggests that the success of his advertized pupils is no more due to Mr. Wren's teaching than Mrs. Langtry's triumphs as an actress are due to Pears's soap. The facts are briefly these: Mr. Bunbury, a Wellington boy, who gained this year an Indian writership, came to Mr. Wren to ask his counsel. Mr. Wren advised him to leave school at once and read with him. The boy (or his guardian) disregarded Mr. Wren's opinion, but read in the holidays for a fortnight with Mr. Wren. On the strength of this “guidance, advice, and instruction” (nothing is said of the fortnight), Mr. Wren asserts in his letter to the *Times* that he is justified in claiming Mr. Bunbury as a pupil. The *Times* thereupon insinuates that Mr. Wren, whether he be a fit teacher of morals or not, is not fitted to teach logic. Mr. Wren, doubtless, chuckles to himself at having got a *Times* leader all to himself, and an advertisement gratis.

MR. WREN's advertisement reminds us of another. A young friend of ours had a dispute with his tutor, an army crammer, on the subject of veracity, and, being of a choleric temperament, knocked him down. But the crammer had the best of it in the end. He began by refusing a certificate of conduct, which was natural under the circumstances, and so spoilt his chance for the army. The youth prepared for the militia, and a year after passed out first. So far, it might be considered a drawn game. But, to our friend's intense disgust, he has since appeared in every prospectus and advertisement of Mr. X. (and Mr. X. scatters them broadcast about the country) as heading the list of Mr. X.'s successes.

MR. WREN may put a bold face on his castigation in the *Times*, and ignore “the graver charge” of Mr. Watkins in that paper. Even Mr. Wren's *œs triplex* is not proof against the logic of facts. Dr. Baker gives the case of two Merchant Taylors' boys of about equal ability, both of whom gained appointments in this examination. One left school in 1881 to read with a crammer, and his name appears as 33rd on the list, decorated with Mr. Wren's asterisk. The other went up

direct from school, offering only the regular school subjects, and obtained the 5th place. Another Merchant Taylors' boy going up direct from school came out first in 1878. Cheltenham has been even more successful, having passed no less than six this year direct from the College. As Dr. Baker well puts it—“The result is due not to the schools squaring their teaching with the Civil Service examinations, but to the recognition by the Civil Service examiners of the wisdom of squaring their examinations to the standard of our best schools, and so securing the best trained, that is, the best educated candidates.”

For a thorough-going “practitioner of panegyric” commend us to the *Spectator*. Mr. Puff himself might take a lesson from the review of Church and Brodribb's “Livy.” The translators “have succeeded in a way which leaves no room for criticism.” “Their translation is as nearly perfect as possible.” “The schoolmaster who would discountenance a translation like this is not worth his salt.” “Of this good wine that needs no bush there is little to be said.” But the reviewer takes a whole page to say this little. The single “specimen of their excellent handiwork” that he quotes hardly justifies the reviewer's superlatives, and bears out Puff's observation that the number of those who undergo the fatigue of judging for themselves is very small indeed. The very first sentence, “Then, for most of the winter, he had his army under cover,” is a schoolboy version of “Ibi partem majorem hiemis exercitum in tectis habuit.”

It is only under strong provocation that we violate the conventional etiquette which bids critics over to keep the peace. But the *Spectator* reviewer has travelled outside his brief, and, in his anxiety to cry up his wares, has maligned our craft and propounded a pernicious and dangerous heresy. Cribs are henceforth to be the order of the day, and every fourth-form boy is to provide himself with this crib of cribs. “If he will read as rapidly as he can the text of these five books with the aid of this translation,” and retranslate on the Ascham method, “he (that fourth-form boy) will at that same year's end know quite as much Latin as half of the men do who at present teach it in England.” Cribs have their use—one use to which they might be put was suggested in our last number,—and there are incompetent schoolmasters—one teacher of Latin was exposed in our columns by “Anti-barbarus,”—but a critic who propounds such clap-trap as this can know nothing either of fourth-form boys or of the teaching of Latin.

A YEAR or more ago, we had a note on “Educationist v. Educationalist,” in which we incidentally remarked that the ban which our English censor, the *Saturday Review*, has laid on the word or words was prompted rather by dislike of the thing than love of pure English. Our con-

tion is borne out by some recent observations of our contemporary. "In any case it ['spiritisme'] is not so bad as 'educationist,' a term first employed, we believe, by the miscreant who beat a boy to death with a skipping-rope by way of teaching him the multiplication table." We believe, as a matter of fact, that the word is American in origin, and much older than the Hopley case; but, suppose the *Saturday* to be correct in its etymology, why should we reject the word because its parentage is disreputable? Is it a mongrel?—so are "abolitionist" and "protectionist." Lecturing in 1874, Mr. Joseph Payne uses it with an apology "for a disagreeable but necessary word." We hope that our readers' ears are by this time as reconciled to the sound as readers of the *Saturday Review* are to "burking," "boycotting," and "bowdlerizing." To quote once more the *Saturday*,—"There are women as well as men who can thoroughly enjoy these sort of" words; and in the *Saturday* of last week we read,— "Education 'is to madness near allied, and slender boundaries do the twain divide.'" Has any educationist, from Eugene Aram to Mr. Hopley, so murdered the Queen's English and John Dryden?

SURLY HALL.—"A tavern well known to all oarsmen, and especially dear to every Etonian." So we read in the *Dictionary of the Thames*, and the correctness of the latter piece of information is attested by a correspondent, who writes:—"Last Sunday I was rowing with a friend from Maidenhead to Windsor, and we halted for refreshments at Surly. In the bar were five or six Eton boys, and very pleasant company we found them at starting. Free-spoken and free-handed, they seemed the true descendants of the fine, ingenuous youths whom Charles Lamb's friend met in the Eton playing fields, and whose coming change into frivolous Members of Parliament he deplored. While my friend and I were washing down our sandwiches with a modest bottle of ginger-beer, our young acquaintances regaled themselves with alternate goes of shandy-gaff and cherry brandy, and insisted on treating us to the same or similar liquors. Our persistent refusal led to a combat of wit, in which the Etonians showed that their proximity to the river had taught them other arts besides rowing. We took safety in flight, covering our retreat with the Parthian arrow, 'You have not heard the last of us.' Will you allow me to make good my threat?"

A NEW Syllabus of Examinations will shortly be published by the Council of the Froebel Society, which contains some important additions to, and modifications of, the old one. A lower certificate is offered, to meet the case of nursery governesses and teachers in elementary schools. The higher certificate is divided into two parts, to be taken in two years. For this, diplomas from outside bodies are accepted in lieu of the non-technical subjects, such as Geometry and Natural Science. In the Natural Science group, a thorough elementary knowledge of one

science is substituted for what, we imagine, must have been a smattering in many. All these changes seem to us for the better, and we hope that they will largely increase the number of students who present themselves.

A CORRESPONDENT writes:—"It is impossible to visit Miss North's museum in Kew Gardens without wishing that other ladies might be inspired by the good example to create humbler galleries of paintings representing English flora, for the benefit of the towns and villages they inhabit. An effort is now being made to teach Botany in schools,—with what unsatisfactory results, in some cases, a recent letter in your paper showed. Surely, the task of the botanical teacher would be far easier if every school were furnished with attractive and accurate pictures of the wild flowers of its district, and children were encouraged to make collections of real specimens and name them after the pictures on the walls. Moreover, in this way, boys and girls would acquire a very enjoyable knowledge of the beauties of their native fields and lanes, besides having a wholesome occupation provided for their play time."

LORD SALISBURY'S Conservatism does not extend to Latin verse. Distributing the prizes at King's College, London, he said:—"I believe that, if a commission of distinguished men were appointed to discover what is the most perfectly useless accomplishment to which the human mind can be turned, a large majority would agree that versification in the dead languages was that accomplishment."

THE Principal of the Bishopsgate Training College has forwarded us a letter from the manager of the *Manchester Scholastic Journal*, offering, for a consideration, to insert the advertisement of the College that has appeared in most of the London weeklies. The letter concludes:—"We should also warmly recommend your school to the many applicants we daily receive." That "also" is good.

THE movement for introducing Art into schools has taken definite shape under the name of the "Art for Schools Association." Mr. Ruskin, in consenting to be President of the Association, expresses his appreciation of the scheme thus: "I am more than honoured—I am deeply encouraged and helped in my own special work by the wish of the Committee to have me for their President."

MR. OSCAR BROWNING'S motto for the English School of Archæology at Athens,— "We can dig, but to beg we are not ashamed."

IN MEMORIAM.—GEORGINA ARCHER.*

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN,—The Committee of the Victoria Lyceum has done itself the honour of requesting your presence on this mournful occasion. With deep emotion

* A speech by Professor Lazarus at the Victoria Lyceum. Translated by Kate Windscheid.

I bid you welcome in its name. We hope by this gathering to meet the wishes of all those who loved Miss Archer.

Miss Archer came from afar to spend amongst us the best part of her life; and she had gone far away to seek a renewal of life, and met with death. In many a house, and in many a heart, Miss Archer's death has left a blank. Here the friend, there the teacher, there the adviser, is missed; indeed, all of us feel equally the loss of that rare and noble mind.

As it rarely happens that a man, much less a woman, living in a foreign country, meets with such sincere and universal esteem, we are all the more anxious to understand the growth of such a mind. This satisfaction, I grieve to say, is denied to us in this case; for, though we know what she was, we do not know how she came to be what she was.

From her youth up to her last day, Miss Archer lived in a foreign country,—that is the peculiarity of her life.

She was born at Edinburgh, August 27th, 1830. We possess but very scanty information about her early education, which must have been extremely defective. Her parents were persons of totally opposite characters: her mother, a religious woman, though somewhat harsh and cold in the profession of her faith; her father, a pleasure-loving, easy-going man. At the age of 14 she was left an orphan. Of her four brothers and sisters, the eldest, a young artist, was but 20 years old, yet he took upon himself the burden of providing for the others. You see, there is plenty of trouble, of incident,—above all, of love, in the life of this simple family.

These peculiar circumstances early developed in her a disposition to escape from the present and its difficulties, by living in an imaginative world of her own. Up to her latest days she possessed the happy faculty of forgetting business, cares, everything that annoyed and perplexed her, to take a draught at the fresh spring of wit and humour, thereby refreshing her mind and gaining the necessary strength for her active life. Besides this idealistic tendency, another trait of character was developed in her by the fortunes of her family—the longing for some practical purpose in life. There is only one more fact known to us with respect to this youthful period, that about her twelfth year she was subject to strong religious influences. Her innate love for everything beautiful and imaginative, joined to this newly awakened religious zeal, led her to start the performance of a series of sacred plays, acted at home by herself and her brothers and sisters: the subjects being taken mostly from the Bible or "Paradise Lost." These representations took place generally on Sundays, in the bedroom of their dying mother.

In after life, her religious ardour was toned down to sincere devotion, while the early use of her dramatic faculties gave a distinct colouring to her mind. The happiest result of these youthful performances was the inclination—which grew to be a habit—to express her thoughts by means of striking illustrations. When, in after life, Miss Archer was placed at the head of this large institution, her dramatic talent was of still greater use to her in her extensive personal intercourse; for every kind of dramatic effort, especially if not practised as Art, but out of mere spontaneous impulse, heightens the capacity to understand the feelings of others, and to live their lives.

When still a girl, Miss Archer left home to become the companion of an invalid lady, and teacher of her children. But the consciousness of her own deficient education weighed too heavily upon her to admit of her remaining long in this situation. Determined to improve her own knowledge before teaching others, she returned to an aunt in Scotland, there to seek further instruction. Soon, however, her active spirit began to weary of the narrow limits imposed on her energy in the quiet home of her maiden aunt; and the old longing to go abroad, to get a foreign education, reviving, she entered a seminary at Lüneberg, where she received her first really scientific instruction.

The fascination that Miss Archer exercised was due in part to the union of various qualities, rarely combined in one person. Thus, together with her wide philanthropy, she possessed to a rare degree the capacity of self-devotion.

She nursed a friend of hers, during several years, with the greatest care; waiting on her with the most unselfish solicitude, and, in fact, devoting all her time to the promotion of the invalid's happiness, with the exception of the few hours spent in providing for the necessities of life.

Then, again, her early developed religious earnestness contrasted singularly with the naïve, almost childlike serenity with which she looked upon life. Whenever she became aware of these feelings—or when, in graver moments, she pondered on their nature—she showed that true English humour which combines the capacity for serious work with the heartiest enjoyment of every-day pleasures.

All who knew Miss Archer have been impressed with the engaging sweetness of her temper; and yet this gentle woman was capable of astonishing energy in the execution of her plans, which was even apt to become vehemence when the public interests she had at heart were in any way threatened.

Seldom, if ever, have the contrasts between the two sexes been so sharply accentuated, yet so happily blended. A friend once said of her, "She was a true woman!" Yes, she *was* a true woman, in the best sense of the word, as well as in that which is not always a flattering one; but she endeavoured, successfully, to effect a harmonious union between true womanhood and what are generally called the manly virtues.

In her manner, too, there was timidity and bashfulness, such as we observe generally only in women who live secluded from the world; yet this apparently timid woman was endowed with a capacity for public work which always found ways and means to attain its end. Not less striking was the contrast of her frail body with her active mind. In her after years, she suffered greatly from an illness which makes the patient subject to sudden changes of temper, but this indisposition had no influence whatever on her passionate love for everything noble and lovable.

In her work, too, we meet with the same contrasts. In 1857 she published a small volume of fairy tales. The title alone, "Flowers and Moonshine," gives us a clue to the state of her mind. Ten years later, we see her deeply impressed with the necessity of raising the level of feminine education, while her active mind had already conceived the idea of furthering this aim by the foundation of the Victoria Lyceum.

Though living in a sphere of masculine activity, she always preserved the characteristic qualities of noble womanhood. This may be the reason why all those whom I have questioned, with a view to obtain more precise information about her life, though differing as to expressions, were unanimous and enthusiastic in their praise.

Surely Miss Archer's life must be a refreshing spectacle to every philanthropist, for it is an example of tender devotion, of deep love for mankind in an age so often charged with materialistic and egoistic tendencies; and, moreover, there is comfort to every loving heart in the thought that, as Miss Archer loved deeply, so her love was repaid to her tenfold. Miss Archer's life was by no means a cloudless one: much sorrow, and comparatively little sunshine, fell to her share; yet she was always happy, for the essence of life is, after all, the power of showing love to our fellow-men. There is nothing in the wide world that makes man happier than the happiness he is able to diffuse. But, alas! we are, generally speaking, modest in our aspirations, and content to live in a moderate state of felicity. Miss Archer, on the contrary, throughout her life endeavoured to win this supreme happiness. Clinging in truest, tenderest friendship to some chosen souls, she yet kept her heart open to everybody, rich and poor, old and young. She was, nevertheless, not spared the hardships of life. She bore the greatest sorrow which can befall a woman—she lived to see her beloved ones taken from her,—but she was never despondent, for she knew that the greater our affliction, the higher we must look for consolation. We know by experience that there is no purer or more sublime energy upon earth than that which comes to man as the fruit of a sorrow which he has lived down by the help of God. In actively promoting the foundation of three societies—"The Society for Domestic Sanitation," "Sanitary Associa-

tion for Teachers and Governesses," and the "Anglo-German Society"—Miss Archer has amply testified her deep love for her fellow-creatures, and her sincere wish to bridge over the gulf made by the disparities of fortune, and to remove national prejudices.

There is no better proof, I think, of Miss Archer's affectionate heart, her readiness to devote herself to others, than the fact that a friend of hers—an accomplished lady, to whom the Bible words are so dear that she would never thoughtlessly use them—wrote her name under the following verses, as especially characteristic of her:—

"And if thou draw out thy soul to the hungry, and satisfy the afflicted soul, then shall thy light rise in obscurity, and thy darkness be as the noonday:

"And the Lord shall guide thee continually and satisfy thy soul in drought, and make fat thy bones: and thou shalt be like a watered garden, and like a spring of water whose waters fail not."

The next verse, too, may be justly applied to Miss Archer, with regard to her foundation of the Victoria Lyceum:—

"And they that shall come of thee shall build the old waste places; thou shalt raise up the foundations of many generations; and thou shalt be called repairer of the breach, the restorer of paths to dwell in."

At the time when Miss Archer began her work, there was so vast a difference in the education of the two sexes—there being no connecting link between the usual school-girl education and the higher instruction spread by the Universities—that it had become an urgent necessity to find ways and means for supplying this deficiency. Supported by the favour of her Royal Highness the Princess Royal, who has given her name and patronage to the new institution, Miss Archer attained her end by creating the Victoria Lyceum. Having formed a Committee of Management, her next step was to induce eminent teachers to give the Lyceum the benefit of their instruction. What, however, we admired most, was her skill in the management of her pupils, who were wonderfully influenced by her. Present at almost every lesson, known and loved by all, she was to every one of them—especially to those preparing to be teachers—the kindest, the most affectionate of advisers.

Though I must deny myself the pleasure of detailing here the reasons which led to the foundation of the Victoria Lyceum, yet there is one among them which I should like to point out to you. Whoever has a distinct notion of the progress of public instruction must be aware of the obvious gap left in our system, by the fact that only one sex has the full benefit of the intellectual achievements which make up the mental property of a nation. The consciousness of this defect gave birth to the unanimous desire of letting women participate in the results brought about by the development of science. The realm of truth and knowledge may, as well as that of Art, be made accessible to the female sex. As, with regard to Art, though all minds are not productive, yet *receptive* faculties are the attributes of every highly-cultivated mind, and, as a person may feel the beauties of poetry without being a poet, so women ought to share the mental achievements of their nations, though they may not be themselves productive in science.

We must content ourselves with this short sketch of Miss Archer's practical intentions, to turn, at this solemn hour, to the consideration of her inmost character. She was a child of light. There is no other expression so perfectly suited to her; none which shows so clearly the origin of all those virtues we admired in her; and none which explains so well what inspired her, not only to found the Lyceum, but also to make herself the representative of the spirit which animates it. Her longing for activity, her powerful will and unflagging energy, her perseverance in her work,—all that is comprehended in the words: She was a child of light. Let me call your attention once more to the strangeness, the singularity, we might almost say, the mysteriousness of her life. A young girl settles in a strange town, without friends, without other support than trust in her own strength. She succeeds in

winning general love and sympathy to such a degree as to be able to execute the plan she has conceived of satisfying a long-felt want, by the foundation of a pedagogical institution. The denomination "child of light" seems to be especially characteristic of her individuality, for I cannot believe it to be accidental that all those to whom I have applied for information have, in giving it, made use of similar expressions. One of the most eminent teachers at the Lyceum, with whom she had been for years on terms of intimate acquaintance, said to me,—“Whenever she had spoken to me, I always felt as if a ray of light had traversed my soul.” In several letters I met with the terms, “She brightened and gladdened life,” “She was like a sunbeam,” &c. With Miss Archer, light and warmth were not separate ideas, for her immense influence had its deepest foundation in her boundless unselfishness. In the foundation, as well as in the management of the Lyceum, she was free from any thought of pecuniary interest, gaining her living throughout the time she was at the head of this establishment chiefly by private teaching, and thus giving to her connection with the Lyceum the most unselfish and disinterested character. In a letter written to a friend, she expressed her feelings with regard to her position in a manner which clearly shows that, while perfectly aware of her importance, she had preserved a touching humility. “I will feel,” she says, “the greatness of the task with which God has entrusted me, and I am deeply thankful that He should have given me this opportunity of making my life of some use to my fellow-creatures; and that the conviction of my infinite unworthiness should have been coupled in me with the power to act.”

Miss Archer has, by her life, proved anew that happy above all are those who have devoted their life to a definite aim, the furtherance of which demands the concentration, the exertion of all their active power; for such work tends to strengthen, to ennoble their character; and all selfish thoughts are forgotten in the fervent desire to contribute to the happiness of mankind.

The work begun in so unselfish a spirit was crowned with success. The Lyceum was opened on January 14th, 1869, with four courses of lectures and 70 pupils. This winter, 27 courses are being delivered there, while the number of ladies who attend them amounts to 890. I need not call your attention to the rapid increase of knowledge among the female portion of our Berlin society from the date of the foundation of the Victoria Lyceum; neither is it my intention to mention the towns where, after the model of the Lyceum, similar institutions have been founded, giving, by their existence, the best proof of the genuine enthusiasm with which Miss Archer's idea has been received. Nor was personal recognition wanting. When, in 1879, the tenth anniversary of the foundation of the Lyceum was celebrated, her Royal Highness, together with the Committee and Miss Archer's present and former pupils, joined in assuring her of their grateful love and veneration.

It is usual to close such sketches of eminent persons with a retrospective glance on their achievements, in order to show what lasting traces they have left behind. I need add but one more testimony to Miss Archer's own value, and to the honour attached to her memory. The Crown Princess addressed the following letter to the Committee of the Victoria Lyceum, after Miss Archer's death:—

“The death of the beloved Principal of the Lyceum, which bears my name, has filled me with deep affliction. I well know how much the institution owes to her noble heart, to her sound judgment, to her unflinching energy; and I am deeply grieved to think that very probably her untimely death was the consequence of her self-sacrificing devotion. As I shall remember her gratefully all my life, so her memory will be sacred to those who have either assisted her in her work, or reaped the fruit of her unselfish exertions. We cannot better honour her memory than by continuing her work in the spirit in which it was begun, and by firmly adhering to the ideal principles which she endeavoured to instil.

“VICTORIA, CROWN-PRINCESS.”

It would be impossible, indeed, to give a nobler expression to our feelings at this solemn hour than by resolving to do the

best in our power towards the furtherance of what has been the task of her life; for, in honouring her work, we do her the highest honour. Miss Archer has spent her life in hard labour; it is but just that she should live on in her work.

It is a popular belief that a house is not proof against storms till after the first corpse has been carried out. The early loss of its foundress will, I hope, secure to the Lyceum its safety for all time.

GREEN'S "MAKING OF ENGLAND."

MR. BROOKE LAMBERT, in a letter which appeared in the *Journal of Education* for last month, defends Mr. J. R. Green's position as an historian against a criticism contained in our June number. We are thoroughly in accord with the spirit of Mr. Lambert's letter. No one can regret more than we do the loss of one of the most brilliant writers of the present day. Of other causes of sorrow at his untimely death we do not care to speak here. The matter in hand, however, is one of purely literary moment, and, if Mr. Green were still with us, he would be the last to complain of any honest criticism. Mr. Lambert, in speaking of Mr. Green as an historian, desires to put any claim which he may have to that title from his *Short*, or even longer "*History of the English People*," altogether second to that which is to be derived from the "*Making of England*" and the "*Conquest of England*." With this distinction the world in general cannot be supposed to concern itself, and, considering that the "*Short History*" has been reproduced in four large volumes, we are doubtful whether the author would have wished—we are more than doubtful whether the publisher would wish—such a distinction to be made. As, however, Mr. Lambert has chosen to sacrifice, at least to some extent, the longer works of Mr. Green to the fame which he believes will be derived from the "*Making of England*" and the "*Conquest of England*," we will confine our remarks to the only one of these two which has yet appeared.

Let us take, as an example of the rest, one of those subjects which are allowed to be characteristic of the best points in Mr. Green's work—his account of the life, work, and death of Bæda. He has given the same account of these matters, page for page, paragraph for paragraph, and, speaking generally, word for word, in each of his three histories. We forbear to comment on this repetition, though it is an amusing instance of how much the public will stand from an author who is in the fashion. The fact of the repetition shows that the writer was well satisfied with his work, for, had it been otherwise, he certainly would not have reproduced it in one of those "books by which his claim to be considered an historian should be judged," and which allowed him space to reveal "his clear insight and his grasp of authorities." On pp. 398, 399 of the "*Making of England*," he tells the story of how, when pestilence had thinned the house at Jarrow, the Abbot Ceolfrith, and a little boy whom he had brought up, alone bore the burden of the antiphonal services. The story is introduced in a characteristic manner. "Bæda tells us in his own charming way a story of his boyhood there" (at Jarrow). It is probably not too much to assume that the story does refer to Bæda, but the way in which it is told, if it is "charming," is not his, for he does not tell it at all. It comes out of the history of the Abbots of Jarrow by an anonymous author. To this history Mr. Green refers in a foot-note to p. 399, and yet in the face of this reference he gives the story as Bæda's own. The anonymous history was probably the basis on which Bæda founded his "*Historia Abbatum*" (see Stevenson's *Introd.* p. xi.), and his silence about the story is one of the circumstances which make it likely that he was himself the subject of it. No one can read it as the anonymous author tells it—is

it possible that Mr. Green never read the original at all?—without seeing at once that, if Bæda was the hero of the tale, he certainly did not write it; for it says that the child had then grown up to show by word and deed his praiseworthy conduct, "jure actus ejus laudabiles," &c. (*Hist. Abb. Gyrv. auct. anon.* § 14). Again, in Mr. Green's version the story loses its point. There was no "weeping and sobbing when the Abbot and the boy struggled through the psalms." The real story is, that when there was not one monk left who could read or answer the responses save Ceolfrith and the boy, the Abbot ordered that the services should be gone through without the antiphons, save at vespers and matins. This was done for one week, amid much lamentation. At last the Abbot could not bear the dreariness of the services any longer, and so he and the child laboured through the whole of them day by day, singing each in his turn alone, until others learned to take their part.

As regards Mr. Green's account of the learning and work of Bæda, he rightly dwells on his knowledge of Greek. He then goes on to say (p. 400),—"The tradition of the older classic culture was revived for England"—whatever that may mean—"in his quotations of (*sic*) Plato and Aristotle," &c. It is hard to assert a negative, but we should be glad to see the quotation made in Greek from Plato and Aristotle in any genuine work of Bæda. It is true that Mr. Green does not actually say that the quotations to which he refers were made in Greek, but he certainly implies it. Bæda does quote the authority of Homer in the "*De Arte Metrica*" in such a way as to make it certain that he had read the original—a fact which Mr. Green has failed to notice. "Virgil," he goes on to say, "cast over him the spell that he cast over Dante." Bæda certainly quotes Virgil very often, but it must be evident to everyone who has read much of his works, and who knows his habits of thought and expression, that to say he was "under the spell of Virgil" is nonsense, and that such a sentence could only have been written because it sounded prettily. And when did "the disciple venture on the track of the great master in a little eclogue descriptive of the approach of spring"? Can this refer to the "*Cuculus*"? It must be so; and yet it is almost ludicrous to suppose that Mr. Green could have read this poem and believed it to be genuine. He goes on,—"His work was done with small aid from others." This is a strange doctrine. As regards the Commentaries and Homilies—no small part in bulk of Bæda's work—it is stated, six lines lower down, that they were drawn from the works of the Fathers. It is surely needless to enumerate the sources from which he obtained help in writing the "*Historia Ecclesiastica*." Mr. Green himself does so in part. We have already seen that Mr. Green was altogether in a vague state of mind about the difference and the connection between Bæda's "*Lives of the Abbots*" and the work of the anonymous author. Had he never read the preface to the prose "*Life of St. Cuthbert*," in which Bæda acknowledges the help which he had received in that work, both as regards its substance and its revision? Since writing the "*History of the English People*," Mr. Green had the advantage of seeing the article on Bæda contributed by Canon Stubbs to the "*Dictionary of Christian Biography*." He did not, however, take the trouble to alter any of the slovenly work which had appeared in his two earlier histories when he copied out his account of Bæda for the book by which his rank as an historian is, according to Mr. Lambert, to be decided. The article, however, seems to have had some effect on him, for he gives us one or two disjointed pieces of information about Bæda in a foot-note. "The *De Sex Ætatibus*," he says, "was written in 707." Surely Mr. Green must have known that the work usually called by that name, which is really the conclusion of the "*Liber de Ratione Temporum*," but the last part of which has been printed by Sir T. D. Hardy as a kind of introduction to the "*Historia Ecclesiastica*," brings down its chronicle of events to the ninth year of Leo the Isaurian, viz., 724, or, according to Bæda's chronology, 729. He was, however, probably confusing this work with the "*Epistola ad Plegwinum*

sive de Sex Ætatibus"—a very different matter,—which is usually referred to the year 707. A firmer "grasp of original authorities," however, would have shown Mr. Green that this date is highly doubtful. The "Epistola ad Plegwinum" was written by Bæda in answer to an accusation made against him at the table of Bishop Wilfrith, to the effect that a work of his entitled "De Temporibus Liber minor," written five years before, was heretical. Now, as it has been shown that it is almost certain that the bishop in question was not the famous Wilfrith, but his namesake (comp. Ep. ad Pleg. and Carmen de Pontif., etc., Ebor. eccl. 1231-2), who held the see of York 718-732, the dates of the "Epistola de Sex Ætatibus," and consequently of the "De Temporibus Liber minor," must be considerably later than has been supposed. The foot-note on p. 400 next states that "His other scriptural, chronological, and biographical works preceded the Ecclesiastical History, which was ended in 731." What date, then, does the writer assign to the "Retractationes"?

The touching story of the death of Bæda contained in the letter of Cuthberht is told in Mr. Green's brilliant style. But why does he insist on calling Bæda "the old man"? Can a man who dies at sixty-two be said to die in old age? We think that we can guess the reason of the expression. Many second-rate books talk of the old age of Bæda. The legend was founded on a sentence in the "Epistola ad Wicedum," which speaks of the year 776 as then current. This sentence has been shown long ago to have been an interpolation by a later hand (Pagi, Critic. in Baron. Ann. xii, 401). Misled by some vague remembrance of the statements of school-books, and perhaps also by the epithet "Venerable," Mr. Green, without stopping to consider the real age of Bæda, uses an expression which certainly countenances a long exploded error. His rendering of the simple pathos of Cuthberht's letter is marred by his want of scholarly feeling. It is strange that he did not see the reference contained in the words of Bæda, "Bene, veritatem dixisti, consummatum est." It is plain that he did not see it, or he would not have translated the last phrase by "all is finished now." And when he says that Bæda chanted "the solemn 'Glory to God,'" he certainly does not convey the fact that his dying words were the "Gloria Patri." A man who is writing the whole History of England may well be excused from acquiring much knowledge of the works of Bæda, other than his Ecclesiastical History, except at second-hand. It is a different matter when, as in the "Making of England," the author presents his readers with a small part of that history, or rather with brilliant bits of a small part of it. In such a case we have a right to expect that there shall be no careless work. We have now gone through one short but prominent piece of the story of the "Making of England." Bright and lively indeed the colouring is; but where is the truthfulness of detail without which no true artist will ever be content with his work? It is all very well to cry with Mr. Lambert, "Heaven save us from præ-Raphaelitism in school-books!" If details would not be in place in a book, by all means let them be left out. But if details are put in, let them be truthful. And the "Making of England" is not a school-book, but one by which the writer's claim to be considered an historian is to be judged. Nor was it necessary that Mr. Green should have studied Bæda's works in order to avoid much of the slovenliness which we have noted, though one can scarcely imagine any one who wrote so enthusiastically about him shrinking from the task. The learned little "Disputatio Historico-Theologica de Bædæ vita," etc., by H. Gehele, would have saved Mr. Green from many of the vague and loose statements which he has made. Mr. Lambert quotes the opinion of an Oxford man—there are many Oxford men—on the good effect which the Short History has had in stimulating study. We presume that the Oxford man means that it has done good to men who were reading for the History School. It would be satisfactory to hear the opinion of an examiner on this matter. He asserts the recognition of Mr. Green's claims as an historian by "Freeman, Stubbs, and Bryce." Have they expressed the opinion that his work is that of a scholarly and accurate historian?

CLASSICAL STUDIES AT ATHENS.*

WHAT is our subject to-night? Perhaps it is the new Hellenism in general, perhaps one phase of it in particular. The London meeting about founding at Athens an English School of Research or Archæology, or whatever it is to be, had dimly impressed my sluggish brain, but it was not till C— mentioned it again, that it struck me as a brilliant means of transferring my responsibilities to Mr. Browning, who, I believe, already half owes you a paper, and upon whom we now propose to draw for information about a scheme and theme so congenial to him. I can but set the ball a-rolling. Of "sales Attici" I have small share; but then S— and M— are as the potent springs of Huuyadi Janos, the salts of which are the richest and most potent known to the eminent chemists who countersign the bottles.

One word more of personal explanation. I learned when a child that Edinburgh, where I lived for a time, was the modern Athens, and till a few days ago I was by no means certain that there was any other. The Elgin marbles I believed to be the handiwork of a native statuary from the Hyperborean town of that name. My slight knowledge of Greece has been wholly derived from elementary instruction got or given in its ancient language. Latterly, perhaps, want of energy and cash, but at all times a dread of brigands and sea-sickness, has prevented me from ever braving the perils of the Ionian main. I hold with Brunel, that where there is oscillation there is danger. It is true that

"My soul is like an albatross, whose nest
Is a far Eden of the purple East."

Not the *θυμὸς*, but the *φρήν*, the midriff or diaphragm, is at fault. And so I am the last person to have anything practically modern or neo-Hellenic to suggest, but rather may serve as an awful warning against ossification, and an example of the need for new lights and methods. Indeed, I have before observed, not least when the ecclesiastical ties which I have happily the honour to retain have been treated with a certain airy freedom, that my chief function among your brotherhood may be just this, of Helot or awful warning. Howbeit, I assume, for present purposes, that Athens does still exist; that Mr. Browning is going there to inaugurate on Lycabettus an inexpensive and well-drained establishment, or *pension*, possibly hydropathic; and that, lest from Highgate to Helicon be too rude a shock, there will for a time be cricket at Marathon, and a drag thither thrice a week (I may say, in parenthesis, that I knew the lady who first introduced croquet into Rome and the Campagna, and great trouble she gave the custom-house officers, who gouged every ball with a cheese-scoop, thinking they were Orsini bombs); that there will be lawn-tennis and tubs, and an S.P.G. chaplain, and billiards and blue ribbons, and a subscription pack of beagles to hunt banditti, and perhaps an insurance fund for ransoming the balance of those whose cars are transmitted in due form to the manager's office. Moreover, there will be digging picnics, *ἔρανοι ἐρεβοδιφητικοί*, with new work for our converted ice-axes, and an *atelier*, under a Birmingham artist, for turning out *κόραι* and antochthonous coius and tablets; and circular tours round the Sporades, and a journal, monthly, or perhaps in time, weekly, and even weaklier, and all other delights for the Atticising heart.

The professional Hellenists here present, and any who are better read than I am in Capes's "University Life in Ancient Athens," will describe all these things to us, and will draw a vivid picture of the restoration of life, and light, and beauty, which will instantly accrue to the stagnant western world. They will show us how the inspiration thus tapped upon the spot and disseminated through the hebdomadal journal will put new vigour at home into the ligneous rigidity of our pædagogic conventionalities; nay more, how the degenerate West must thenceforth confess not only that ancient Athens made good tragedies, and statues, and olive oil, but also that, in this renewed appreciation of the elevated feminine life

* A paper read before a Club of Public School Masters.

of her homes, the incorruptible modesty of her law-courts, the exhilarating inscriptions on her tombs, may be found the complete remedy for the degradation of modern society, and the pretensions of a Philistine Hebraism (if that is not too great a bull) or even of an out-worn Christianity.

With some of these possible aspirations of the true modern Phil-Hellenic, I must plead myself too fossilized to profess all the sympathy I could desire. But I am sure they will be interesting to listen to.

What concerns us to-night somewhat closely, is the question, how, when Mr. Browning has got his great institution into working order, we humbler plodders in Britain may pick up some crumbs from his table for the immediate use of ourselves and our boys. Shall we get no farther than subscribing to the journal? Or shall we be allowed by arrangement to get little Bœotian dolls for our school-museums? Or shall we be very bold, and give away Cook's winter or Easter tickets, including coupons for Mr. Browning's *table-d'hôte*, as prizes to our sixth forms for Greek composition? Shall the schools make up in each Christmas holidays a party of twenty or thirty boys and a few masters, and will the direction provide a foot-ball field for them at Colonus or Eleusis, and a tuck-shop in the Ceramicus? These are some of the more practical bearings of the question which I would invite you to consider. What visions arise of some rhythmic procession of fair Etonians combining the graceful *chiton* with the inseparable topper of an English gentleman, or perchance arrayed in yet more gymnopaedic simplicity, personally conducted by C— or E— to rehearse the "Ajax" *in situ*, or to have their morning's Greek prose corrected among the magic associations of the Pnyx! And what an advantage to us at home to have some enlightened young Atticist to appeal to:—"Now, Smintheus and Ionides, tell us what are *ἐπίπαστα*? You've been there last holidays, and suffered from them; what are they like?" Yes, then we should have the real renaissance; we should grope no more, but grasp at length the genuine substance of classical culture: the true development of the modern world, too long delayed, would dawn at last. We should once more use bread-crumbs for table-napkins, and lock up our wives in their appropriate attics.

But here I would ask Messrs. Jebb and Browning to reflect a moment, and have a care, lest they should raise a spirit that they can ill constrain. When once the West has grasped this discovery of the royal road to well-being—the panacea for all pessimism—with what a rush will the surge of immigration overwhelm the baffled ticket-collectors of the Peiræus! All Lilliebridge will become sojourners there, with crafty research and experiment upon the length of the Attic lap, the average weight of the Erechtheidæ, the circumference of their biceps, the dietetic of their training. Captain Colomb with a squadron will be busy there, reviving under the same local inspiration the *διέκπλους* and the *περίπλους* of the ancestors of the British ram. The Lyceum Company will be there for a five years' course to learn their art anew from its first Thespian elements; half Lincoln's Inn will air their wigs in the Pnyx; half the Academy and the Savage Club will haunt the Acropolis and the Odeon; Messrs. Myers and Gurney will probe the mysteries of Eleusis, and put embarrassing questions to the mighty spirits of the past; nor will Oscar Wilde be lacking, or perhaps royalty itself, to give appropriate consecration to a democratic scene. Then, when half the Haymarket has followed in their wake, and the British contractor has adorned each classic slope with semi-detached villas of truest Atheuian grace and solidity, then perhaps our Phil-Hellenes will pause for a breathing space in their career of beneficent regeneration, and, looking pensively around them, will ask themselves how they like it as far as they have got. Who knows but in that day there will yet be a chance for the Roman and Teutonic elements of modern life, perhaps just possibly—if I may venture on such a heresy—for the spirit of an antiquated Hebraism, to come a little to the front again?

Meanwhile, however, I have the honour to propose for your discussion the practical relation of the newly devised English

school at Athens, first, to English culture generally; and, secondly, to the life and studies of our English school-boys, whom at present *θηριώδεις ἀπεργαζόμεθα*, we do but turn out as monsters, our young barbarians of Henley and Lord's.

Not every one, some one has said, is like Porson, and can drink spirits of wine. And, perhaps, not all lungs can stand this brisk breeze of new Hellenism. Though fresh and clear as the skies of Attica to some, to others it may seem but loaded with miasmatic exhalations from the ancient grave of brilliant failure, and with phantasmal wraiths of human yearnings unappeased. Yet I would not have you think of me as affecting, like the much-quoted Oxford professor, that "if my university has taught me nothing else, she has at least taught me how to sneer." I am not ungrateful to Athens. I have made a humble, but fairly honest living, partly out of a superficial acquaintance with her works. And so I am in all earnest not without hopes that an English parasitic settlement of the kind proposed may really be made of some benefit to her in guiding and controlling—for resisting is impossible—the tide of invasive vulgarity which must inevitably roll over her sacred precincts in a few years, as she becomes more accessible, and even more safe, to the very average tourist. In this I think they may be of use. They will also, no doubt, verify a date or two, and take some good photographs of unimportant inscriptions. But is there anything farther possible in direct connection with the schools and universities? One can conceive of weight being given in fellowship competitions to local monographs prepared on the spot. But, if desirable, that would have begun before now at Rome or Ravenna. Or of such school student-parties as I have only half in jest indicated. But those must remain a privilege of the wealthy, and cannot enter at present into any kind of common curriculum. Statuettes and models can be got already, and photographs withal; but what lies beyond? Or is there perchance a deep-laid plot among these leaders of ours, and are we, after all, to be delivered over to Blackie to be taught and to teach Romanic? I have been confirmed in this suspicion to-day by a lady to whom the Servian minister lately expressed his delight at the new movement. He seemed to expect not only a speedy reform in our pronunciation of the ancient tongue of Greece, but a fruitful knowledge of the modern one. I, for one, fear I am too old a bottle to contain unbursten the vintage of the youthful Emeritus Professor. Still, at the call of honour, I would go at it. Like a bull-dog, one could but try,—like a bull-frog, one could but die! Ere ever I would be a mean obstructive, *διαπαραίτην*!

I once knew a young friend, a Cambridge freshman in fact, destined to a brilliant career as a scholar, who in cap and gown, flown with moderate potatoes, and with a Cabana between his teeth, bestrode the recalcitrant camel of a Midsummer-common menagerie, and rode him unswervingly round the admiring arena. No smile was on his lips, and the steady gaze of his eye was evidently bent on some far-off oasis of the wilderness. In fancy he was being borne by the veritable ship of the desert through leagues of burning sand, and past the bones of bleaching caravans, to the palms and pyramids of his heart's desire. Even so has a certain friend of ours now mounted a noble hobby of no western breed. That he will sit him bravely, none can doubt. Is he then fated to perform but one gyration of the lamp-lit circus before he is startled out of his illusion by the pseudo-Hellenic rabble's misapplied applause? or is he rather destined—and if so, in what sort and semblance is he destined, and by what forgotten paths,—to lead our cavalcade of perplexed and pessimist spirits through groves of Hellas to some far-distant glade among those haunted hills, the eternal abode of beauty and of peace?

But no, I forget: these be days of railways; and Charon himself, some say, has just gotten him a new steam-launch. As far as a strong man may throw an unripe cherry-stone from the Peiræus booking-office, is sunk the cavernous shaft of a hydraulic lift, whereby whose descends will dimly descry an ancient shape—that form whose wherry some of us knew well a score of years ago upon the limpid waters of our

sedgy Cam. And out of the darkness will be borne upon the mist that Charonic cry which always moves me most of all words that ever thrilled the holiday crowds of eager Attica:—

*Tis eis anapaúlas ék kakôn kai pragmatôn;
tis es tò líthhs pédiow;*

"Who is bound for shores of rest where toil and trouble cease?
Who is fain for waters of forgetfulness and peace?"

Yes, Greek is a beautiful language; and they dreamed some sad, sweet dreams. "Amaranth" and "asphodel"! they are more restful words at any rate than "averages" and "trials"; and "moly" has a more winsome sound than "marks." They will heal all our troubles, *when* we can achieve them. But "non cuivis contingit adire." The "jus trium liberorum" does not yet carry with it a government return-ticket to Corinth. Can our Hellenic friends contract with some *λαχανοπωληγρία* for a regular supply of hampers stored with those divine herbs? and will a moderate subscription to the new scheme cover their carriage to our dull, drudging, dutiful Old England?

But, if not, then do the prophets of neo-Hellenism think we, here at home, might rub on a little longer, the sickly among us at least, and the untravelled, and the toiling residuum, and the much-enduring mothers of our babes, in the strength of such eastern but non-Hellenic visions and voices as we have clung to for so long; such humbler substitutes for the grand style as these: "Shall not the Judge of all the earth do right?" or "Come unto me, all ye that labour, and are heavy-laden"? I thank you for your indulgence, and leave the subject in your hands.

Tò δ' εὖ νικάτω.

"ANCIENT BALLADS AND LEGENDS OF HINDUSTAN."

By TORU DUTT.

IN the short notice of "Toru Dutt," the young Hindu poetess, which appeared in this Journal two months ago, complete justice was not done to her, from the omission to name any of her works, save the first, and necessarily the least original, the only one published in her lifetime, the "Sheaf gleaned in French fields." The cause of this omission was the occasion—a comparison of various translations of one French poem,—which called forth the notice. But we are anxious to complete the record by mentioning the two posthumous works which her father found perfectly finished among her papers—the "Journal de Mlle. d'Arvers," a novel in excellent French, and with much charm of narration and description, begun during her four years' stay in Europe, probably during the few months she and her sister passed in a French boarding-school; and the "Ancient Ballads and Legends of Hindustan," which latter was published in London, a very short time before our notice appeared, and had not then been seen by us. Both these, the latter especially, help to answer the question started in that notice, whether this marvellous girl had original powers equal to her unique gift of presenting in another form the work of others. Laying aside her European studies, Miss Dutt, on her return to her native land, had applied herself to Sanskrit, under her father's teaching, with the hope of mastering its ancient literature. We see here the fruits of this patriotic study in a series of poems in octosyllabic stanzas, each embodying a tale or an incident of old Indian days, each intensely full of Indian colour, in scenery, costume, human life, and popular rites, with no idolatry in it, yet with just that touch of the supernatural which marks an ancient creed, and each with its lesson of true Indian feeling, of faith, obedience, modesty, and self-sacrifice. And all this, thus thoroughly characteristic of other races and other times, cast in a perfectly English form, and often beautifully told in smooth, unflinching, easy-winding English verse, much superior to that of most of the translations, in which she had

to struggle with the exigencies of yet another alien language and form of verse. This volume proves, indeed, that Toru Dutt was growing, as a poet, up to the last, and gives glimpses of precious things, the achievement of which was but a matter of time—time, alas! which was not granted her. Her first works were written at eighteen, and she died at twenty-one.

Mr. Edmund Gosse, who was Toru Dutt's one appreciative critic in the *Examiner* six years ago, has now contributed a graceful introduction, full of just praise, to this last volume. But we cannot agree with him in thinking that English was with her a late acquirement, that she wrote French better and more naturally than English, and that she never quite mastered our language, especially in its modern colloquial terms of speech. We know, in fact, that her father, Mr. Govin Dutt, whose high character and station in Calcutta must have made him familiar with English society, and whose English is quite as good as that of any of our own race, had talked it with his children, from their earliest years; her French she could have gathered only from books, till her short sojourn in France. "She certainly at sixteen talked English like a native," and in our judgment, that of her prose notes in the "Sheaf," is quite faultless, whereas in some few instances her French is not so. It is true that her non-acquaintance with the quantity of proper names, read, but not heard pronounced, and with the laws of blank and anapaestic metres, as well as the difficulties of French verse, sometimes made wild work of her prosody, and the construction of her sentences; but in the grammar, the idioms, the meaning, we may say the *feeling* of words, she is never astray. We will give as a specimen of her English prose an extract from one of the critical notes to the "Sheaf," which will also illustrate her little demure tone of religion and morality, contrasting with that of the subjects she sometimes had to deal with. Speaking of Hegeippe Moreau, she says,—“There was a double Moreau, and those who contend for the duality of the human mind could scarcely find a better illustration of their theory than his life and writings. . . . There was a Moreau, simple as a child, and pure as an angel, whose themes were the beauties of his lovely native land; and a Moreau who revelled in the dreadful world of ‘jupes retroussées,’ of ‘vin repandu,’ of ‘miroirs cassés,’ and ‘châles aux fenêtres.’ . . . Moreau's mind was by nature pure, and his habitual delight was in rural scenes of peace and plenty; but he joined in the Revolution of 1830, fought in the barricades, got into bad company, and then tried hard to be a writer of political satires, for which he never had any turn, and of libertine chansons, from which his better nature revolted.” One sees that the young writer was a steady going Conservative of the good old Church and King pattern.

One or two more extracts will, we hope, justify what we have said of the ease and charm of her original poetry. After a very graceful story of the appearance of a goddess, “the lady of the noble face,” to a poor pedlar, she adds,—

“Years, centuries, have passed away,
And still before the temple shrine
Descendants of the pedlar pay
Shell-bracelets of the old design,
As annual tribute. Much they own
In lands and gold—but they confess,
From that eventful day alone
Dawned on their industry, success.
Absurd may be the tale I tell,
Ill suited to the marching times;
I loved the lips from which it fell,
So let it stand among my rhymes.”

And here is a bit of local description,—

“The Indian fig's pavilion-tent
In which whole armies might repose,
With here and there a little rent,
The sunset's beauty to disclose,
The bamboo boughs that sway and swing
'Neath bulbuls as the south wind blows,
The mangoe-tope, a close dark ring,
Home of the rooks and clamorous crows.”

Our last extract shall be from one of her sweet miscellaneous, chiefly personal, poems; it is called, "Our Casuarina Tree."

"Like a huge Python, winding round and round
The rugged trunk, indented deep with scars,
Up to its very summit near the stars
A creeper climbs, in whose embraces bound
No other tree could live. But gallantly
The giant bears the scarf, and flowers are hung
In crimson clusters all the boughs among,
Whereon all day are gathered bird and bee;
And oft at night the garden overflows
With one sweet song that seems to have no close,
Sung darkling from our tree while men repose."

These poems, drawn from the old beliefs of her native land, increase a desire which came upon us in reading and reviewing her European poems—a desire to know what effect had been made on this sensitive and richly cultured mind, by her own ancient national religion, as well as by that glorious world-old literature. It was now and then alluded to in the notes with a sort of reserved modest pride, and we see that she had enough studied the ancient tongue to imbue herself with its spirit. But she was a fervent Christian, born and brought up in a Christian household, and this no doubt helped to de-orientalise her mind. Had she not been so, it would have been interesting to trace what were the modifications wrought by a more than national cultivation on a mind sincerely holding its own originally fine and spiritual Brahmin creed, casting away, as it would have done, modern materialistic and superstitious accretions, and assimilating what in its purity and elevation is akin to primitive and undogmatic Christianity.

We must take this occasion to correct a misprint in our former notice of the name of Toru Dutt's sister Aru, one who ought, no more than herself, to be forgotten. She was two years older than Toru, and if perhaps less strikingly original in her intellect, and of less decided force of character, well worthy in her grace and sweetness, her intelligence and love of study, to be Toru's fellow-worker and the friend of her heart. The last (and only) letter received, in June 1877, by the writer of this notice, from the survivor of the two, says,— "My sister died of consumption. She caught the disease in England, and we were advised by the doctors to go to a warmer climate; as she wanted very much to return to India, we came back here in November 1873. Before nine months had past, the Lord called her away. She was so gentle and good! It is just three years since she left us for the Better Land." After speaking of the tears which the written expression of sympathy had drawn from her, she goes on, "I am myself very ill with fever and cough, and obliged to keep my bed for the last four months." And, two months after, she was no more!

Aru and Toru Dutt had, as their photographs show and our remembrance confirms, bright, expressive, interesting countenances, with a wealth of dark hair and true eastern eyes. Many hearts will be moved by the story of those two dear young perished creatures, for Toru Dutt's name is now known to Europe. In France her reputation had been already established, and this last published work has been noticed with admiration in many English journals. If we are not mistaken, future times will give her a niche in the shrine of marvellous women, of those two or three who have in the course of ages risen out of the darkness in which lies the lot of woman,—seen but in a glimpse, speaking but a word, yet in that moment of flame and of music, stamping the impression of a genius which seems to out-do all the work of a thousand "lauded, learned men." If these words seem more appropriate to such creatures of fire as Deborah, Sappho, Marcelline Valmor, and Charlotte Brontë, than to our gentle Toru, it remains a truth that, taking all things together, none of these were more unexpectedly wonderful, more full of golden promise, than she.

Such thoughts may, we trust, shed some sweetness on a bereaved father's reminiscences, but cannot remove our regrets for the bright life quenched in the midst of its eager work, its hopes, its aspirations, and its first-fruits of success.

CHILDREN AND POETRY.

THE time has happily gone by when Dr. Watts's hymns were regarded as the proper beginning of a child's poetical education. One of these effusions in particular, beginning, if we remember rightly, "There is a dreadful Hell," suggested very undesirable ideas to the youthful mind. There are, however, one or two mistaken notions, which still seem to lurk in the minds of many of those who make selections of Poetry for the young. The first of these, is that poetry about children must needs be attractive to children. As a matter of fact, the very opposite of this is the case. If any choice is given to them, boys, and we fancy girls too, though on this point we have slighter grounds of confidence, will with one consent avoid "We are Seven" or "Lucy Grey." The reason is easy to find if one considers it. Such poetry appeals to the parental instinct which exists to some extent in all grown-up people. To them the simplicity and helplessness of childhood are full of pathos and, in certain circumstances, of humour too. Children of healthy mind and body are not conscious of weakness. They feel themselves able to hold their own with other children, and with grown up people it never occurs to them to compare themselves. Such poetry as we refer to does not therefore touch them. It may be doubted whether any poetry dealing with the facts of every-day life is suited to the tastes of children. Power of seeing the beauty of common things is the last, as it is surely the best gift of culture, and literature of the domestic sort does not in any way appeal to or stimulate a child's imagination. "I would teach children only what is not true," was the point of a recent lecture of Mr. Ruskin, and, shocking as the dictum may sound in the ears of some, it is confirmed by experience. Romance, not reality, is the best literary food for young minds.

In the particular case of Wordsworth's poetry, the temptation to use it is made stronger by the simplicity of the language in which it is expressed. Surely, it is often argued, no poetry can be fitter for children than that which contains scarcely a word beyond the grasp of their unaided comprehension. If words are the only things to be considered in poetry and in literature generally, this argument is tolerably conclusive. Otherwise it seems scarcely judicious to put before children a poem containing no word which they cannot understand, and no thought which they can. We have often been tempted to set before children by way of experiment the parody of Wordsworth in "Rejected Addresses," and have only been restrained by a sense of the unfairness of playing such a trick. We are quite sure that no child who knew Wordsworth's child-poetry would have the least suspicion of the fraud.

It may perhaps be replied to this, that no child—and we are writing of children not more than twelve years old—could be expected to distinguish between an original and a good and not too ludicrous parody, if it were gravely presented to them. This argument is based on the assumption that children have only the very slightest power of appreciating purely literary merit. We have seen selections which appear to have been compiled on the principle that poetry to suit children must be such as no intelligent grown-up person would care to read. Versified tracts, foolish stories with an obvious moral attached, take the place of good poetry, and the inferiority of such stuff is excused on the plea that children can understand it. But what is the use of their understanding a thing if the thing is not worth understanding? Besides, the implied assumption, that they cannot understand or appreciate what is better, is untrue. If any teacher who has taken pains to make his poetry lessons good and interesting, will at the end of the term ask each child in the class to write down the two pieces which he likes best of all that he has learnt, the result of the voting will show very considerable appreciation of poetical excellence. The present writer remembers well his own surprise, two or three years ago, when he first tried this experiment, at finding that Campbell's beautiful little poem, "Lord Ullin's Daughter," had twice as many votes as any other piece which had been learnt during the term by a class of boys whose average age

was under ten years. Yet the term's selection had included, among other things, "Young Lochinvar," "Casabianca," and some of the most spirited sea songs and war lyrics in the language, and, in another style, Goldsmith's "Elegy on the Death of a Mad Dog." "John Gilpin," too, had been read, and in part learnt. "Lucy Grey" was the only poem which could possibly be called superior to the favourite, and it was disqualified by the fact that it could not appeal to children's feelings. The result of the voting was the more remarkable because the tragical conclusion of the poem had been unpleasing to many of the boys. This was, however, atoned for by the spirit of romantic adventure that breathes through it; and it appeared, from subsequent questioning, that the force and directness of the narrative, and the vivid reality of the landscape, had been felt and appreciated. "It seems as if it was true," said one little fellow. What we want, then, in poetry for children, is picturesqueness. The thoughts must be clear and simple, and the expression direct. The sense must not be veiled in allusions which require tedious explanation; but, on the other hand, unknown words whose meaning merely requires to be pointed out once for all are no disqualification. Indeed, there is no better way of increasing a child's available vocabulary than by presenting new words in circumstances where they, and they alone, are peculiarly appropriate. Above all, the poetry must be purely objective. Avoid Wordsworth, suspect Shelley; Campbell never fails to please; and some of Shakespeare's songs may serve as an introduction to his plays later on. For young children, only short pieces should be chosen. Their powers of sustained attention and interest are so soon exhausted, that frequent change in subject, style, and metre are necessary, if the lessons are not to become dull and lifeless. It is a great advance in mental development when children are able to study, without weariness, a poem which will employ them for a whole term. To set them to work upon such a poem is a step which should not be taken until they can work fast. When boys can, without difficulty, learn fifty or sixty easy lines in a week, they may safely begin such a poem, for instance, as Macaulay's "Horatius." It would not be easy to find a better poem for the purpose than this,—at any rate, for boys who are learning Latin. It is interesting, very easy to learn, and good of its kind. We have often heard it objected that the kind is not of the highest—an objection which would be valid enough if it were proposed to make educated men spend their time in learning it. For boys it is admirable, and, moreover, just long enough to occupy a term. After this, perhaps "Marmion" or the "Lady of the Lake" is a good and not too sudden step in advance. The greater variety of Scott is felt to be a relief after Macaulay's brisk but monotonous march, and atones to youthful minds for the greater difficulty found in learning by heart. The new element introduced by the prominence given to scenery and natural objects is an important step in poetical education; and the subjects of the two writers are nearly enough akin to add force and point to comparisons of style and method. Take, as an example, Macaulay's lines—

"In yon strait path a thousand
May well be stopped by three,"

and Scott's description of the pass in the fifth Canto of the "Lady of the Lake,"—

"An hundred men might hold the post
With hardihood against a host."

In the contrast of these two passages may be seen the whole difference between rhetorical and natural description.

When the first freshness of Scott's poetry has worn off, weariness will, so far as our experience goes, come on apace. Perhaps here we may break our rule, and prolong the study for some little time beyond this point. Such perseverance will be useful in showing why Scott wearies. One may point out his extreme diffuseness, and the slipshod character of much of the workmanship; and it may be shown that couplets, and even stanzas, might often be omitted, or inverted, without

much loss to the poem as a whole. Thus some knowledge of what good poetry really means, and some faint conception of the poet as an artist, may be impressed upon young minds. This lesson may be enforced by choosing "Gray's Elegy" to succeed the "Lady of the Lake." It will be necessary to go through this carefully and slowly, but the poem is worth the pains; and, in spite of its difficulty for children, we have almost always found it understood and appreciated, especially after a long spell of Scott. Of course, some account of Gray's life and circumstances is absolutely necessary, and is always listened to with a wondering interest. Perhaps there are few more striking lessons than the contrast between the fluid copiousness of the one writer and the fastidious minuteness of the other. By no example can the worth of a little really good work be better shown.

After some such training as this, children may be set to work on Shakespeare. This is surely the goal towards which all previous teaching should tend. It is often delayed too long from the belief that Shakespeare is over the heads of children, but we have not found it so. A previous reading of Lamb's "Tales from Shakespeare" is a good introduction to the Comedies and Tragedies; while for the historical plays, which are perhaps the best to begin upon, the knowledge of history which every child of eleven or twelve ought to possess is enough in the way of ground-work.

It is, perhaps, needless to say that in suggesting the lines of study which we have just sketched, we have no desire to dogmatize on matters of detail. Other schemes as good or better will no doubt occur to many. This one has at least proved interesting to teachers and pupils, and has led many boys to read for themselves, which is, after all, the best test which a teacher can apply to his work. Methods of teaching must of course vary, and no one can say for another how he should teach this or that subject. There are one or two points which we would venture to urge strongly. The first is the value of copious illustrations from English Literature generally. Children often fail to answer questions afterwards put to them about such illustrations, but it must not be supposed they are therefore thrown away. Children have naturally greater powers of assimilation than of reproduction, and may often be unable to put into words the impressions which they have received. They should also be encouraged and helped to make use of their English reading in translating from Latin. Many a happy turn may be given to a line of Ovid or Virgil by reminiscences of a poetry lesson, and any touch of this kind is thoroughly appreciated by intelligent boys, who will soon begin to vie with each other in such contributions to the work of the class. Another question is that of learning by heart. A good many people in these days seem to regard memory as a mere slavish faculty not worth the pains of cultivation. We hear a great deal about the danger of burdening the memory, and comparatively little about the advantage of strengthening it. In poetry, at any rate, the best way to know is to know by heart, and the power of so learning may be easily acquired and almost indefinitely increased. Comment and illustration are much, but they must have the material to work upon, not written in books but present in the minds of learners.

Something perhaps should here be said about the manner of reciting poetry. It would be superfluous to argue against the practice of regarding repetition merely as a means of discovering whether the work has been prepared, and of allowing the lesson to be mumbled or chanted through anyhow provided that it be known by heart. But many teachers, in their anxiety to have poetry said in an intelligent manner, go to the opposite extreme. "Take care of the sense, and the sounds will take care of themselves," is a very misleading maxim in poetry. On the whole, we prefer a child's sing-song, which is due, after all, only to a misguided sense of rhythm, to the stop-mindful, prosaic fashion of recitation which reduces poetry as nearly as may be to the level of prose, and prepares the way for a wholesale acceptance of the opinions of Lamartine and Carlyle. Very few children are entirely without an ear for musical sounds, and the particular kind of sing-song into which they fall in saying any piece of poetry represents with

considerable accuracy the rhythm which is most natural to that particular metre. The varieties of rhythm of which the same metre is susceptible do not occur to their unaided intelligence, and must be pointed out to them. By selecting only the best examples for their study, it is easy to show how sound may be used to aid and enforce the sense. If this lesson were more generally learnt, we should not hear Shakespeare's verse murdered as it constantly is on the stage, even by some of our best actors. If clearness of utterance, due attention to rhythm, and some intelligence of expression are attained, one may safely leave the children to develop a style of recitation for themselves. Our main object is to get children to appreciate poetry themselves, not to teach them to speak to an audience. A reciting child is a fearful bane in a household. Only we should firmly check any symptoms of self-consciousness or affectation, and never tolerate any approach to the rant of a third-rate actor, or to the unctuous intonations of a field-preacher giving out a hymn.

Poetry lessons are well worth all the pains we can bestow on them. No other lesson offers nearly so much opportunity of imparting to children the rudiments of sound taste—that power of appreciating all that is best in literature and art which is one of the most important elements of happiness in the life of an educated human being. Moreover, in the case of boys preparing for the Public Schools, one has a comfortable assurance that English poetry will not be a subject for competitive examinations.

PRESENTATION TO FRÄULEIN HEERWART.

In view of Fräulein Heerwart's return to her native country at the end of this term, a large number of her friends in the Kindergarten movement determined to present her with some token of appreciation of her long and unwearied efforts in the cause. The present took the form of an illuminated farewell address, a gold watch and chain, and a purse of gold. The ceremony of presentation took place at Stockwell College on the 19th of July, on the occasion of the distribution of certificates to the students of the Stockwell Kindergarten College by Mrs. W. E. Forster, who was accompanied by her brother, Mr. M. Arnold. In the absence of the Dean of Westminster, the chair was taken by Mr. Kempe Welch. After the certificates had been handed to the students, Mr. Bourne read the address, the text of which was as follows:—

“Dear Fräulein HEERWART,—Many friends, on whose behalf we address you, are anxious that you should not close your stay in England without some expression of esteem and gratitude from those who have observed and appreciated your devotion to the cause of Kindergarten education, those who have obtained knowledge, experience, and inspiration under your guidance, and those who have benefited by the training which you have given to their children. We rejoice that on your way to Germany you were induced to pause with the view of more fully unfolding before English teachers the principles of Froebel's system; and we are thankful that health and strength have been given you, during the nine years of your sojourn at Stockwell, to do good service for the British and Foreign School Society in the Training College and Kindergarten, besides taking an active share in the work of the Education and the Froebel Societies, helping to secure an alteration in the Code of Regulations of the Committee of Council for the management of infants' schools, and visiting many parts of the country to inspect Kindergartens and give an impetus to their establishment and improvement. And now that you have at length resolved to yield to the claims of family and fatherland, and pursue your homeward journey, we desire to accompany and follow you with our thanks and prayers. May the well-earned rest to which you are going be full of peace and love, gladdened alike by the remembrance of the part you have yourself taken in establishing Kindergartens among us, and the news that the good work is proceeding with increasing rapidity here as well as elsewhere!”

Accompanying the address were numerous autograph letters of farewell from distinguished educationists, among them being Mr. Mundella.—Fräulein Heerwart, who was received with hearty cheering, expressed her heartfelt thanks to all those friends who had taken part in the presentation.

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THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN AMERICA.*

By Miss COOPER,

Head-mistress of the Edgbaston High School for Girls.

I AM afraid, when you have heard my paper, you will consider its title somewhat misleading; for, though I propose to tell you of some institutions for the training of teachers which I saw in the United States, I cannot resist this tempting opportunity of adding my small contribution to the already considerable literature which exists concerning the much-vexed question of the training of teachers in England.

It might be supposed that, in an assembly like that I see before me, there was no need to utter one word in support of the proposition that training improves the teacher; even the ordinary public has in a great measure assented to that; and surely a professional teacher, speaking to fellow-professionals, might very well assume that, here at least, the proposition might be regarded as a truism. I wish it were so! But theories like this need great repetition before they are widely accepted; and, even after they have been generally received, we find people apt to lose sight of their full significance, and to treat them as mental curiosities rather than as solid foundation for daily practice in the world of education.

The law of extremes seems to prevail in the history of educational theories as well as in the history of other departments of mental science. While there are amongst us some who have not yet received the idea that the training of teachers is a necessity in education, there are others who seem to be in recoil from this idea,—those who are carried away by the ebb of the tide of opinion, while with others the flow has only just begun.

A considerable portion of the British public has not yet fully perceived the need for trained teachers. In the ranks of the party of retrogression, if I may so name it, are to be found many wise and enlightened teachers, amongst them some valued professional friends of my own.

And it is the knowledge of the want of agreement amongst the members of the profession that has induced me to offer you to-night some observations on the training of teachers. I am not speaking to the general public this evening, but to my professional brethren; and I do so in the hope that, in the discussion which will follow my remarks, the *pros* and *cons* of

* A paper read before the Birmingham Teachers' Association.

this question may be fully and frankly stated, and the position of each party made clear to the other.

I am not surprised to find that many teachers question the utility of training. I think they are generally those who have had no training beyond that which daily experience has given them. And, no doubt, there are teachers whose natural endowments are so great that they succeed to admiration without any other aid in the work of education. These are the "heaven-born" teachers,—men and women with a genius for educational work,—master-spirits, whom it is a liberal education to their pupils even to know. Such geniuses might find systematic training an impediment to their work; and certainly to them it is of comparatively small importance. But these men and women of genius are not common, and most get drafted into other occupations than that of the education of the young. Even if we had a spiritual magnet to separate all such heaven-born teachers from the rest of mankind, and could then secure their services for the education of our children, we should not have a large enough number of teachers for the great work which has to be done. Therefore the services of more ordinary persons must be secured, and they will form the bulk of the teaching power of the community.

It is with average humanity that we have to deal: we need not trouble ourselves about systems for the rare geniuses; let us only be careful that our systems do not tend to stifle genius, or to frighten it away from such a noble calling as ours.

Do I then think that anybody who chooses may become a good teacher? Certainly not, though, if there is a real choice about the matter, that is one indication of possible success in the career. For teaching, as for other callings, there exists an infinite variety of individual capability, from that of the heaven-born teacher to that of the utterly incapable, the two extremes being rare, though I have met instances of each, both in and out of the profession. But, given the necessary natural endowments, I do believe that the initial stage of educational work is rendered easier and shorter by professional training; and I further hold that many, in whom the natural capability for the work is not great, may by careful training be made into efficient, though not excellent teachers,—that, in short, training prevents waste of power.

Of course, I do not mean that *any* training will effect this desirable result; there is training and training. And herein may be found the key to much of the opposition which the movement for the training of teachers has met with in some quarters.

There is an idea that training consists of a kind of educational "cram," and that any attempt at training will only result in the production of a race of McChoakumchields. You know how Dickens puts this idea of training and its results:—

"So, Mr. McChoakumchild began in his best manner. He, and some one hundred and forty other schoolmasters, had been lately turned, at the same time, in the same factory, on the same principles, like so many pianoforte legs. He had been put through an immense variety of paces, and had answered volumes of headbreaking questions. Orthography, etymology, syntax and prosody, biography, astronomy, geography and general cosmography, the sciences of compound proportion, algebra, landsurveying and levelling, vocal music, and drawing from models were all at the ends of his ten chilled fingers. He had worked his stony way into Her Majesty's most Honourable Privy Council's Schedule B, and had taken the bloom off the higher branches of mathematics and physical science, French, German, Latin, and Greek. He knew all about all the water-sheds of all the world (whatever they are), and all the histories of all the peoples, and all the names of all the rivers and mountains, and all the productions, manners, and customs of all the countries, and all their boundaries and bearings on the two-and-thirty points of the compass. Ah, rather overdone, McChoakumchild! If he had only learnt a little less, how infinitely better he might have taught much more!"

Now this may have been a true picture at the time it was written, but it does not represent in any degree what I understand by the phrase, "the training of teachers"; nor does it apply to some of the training which is now being done in England. I have known and seen something very different from this, both in methods and in results.

What then do I understand by training, and what do I expect it to do for the teacher? I will try to answer these questions briefly and generally.

The art of education, like all other arts, is based on certain laws, which may or may not be recognized by those who pursue it. The object on which it is exercised is that wonderful and complicated organism, man; man, moreover, during the period of growth and rapid development. Now, this organism has laws of growth and development which no human power can set aside, and it is only in proportion to the practical recognition of these laws in the following of our art that we can command success. We may be in utter ignorance of any scientific principle whatever, and we may succeed; but we have then no guarantee against failure, no aid to work out a method which is likely to succeed, and, should we fail, we have nothing to show us what to avoid in any future effort.

If "the proper study of mankind is man," it is certainly the most proper study for the teacher. And indeed it is, consciously or unconsciously, pursued by every educator. But when we study it only experimentally in the schoolroom, there is often much groping in the dark which might have been spared.

I include then, in the training of teachers, as a preliminary to practical work, some scientific study of the human mind and body, particularly during their period of growth and development.

To these studies I would add a knowledge of what has been and is being done in the introduction and modification of methods of work. From time to time plans of education have been put before the public, experiments have been tried, and their results noted. This mass of experience is a mine of wealth to the student of education, and its importance can scarcely be overestimated.

The value of practical work in teaching under supervision is too generally admitted for me to dwell upon it now. It certainly has its place in the training of the teacher; but it is inclined to encroach, and to put theoretical training on one side, if not to elbow it completely out of the way. Many people place it first in the curriculum of training. I should place it last; for I hold that, while theory may quickly and certainly help you to practice, practice can only very slowly and uncertainly help you to theory.

And the saving of time and strength to teachers and taught is the great aim of training. It is sad to think of the worse than waste of time and power caused by a teacher who is gaining by practice that perfection which is far ahead of him, by which his present pupils at least will never benefit. I am often reminded of the ghastly remark which an oculist is once said to have made to a friend who was complimenting him on his skill in operating. "Ah," said he, "but I spoil a whole hatful of eyes in learning!"

I will now try to give you an idea of some institutions for the training of teachers which I saw in America. The first institution of the kind which I visited was the Normal College at New York. It is housed in a magnificent building, thoroughly well appointed, well lighted, well ventilated. It is a day college, and it has about 2,400 pupils, about 1,200 of whom are in the Normal Department, and the rest in the school. It has a kindergarten, containing 32 pupils, and this affords an opportunity for the study of kindergarten methods and principles. There was a description of this college given in this very room by Dr. Dale, in his admirable lecture on American schools, and I will now confine myself to the work it does in the training of teachers.

The full Normal College course was three years, but it has been extended to four years. The President of the college, in his annual report for 1881 (made to the Board of Education for New York), speaking of this change, says:—

"The experience of ten years, from 1870 to 1880, proved conclusively that a three years' course was insufficient to properly train and educate teachers for their difficult vocation. It was discovered that, in addition to immaturity of mind, there was in many instances immaturity of body—the natural result of hard and con-

tinuous study at an age when brain and muscle needed the greatest amount of nutrition.

"To remedy this evil became an important problem. It was generally admitted that a slight extension of the course of study through a fourth year, the reduction of the number of branches of knowledge pursued at the same time, and periodic examinations in the lower grades, the results of which would be credited to the students at the time of graduation, would lighten the work, remove the pressure, relieve the students from the baleful influence of fear, and be beneficial in other ways too numerous to mention.

"But three difficulties stood in the way of this much-needed reform. First, many parents were anxious that their daughters should earn salaries as soon as possible; second, the small additional expense consequent upon the establishment of an additional year to the course; and third, the implied contract (if such it may be termed) with the students in the college, that they should be graduated at the end of three years, provided, of course, they passed the necessary examinations. While giving due weight to the necessities of individuals, and to the increased cost, which was reduced to a minimum, the chief difficulty, however, still remained: we could not compel the students to serve a fourth year without seeming to break faith with them. Finally, it was decided in the winter of 1878 to inform all candidates for admission in June, 1879, that if they entered the college they could not be graduated before 1883, or until they had successfully completed the four years' course of instruction. The course of study was then modified as above indicated. With the exception of greater attention to mental and moral philosophy as the right basis of correct teaching, and more extensive practice in the training department, very little was added to the curriculum, so that the subjects hitherto studied in three years were virtually extended over four.

"According to this plan, the fourth year's course would not be obligatory until 1882. In the meantime, the graduates of 1880 and 1881 were allowed to pursue the extended course if they pleased.

"*The Post Graduates of 1880.*—Out of three hundred and sixty-one (361) graduates of that year, but forty (40) accepted the privilege; and even half this small number disappeared before the close of the college year in June.

"It is always difficult in a great city to make young people study for the sake of improvement alone. Your Board offered no inducement. Had this additional term of apprenticeship to the profession of teaching been made equivalent to a year's service as a junior teacher, as originally proposed, there is hardly a doubt but the post-graduate classes would have been increased fivefold.

"The method of 'substitution' pursued in the public schools, through which permanent positions are obtained, caused many of the graduates to decline the privileges of the fourth year's course, and some of the post-graduating class to leave before the end of the year. Although disappointed at the smallness of the number of students willing to study for the sake of improvement, I have been very much gratified at the result in the case of those who remained. The leisurely study of two or three new branches without the pressure and fear of examination, the discussion of subjects already completed, the digestion and assimilation of the knowledge acquired during the previous three years, soon began to manifest their influence, not only on the minds, but on the bodies of these post-graduates.

"Their mental and physical growth was remarkable. Ease and facility of expression, a more comprehensive grasp of the underlying principles of education, and the power to impart knowledge and develop ideas were the principal results of the year's study in the college, and practice in the training department. I may add to this, that the good health consequent upon a more liberal course of study produced a cheerfulness in their intercourse with the little children whom they taught, which was, in every way, wholesome and beneficial."

I was present at a criticism lesson in the training class, and this I will now try to describe to you.

I was ushered into a long room with a large window at each end. A teacher's desk and platform were placed half way down one of the long sides. There were three sets of desks and seats, all arranged to face the teacher's platform. Those near the ends of the room were full-sized, and there the students to the number of about forty to sixty were seated. Down the middle of the room was a set of small desks and seats, intended for the young class which was to be operated upon. When the hour for the lesson had arrived, the folding doors

in the side of the class-room, facing the teacher, were opened, and a class of young children, aged, I should think, from about seven to nine, marched in, and took possession of the small desks. The lesson was then given by one of the students, while the Mistress of Method sat at her desk on the platform, and listened attentively, and took occasional notes, as did the students. Once, during the progress of the lessons, the Mistress of Method interrupted its course to clear up some point which she thought the class had not fully grasped. When the lesson was over, the folding doors were again opened, the little ones marched off, and the students settled down to the work of criticism, their remarks being invited, and the work regulated by the mistress. Once or twice the student who had given the lesson was asked to explain points in it, and the mistress wound up by a little summary of the lesson and the criticism.

The idea on which the work of the college is based will be best explained by the following extract from the President's report, quoted above:—

"*The Normal System.*—The best educators and the wisest statesmen in Europe and America long ago arrived at the conclusion that teaching was a profession that required close study and careful training, and that, in a system of public instruction supported at public expense, it was extravagant economy (if the expression may be allowed) to employ untrained teachers and the educated failures in other professions at a low rate of wages. It needs no argument to establish the truth of this statement. It is self-evident to all but the ignorant, and the narrow-minded teachers of a former age who have outlived their usefulness. But the science of teaching and the art of training have been without chart or compass, without a standard of authority, to which all could refer and which all acknowledged; and hence educators have been left to shift for themselves, to devise their own plans, and to work out their own systems. True, they have received some help from recent pedagogic literature of a better sort; but even this is far from the code of laws and principles which is to-day the great desideratum of the teacher's profession. Normal training is yet in its infancy, and even those who have devoted the best years of their lives to its study, only find themselves groping from darkness into twilight. The more closely the subject is examined, the more difficult it becomes. When the apprentice teacher begins to realise the difficulties to such an extent as to become discouraged, then, and not till then, is there hope that she will grow into an able teacher. In the profession of teaching, more than in any other, is natural aptitude indispensable. A good voice, a pleasant manner, an inborn tact, quickness of perception, inexhaustible patience, and great love for children are prime requisites in the highest order of teacher. It is rare that we find all these qualities in one individual. Sometimes it is the voice that is weak and harsh; sometimes it is the manner which is awkward and ungainly; sometimes it is the language which is vulgar and incorrect, notwithstanding an ability to parse or analyze which would gladden the heart of any disciple of Gould Brown. Again, some with good voices and agreeable manners are quick, impulsive, and nervous; and some are found so slow, dull, and indolent that the best instruction in the world would never make them able teachers.

"Where the natural deficiencies, mental and bodily, are not too great, the criticisms, the advice, the corrections, the training of the Normal System can accomplish much good."

"*Method of Training in the College.*—During the greater portion of the first term of the third year, when the pupil teachers have reached an average of seventeen years of age, and have been cultivated by two years of careful instruction in the lower grades, they commence the study of the underlying principles of education, and are sent every fourth week to the Training Department to 'look on'—to observe the methods of good teachers. A general lesson is given every morning to a class of small children by an expert teacher in the presence of the pupil teachers, who are obliged to take notes and charge their memories with what they consider good points in the work. When the children have retired from the lecture-room, a general discussion takes place, in which the teacher of methods, the critic-teacher, and frequently the president take part. The pupil teachers are called upon to express their views and read aloud such notes as they may have taken during the lesson. During the second term of the third year, the pupil teachers are permitted to instruct, during a portion of each day, the classes in the Training Department, but always under the eye of a critic-teacher, who is responsible for the well-being of the children, and who takes care that they are not

injured by crude and imperfect teaching. As far as practicable, the pupil teachers in turn give lessons in the lecturo-room, in the presence of the persons already named, and subject to the most searching and rigid criticism.

"Voice," "speech," "manner," "introduction," "development work," "review," and summary are all commented upon; and each is praised or condemned, as the case may be.

"Every violation of a principle of teaching is noted and discussed; and woe to the pupil-teacher who tells a child anything he might have discovered for himself; who asks a question that could be answered by 'yes' or 'no'; or who proceeds from the 'unknown to the known' or from 'the abstract to the concrete.'

"And, strange to say, the pupil-teachers generally submit with great good nature to this harrowing ordeal, for the reason that they feel that it is done only for their own benefit.

"It will be observed that such practice and training must necessarily correct many defects, and impart clear and definite ideas in regard to the best methods of teaching; but one year of such instruction was not sufficient to produce the results which we hoped for and aimed at.

"It would have been inexpedient and unwise to attempt to train very young students on a slender basis of education: it was indispensable to build a proper foundation on which to stand; and hence I have persistently insisted upon a sound academic course, with the study of language, and particularly of the mother tongue, as the great central study before the first profitable step could be taken in the art and science of teaching.

"Without a good education as the basis, training in Normal methods is very apt to develop a class of rigid, mechanical teachers, devoid of resources, whose parrot-like work has brought considerable odium on the Normal Schools. A good system, however, should not be judged by the crude work of narrow, untrained minds, that never see below the surface."

I will also read you an examination paper on "Methods."

"Methods (time 2 hours):—

"1. What can you do to make the school occupations of a little child accord with his natural instincts? Why should you aim to do this?"

"2. What is rote work? State its effects upon the mind and upon the acquisition of knowledge. Give an example of the errors into which children fall when taught by rote. How may such teaching be avoided?"

"3. What purposes in education do questions serve? Write a series of questions that will lead a child to define an island.

"4. What arguments can you advance in favour of the 'Word Method'?—of the 'Phonic'? How may the advantages of both be secured? What method of teaching reading should be utterly discarded? Why?"

"5. Give several general directions that should guide you in presenting lessons in 'Form' to children. Write the classification of 'Plan Figures,' and state when and how it should be introduced.

"6. What circumstances should influence the selection of topics for 'Conversational Lessons' from time to time? What is the object of such lessons?"

(To be continued.)

GERMAN HIGH SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS.

By a LEHRERIN.

THE School at G—, in which I was a mistress, was composed of four classes, each containing two divisions, and was taught by a head-mistress (*Vorsteherin*) who had passed an examination qualifying her for the post, assisted by two German certificated teachers, several visiting masters, and resident English and French governesses.

A child, on entering the school at six years old, was placed in the fourth class, where the teaching included reading, writing, arithmetic, and needlework, with about two hours' religious instruction weekly, and an hour's singing. Reading is taught in German schools on an ingenious system, the various consonant and vowel sounds being so grouped, that a child, having once thoroughly mastered these, can, in from three to six months, read long and difficult words without spelling, and, in most cases, write them correctly. A pupil

failing in this, and falling behind the others, generally remains a drag on the school as long as she is in it; so that, learning to read quickly is (whether with good reason or not, I hardly know enough of the system to be able to say) considered a sure proof of good abilities and a pledge of future success.

At the end of two years, having gone through the course of the fourth class and gained fairly good *Zeugnisse*, the child was promoted to the third, where she learned, in addition to the former subjects, geography, grammar, history of the world, natural history, and French. A weekly exercise in composition was also expected. Nearly all these things are taught by word of mouth, the teacher giving a short lecture, requiring it to be repeated in substance by one or more of the pupils, and then questioning them minutely upon what has been learned both in that and in former lessons. By this means a skilful and industrious teacher cannot fail to do her work thoroughly; but otherwise there is, as I think, great danger of dull and quiet children being overlooked, and forward ones allowed to carry all before them, and so screening lazy or stupid children. Much of this danger is, I believe, avoided in many schools by the constant supervision of the head-mistress, but where she is, as was the case at G—, actually engaged in teaching for five hours a day, there is little check on those whose sense of duty or love of teaching does not keep them up to their work.

At ten years old the child was placed in the second class, where she generally remained for two years and a half, and in addition to her other studies took up that of English. Both English and French were most thoroughly taught here, the head-mistress herself carefully superintending the teaching of grammar until the French and English teachers had mastered enough German to be able to explain the rules lucidly to their pupils, and very much time being given to conversation and reading with the foreign teachers. I should hardly think this to be the case in all German higher schools, for the English one meets with in intercourse with those educated in them is, as a rule, very poor. For this, I believe, in most cases, the books used are to be blamed—and, indeed, they were my chief difficulty in trying to teach good colloquial English to German children. "Krüger" and "Plate," which, I think, are the standard English grammars in Germany, are heavy and complicated, jumping from easy sentences—such as "I love the boy," "It rains heavily,"—to phrases taken from difficult and antiquated English authors. Thus the children, while faithfully copying the models laid before them, adopt a cumbersome style of composition which nothing can correct but verbal intercourse with English people. I believe that a well-graduated "*Lehrbuch der englischen Sprache*" would be gratefully acknowledged and highly prized by those engaged in teaching English abroad.

In the first class the pupil remained until her confirmation, which generally took place when she was about fifteen or sixteen years old; then she left school and made her choice as to her future mode of life—that is, either to study for the State examination, or to be taught (either in her own house or some other where she was placed for the purpose) the duties of a first-rate *Hausfrau*—no one seeming to have an idea that it could be possible to combine the two things.

The plan of education in the first class comprised all the subjects already studied on an advanced scale: German literature, physics, mathematical geography, &c. Thus, a girl who, at sixteen years of age, had gone intelligently through the course, ought, in my opinion, to have gained what would prove a firm foundation for self-improvement. But it is too seldom built upon. The fact I have just mentioned—the choice which it is considered necessary to make at the end of the school period between the scholastic or the housekeeping life—in a great measure explains this. The impression is conveyed that education is required only for special and professional purposes, not for general use and general mental improvement; for the girl who elects to embrace the home or housekeeping life leaves off education, which consequently ceases exactly when the most valuable part of it should begin—that which she carries on for herself and by her own choice. This accounts for the fact that I should otherwise have found in-

comprehensible, that in the majority of cases the girl who leaves school gives up study as entirely as if she had been born a gipsy, and degenerates into a mere household drudge, finding her greatest delight in coffee-party gossip. This, at least, has been my experience during five years' intercourse with those who had been pupils of the school in which I taught.

Private schools—by which I mean, schools conducted by a master or mistress on his or her own responsibility—are fast dying out in North Germany. No one, unless certificated and holding a form of permission from the authorities of the town or village in which the school is situated, is allowed to take the headship of a school, although I have known unqualified persons to be engaged as under-mistresses. All schools are liable to government inspection, but, for the most part, private schools are discountenanced and severely let alone. Although in these the dread of the *Schulrath* is judiciously upheld, and great panic prevails when he is thought to be in the neighbourhood, he seldom or never appears; and the time cannot be far off when no school will be tolerated which is not presided over by a committee and staff of teachers appointed either directly by government or by the town authorities, empowered by the State to elect them.

CORRESPONDENCE.

THE DENOMINATIONAL TRAINING COLLEGES.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—The Rev. J. P. Faunthorpe asks, "What religious test is imposed at Homerton, at Borough Road, Darlington, Swansea?" I know of one of these colleges that Unitarians are excluded from it, and that this year's balance in hand exceeds the total amount derived from voluntary subscriptions. Here, then, is a Denominational College wholly maintained by public funds, and yet it imposes religious tests.

Mr. Faunthorpe asks if the congregations of 16,000 churches and 20,000 chapels are to be ignored. I answer, "Most certainly, if they clamour for an injustice." But they do nothing of the kind. Thousands of Churchmen, and a still larger number of Dissenters, are opposed to supporting denominational teaching out of State funds; they maintain, that if religious men wish to teach their dogmas, they ought to do so with their own money, having no right to compel those who differ from them to contribute towards the furtherance of their own aims and objects. All honour to those "Church men and women who have founded Colleges for Church teachers," but let them remain honourable, and forbear putting their hands into other people's pockets. Pelting you with hard words, such as the "Eternal code of Almighty God," and "Eternal verities," and the like, may be very effective with some people, but it is not argument.

Education this Principal of a Training College describes as "a matter of compelling people to do right." A very curious definition certainly; but let me ask, Has Mr. Faunthorpe's education succeeded in compelling him to forbear extracting money from people who disapprove of the objects for which such money is levied? Would Mr. Faunthorpe like to be made to contribute towards the spread of Bradlaughism? I trow not. Why then does he call upon Bradlaughites to pay towards the spread of his views?

Lastly, Mr. Faunthorpe asks, "While the Denominational Colleges do £100 worth of work honestly and well for £75, what rational sceptic will doom them?" There is nothing, Sir, like begging the question, and avoiding the main issue. I, for one, deny that they do their work for 75 per cent. of the cost. I deny that, as a rule, they do their work well; and, finally, I assert that thousands will doom them as I do, so long as they stand on their present dishonest basis.

I am, Sir, yours,
CANT-WATER.

London, July 17th, 1883.

FRENCH CLASS-BOOKS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—The subject of teaching French to English pupils is of such widespread interest, that I venture to offer a few remarks, based on Mr. Storr's admirable paper. A long experience at the head of a large establishment has brought me in contact with almost every variety of system. These variations affect the details, but do not touch the principle which governs them all.

This principle stands upon the idea, that the only possible way for English persons to speak and write the French language is by *translating English into French*. To do this *correctly*, seems to be the end and goal proposed in the various grammars, class-books, &c., before the public, of which the enormous and ever-increasing number tells its own tale of failure.

The plan of them all, with infinite minor variations, is to begin the pupil with translations of short sentences into French, according to grammatical rules. These increase gradually in difficulty, and he continues learning grammar and writing exercises for ten or twelve years, is dragged painfully through the *Athalie* or *Polyeucte*, by the help of his dictionary; and the ordinary result of all this work is, that he finds it a hard task to read a French book, and quite beyond his powers to write a French letter, or even concoct a note on business in French. I appeal fearlessly to the large circle of disappointed parents and guardians to corroborate the truth of this painful statement. Even those who have really studied French, and can write it correctly, do so in a hard, stilted manner, quite foreign to the genius and elegance of the French tongue.

I once submitted to an eminent French master some translations intended for publication. The writer was a remarkably clever woman, well acquainted with Latin and Greek. His criticism I will quote:—"They are admirably done; there is not a grammatical fault. I should be proud of any pupil who did as well—but *it is not French*." Does not this reply speak for itself? Was he not on the wrong track with his pupils? and yet it is the well-worn path trodden by the feet of French teachers at the present time!

I am acquainted with almost all the books named by Mr. Storr, and with many he does not notice; but only the systems propounded by Mr. Prendergast and Mr. Courthope Bowen attempt any real departure from the old lines, and, excellent as they are, do not seem to touch the foundation. It is the *translation system* that I believe to be fatal to either speaking or writing the language fluently or gracefully. What is the greatest hindrance to persons going abroad, who have learnt the language well, but find they cannot speak it? I submit, deferentially, that it is the habit of thinking in English, composing English sentences, and then translating them into French. It is not until they give this up, and, consciously or unconsciously, think in French, that they can begin to speak with ease.

To learn a language, we have first to attain to *understanding* it. This gives the power of *reading with ease and pleasure*. *Thinking in French*, is the immediate consequence, and then succeeds writing, when the rules of grammar come into requisition.

I am afraid of occupying too much of your valuable space, but hope you will allow me, in a future number, to indicate briefly the means found to be most useful and expeditious in attaining the object in view. In concluding, I need hardly explain that this plan of teaching demands a far higher standard in the teacher than is generally deemed sufficient; but I shall do good service to the rising generation if I can further any scheme which will help to deliver them from the hands of ill-trained and incompetent teachers.

I am, Sir, yours faithfully,

13 Belmont, Bath.

HELEN POOLEY.

July 14th, 1883.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—The perusal of the interesting paper on French Class-Books in your last number has made me wish to say a few words in favour of some little books which, as far as I know, have not yet gained the use and approbation they deserve. These were introduced to my notice by a French lady, who has been for some years most successful in teaching her own language to English children. I have taught from them myself with satisfaction, and we are now using them very successfully in this school.

First, Cogery's Elementary French, price 6d. (The Teacher's *Vademecum* to Elementary French, which accompanies it, contains some valuable hints for young teachers).

Second, Cogery's Philological French Primer is an excellent little book, which presents for use what is really French, and not English translated into French. It may be put into the hands of intelligent children, or used by the teacher only. Price 1s. 6d.

Third, a series of little books, price 2d. each, which contains, among others, "Les Petits Vendangeurs," "Monsieur Brise-Tout," "Le Déjeûner de Bébé," &c. Duplex Reader, No. 1., (Aurel de Ratti) is a useful step between these last when children are not advanced enough to use a Dictionary; and such a book as "Le Sansonnet de Madame Duysens," a charming little story, bound with "Le Maître de Papillon" and "Le Prix d'Honneur," both equally pretty.

May I, from these, suggest a course of French study for average children under 13 who have had no special advantages?

I should begin with Cogery's Elementary French, and work on steadily to about No. 55 with the verbs *avoir* and *être* from the tabular form at the end of the book.

I always have such little grammatical rules as there are learnt by heart and frequently repeated, but this is a matter of opinion. The children will learn at the same time, parrot fashion, numbers to 100, days of the week, months of the year, names of seasons, colours, animals, &c., with any little phrases which come to hand. They will now be ready to take up, say, "Les Petits Vendangeurs"—its bright pictures are always hailed with delight by the little ones,—which they will translate word for word, making and learning a vocabulary of the nouns only which the teacher will supply to them; they will go through it a second and third time with reference to such grammatical rules only as they have learnt in Cogery, and learning by heart the easier phrases. With a continuation of Cogery as far as 110, and constant practice in the four regular conjugations, they will be ready to work at the Duplex Reader, mastering the vocabularies as far as possible, translating *very* literally, writing frequent dictations from what has been translated. After this they will be quite ready to use a dictionary with profit; and, with the remainder of Cogery and irregular verbs, they will translate and learn words, phrases, and passages from "Le Sansonnet de Madame Duysens." This little book contains an unlimited amount of work in the hands of a skilful teacher, and, when mastered, I think it will be found that the children have gained a solid groundwork of French, and will be able to enter upon the more serious study of the language in any books that may be chosen for them.

I am, Sir, yours sincerely,

F. CLARK

(Head-Mistress of the Lower School).

Manchester High School for Girls.

GREEK IN THE UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—I hope that, if some other distinguished persons do not deign to read the *Journal of Education*, at any rate the Senate of the University of London not only reads, but marks and learns from it. It is in this hope, and partly to elicit suggestions of relief from fellow-sufferers, that I wish now to call attention to the difficulties which are imposed upon me as a teacher of Greek, and upon my pupils, by the regulations of the University. Greek is a voluntary or alternative subject at matriculation, a compulsory one at the intermediate examination in Arts; the standard at either examination is much the same, and industrious and intelligent students have no difficulty in reaching it after a year's preparation. The standard in Greek for the final examination for the B.A. degree is a great advance upon either. So much so, that it appears to presume a previous study of Greek for at least three years. As a matter of fact, however, students who have not begun the study of Greek till after matriculation attempt to reach the standard of the B.A. in Greek after two years' work, and even the best are very liable to failure; while those who have taken up Greek for matriculation, and are supposed to have been studying the subject for three years, are at this disadvantage, that the year between matri-

culatation and the intermediate examination is not utilized to the utmost, and will not be so long as students are not expected to know more at the end of two years than at the end of one. This is one aspect of my grievance,—it is the grievance of students first, and then of their teachers. Another concerns teachers more and students less, but both much. At the beginning of a session a teacher finds that his class in Greek for the intermediate examination is composed partly of students who know no Greek at all, and partly of those who have studied it for a year before matriculation; similarly, his class for the final examination is composed of second and of third year's students of Greek. He has his choice between multiplying his classes—a very practical and serious difficulty,—or taking together all students working for the same examination—a course most unfair to them. The demands of time and conscience clash, and the result is an unsatisfactory compromise, distressing to the teacher, unjust to the pupils, and most injurious to the study of Greek. Let me say, by way of example, what it is I do myself. I take together, up to a certain point of time and knowledge, all those who are beginning Greek, whether for matriculation or the intermediate examination. Those who have already learnt Greek for a year for either of those examinations I also take together up to a certain point, and with them those who have learnt Greek for two years. I do not find that my main difficulty lies with those who after one or two years' study are working together for the same final examination, but rather with those intermediate candidates who are too far advanced to work with beginners, but who, as I have said, have not the same strong motive for work as degree candidates. When the point of knowledge and time is reached, I have to separate my matriculation and intermediate candidates into distinct classes, not because the latter must be taught to know more than the former, but simply because the two must prepare different books; and this brings me to my first suggestion of reform, which is, that the same authors be set in Greek for the intermediate and summer matriculations. After much consideration, I can see no valid objection to my proposal; and I can foresee a great relief to teachers and students, and, still more, a vast improvement in the knowledge of Greek by future candidates. That, of course, would still leave the standards for these two examinations the same, and as long as Greek is an alternative subject at matriculation, that must be so; but I would go even farther than my first proposal, and suggest that, in the interests of teachers, students, and, above all, of the study of the language itself, Greek be struck out of the list of subjects for matriculation altogether. I am conscious that this last proposal especially, and the whole of this letter, will appear to some to reflect too exclusively a teacher's view of the subject of education, and to them I will go so far as to say that I have intended to write in the interests of pupils and of students at large; that the interests of genuine teachers cannot be divorced from those of their pupils; and that, in my experience, the study of Greek is suffering from the absolute impossibility under which teachers labour at present of teaching Greek properly, when the hours allowed to be given to it each week are much too short and few, and they cannot be made the most of because the classes for the same examination are composed of such heterogeneous elements. French and German used to, and, for all I know, still suffer in many schools from a similar drawback, and I am anxious that Greek should be saved from their fate.

Your obedient servant,

M.A.

P.S.—I see that I have omitted to state explicitly what was in my mind when I suggested that the same subjects in Greek should be taken up for matriculation and the intermediate examination,—that the hours thus saved could be divided between all the pupils, and that so each pupil would have, let us say, three hours a week (and that is miserably insufficient) instead of two hours for Greek, which is absolute starvation.

WORDS AND THINGS; OR, TEACHERS *versus* BOOKS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Your correspondents, "Grammaticus" and "K.B.," have, in their little controversy about "Words and Things," opened up a far larger question; namely, that of the comparative and interdependent value of teachers and books. In the course of twenty-five years' experience, chiefly as a private teacher, I have, of course, used and seen a great variety of school-books, adapted to children of different ages and qualities of mind, and I have come to the conclusion that a perfect school-book is an impossibility, indeed, an anomaly. For the value of a book is not in itself chiefly, but in the use made of it by the teacher. As a rule, and for many weighty reasons which most teachers understand, the book, or at least the *lesson* put into the hands of the child, should be short, and the amplification long—that is, as long as the teacher, in his or her discretion, may know to

be suited to the wants or capacity of the child or the class, as the case may be.

Therefore, to criticize a grammar or any other text-book from the point of view of the learner only, seems to me a mistake. Conciseness is good, and accuracy is good; but, considering the extension which knowledge has reached in our day, it is difficult to combine the two without occasionally giving a false impression. In vain do some of us try to reduce life and knowledge to their simplest expression, while life and knowledge are themselves becoming daily more intricate in their ramifications. The conflict of studies is appalling even to the strongest minds, and medical men are beginning to oppose the strain that is sometimes put upon the infant brain. The only way for teachers to be successful is to look to quality rather than quantity, and to the right relations between subjects of study and the mind of the student. Let the *teachers'* books be complete and numerous; but let those put into the hands of children be few and well within the compass of their minds, and let them receive their expansion and illumination from the mind of the teacher. *Comprehensive* manuals are to be distrusted, in my opinion.

False impressions cannot always be avoided. Half our life is spent in correcting false impressions. Many a child tries to grasp the moon. Most of us mistake, at one time or another (some throughout life), words for things, the body for the soul. Many a man finds out late in life the meaning of certain passages in literature which he has glibly repeated, as boy and man, with various degrees of understanding. Our task would be hopeless if we were to expect every child to get the right notion of all he is taught; still more, if we expect him to find it all in the book. If this were so, teachers could be dispensed with altogether, except as whips to lash the learner to his task.

Of course we should all like a good book to teach from; but, then, who is to say what book is good? It is a matter of taste, or rather of handling. Let the Education Society decide, *if they can*.

I think that far too many text-books, manuals, "readers," and school-books, as well as books of other kinds, are given to the world, and that, on the whole, the greater benefactor to mankind is not he who writes a book, but he who abstains from writing one. The formerly much bepraised "man of one book" ought now, if he still exists, to be put under a glass case and sent to an exhibition. What publisher of school literature has not issued a series of readers "to meet the requirements of the new Code"? Well, we live in an age of competition and liberty of speech, and perhaps "in a multitude of counsellors" we shall "find wisdom" at last; but I think that our late friend Mr. Joseph Payne would bid us remember that the *teacher* is the really important factor in education, far before the book, or even than the almighty school-inspector.

E. KISLINGBURY.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Your correspondent, "Grammaticus," does good service in drawing attention to the pernicious mistakes and confusion which are only too common in school grammars. I could, if space permitted, give other instances quite as serious as those which he quotes, from both larger and smaller hand-books, and in the higher as well as in the lower branches of the subject. Those which he points out are apparently taken from some work written solely for sale, by an author whose education has been limited to his own language, and has certainly not included the elements of Logic. Others result from the compilation of such works by persons who, though well educated, lack clearness of thought, or any special gift for comparative investigation; and some of the worst are found in class-books, such as the series called "The Pupil-teacher's Course," which contain a little of everything that a Pupil-teacher is supposed to want in the successive years of his or her apprenticeship. Yet there are some works (unfortunately little used in Elementary Schools)—such as those of Dr. R. Morris—that are thoroughly satisfactory from beginning to end.

I should doubt very much whether such books as those from which your correspondent quotes would have even a tolerable sale; and I am pretty sure that the mistakes they contain would have no "chance of being accepted" by the authorities of Training Colleges, Inspectors, or the better sort of teachers. But it is quite true that a large number of teachers still have very loose notions on English Grammar, owing to their early training.

"Grammaticus" may observe with satisfaction that the educative value of Grammar is now fully recognised by the authorities at Whitehall, and that in the New Code of 1882 it appears as an almost compulsory subject. Moreover, the grant is now paid for it on two scales, according to the merit of the answering. The possibility of offering Grammar only in the two lowest standards (in which certain parts of speech are to be "pointed out" merely), and avoiding it elsewhere, is

done away with completely, while any teacher who desires the higher of the two scales of payment has a distinct motive for intelligent instruction, as opposed to any perfunctory or mechanical methods. This change (while it accounts for the multiplication of hand-books, at the present moment likely enough to contain the old faults) will gradually work an improvement, which will be welcome to "Grammaticus," and equally so to your obedient servant,

July 14th, 1883.

GRAMMATICUS ALTER.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Since reading the letter of "Grammaticus" in your last issue, I have come across the following amusing "picco of rubbish" in the Teachers' Corner of *The Competitor* for June:—

"Case is much more difficult to be explained, notwithstanding the remark of Kirkham, that 'Five grains of common sense will enable any one to comprehend what is meant by Case.' We found the following method admirably successful. When is a noun in the nominative case? *When it does something*. When is a noun in the possessive case? *When it owns or possesses something*. When is a noun in the objective case? *When something is done to it.*"

The *Competitor*, I may mention, seems to have been started for the especial edification of intending candidates at Middle-Class Examinations. Poor wretches!—they might well cry, "Preserve us from our friends!"

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

6th July, 1883.

J. E. A.

CLYDE'S GEOGRAPHY.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—I have been asked to examine a large and important Girls' School in the west of England in Geography. Subject:—North America. The Text-book used is Clyde's Geography (twenty-second edition, 1883).

I send you a few extracts from the recent work of 550 pages, taken entirely from the section in which I have to examine. I have no doubt many such passages might be found in other parts of the book, but I have no time to hunt them up. If such a book as this can attain to its twenty-second edition, can we wonder at the terrible ignorance of Geography displayed by so many girls and boys?

But what about the teachers?

I remain, dear Sir, yours very truly,

24 College Road, Clifton, Bristol.

G. H. WOLLASTON.

"Lake Atabasca communicates with both the Arctic Ocean and Hudson Bay, between which and the Rocky Mountains insolation is everywhere common after rain.

"This state of matters has suggested to geologists the speculation that, when Western Europe was covered with glaciers, and the reindeer was common even in the south of France, the Gulf Stream, instead of crossing the Atlantic as now, had flowed through the centre of N. America to the Arctic Ocean."—P. 438.

The picture of the insolation of Hudson's Bay and the Rocky Mountains is truly lovely, and not to be slightly rejected; but one would be glad to know what geologists have suggested that during the glacial period the Gulf Stream found its easy way into the Arctic Ocean. I calculate it would soon have put an end to that period.

"The trade-winds, passing over the whole breadth of the Atlantic, are considerably cooled before reaching the American coast."—P. 439.

How cooled? Were they warm? and farther down, on the same page, we read of "the northward deflection by the Rocky Mountains of the trade-wind from the Gulf of Mexico!"

Speaking of the Canadian Pacific Railway, we have the following:—"Owing to the rapid diminution of the parallels of latitude in sub-arctic regions, the termini of this railway will be more favourably situated than those of any competing railway in the United States."—P. 442.

Do you not pity the poor child?

On page 448 we read of the treeless banks of the Mackenzie River. See Lyell's Principles, Vol. ii., p. 256.

But the best of all is also on page 448:—"The cod fishery is the most extensive in the world, the fishing banks being indicated by penguins, which are never seen off them."

Well done, Twenty-second Edition!

HIGHER OXFORD EXAMINATION FOR WOMEN.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—In reply to Mrs. Jeffrey's suggestion about the Higher Oxford Examination for Women, of which I have some experience, and

which I think the best we have for modern languages, I am afraid the fact recorded in your last month's Journal, viz., that the Council have finally rejected the petition for the admission of women to the examinations of the University, will tell heavily against candidates entering for it.

On the whole, if the Senior and Junior Local Examinations of Cambridge were held in July, and they had fewer selected books, or more suitable ones, Oxford could hardly hold its ground at all. The fee for both seniors and juniors for Cambridge is £1; for Oxford, £2 for seniors, and £1. 10s. for juniors. Mr. Browne, the Secretary to the Syndicate, stated the other day at Cambridge, that they save 9d. on each candidate. Cambridge also has the reputation, and I believe very justly, of exercising more careful supervision in their examinations. It is by no means desirable to leave the superintendence of the examination in the hands of the local committee, who may even be teachers of some candidates, or have no previous experience in business matters or supervision of any kind. I think far more careful supervision is required, if the certificates are to be of value to those who hold them.

I am, Sir, yours faithfully,

A. CHRYSOGON BEALE.

Belmont House, Leicester.
July 3rd, 1883.

P.S.—In the list just published, I find that for the Oxford Examination for Women, 1883, fifty-two candidates entered, of whom thirty-one passed. Last year over 960 entered for the Cambridge Higher Examination for Women. This does not look much like "Oxford maintaining its ground."

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL LATIN PRIMER.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Will you permit me to give "Assistant-Master" the result of my own experience as to the utility of Infant Primers?

I am an old-fashioned woman, and have spent many years of my life in the underground work of Preparatory Education. In my younger days I fell into the snare of teaching, or trying to teach, from minced grammars, but the enormous disparity of assimilating power in the organisms for which I had to cater soon drove me to the expedient of mincing my own. It is a great gain to accustom the eye of a boy to his paradigms, from the very first, in the book which is to be his schoolfellow for so long a time; and it is nearly as important to avoid breaking the idea of continuity in the pate of a genius, who thinks that if he changes his hat he must get a new head.

I therefore boldly lay my foundation lines in the Public School Latin Primer, and have hitherto had no reason for questioning the justness of my own anticipation, that the hole which was cut for the cat would admit the kitten. My boys are frisking by the dozen in the Public Schools.

Faithfully yours,

AN OLD SCHOOLMISTRESS.

July 4th, 1883.

P.S.—Allen's "Elementary Latin Grammar" is excellent, and equally excellent are the Companion Exercises.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—It is useless to tell us that other excellent Latin Grammars exist besides the Public School Latin Primer. As long as the latter is published "by authority," we have to teach it, and none other. Little good can ensue from promiscuous writing to the newspapers, but much might be done by united and systematic action. It would be a great advantage if criticisms of the Primer in its present form could be tabulated, and published as a pamphlet, in time to be circulated before the next Head-masters' Conference. Will any schoolmasters, who are interested in elementary teaching, co-operate with us in this object by sending detailed criticisms and suggestions, and promising small subscriptions to cover the cost of printing and postage?

We are, Sir, yours very truly,

H. R. HEATLEY,

J. ARNOLD TURNER.

Hillbrow, Rugby.

"GOVERNESS" FRENCH.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—"Anti-barbara" has scotched but she has not killed the "Lessons in French" in the *Governess*. May I give the *coup de grâce*, by a quotation or two from the last number (July 21st)? "Elles ne seront pas renvoyées si elles choisissent nous accompagner." "Quoiqu'elles sont dans la ville." "Voilà nos tantes viennent dans un fiacre." "S'il vous plait." In the translation of *Lazare Hoche*, emigrants who "wore the white cockade, in order to maintain a na-

tional style to their enterprise," soldiers who "roamed about the country-places to live there at discretion," features "embellished by a beautiful cicatrice," and "the mountaineers" (*la montagne*), show that the *Governess* is as ignorant of English as of French.

Yours, &c.,

BARBARA ALLEN.

REVIEWS AND MINOR NOTICES.

Homeric Grammar. By D. B. MONRO. (Clarendon Press. 1882.)
(Second Notice.)

It was once remarked, in the hearing of the present writer, that, whereas Cambridge men had a genuine interest in questions of Greek grammar, Oxford men had only a simulated interest. The speaker was an Oxford man, and the person addressed was a Cambridge man: the remark was therefore at once modest and polite. We believe ourselves that the distinction, if ever true, is now no longer so; but, however that may be, there is no doubt that Mr. Monro has a "genuine interest" in grammatical analysis. The syntactical portion of his *Homeric grammar* does not yield in attractiveness or value to the earlier part, which we reviewed last month. There is the same care and research; the same wide acquaintance with the best (and the worst) that has been written on the subject; and there is even more scope for the peculiar combination of subtlety and judgment which seems to be characteristic of the writer.

It is obvious, that in the case of a book of three hundred pages, almost every page of which deals with difficult and often disputable matter, and bears traces of careful thought, the reviewer (unless he is satisfied to present a mere table of contents) has no choice but to make a selection. We will, therefore, confine ourselves to a few words on the two most interesting divisions of the subject—the treatment of the Cases, and the treatment of the Optative and Subjunctive.

In dealing with the Homeric use of the Accusative, Mr. Monro makes the acute remark, that no principle can be laid down which will explain the "internal" uses, and, at the same time, exclude the modifications of the verbal meaning which are expressed by other cases or adverbial forms. "The fact seems to be," he says, "that the accusative had originally a very wide adverbial use, which was encroached upon by the more specific senses expressed by other cases."

This, no doubt, is true, and this at once explains the far larger number of shades of meaning of the Homeric "internal" accusative, as compared with the later usage; and also throws much light on the more out-of-the-way accusatives of later Greek, which are practically survivals. The fact is, that the Attic uses, here as elsewhere, cannot be properly understood without a thorough knowledge of the *earlier continents* (so to speak) afterwards partially submerged, and leaving, in the Attic period, only *islands*. A study of the classified list of Homeric adverbial uses (§§ 133-137) will give much help towards a natural arrangement of the Attic accusative usages, particularly the Cognate and Appositional accusatives, and the accusative of the part affected. We will only make one small remark on one of Mr. Monro's examples, and that is with regard to the often-quoted phrase, *ὁδὸν λέγει*. It seems to us that this accusative really has two different characters, according as *ὁδὸν* is conceived in the speaker's mind. If it is abstract, "a journey," the phrase is then "internal" and cognate; but if (as often) it is concrete, "a road," the accusative is then more analogous to the common accusative of *motion along*. This is only one example among many of what we may call *converging lines* in the case-usages, which constitute one of the difficulties of analysis.

The Dative case is, on the whole, easier; and here also we find Mr. Monro's arrangement clear and instructive. The ethical dative, he truly says, must not be separated from the general usage; it is impossible to distinguish it from the ordinary *dativus commodi* in principle. The "agent" dative is also truly explained: "the *past fact* is thought of as a kind of

possession." This is best illustrated, he might have added, by the use in Attic with the perfect (and pluperfect) passive: *πέπρακται μοι = ἔστι μοι πεπραγμένον*, an identity which is proved by the use of the auxiliary in the third plural. The "comitative," the "instrumental," and the "manner" dative are also well connected and illustrated in § 144. We will only add that the natural order of growth seems to be (1) *proximity* "near to," sliding from locative use to true dative use; (2) *sociative*, "with"; (3) *instrumental*. The three English expressions to describe the same thing—"in fear," "with fear," "for fear"—show how very close the different uses lie.

The most difficult case of all is, of course, the Genitive; indeed, if we were to take any one branch of grammar as a test of a man's knowledge and linguistic capacity, we should be disposed to select the Greek genitive. Mr. Monro's few pages on this case are full of thought and insight. His remarks on the connection of the ablative with the true genitive (§ 146), we have not space to quote; we must be content with mentioning them. The relation of the genitive to the *adjective* is, again, most clearly given (§ 147). His analysis of the Homeric genitive of *place* (§ 149) is the best we have seen anywhere; and, perhaps, best of all is (§ 151) the treatment of the *quasi-partitives*. As a good example of the author's method, we will quote from this section one passage (p. 106):—

(d.) With verbs meaning to *hear, perceive, know of, remember, and the like*, the gen. expressing—

- (1) The *person from whom sound comes*;
- (2) The *person about whom something is heard, known, &c.*;
- (3) The *sound heard* (but the acc. is more usual).

The particular thing heard or known is often indicated by a participle agreeing with the genitive, *e.g.*,—

Il. i. 257, *εἰ σφῶν τάδε πάντα πυθοῖατο μαρμαμένοιῖν* (= *if they heard of all this fighting on your part*).

Il. iv. 357, *ὡς γυνὴ χωμένοιο* (= *ὡς ἔγνω αὐτὸ ὅτι ἐχώετο*).

Od. ii. 220, *εἰ δέ κε τεθνήωτος ἀκούσω*: so iv. 728, &c."

This brief and accurate analysis will not only clear up a common confusion about the uses of the genitive after such verbs, but will also throw much light incidentally on similar expressions in Attic poetry. Thus *μαντευόμεσθα τάνδρος ὡς δλωδός* (Ag. 1367), *ἀ τοῦδ' ἐχρήσθη σώματος* (O.C., 355), *τοῦ κασιγνήτου τί φής*; (El. 315.) and several similar uses, which give much trouble to commentators, are all clearly seen to be survivals from Homer, to be explained like *τεθνήωτος ἀκούσω*.

On isolated points we might, perhaps, take issue with Mr. Monro. Thus *πεδίωιο ταμέσθαι* is surely rather *abl.* than *material gen.* (p. 107); *περιγίγνεται ἡνίοχοιο* must be "gets above a charioteer," and the gen. is thus the same as the gen. after *περί*, *i.e.* the *true gen.* ("in respect of"), and hardly the *abl.*, as Mr. Monro calls it (p. 108): *τρίποδος περιδώμεθον*, which he calls "not quite clear" (p. 109), is probably "let us have a *mutual giving* (middle reciprocal; primitive effective way of describing a *bet*) about a tripod," where *περί* has the same force as in expressions like *ἀγωνίζεσθαι περί ἐλευθερίας*. And, generally, Mr. Monro hardly recognises enough the principle (before alluded to) of *convergence* in the case-usages; *i.e.*, where a case does duty for several different relation-ideas, if we find more than one of these ideas appropriate, we need not force the usage into one class or the other: we are dispensed from deciding, and should recognise the presence of *both* elements. Thus, to give a common example from Attic, *ἀγαλκος ἀσπίδων* probably contains both the ideas of *separation* (*abl.*) and *relation* (*true gen.*); and the Homeric *ἀτεμβόμενος ἴσῃς* may be the same. But, apart from these minor matters, we have nothing but praise and gratitude to give to Mr. Monro's handling of the Homeric case-usages.

We have left ourselves scant space for the Moods, which are, in some ways, the most important part of the book. We must abandon detailed criticism, and content ourselves with a few general remarks.

Briefly, then, in the treatment of the moods, Mr. Monro's book is the first English work of scholarship which has fully assimilated and worked out in detail the method and principles of Delbrück. This author, in his great work called "Syn-

taktische Forschungen," has really revolutionised the handling of the subjunctive and optative by applying the historic method. Homeric grammar, and therefore all Greek grammar, has, till recently, been vitiated at its source by the tendency of writers to follow the bad example set by the Greek grammarians themselves, in treating the early uses as anomalous variations from the later precise rules of syntax, instead of tracing the development of the latter from the former. Delbrück first systematically followed the truer method, and began at the beginning instead of the end. The system may be briefly described as follows:—

In Attic Greek, the optative and subjunctive appear mainly in *dependent* sentences, such as final clauses, oblique deliberatives, clauses depending on verbs of fearing and misgiving, indefinite frequentatives, and (in the case of the optative) oblique statements and oblique interrogatives. The only *principal* clauses where they occur are wishes and commands, and the interrogative subjunctives known as deliberative (direct). But in the earliest language there *were no such things as dependent sentences*, even the relative (the simplest and earliest subordinate) being developed out of a second and demonstrative clause attached to the first. It follows, therefore, that all dependent sentences are later and developed structures; and in Homer, as a matter of fact, we find many more subjunctives and optatives used in principal clauses than we do afterwards. The only true method, consequently, is to begin with Homer, and, discarding all theories derived from the precise and organised Attic syntax, to see, by actual inspection of the passages and context, what the meanings of the subjunctive and optative are. Only when this is done, can the later syntax be historically, *i.e.*, truly and fully, understood.

This is the principle on which Mr. Monro, following Delbrück, proceeds; and it is not too much to say that a really satisfactory Greek grammar is now, for the first time, possible. We have only room to indicate, in the hastiest manner, some of the results of this method; for everything else we must refer the reader to the book itself.

(1) The subjunctive, in principal clauses, expresses the ideas of *will* or *necessity*. Mr. Monro points out, in an interesting section (§ 275), how the force of the subjunctive is modified insensibly by the person to whom it is applied, and by the circumstances of the case. Thus it may be a *resolve*, a *command*, an *engagement*, an *emphatic assent*, or a *confident expectation*. In negative sentences with *οὐ*, it may be a *general denial*, or sometimes a *defiant* or *contemptuous denial*. In interrogative clauses, it expresses *necessity* (*am I to...?*) and, with *μή*, it passes from *prohibition* to *warning*, *misgiving*, *fear*.

(2) It is interesting to see how the more complex and subordinate uses already begin to arise. Thus, from an *engagement*, if a conditional clause is attached, we have a full-blown conditional; from the *interrogative* use, if we attach a principal verb, we develop the oblique deliberative (*φρασσομέθ' ἢ κε νεώμεθ'*, &c.); from a *misgiving*, by attaching the verb of fearing, we get a structure like *δεῖδω, μή τι πάθῃσι*,—originally, of course, *two* clauses, "I fear, let him not suffer anything," *i.e.*, "I fear lest."

(3) Similarly, the optative in principal clauses expresses primarily, as it does in Attic, the idea of *wish*. This again is modified, as is the case with the subjunctive, by tone, temper of mind, circumstances, &c. It may be a *deserential* or *gentle imperative* (*ταῦτ' εἴποις Ἀχιλλῆϊ, ἀλλὰ τις . . . καλέσειε γέροντα*); *acquiescence*, (*κτῆματα αὐτὸς ἔχοις*); and, by an easy transition, *admission of possibility* (*οὐ τι κακώτερον ἄλλο πάθοιμι, . . . βία σώσωσι*).

(4) From this the growth of the subordinate clauses (as in the case of the subjunctive) is easily traced: the oblique deliberative (subjunctive thrown into the past), relative clauses with *εἰ, μή*, and final clauses, and the ordinary conditional use.

(5) The true history of the particle *ἄν* (*κε, κεῖν*) is also only to be learnt from Homer. We there find that its simplest and earliest use is to *specify* the application of a future (or *expectant* subjunctive or optative), and tie it down, so to speak, to a particular case. From this naturally arises its use in conditions. How it comes to be used in Attic, with relatives,

to turn the definite into the indefinite, is a matter requiring longer explanation, on which we cannot here enter.

(6) Lastly (for here we must conclude our remarks), the true understanding of $\mu\eta$ and $\sigma\upsilon$ is impossible without a careful inquiry into its Homeric usage. The treatment of negatives in Homer is comparatively easy; and Mr. Monro, no doubt, does not pursue the subject beyond his period. But much suggestion can be derived from his remarks on $\mu\eta$ with the indicative, and with infinitives and participles.

But we must stop. There is much more to say, for there are whole tracts of Mr. Monro's book we have not even noticed; but enough is as good as a feast. The one grave omission in the work, as a work of reference, is the absence of an index to the Homeric passages quoted,—an addition which would much increase the value of the book to hard-worked teachers, and which we hope to see in the next issue. The book itself, as a contribution to Greek scholarship in England, is nothing short of invaluable.

Readings in Social Economy. By Mrs. F. FENWICK MILLER. (Longmans & Co. 1883.)

Under the above title Mrs. Fenwick Miller has written a book which she hopes to see introduced into Board Schools. This hope is expressed in the preface to the book itself, and also in an eloquent article contributed by Mrs. Miller to the July number of the *National Review*. It is the *raison d'être* of the volume, and, being put thus prominently forward, no reviewer can speak of the book without discussing its fitness or unfitness for educational purposes. This is unfortunate, because no one who has any practical experience of teaching children can doubt for a moment that Mrs. Miller's book is deficient in all the qualities that appeal to them. The subject, regarded from a schoolboy's or a schoolgirl's point of view, is dull in itself, but the dullness might have been relieved by a vivacious style and a well-chosen stock of anecdotes illustrating the lessons. There are, however, very few anecdotes, and these are not always well selected. The story of the man who finds a bag of pearls when he is starving in the desert, and breaks his heart because they are not bread, affords a good instance of a kind of confusion into which Mrs. Miller too often drifts. She does not always seize her own point. She wants to show how, though money is the apparent object for which men labour, it is not the real object, and that, where there is no means of getting something useful in exchange for money, money is not worth going six paces out of one's road to get. And she tells a story in which, without a word of apology, pearls take the place of money. This would not much matter in a book intended for adult readers, who could think the matter out for themselves; but for children it matters very much. Want of experience and deficiency of mental grasp make them unable to follow any reasoning that is not simple and straightforward. Shift the ground, and they are hopelessly bewildered. Then the style of the book wants precision. It is conversational, and has all the faults incident to the conversational style without the virtues of the conversational form. It is wordy, lengthy, weighted at all parts with difficult words and phrases which are never quite satisfactorily defined. But it is only fair to Mrs. Miller to say that we doubt not only whether children can get any good out of her book, but whether they are capable of learning Social Economy at all. There is no science of which the understanding depends upon a greater variety of faculties and for which maturity of feeling and character, besides more actual experience of life, are so necessary. And this for very simple reasons. In all problems of Social Economy the most important terms can only be understood by those who are able to enter into the fullest relations and responsibilities of human life, and in every problem the terms are so many that no mind can hold them all distinctly and simultaneously unless by the help of living experience. We venture to think, however, that that which Mrs. Miller really desires to see taught in schools is not Social Economy, but simply good personal conduct; and this we readily believe may be taught to boys and girls—only not out of text-books. Mrs. Miller's fundamental principle is, that

social order and prosperity depend upon the training of individual citizens in habits of "industry, thrift, forethought, temperance in the use of all good things, trustworthiness, kindness, and truthfulness." And her aim, from beginning to end, is to show that the happiness of the poor as well as of the rich depends, in the long run, upon the practice of these homely virtues. No doctrine could be so noble. But then what a pity to enforce it by such visionary talk as this:—

"The teacher can easily prove to demonstration that the whole elaborate arrangements of society for the production and distribution of wealth, in all the minutiae of manufacturing and using, of buying and selling, borrowing and lending, division of labour and security of property, &c., hinge upon the good conduct of the individuals who compose society, of whom the children before him form part. Morals thus taught can never be forgotten, never misapprehended, and, the efforts of the teacher being simultaneously directed to securing a good tone in his school, his children will be trained to desire to follow what they see to be right, and to eschew what they know to be wrong actions, opposed to the general well-being. There is hardly a child, however evil his home influences, who, if asked by an earnest teacher whether he desires to be one of the helpers of the Social Economy, or one of the pests of his kind who spoil the harmonious working of the whole, but will reply that he desires to be honourable and respected and useful. And he will mean it, too, and will retain the wish and stand by it in life, so far as natural capacity and adult surroundings will permit. The mind of the young child is pliable and tender, and the moulding influences brought to bear upon it will give it a form to be retained through many adverse circumstances in after life, up to the hour of its dissolution."

With every word of this we differ absolutely. In the first place, it is by no means easy, but, on the contrary, exceedingly difficult, to prove these things to demonstration; and it is probably because of this difficulty that Social Economy has been neglected, and we hope will continue to be neglected, as a subject of school instruction. In the second place, moral lessons learned out of books are very quickly forgotten, and even when they are remembered they very seldom have any practical effect upon conduct. In the third place, though it is exceedingly probable that a teacher who put the question suggested to a child would get the edifying answer, it is quite certain no child would understand all that such an answer involves, and therefore, in its mouth, the answer would say little. But then no sensible teacher would put such a question to a child, or, if he did, he would instantly follow it up by some practical test, calculated to make his catechumen think twice before making such loose inductions a second time. The truth about children is, that they have very clear moral perceptions on the whole, but exceedingly little knowledge of their own limitations of character. And what they want is, to be exercised a great deal in doing right, and snubbed not a little when they talk of what they will do. But Mrs. Miller evidently writes without reference to the wants of children. Her mind is wholly occupied by a terrible picture of anarchy wrought in the future by that gigantic force of destruction, an enfranchised and uneducated working-class. Her point of view is political, not educational. She wishes the children of artisans to be taught all the things that she presumes that citizens would be happier and perhaps quieter for knowing, and she does not stop to think whether these things can be learned in childhood or not. She forgets, moreover, that half of the difficulties of the present day arise from the fact that people of all classes have played with the vain delusion that theories of Social Economy may save the State, independently of personal industry, thrift, trust, patience, endurance, and honesty. It is something to have arrived at the perception that this is a delusion. When Mrs. Miller has gone one step farther, and realized that these old-fashioned virtues may be inculcated in childhood by means much simpler than the proof to demonstration, that on them depends the well-being of the community and the happiness of our children's children, she will forgive us for asking managers of schools not to adopt it, and recommending it only to half-educated people who have left school without studying Social Economy, and who will be all the happier for reading in what good stead their habits of industry and honesty will stand them through life.

School Management. By JOSEPH LANDON. Vol. IV. of the Education Library. (Kegan Paul, Trench, & Co. 1883.)

The title of this volume is somewhat misleading. The reader is prepared for a work on the practical side of education—the organisation of the school, the distribution of subjects, and so on. But this forms the subject-matter of only about one third of the volume. The other two-thirds deal with the theoretical basis of education; that is to say, psychological principles in their bearing on the culture of intellect, feeling, and will. One is the less prepared for this, as, according to the original prospectus of the series, a volume was to have been devoted to the psychological foundations of education. The combination of psychological principles with practical details gives to the work a somewhat odd look. It is a little puzzling to pass from a discussion of the nature of the reasoning faculty, to the consideration of the proper way to classify children; or from an examination into the uses of a log-book, to a treatment of the emotions and their cultivation. It is to be observed, moreover, that Mr. Landon touches on only a part of the practical side of education. The whole subject of teaching, the method and order of exposition of subjects, and so on, is left for another volume. Why, we are not told. Does Mr. Landon think that such topics as lighting, ventilation, fittings and furniture are more closely connected with psychological principles than the order of subjects, or the best methods of teaching them? It is difficult to find any reason for the structure of the book, if indeed structure there is. It rather looks as if the author had worked away at different times at a number of unconnected departments of education lore, and thrown together the results of his labours with little thought of plan. Although thus defective in form, the volume has many good points. It is essentially the work of a practical man, well versed in the details of school-work, and combining with good observing powers a fair measure of reflective ability. Much might indeed be said about the scientific quality of the psychological ground-work here laid down. Mr. Landon has evidently got up his psychology second-hand, and in doing this has not always been well advised as to the best authorities. As a consequence, many of the statements are inexact and antiquated. One cannot help noting, too, an excessive disposition to divide and sub-divide in dealing with each head. For example, the author seeks to distinguish between seven grounds of connection or links of association between ideas (p. 64). Such minute distinctions are often more apparent than real, and their multiplication tends to hide the really important points as well as to weary the memory. Yet, on the whole, the writer attains a respectable measure of success in seeking to boil down psychological principles and render them digestible to the educationist stomach. Those who are disposed to regard psychology as being far removed by its abstract character from the region of concrete school experience, may perhaps learn by this volume that the two domains not only touch, but overlap. The author seems more successful in taking up the problems of moral training and discipline, than in handling those of intellectual culture. The analysis of Attention and of Imagination (which last is, oddly enough, tacked on to Judgment and Reasoning) is too superficial to be of any real guidance. On the other hand, the treatment of Motives, though far from exact, is much fuller and more suggestive. The characteristic of the book is its empiricism. The writer everywhere relies much more on the results of his own and others' observations than on scientific or purely theoretic principles. Its value lies in this circumstance. Mr. Landon has evidently had a wide range of experience himself, and has made himself acquainted with the best writings of other educators. He pursues a thoroughly cautious and judicious course, and his conclusions nearly always recommend themselves by their sobriety and good sense. He has a wholesome dislike to all extreme doctrines, and suspicion of all simple theories which promise short cuts in the difficult territory of educational practice. He is thus exceedingly well fitted to help on the theory of education on the practical side. When he and workers like him

have recorded and sifted the results of their observation, the aid of the psychologist may perhaps be called in to interpret these results. For the present, we cannot help thinking that the two divisions should be worked apart, and by men of unlike experience and training. And Mr. Landon's volume is well fitted to confirm one in this conviction.

The Great Tone Poets. By FREDERICK CROWEST.
(Richard Bentley & Son.)

This is the pretentious title of a commonplace little book, so full of faults of omission and commission that it would scarcely be worthy of serious criticism, but for the fact that it has reached a fourth edition. This fact is an important one, as indicating, in the first place, that there is not only a need, but a demand for a book of this kind. Now, when one of the most popular and fashionable acts of ostentatious liberality is the founding and extension of a great School of Music, there is, and ought to be, a demand for some work which will give in a portable form and simple style some account of the great composers whose works we are prompt to criticise before we have the power of intelligent admiration. But, so long as a book so incomplete, so inelegant in style, and so inaccurately edited as this, reaches a fourth edition, it is not too much to say that there is no work to meet the demand. There are works of reference, it is true, already in existence, not to mention the comprehensive Dictionary still in progress under the editorship of Sir George Grove; but these are not student's manuals. The best handbook we have been able to meet with makes less pretension to historical detail than Mr. Crowest's, but, musically speaking, it is infinitely more useful; Ritter's little volume of lectures on the History of Music gives a far more intelligent and intelligible account of the works of the chief composers, a more comprehensive view of the continuity and progress of musical development, and a useful list of writers on musical subjects.

A second and very serious reflection is suggested by the words "fourth edition" on the title-page of Mr. Crowest's book, and by his brief preface. "He has been requested," he tells us, "by many teachers of music to complete and republish (from a Magazine, now deceased) this series of articles," and he says that he has added some dates "for the use of those engaged in examinations." It is difficult, and very unsatisfactory, to believe that any large proportion of our teachers of music can imagine that the bulk of the information contained in this volume can be of educational value to any learner. It will give him, no doubt, a few general ideas as to the period and place of birth and death of the twelve best-known composers, and a jumble of facts and anecdotes written in a slipshod style; but of their function and work as "Tone Poets" we find hardly a word. Of the contribution made by each, in his time, to the growth of the musical ideal—as an expression either of his own genius, or of the spirit of his age and country—there is nowhere a hint; Mr. Crowest has no appreciation of the value of his own title-page.

Unsatisfactory, however, as Mr. Crowest's work is from a literary point of view, it affords a considerable amount of miscellaneous information. The biographies are written in a straightforward manner, not without sympathy, though altogether without pathos. The catastrophe of Beethoven's life, his early deafness, is related with an introductory flourish:—"But what is this cloud before him?"—that divests it of its tragic gravity; and, after giving a really touching and simple account of Mozart's burial "in a common grave," the author launches out into unmeaning rhapsody.

There are a variety of anecdotes, for the most part but feebly told, but some of them are interesting, particularly the story of the Erlking (p. 291), and the account of the discovery of the "Rosamunde" Music (p. 305).

The misprints in this fourth edition of so small a book are innumerable, and some of them positively grotesque. There is no excuse for such oversights as Eisenbach for the place of J. S. Bach's birth, and *Leizig* for that of his death; for "Trinità del Monto," "*Le Barbieri di Siviglia*," "*Le Compte Ory*" (see and believe, p. 281), "*Grenzen der Menschheit*," "*La belle et le bête*." *Ingliterra* is not the Italian for *England*; *Muzio Scavola* should be *Muzio Scevola* (or *Mucius Scævola*). There is a doubt as to whether Porpora (right) or Porporo (wrong) was the name of Haydn's instructor. Kapelle-meister, besides being wrongly spelt, is queerly translated *Chapel-Master* on page 10, and later on *Maitre de Chapelle*, which it does mean in that particular instance, but by no means invariably. We do not know from whom Mr. Crowest borrowed the anecdote on p. 259, but any Italian dictionary would show him that *vizi* is not the Italian for *rice*. "*Senti in si fiero istantè*" needs no accent. Mehul is unpronounceable without one. We find Gluck's name persistently written Glück, a sort of weakness not uncommon in authors

who wish to show that they know of the existence of modified vowels in German. If Mr. Crowest had chosen to write Handel for Handel, it would have been correct, though pedantic.

On p. 361, Mr. Crowest's pen has played him an unlucky trick by writing *profane* for *secular*; and in speaking of Beethoven's ninth or choral symphony, he adds "or Jupiter symphony." At p. 159, again, he speaks of Mozart's Jupiter symphony. Now, one is wrong and one is right—which? We know; but as this is, perhaps, meant as a puzzle for examinees, it would hardly be fair to tell.

In short, Mr. Crowest does not occupy the field, and we hope that, under the strong impetus lately given to musical culture, a handbook of practical utility may before long see the light, giving us the leading facts of the great composers' lives, and indicating the influence of their work on the development of their art.

The very deficiencies we have indicated show that a book to supply such information, and to suggest, at least, the poetical side of the great musical works we have inherited, is very greatly needed; and the professional musician who can write well enough, or the amateur who is musician enough to produce such a book, will deserve well of his generation.

Exempla Latina: A First Construing Book. By F. GLOVER. Second Edition. (Kegan Paul, Tronch, & Co. 1883.)

This useful little book was overlooked by us amongst the multitude of its unworthy congeners in the first edition. We recommend it to fourth-form masters, as supplying them with a number of well-chosen sentences, illustrating the most important rules of Latin syntax. Whether they will do well to make their boys get it, we have our doubts. If used as a companion to the grammar, and read *pari passu*, it will answer well. If used simply as a first construing book, the tabulation of the sentences will do away with the most valuable part of the gymnastic. Of the introductory analysis of Latin sentences we cannot speak so highly. Mr. Glover acknowledges his obligations to Mr. C. P. Mason's *Analysis of Sentences applied to Latin*. We are sure that he did not learn from Mr. Mason that adjectives (as *celer equus*, the swift horse) enlarge the meaning of nouns; to call "I wrote" and "I have written" both the perfect tense; or in *æquum est, cives civibus parcere*, to call the latter half a clause, a clause having just been defined as "each part of a compound sentence which has a separative predicate." The definition of conjunctions—words which "join words or phrases which are co-ordinate"—seems to us singularly defective. Subordinative conjunctions are apparently ignored, and all classed under connexive adverbs. On the other hand, the classification of cases is good.

English Composition for Standards VI. and VII. By A. PARK. (Chambers & Co. 1883.)

Mr. Park quotes from an Inspector's report, "The themes—short, ill-expressed, and for the most part idealess productions—which I have had to revise, are proofs that our education has, as yet, failed to affect the intelligence to any extent." The fact we do not doubt. Will their English Composition be improved by such manuals? We can quite believe, as the author tells us, that these themes, with the accompanying set of test-cards, have been most invaluable in the schools under his charge, but we cannot share his confidence that they will prove equally serviceable in other schools. These essays may serve as models of what will pass with inspectors, but they will not be suggestive to masters. The usual fault in Composition lessons is to demand bricks without straw. "Iron," "railways," "clothing," "sugar," &c., are all excellent subjects after an object-lesson, but very barren subjects without one. The model essay on "Money" begins,—"Money is made of gold, silver, copper, or paper; that made from the first being most valuable." Mr. Park should steer clear of political economy. The English of the essays is generally simple and correct, but Mr. Park should look to his "it's." "Whilst the plant is growing it is carefully weeded and hoed" is typical.

How to Begin French. An Educational Essay. By G. A. SCHRUMPF, B.A. (Hertford: S. Austin & Sons.)

A very able plea for the application of Bell's Visible Speech to the teaching of French. Till the citadel of phonetic spelling in English is carried, we fear that this raid into the enemy's country is not likely to be effective. But the teacher, without accepting Herr Schruppf's method, may pick up many suggestive hints by the way,—that sentences must come before words, that feminine adjectives should be learnt before masculines, that "il faut apprendre la grammaire par la langue, et non la langue par la grammaire."

The Poetical Works of William Wordsworth. Edited by W. KNIGHT, LL.D. Vol. III. (William Paterson, Edinburgh. 1883.)

Professor Knight's edition of Wordsworth will be as indispensable

to Wordsworthians as Masson's Milton is to students of Milton. Thus, to take the first poems of this volume, we have the instructive various readings of "The Cuckoo"; the proof that the "Phantom of Delight" is Mary Hutchinson; Miss Wordsworth's prose version (almost equal to her brother's verse) of the "Daffodils." But it would be tedious to praise an edition that all critics have joined in praising.

Flower Painting in Water Colours. By F. E. HULME, F.L.S., F.S.A. Second Series. (Cassell & Co.)

Mr. Hulme is not only an accomplished draughtsman, but a good colourist, and several of the plates in this volume are close enough to nature to satisfy the botanist. In fact, the artist is likely to complain that they are nature not art, facsimiles without any attempt at grouping. For the beginner this is possibly an advantage, and we have proved by experience that Mr. Hulme's directions are of great assistance to the young flower-painter.

Analytical English Composition. By R. S. WOOD. (John Marshall & Co.)

Three packets of cards, containing subjects for very simple English essays, such as are set by H.M. Inspectors. The subjects are well chosen, and the heads suggested are sensible. A Board School child is not likely to know anything about lawn-tennis, or the abstract and the concrete, and *Britannia* is not the Latin form of Britain; but such mistakes are rare, and the series may be generally recommended.

Cassell's Book of Out-door Sports and In-door Amusements.

The most complete book of games that we know, and a worthy successor to the delightful but now obsolete *Boy's Own Book*. From the vulgar "all-fives" to the royal game of tennis, from cat's-cradle to the microphone, all is included. The treatises on chess, on whist, and on skating are not very profound, but enough so to start the young Crichton on his way.

Chapters in Popular Natural History. By Sir JOHN LUBBOCK. (National Society's Depository. 1883.)

These selections from Sir John Lubbock's well-known works have been judiciously chosen, and the illustrations are admirable. Altogether, it is the most attractive of countless reading books that the New Code has called forth.

Roach's Practical Examiner's Arithmetic Test. Standard VI. (Murby & Son.)

Sums in Proportion, Fractions, and Interest, with the answers on separate cards. The answers, as far as we have tested them, are correctly worked.

SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES.

OXFORD.

The following Scholarships and Exhibitions have been announced:—
UNIVERSITY COLLEGE.—Radcliffe Mathematical Scholarship—Mr. Edwin S. Craig, of St. Mark's School, Windsor.

MERTON.—Natural Science Postmastership—Mr. James F. Tristram, of Manchester Grammar School. Mathematical Exhibition—Mr. Robert P. Hardie, Edinburgh Circus Place School.

NEW COLLEGE.—Open Mathematical Scholarship—Mr. H. B. Beckwith, Bradfield College.

MAGDALEN.—Demyships—*Classics*—Mr. Thomas Hutchinson Arnold, of Clifton; Mr. Harry Stanley Scrivener, of St. Paul's School; Mr. Mayson Moss Beeton, of Marlborough; Mr. Herbert Tom Andrews, private tuition and Oxford High School. *Natural Science*—Mr. John Leigh Hoskyns-Abraham, of Eton; Mr. John Rutland Farmer, of Atherstone Grammar School. Exhibitions—Mr. Thomas Joseph M. Greenfield, unattached student; Mr. Francis Manning Ingram, of Winchester; and Mr. Charles Edward Brownrigg, of Haileybury.

BRASENOSE.—Open Mathematical Scholarship—Mr. Arthur Rutherford, Commouer of Worcester College.

JESUS.—To Open Classical Scholarships—C. S. Fearenside, from Oswestry; W. J. Hemsley, from Marlborough; E. Schoedelin, from Bedford Grammar School; H. Vines, from Rossall. Welsh Scholars: (Classical)—A. Hill, Llandoverly School. Mathematical—J. Morris Jones, Christ's College, Brecon. Natural Science—W. F. Lloyd, Christ's College, Brecon. Meyrick Scholar (Classical)—John B. Lancelot, King's School, Chester. Open Natural Science Exhibition—F. L. Overend, from Manchester Grammar School. Welsh Classical Exhibitioners—J. C. Johnson, Clifton; J. R. Pryce, West-

minster; Archibald C. Roberts, St. Paul's School; J. H. Wadsworth, Clifton. The above names are arranged in alphabetical order.

WORCESTER.—Eaton Scholarship—Mr. J. F. S. Bacon, of Marlborough; Cooke's Scholarship—Mr. P. U. Henu, Christ's Hospital. Exhibitions are also offered to the following:—J. B. Lloyd, of Highgate School; T. H. Parr, of Marlborough; G. P. A. Acworth, of Bradford; H. J. Bardslea, of Merchant Taylors'; and H. B. Leete, of Epsom.

CAMBRIDGE.

By the death of Professor Birks the University has again a chance of securing one of the ablest of her teachers, a writer on Morals whose work is known beyond England. It is rare that the Sybill offers her books thrice.

The amended scheme for the Modern Language Tripos has been published. It follows closely the lines we adumbrated.

GIRTON COLLEGE.—At the entrance examination recently held in Edinburgh and London, the Clothworkers' Exhibition was gained by Miss H. E. Macklin, of Bedford College, London; and two Scholarships were awarded by the College to Miss E. Cook, of Dulwich High School, and Miss J. F. Coulter, of the Dumbarton Burgh Academy—the candidates bracketed second on the list.—The new buildings have been begun, and it is hoped that after Christmas the rooms in the wing to be placed at the back of the present building will be ready for occupation. Contributions to the amount of £5000 have been made to the building fund during the year.

SCOTLAND.

The results of the Edinburgh University Local Examinations have been issued, and the certificates and prizes sent to the successful candidates. Of the 891 who presented themselves for examination, 38 have failed completely, and 67 more have failed in one subject. The highest pass in Preliminary subjects was gained by James Hay Deas, West Fountainbridge Public School; the highest in Ordinary subjects by James C. Smith, Montrose Academy; and the highest in Honour subjects by Miss Jane C. Lambert, George Watson's Ladies' College. Of thirty-eight prizes awarded for Senior subjects, twenty-one go to the Edinburgh Ladies' College, and sixteen to George Watson's Ladies' College. Miss Bessie King Robertson, of the Edinburgh Ladies' College, has gained the Crudelius Bursary of £15 for two years, for the highest marks in senior mathematics. Miss Jane C. Lambert, as highest in three single subjects (Honours), gains the Association Bursary of £10. Miss Elizabeth McWilliam gains the St. George's Hall Bursary of £10 for the highest marks in three junior subjects.

The Liberal Association of the Edinburgh University has obtained the consent of Mr. Trevelyan, M.P., to nominate him as their candidate in the forthcoming Rectorial election. The Conservative Association of the University has secured Sir Stafford Northcote as their representative, hoping that a division in the Liberal camp will secure his election. Emeritus Professor Blackie denies the report that he has consented to become the candidate of the University Independent Association.

In the hall of the Edinburgh Academy on Saturday, the 21st, Mr. Merry received from the pupils of his class a testimony of their affection and esteem, on the occasion of his appointment to the Rectorship of the Dundee High School.—Another change has taken place in the staff. Owing to the death of Mr. A. A. Elliot, B.A., the directors have appointed Mr. H. S. Skipton, B.A. (Oxon.), to be English and Classical Master in his place.

Mr. Mundella is expected to visit Edinburgh in the beginning of September. He has promised, if his engagements will allow him, to open two new schools for the Edinburgh School Board.

The Earl of Rosebery is expected to open the University College of Dundee in October.

IRELAND.

The Senate of the Royal University has come to an important resolution, in virtue of which the written examinations connected with the First University Examination in Arts shall be held at local centres throughout the country in exactly the same way as has hitherto been done in the case of the Matriculation Examination. These are the two examinations which under the present arrangements are compulsory upon all students of the University. The centres for the present year are at Dublin, Belfast, Carlisle,

Cork, Galway, Kilkenny, Limerick, and Londonderry; and for women at Dublin and Belfast. It is intended that those candidates whom the examiners, upon reading their papers, shall adjudge qualified for honours shall be required to attend subsequently in Dublin for further examination.

The First Report by the Chancellor of this University has been presented to Parliament. It briefly enumerates the results of the examinations hitherto conducted by the Senate, and other particulars of the University. But considerable surprise and dissatisfaction exists that the Senate has not yet published the detailed Calendar for the year, though it has been in preparation for a long time.

We much regret to hear that the Schoolmasters' Association has lost the energetic Vice-Chairman of its Intermediate Education Committee. The Rev. R. Rice, Warden of St. Columba's, has resigned in consequence, he states, of his withdrawal from the scheme. As he was foremost among Protestant masters in heartily accepting the Intermediate Act, and has taken the lead ever since in influencing its administration, we would be curious to learn the reason for so sudden a change in his position. This Association held a Special General Meeting late in June, to discuss the advisability of continuing to make use of the Intermediate system. The meeting was small and the variety of opinion considerable. Some members alleged that the interference with good teaching in the prime subjects was so disastrous as to require a complete withdrawal. The advantages of such a competent external examination were held by others to outweigh minor evils. And there were not wanting uncompromising advocates and admirers. In the issue, the President, Dr. Flynn of Ennis, pointed out that on such a matter schoolmasters could not claim to lead public opinion; and that a withdrawal now of Protestant schools might lead to such an alteration in the examination as would render their return impossible. Therefore no strike was decided upon, and it would seem that, though the Senior Grade shoe pinches a little, the schools generally will continue to make free use of the Junior and Middle Grades. Mr. Wilkins, of the High School, Dublin, has been asked to undertake the duties of vice-chairman until the holding of the general meeting at Christmas.

SCHOOLS.

BLUNDELL'S SCHOOL, TIVERTON.—On St. Peter's Day the New School Chapel was consecrated by the Bishop of Exeter, a former member of the School. The Bishop afterwards presided at the annual dinner, at which there was a large gathering of Old Boys. The well-known face of the Rev. John Russell, who died recently, was missed for the first time. On the Speech Day, the Earl of Devon, Chairman of the Governors, took the chair, and distributed the prizes. Among the list of distinctions gained during the past year were read the following:—Fellowship at St. John's College, Cambridge (Mr. J. S. Yeo, 2nd Wrangler and Smith's Prizeman), four First Classes at Oxford and Cambridge, an Indian Civil Service Admission, &c. The Blundell's Scholarship at Balliol College, Oxford, was awarded to Sharland, the Newte Exhibition at the same College to Hole, the Sidney Sussex Exhibition to Prideaux.

CLIFTON COLLEGE.—The following is a complete list of this year's Scholars. The examiners were A. Sidgwick, M.A., F. Harrison, M.A., and J. W. J. Vecqueray. Scholarships:—Under 17—Berry, Bonus, B. R. Swift, Kitchin, Lucas, Cary, Hutchinson; under 16—Carter, Chapman, G. M. Cookson, Stevenson; under 15—Allen, Grenfell, Hooper, Harvey, Moreland; Lay Mathematical—Berry; Modern Language—Schiller; Entrance—Holme, Marwood, Blunt, Kitchin, Patterson; Free Nomination—Fitzgerald, Phillips; Exhibitions—Aitken, Bowring, Russell, Roberts. Winners of the principal prizes in the School are:—English Essay—MacTaggart, *ma.*; Latin Prose—Rogers, (2nd) Berry; Latin Elegiacs, (2nd) Bonus, *ma.*; German Composition—Schiller and Whitehead, *ma.*; the Merchant Venturers' Prize for Natural Science—Baker, *ma.*; French Composition—Barff; Reading Prize—Prescott-Decie; 5th Form, Johnston, *ma.*; Divinity—Swift, *ma.*, and Wethered (equal). T. K. Arnold has gained a classical demyship at Magdalen College, Oxford; and S. H. Wadsworth a classical exhibition at Jesus College, Oxford. G. C. Harrison (O.C.), Scholar of Oriol College, Oxford, has been appointed to succeed E. D. Mansfield, who is leaving this term; W. O. Moberly takes his house. J. Russell is also taking a mastership at Nottingham Grammar School. A new chemical laboratory is being built on the site of the old one. Term ends on July 31st.

COVENTRY SCHOOL.—Mr. A. S. Peake has been elected to a scholarship for classics at St. John's College, Oxford. The scholarship,

which is one of two appropriated to the School, is of the annual value of £100, and is tenable for 5 years. Mr. E. H. R. Watts, of St. John's College, Cambridge, who gained a First Class in the Natural Science Tripos, has been awarded an exhibition.

HONITON.—All-Hallows Grammar School.—The Rev. R. A. Byrde, Master of the Lower School at Merchant Taylors', has been appointed to the Head-mastership.

KING'S COLLEGE SCHOOL, LONDON.—C. Wanklyn has gained the Rustat Scholarship at Jesus College, Cambridge. Distinctions gained by old Pupils:—At Oxford.—F. Billet, Hertford College; J. R. Penderbury, Brazenose College, Second Class in Theology. A. Caspery, New College, Third Class in Law and Jurisprudence. W. E. Long, Magdalen College, Gaisford Prize for Greek Prose. At Cambridge—C. H. Burne, 24th Wrangler. The new Dean of Winchester, the Rev. G. W. Kitehin, was formerly a pupil of this school.

LONDON INTERNATIONAL COLLEGE.—In the Cambridge Mathematical Tripos, L. R. Wilberforce has been placed 13th Wrangler. H. W. Wilberforce has gained a Foundation Scholarship for Law, at Downing College, Cambridge. J. D. Dallas has gained the First Honourable Mention in Physical Geography, in the Public Schools Examination of the Royal Geographical Society. A. C. Grant Duff, Balliol College, Oxford, has gained a Second Class in the Honour School of Modern History. The Cobden Club Silver Medal has been awarded to A. H. Illingworth, for the best Essay on "Progress and Poverty."

REPTON.—In consequence of the death of Mr. Binney, one of the Assistant-masters, the speeches have been deferred, and the proceedings on Thursday were confined to the distribution of prizes. The Head-master, the Rev. W. M. Furneaux, in his address, announced that it was intended to commence the building of a new school-room, as a memorial of Dr. Pears. The edifice will follow almost exactly the lines of the Privy Chapel, which disappeared three hundred years ago.

ROSSALL.—Entrance Scholarships:—(a) Foundation—J. N. Fraser (private tuition), T. Ll. James (Mr. Horsman's, Leeds). (b) Seniors—C. G. Hall, J. A. W. Hughes, H. Aris. (c) Juniors—J. M. C. Cheetham, C. J. H. Barr, W. P. Elias (Llanrwst Grammar School), T. B. N. Miles, C. D. Weatherley (Mr. Clarke's, Oxford). (d) Exhibitions—J. P. Wilson, G. P. Scholfield, F. S. Butcher, F. C. Hudson, R. A. Hart, G. Barrett (Mr. Thompson's, St. Anne's), G. A. F. Saunders (private tuition). All scholars from the School, except where otherwise stated. Scholarships, &c., gained outside the School:—T. H. Vines, Open Classical Scholarship, Jesus College, Oxford; C. P. Wilson (O.R.), First Class Classical Moderations; A. E. Harward, 34th in Preliminary Examination for Indian Civil Service; H. H. Knight (O.R.), Archdeacon Johnson's Exhibition, Clare College, Cambridge.—On June 30th, Professor Morris, of Melbourne University, delivered a short but very interesting lecture on Australia. On St. John Baptist's Day, the anniversary of the opening of the Chapel, the annual sermon was preached by the Rev. F. Bedwell, of Newport, S. Wales. The School breaks up on August 1st, to meet again on September 19th.

TONBRIDGE SCHOOL.—School Honours:—R. Laehlan, Trinity College, Cambridge, 3rd Wrangler in the recent Mathematical Tripos.—The school buildings had a narrow escape of being burnt down on the night of June 23rd. A fire broke out in the Science-room soon after midnight. Luckily the porter, who sleeps in an adjoining room, discovered it in time, and at once opened the School-house Dormitories, which are just above the Science-room, and rang the School-bell; and the boys and servants soon put out the fire, but not until a good deal of the woodwork of the room and some valuable books were destroyed.—Our cricket eleven has been more than usually successful this year, having scored more than 400 in two matches (444 for 9 wickets against Brighton, and 420 against the Marlborough Blues).—The School breaks up on July 25th, and meets again on September 15th.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE SCHOOL.—The following have been elected to Scholarships open to boys between 12 and 14:—B. Adler, from University College School; C. H. Grinling, from Mr. Strachan's, Oakfield, Crouch End; G. Berry, P. Hope, P. B. Lewis, P. F. Rowland, from University College School, to half Scholarships. Distinctions, &c., outside the School:—H. S. Romer, 20th Wrangler; H. N. Williams, 2nd in Mods.; J. Viriamu Jones, D.Sc., has been appointed to the Principalship of the South Wales University College; J. H. Hooker, Scholarship at Queen's College, Cambridge; H. F. Morley, D.Sc., London.—The following boys have gained Honours at the recent Matriculation Examination of the University of London:—H. Caiger, P. U. Allen, J. W. Manning, H. E. Durham.

WESTMINSTER SCHOOL.—The present time is opportune for

recalling the improvements which have been effected at Westminster under Dr. Scott. In 1855, there was only one set of rooms available for Junior Masters; there are now eight. There was no provision for Home Boarders; there are now five rooms for their use. There were no rooms for teaching but the Library and the Great School-room; at the end of this year there will, besides the Great School-room, enlarged at its northern end, be 13 class-rooms, a Science Lecture theatre, a Music-room, a Library and a Museum, a Gymnasium, and a Chemical Laboratory. There is a Common-room for Masters; three houses in possession of the School occupied by Assistant-masters, besides the two Boarding-houses in Little Dean's Yard. There is, besides, a house in Dean's Yard adjoining one of those mentioned, which, if combined with it, might make an excellent Boarding-house. At Vincent Square the level of the ground has been raised and a Dressing-room, Lavatory, &c., added to the Lodge. Space for Fives'-courts now exists, as well as a site which may probably be converted into a Swimming-bath. A daily Morning School Service of a quarter of an hour has been established in the Abbey, which is attended by boys resident on the spot. Many prizes have been added, and the Mure Scholarship founded. A valuable collection of coins has been formed, in large part by the generosity of various donors, of whom Dr. Scott has been one; and an excellent collection of minerals has been given by Mr. R. H. Scott, F.R.S. The numbers have risen from 116 in 1855, to 237 at election 1883. During the whole period of Dr. Scott's Headmastership there has been no serious epidemic, and only one instance even of alarm—a record which can be matched by few schools, and which speaks well for the sanitary arrangements.—The Masters' Prize for Mathematics was awarded to R. H. Williams, Q.S. The Marshall Prize in the Sixth, to E. D. Fawcett, Q.S.; in the Shell, to G. G. Phillimore, Q.S. H. R. James has gained a First Class in Moderations at Oxford.

WINCHESTER.—The following is the roll of candidates selected to fill vacancies that may fall from this time till Easter:—W. L. Galbraith (exhibitor) (Winchester), L. H. Halbert (Mr. H. Cook), H. S. Ainslie (Newton College), A. H. A. Simcox (South Leigh College), W. D. G. Nash (Mr. Maclaren), J. Hallward (Mr. R. H. Walker), E. C. Lee (Mr. Lee), A. R. Hamilton (exhibitor) (Winchester), O. G. Arthur (exhibitor) (Winchester), W. A. Haig-Brown (Rev. S. J. Parry), C. de Sausmarez (Mr. E. Wilkinson), S. P. Rice (Cheltenham Proprietary School), H. Walter (exhibitor) (Mr. Worsley), N. C. Smith (Rev. J. Edgar), W. W. Phillips (Rev. W. Gedde), R. R. P. Cockerell (Mr. W. Bullock), A. M. Langdon (Newton College), C. S. Crossman (Rev. T. Nuuns), H. Fountain (Rev. E. Price), A. G. Haselfoot (Honiton), G. A. Exham (Corrig School, Kingstown), W. S. Hamilton (Rev. C. Darnell), and H. B. Hill (Rev. S. J. Parry).

TRANSLATION PRIZE.

*For each month, till further notice, there will be set a passage, generally from a French or German Author, to be translated into English. A PRIZE OF TWO GUINEAS will be offered each month for the best version. Initials or a nom de plume must be adopted by competitors, but the successful competitor is required to send his real name and address to the Prize Editor for publication. Versions must be forwarded to the "Prize Editor" of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, 96 Farringdon Street, E.C., not later than the 15th of the month. Any translation which is sent with an addressed envelope and six postage stamps, will be returned with corrections. A First Class is entitled to a copy of "Prizes and Proximes," which will be forwarded on application. Those who have already received "Prizes and Proximes" may apply for a copy of "Maria Wuz."**

"K. S." The winner of last month's prize is Oscar Browning, Esq., King's College, Cambridge.

* "Maria Wuz and Lorenz Stark; or, English Prints of two German Originals," reprinted from the *Journal of Education*. Crown 8vo, price 4s. 6d. (Longmans.)

The prize for the best translation or adaptation of the French folk song is awarded to "Denise."

Que faire s'amour me laisse? Nuit et jour ne puis dormir. Quant je suis la nuit couchée Me souvient de mon amy! Je m'y levay toute nue, Et prins ma robbe de gris. Passe par la faulce porte M'en entray en noz jardins; J'ouy chanter l'abouecte Et le rousignol jolis, Qui disoit en son languaige, "Veez cy mes amours veuir,	En ung beau bateau sur Seine Qui est couvert de sappin; Les cordons en sout de saye, La voile en est de satin; Le grant mast en est d'iviere, L'estournay en est d'or fin; Les mariniers qui le meynent Ne sont pas de ce pais: L'ung est filz du roy de France Il porte la fleur de lis; L'autre est filz... Cestuy la est mou amy."
---	--

BY DENISE.

Ah, wae is me, giu Luve tak' flicht!
I canna sleep by day or nicht!
Yestreen I lay me down apart,
But I only thocht on my ain sweetheart.
I rose my lane at break o' day,
An' buskit mysel' in dolefu' grey.
I hirpled awa' frae glintin' een,
And walkit amang the bracken green.
I harkit the laverock high i' th' cloud,
An' the bonnie mavis lilting loud,
Wha saftly said, in his ain douce parle,
"Sweethearts come frae the end o' the warl;
"Up the stream in a boatie braw,
Of the finest wood that ever ye saw;
"The ropes a' twined o' silk sae saft,
The sails a' wove i' satin waft;
"Wi' mickle mast o' ivory,
An' helm o' gowd, it's glidin' by;
"The sailors wham aboard I see
Are gallants uo fra' this countree.
"By the flower he wears aboon his brow
Yon is the king's ain son, I trow;
"T'ither's the son—wha suld it be
But my ain sweetheart come home to me!"

BY MAC.

When I'm sleepin' ay I dream, When I wauk I'm eerie, Sleep I can get nane ava' For thinkin' o' my dearie. Lanely nicht comes owre the hoose, A' the lave are sleepin', I think a' my sailor lad, An' bleer my een wi' greetin'. Lie my lane I canna thole, I maun up and cleed me, Hap me in my hodden goon An' my tartan plaidie; Barefit thro' the sma' back-yett, Barefit thro' the yairdie, Up the brae aboon the shore I' the dawin' early. The lav' rock lilts fu' bonnilie, The mavis sings sae cheery,	An' ay the owrecome o' their sang Was "welcome hame, my dearie!" They sang, "I see a bonnie ship A' o' aiken timmer, An' the mast o' ivorie, An' the bauks o' siller, An' the thrums of silken twine, An' the sails o' satin, An' the steerin'-pin of gowd, Gowden gear the ladin', An' the southlan' sailors a' Buskit braw an' fairly, An' they're bringin'—wat ye wha? Wha but Bonnie Charlie?" Charlie's bonnie, Charlie's sweet, But sweeter ay than ony Is my highlan' lad to me, Welcome hame, my Johnnie!
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We class the 165 versions received in the following order:—

First Class.—Fair Helen, K., Mermaid, John, Madder, S. H. C., Mac, Nondum, Emma, Cordelia, Mariana, Pansy, G. C. D., M. L. B., Gentian Coppersmith, Denise, Cinque.

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Chanter.

Les marins fatigués sommeillent sur le gouffre.
La mer bleue où Vésuve épand ses dôts de soufre
Se tait dès qu'il s'éteint, et cesse de gémir
Laissez tout ce qui souffre
Dormir.

Quand la vie est mauvaise on la rêve meilleure.
Les yeux en pleurs au ciel se lèvent à toute heure;
L'espoir vers Dieu se tourne et Dieu l'entend crier.
Laissez tout ce qui pleure
Prier.

C'est pour renaître ailleurs qu'ici-bas on succombe.
Tout ce qui tourbillonne appartient à la tombe.
Il faut dans le grand tout tôt tard s'absorber.
Laissez tout ce qui tombe
Tomber.

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LONDON CENTRE.

The Committee invite attention to some important changes in the Regulations for 1884. The chief of these are:—(i.) That two Examinations can be held, one commencing June 9, the other July 14; (ii.) That the Examination in Religious Knowledge is optional; (iii.) That Candidates, Junior and Senior, intended for the Professions of Law, Medicine, and Music, can be admitted although they are over 16 and 18 years of age.

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The Journal of Education,

96 FARRINGTON STREET, LONDON, E.C.

EDUCATION SOCIETY.

THE Secretary learns with regret that Mr. Sonnenschein finds himself unable to read a paper on October 1st. There will therefore be no meeting of the Society on that date.

OCCASIONAL NOTES.

THE debate on the Education Estimates, coming just too late to be noticed in our August number, will have been so thoroughly discussed before the appearance of the present issue, that we need say little about it. Two of the most satisfactory points in Mr. Mundella's statement are the diminishing number of pupil-teachers, and the increased proportion of children examined in the higher standards. Mr. H. Fowler made himself the spokesman of those who maintain the inefficiency of the present system of education; and what he had to say practically came to this—that the system is not perfect. He called attention to the small proportion of children who satisfied the Inspectors in the higher standards; but the proportion, small or not, is steadily increasing, and, considering the difficulties in the way, is increasing as rapidly as could be expected.

THE question raised by Mr. S. Smith as to the effect of the present system upon the children's health, is more serious than Mr. Fowler's criticisms. Sir L. Playfair went to the root of the matter when he said that Mr. Smith had told them nothing about the statistics of mortality before and after the Education Act. Of course, enemies of education—we do not class Mr. Smith among them—will seize hold of any case of breakdown from overwork, and say,—“There! look at the result of your Education Act.” Of the physical evils—and they are many—from which education has saved the children, it is, of course, impossible to find an individual instance. No

doubt, work should, in many cases, be lightened, but this can only be done generally by increasing the teaching power in schools. With a greater proportion of teachers to pupils, detention after school hours could be avoided; and probably, in the case of young children, home-work might be rendered unnecessary. For the rest, increased attention to physical education might do much; and an easy step in the right direction would be, as the *Pall Mall Gazette* suggests, the opening of playgrounds, under proper supervision, after school hours and during holidays.

MR. MUNDELLA'S answer on the 6th of August to the question as to the health of teachers and children, disposes once for all of the connexion that Lord Norton and other peers sought to establish between education and insanity. The reports of the Commissioners in Lunacy show conclusively that the effect of education has been to diminish the number of lunatics, that it is in the worst educated counties that the asylums are fullest, and that the proportion of insane is lower among teachers than in almost any other profession. This is what we should have expected. For one case of disease or madness resulting from over brain-work, there are twenty caused, directly or indirectly, by want of intellectual exercise. The contention that education makes men mad, is as absurd and untenable as the older and now abandoned objection that it makes them (or, at least, the lower classes) bad.

NO doubt, as has been often suggested, under-feeding has a great deal to answer for. Sir Henry Peck's successful experiment at Rousdon shows what might be done in many cases; but any attempt to imitate it would fail if applied to those who stand most in need of such help. The very poorest parents would not, and often could not, pay 5*d.* a week for their children's dinners. Mr. S. Smith's hint, that the State should provide food for the body as well as for the mind, will certainly not be acted upon by the present generation. Here is surely a field for voluntary action.

THE following extracts from a letter written by a lady, who has done much for the cause of education in Edinburgh, give the outlines of a scheme which has been thoroughly successful:—

“When the Edinburgh Board began their compulsory work, they very soon found that it was impossible to secure the attendance at school of a large number of children on account of their destitute condition. A voluntary association was formed to help the School Board in this part of their work. The School Board officers and the teachers of the schools report to the Association the cases of poor children. Each case is strictly investigated, and, if it is accepted, intimation is sent to the school which the child attends. The names of the children assisted are on a special register. After morning attendance at school they each receive a ticket which entitles them to dinner, and after afternoon attendance another ticket is given which entitles them to receive breakfast. Their meals are provided at different places in the various school districts of the city. The Association has found no difficulty in getting the managers of temperance coffee-houses to undertake the providing of the meals. For breakfast the children get coffee and rolls, or porridge and milk, and for dinner pea-soup, or broth and a roll. Each meal costs three

halfpence. The meals are provided not only for poor children in the Board Schools, but in any other elementary inspected school. The funds of the Association are raised by voluntary subscriptions. . . The Association find that they have been able to secure the attendance at school of many children to whom enforced attendance would otherwise have been a hardship, and the School Board report that the educational results of their work have been most satisfactory. . . In the enclosed reports you will find, what to my mind is perhaps the most interesting result of the Committee's work, statistics of the attendance of the children assisted by the Committee as compared with the average attendance throughout the whole school."

THE statistics referred to show very remarkable results. In every Board School in Edinburgh the percentage of attendance of children assisted by the Committee is greater than that over the whole school; and in the school which contains the greatest number (115) of assisted children, their percentage of attendance is as high as 94, while the percentage over the whole school is 74.69. In the Roman Catholic schools the results are almost equally good. In only one school is the percentage of attendance of the assisted children less than that over the whole school, and this is the school which contains the smallest number of children in receipt of assistance. When we reflect that the children who receive this help are just those whose attendance it is most difficult to procure by compulsion, the significance of these figures becomes at once apparent.

WE would draw attention to Mr. Richards' remarks on Carnarvon Training College. We have not seen any contradiction of the statements made by him with regard to the action of the Principal. If the latter really used the expressions which Mr. Richards says he used with regard to Dissenters, those who desire to see the abolition of all religious tests in Training Colleges may congratulate themselves on having an opponent who would go a long way towards ruining even the best of causes.

FROM Cape Town the report of the Superintendent-General of Education for the year ended 30th June, 1882, has just reached us. Though 1,100 fewer scholars were examined than in 1880, the number of those who passed Standard IV. is greater by 219, while the number of those below Standard I. is less by 1,400. We also notice that the number of scholars in institutions for the training of teachers is 480, as against 322 in the year 1881. This gives good grounds for anticipating still greater improvement in the future.

HAPPY is the State which appreciates the blessing of education in its youth. We learn from the *American Journal of Education* that Texas has set apart fifty millions of acres of land as an endowment for Public Schools. This must in time, as our contemporary points out, create a fund sufficient to educate every child in the State. Texas also possesses free Normal Schools, and a free University. The University has an endowment of over 2,000,000 acres of land, and an additional income of 25,000 dols. a year.

THE HON. EDWARD LYTTTELTON, Assistant-Master of Eton College, has printed, for private circulation, a pamphlet on Immorality in Public Schools. After the full discussion of last year in the *Journal*, we are unwilling to reopen the subject, but we recommend all who have to do with boys to read it carefully. Any one engaged in tuition may obtain a copy either from the author, or at the office of the *Journal*, by sending his name and address, with a penny postage stamp.

Two months ago we drew attention to the inconvenience of the school hours at Westminster. A complaint now reaches us from the parents of some Westminster boys of the awkward times at which the holidays are fixed. A month is given at Whitsuntide, and the summer holidays this year did not begin until August 8th—ten days or so later than those of any other Public School. The consequence is, that the parents of home-boarders at Westminster, who have children at other schools also, are obliged either to keep their families in town when they would be much better at the sea-side, or else to make arrangements, often at great inconvenience, for having their sons at Westminster looked after in town when they themselves have left it.

SCHOOLMASTERS will no doubt be comforted to find that they are not the only class of persons whom Mr. E. A. Freeman thinks himself competent to instruct in their own business. At the meeting of the Archaeological Institute in Sussex, Mr. Freeman has been falling foul of the architects. Mr. Micklethwaite, who is probably second to no architect in England in knowledge of ancient buildings, expressed his opinion that the Church at Shoreham was a divided church; and that, to understand an ancient building, it should be examined first from the inside. Mr. Freeman, on the other hand, maintained that the church never was a divided church, and that a church should be examined first from the outside—the side from which Mr. Freeman has studied architecture, we suppose.

A CORRESPONDENT wishes to know whether there is in London, or in any part of the United Kingdom, a good school of electrical engineering. A friend concerned in engineering tells us that the best he knows is that of the City Guilds, conducted by Prof. Ayrton and Mr. Perry. Perhaps some of our readers can give further information on the subject.

MISS E. A. SNOWDON, who is herself L.L.A. of St. Andrews University, has opened at The Lawn, Brixton Hill, a residence where students can obtain training for the examinations which that University has thrown open to women. We wish Miss Snowdon all success in her venture, which should supply a want. There must be many women who cannot afford either the time or the money necessary for residence at Cambridge or Oxford, to whom the diploma given by St. Andrews would be most valuable.

WE have received from Mr. Wren a letter, accompanied by a statement reprinted from *Truth* of August 2nd, which he asks us to print. We regret that its length prevents our acceding to his request. More than half of his statement refers to personal—very personal—questions between Mr. Wren and his “pupil,” the authorities of the *Times*, and various other persons with whom he seems to have come into collision. Mr. Wren answers Dr. Baker mainly by misrepresenting him. He makes Dr. Baker say that “the present system secures the best-educated candidates.” Dr. Baker said nothing of the kind. What he did say is, that the Civil Service Examiners have recognised “the wisdom of squaring their examinations to the standard of our best schools, and so securing the best-trained, that is, the best-educated, candidates.” Of course, the improvement must be gradual, and one of the signs that it is taking place is the steady increase in the number of successful candidates proceeding directly from school to the examination. Mr. Wren asserts that, since the present system has been in force, his pupils have won more than half of all the vacancies competed for. The statement is worth little, as supporting Mr. Wren’s claim to be “the best educator,” unless it appears that under the better system of examination Mr. Wren has a larger proportion of successful candidates than before. Moreover, seeing on what slight grounds Mr. Wren, by his own admission, claims successful candidates for his own, his statistics are not of the highest value.

WE gladly print Miss Pooley’s letter on the teaching of French, though we by no means agree with all her conclusions. In the very first stage of instruction Miss Pooley would have questions put to the class in French, and we suppose answered in French. We quite fail to see how such questions are to be understood or answered. Another point on which we differ very widely from Miss Pooley is the value of comparisons between the French and English languages. “Comparative philology,” says Miss Pooley, “requires a thorough acquaintance with one of the two languages compared.” Therefore, she argues, as children do not thoroughly know their own language, it is useless to employ it as a means of making them understand a foreign tongue. Miss Pooley would, if she is consistent, object still more to the use of comparisons between French and Latin. “Don’t go near the water until you can swim,” would seem to be a favourite maxim of hers.

By the appointment of Dr. Barry to the Primacy of Australia, another important office in the Church has been entrusted to a Schoolmaster. After all, there is something to be said for the action of Governing Bodies who insist on Head-masters being in Holy Orders. It ensures an adequate supply of Bishops.

THE current *Quarterly Review* discusses the study of

English Literature in an article which is a curious compound of intelligent criticism and blind conservatism. English grammar is “a strained and illogical jargon”; the University of Cambridge by instituting a Modern Language Tripos is “rivalling the huckstering facility of a commercial caterer”; the fanaticism of educational reformers who would abolish the compulsory study of Greek, presages the decay not only of English literature, but of “the growth of those liberal ideas of which they believe themselves to be the most ardent apostles.” To refute such arrant Chauvinism would be a re-slaying of the slain. We would rather endorse the reviewer’s much-needed warning against the study of English literature at second hand, as it is at present encouraged by examiners, and imparted by lecturers and crammers. It is a truth not sufficiently recognised that there are many subjects good to teach but bad to test. We can conceive no more stimulating study than to master a play of Shakespeare—the plot, the characters, the psychology, and the poetry; no more difficult task than to set a paper that shall test whether such knowledge has been acquired at first hand. It is strange to find a thorough-going classicist like the reviewer concluding his article by expressing his substantial agreement with the ideal of middle-class education which was given by Professor Huxley in our March number.

“WILL fashion,” asks the *Pall Mall Gazette*, “ever include the Rugby and Marlborough match among the list of fixtures to be patronised?” Unless the match is to be played during the summer term, instead of at the end of it, fashion, we may be sure, will do nothing of the kind. And we do not think that the authorities of either school are likely to follow the example set by Eton and Harrow. The Head-master of one of the chief Public Schools talked, a few years ago, of abolishing even the annual M. C. C. match. Being asked his reasons, he is said to have answered that, as the club had got into the habit of sending down five players who were not gentlemen, and six gentlemen who were not players, the match was scarcely worth retaining.

AGAINST this shocking indifference to the cricketing interests of the school, we may set a story which reaches us from another quarter. A parent living in London, who intended to send his son to a public school, went down and had an interview with the Head-master, when the following dialogue took place:—“Where is the boy at school now?” “At a day school near home.” “Take him away at once,—that will never do.” “Why, the boy is getting on very well.” “I daresay, but if he comes here straight from a small London school, he will know nothing about cricket or football, and will never take his proper place in the school.”

THIS reminds us of the speech of an indignant public school master to a stupid boy who had missed three

catches in a single match. "Well, Jones, I wish I had let you be superannuated; if I had thought you were going to turn out such an impostor at cricket, you should never have got out of my form."

ANOTHER cricket story which we heard lately suggests reflections on the teaching of Geography in Public Schools. A Cambridge cricketer of renown, an ex-captain of his school eleven, was engaged to play in a match at Tunbridge Wells. He wrote to engage a room at the principal hotel, and startled the worthy manager by adding in a P.S., "I prefer a bedroom facing the sea."

NOTES AND RECOLLECTIONS.

SIR CHARLES WHEATSTONE—DEAN STANLEY— CANON KINGSLEY.

By the Hon. L. A. TOLLEMACHE.

THE following notes, though short and desultory in themselves, may derive an interest from the distinguished men to whom they relate; for assuredly in the philosophical Elysium, as we may call it, a conspicuous place should be assigned both to scientific discoverers or inventors, and to spiritual reformers—

Inventas et qui vitam excoluere per artes,
Quique pii vates et Christo digna secuti.

To Sir Charles Wheatstone it is rather late in the day to pay this compliment; for, strange to say, he is already canonized: nay, he, like Augustus Cæsar, has had the rare privilege of becoming a *præsens divus*. To speak more plainly, he was during his lifetime placed, as he told me with just satisfaction, in the Positivist Calendar. On verifying his statement, I found that his name was indeed inscribed in the month sacred to modern inventors,—in the month of Gutenberg, and in the week of Vaucanson: but therewithal his position is anomalous and tantalising; for he is (as Oxford said of Ormond) a "Duke without a Duchy." It appears that, besides the 365 greater lights, each of whom rules over one day of the year, there are lesser lights who are in the unfortunate position of Members of Parliament who wish to bring forward motions, and to whom the Prime Minister would gladly give spare days, if only there were spare days to give. Sir Charles is one of those supernumeraries whose honours are but those of a *proxime accessit*, and who are not far from the kingdom of heaven. They are, as it were, the *petite noblesse* of the skies, who bear to the *grande noblesse* the same sort of relation that the twelfth man in a cricket match bears to the actual players. There is, however, this difference: In a cricket match, one of the eleven may be taken ill or die; and, in that case, the twelfth man will be called into requisition. On the other hand, the 365 Eponymy of the Comtist Pantheon are already numbered with the immortals. So that, unless some of the greater gods are cast, like Lucifer, out of heaven, or unless the supernumeraries are allowed to preside in turn over the 29th February in leap-years, it is to be feared that Wheatstone and the other demigods "never are, but always to be" deified, and that they will permanently be left out in the cold.

It may be reasonably thought that Wheatstone deserved a higher rank than the equivocal one conferred on him by Comte; for, as co-inventor of the electric telegraph and sole inventor of the stereoscope and the pseudoscope, he was, if not the greatest, perhaps the most *versatile* inventor that ever lived. Not, indeed, that this is the greatest praise that can be bestowed on a man of science. Buckle has well said that minds of the first order seldom make inventions; and Sir

Charles also, with characteristic modesty, used to place inventors below discoverers. But inventions, though not the highest product of human genius, are singular in this: they can be easily tested, and commend themselves alike to the few and to the many; nay, it is probable that their value, undisputed by philosophers, is often exaggerated by the world at large. This is especially true of what Mr. Mill, not usually given to rhetoric, has described as "the most marvellous of all modern inventions, one which realised the imaginary feats of the magician, not metaphorically, but literally—the electro-magnetic telegraph." It was only natural that the author of this invention earned a speedy and world-wide reputation. And accordingly, if I remember rightly, when the great Darwin received scientific honours at Berlin, the self-same distinction on the self-same day was conferred on Wheatstone.

Ὁς, καὶ θνητὸς ἔων, ἔπειθ' ἵπποις ἀθανάτοισι.

He was a member of a commission appointed to examine improvements in the art of war. He told me that some of these so-called improvements are designed to destroy whole armies, or to put them into a sound sleep which their enemies may make yet sounder.* All such schemes of wholesale destruction are rejected unexamined. Wheatstone, however, admitted that it is hard to see on what principle, in the ethics of slaughter, the line is drawn between the appliances which are and those which are not legitimate.

When I said above that, as a rule, the success of inventions can be easily tested, I was, of course, speaking of their *immediate* success. Wheatstone used to remark, that predictions as to their *ultimate* success often fail of fulfilment. Much at one time was expected from balloons, and at present little has come of them; and he might have added, that at first very little was expected from the electric telegraph, and that a great deal has come of it. He, however, quoted from Darwin, the poet, a very striking prophecy about steam:—

"Soon shall thy arm, unconquered Steam, afar
Drag the slow barge, or drive the rapid car."

The poet was perhaps a less cautious prophet, when he added that, with the aid of steam, there will be an emigration to the moon, and that—

"Fair crews triumphant, leaning from above,
Shall wave their fluttering kerchiefs as they move."

Wheatstone also remarked, how very uncertain are all forecasts of the weather. So far as distant forecasts are concerned, he considered that the most important fact hitherto ascertained is, that there are short cycles of 11 years, and longer cycles of 33 years, in which seasons more or less similar in temperature, in the number of falling stars, and of spots in the sun, have a tendency to recur. In this relation I cannot forbear quoting an instance, if not of a scientific prediction being fulfilled, at least of a popular generalisation being verified. In his very unequal essay on the *Vicissitude of Things*, Bacon writes:—"There is a Toy, which I have heard, and I would not have it given over, but waited upon a little. They say, it is observed, in the Low Countries (I know not in what Part), that every Five and Thirty Years, the same kind and suit of Years and Weathers, comes about again:—As great Frosts, great Wet, great Droughts, warm Winters, Summers with little Heat, and the like: And they call it the Prime. It is a Thing, I do the rather mention, because computing backwards, I have found some Concurrence."

Sir Charles told me that he had a curious conversation with the Emperor of the French about Spiritualism. The Emperor gave an account of sundry marvels which he had seen, and asked whether Wheatstone could explain them. Sir Charles admitted that he could not; but said that many feats of legerdemain seem inexplicable until they are explained. By way of example, he told Louis Napoleon, without at first giving the

* This expression is borrowed from an article by the present writer, entitled, "Do Military Inventions promote Peace?" (*Fortnightly Review*, March, 1871.) This article deals with the question now before us, but is too technical to be reprinted.

explanation, of a trick by which a conjurer seems to read through a wall. When the Emperor admitted that he could not see how this was done, Wheatstone showed that the trick might be performed by means of manifold paper. The Emperor remained unconvinced, and merely said, "Mr. Home's performances are not like that."

It will be inferred from what has been said, that Sir Charles devoted some attention to the great *lusus naturæ* (or rather *supernaturalitatis*) of our century—the violent recoil against materialism which has driven tens of thousands into Mormonism on the other side of the Atlantic, and which on both sides has induced many good and not wholly insane persons to sell their scientific birthright and to serve tables. He felt so strongly on this point, that he disapproved of scientific men condescending to witness *séances*; most of them are unwilling to suspect, and unable to detect, imposture; and he thought that, if any experts are to be present at those sad exhibitions, they ought to be professional conjurers. Not that he regarded all the reputed marvels as springing from imposture: many of them he ascribed to delusion. Both he and Mr. Babbage spoke of *Russian Scandal* as the most instructive of games; for it shows that a story, when passed on, will often gather bulk as rapidly as a snowball when rolled. On one occasion he heard that a friend of his own had pulled off the boot of a medium who was floating in the air. But his friend, being cross-questioned, said that he himself had not seen this feat performed, but that he had been told that other people had seen it! Another instance, which Sir Charles related is more curious, and involves a more momentous issue; for, if the fact were established, it might be thought both literally and metaphorically an *experimentum crucis* demonstrating Judaism to be true and Christianity to be false. He was told that a Jewish lady, when paying a visit to a noted Spiritualist, was shown into a room where there was a model of the great bell of Moscow, which is surmounted by a cross; suddenly, of its own accord, the Christian symbol broke away from the bell, and, as she approached, it fell at her feet, as the image of Dagon fell before the ark. My scientific and my orthodox readers will learn with equal satisfaction that this significant portent was explained away. On further inquiry, Wheatstone discovered that his informants had rightly reported the fact that the miniature cross had fallen at the Jewess's feet, but that they had omitted the previous fact, that the Jewess had been handling the miniature cross, and had unintentionally broken it off!

This is a short summary of what Wheatstone told me in regard to the spiritualistic belief,—a belief which endows material bodies with magical properties; but, before taking leave of this rank idolatry, I will myself add one observation. Suppose that at a *séance*, when the guests are assembled and the lights are extinguished, Mr. A. found that his purse had migrated from his own pocket into that of his more astute neighbour Mr. B., and suppose that Mr. B. urged the plea that, as not only men, but tables, can fly about like birds, it is not incredible that purses may do the like.—what rejoinder would be given to this plea? If it was noted as a suspicious circumstance that the purse made its pilgrimage when the candles were out, it would be obvious to answer that table-worshippers are like pickpockets in this, that they love darkness rather than light. If it was further contended that all experience shows that purses are bound by the law of gravitation, it might be replied that, thirty years ago, to claim for tables immunity from that law was regarded as a novelty. In a word, if faith began to move tables in 1845, why may it not begin to move purses in 1885? And, conversely, if at a pickpocket's trial the notion of the "levitation" of purses would be at once hooted out of court, how long will public opinion tolerate the belief in the levitation of tables and of human bodies?

In undertaking to write about Dean Stanley, I am filled with apprehension—

"Ne parva Tyrrenum per æquor
Vela darem."

An orthodox clergyman once described a party at the Deanery as made up of "lordlings and atheists." This cynical comment was most unjust; but I quote it as illustrating the wide scope of Stanley's influence. He was universally as well as deservedly popular; and, like the Angel in the Apocalypse who stood "upon the sea and upon the earth," he kept his balance while supported by elements the most discordant. In writing about such a man, one must needs raise expectations which, in the present instance, will not be satisfied. So I had better mention, once for all, that I only made (the future) Dean Stanley's acquaintance when I was an undergraduate in 1856, and that (with one exception) my intercourse with him closed in 1868. The following notes are mostly compiled from conversations which occurred during that interval. And they make no pretence of being a complete portrait of one who eminently deserves the praise bestowed by Ennius on Scipio:—

"Quem plurimæ consentiunt gentes primarium fuisse virum."

I once asked Dean Stanley's greatest friend at Oxford whether he did not consider Stanley's memory to be unsurpassed. "No," was the reply, "Conington has a better memory, but Stanley has a more useful one." But retentiveness of memory was not the only point that the two old Rugbeians had in common. I remember getting into a singular discussion with Professor Conington as to whether music at an evening party was or was not to be desired. Conington objected to it as a bar to conversation, whereas I (being then a shy undergraduate) welcomed it as an excuse for silence. Nevertheless, in our general estimate of music we agreed. It is well known that Stanley set a like value on it, and that, if he had chanced to take note of Keats's twofold statement that—

"Heard melodies are sweet, but those unheard
Are sweeter;"

it would have been to the latter of the propositions that he would have limited his assent.

The following anecdote I can vouch for. When the Protestant persecution against Ritualism at St. George's-in-the-East was at its hottest, the Dean with his usual chivalry gave his presence and support to Mr. Bryant King. Even his silvery eloquence failed to command attention, and the sermon was more than once interrupted by unseemly brawling. On leaving the church, the Dean, hard put to for some mark of kindness and sympathy, remarked,—“At any rate, Mr. King, I can congratulate you on your music. I never remember to have heard more hearty congregational singing.” The fact was, that Protestants had started “God save the Queen” in opposition to the Rector's choir, and the Decani and Anti-Decani had exercised their lungs *à qui mieux mieux*.

That a musical ear could have been wholly wanting in men of such imagination as Conington and Stanley, would seem incredible, if there were not many instances of the like kind. The anomaly suggests a question which has often puzzled me—Why is this unfortunate defect so often discovered in persons of intellectual tastes, but hardly ever in persons without those tastes? Is it that the failing is specially incident to studious persons, being (in theological language) a thorn in the flesh sent to buffet them, or (in scientific language) being the result of some mysterious “correlation of growth”?—or is it that unintellectual persons are in an equal degree liable to the deficiency, but that they are ashamed to acknowledge it?

This, however, was not the only form of anæsthesia conspicuous in Stanley. He was wanting in the sense of taste, and is reported to have said that the only food he liked was bread-and-butter, because it *went down so smoothly*. Aristotle would have said that he had *ἄφῆ*, but not *γεῖσις*. It will even appear that his appetite was not a sufficient guide to him as to the amount he required. His relations assured me that at breakfast he would (after the Pauline fashion) eat those things that were set before him, asking no questions; but that, when he had come to the end of his help, it was hard to induce him to take another. This difficulty, however, was evaded with an ingenuity worthy of the friends of Dominie Sampson. When the Dean was deep in conversation with his neighbour on one

side, Lady Augusta or Miss Stanley would from time to time come on the other side, and surreptitiously refill his empty plate. They thus contrived that his childlike *ætas improvida ludificetur Laborum tenuis . . . deceptaque non capitur.*

Mrs. Stanley told the writer's father that she found her son an admirable *cicerone* in the Manchester Exhibition. But his interest in the pictures was historical rather than artistic. It has even been said that natural scenery, of which he has left such picturesque descriptions, was valued by him only for its associations. But, if we admit this, we must use the word *association* in a wide sense; for he was keenly alive to the grandeur and solemnity of certain places, especially of what may be called dim religious valleys. Thus, he told me that he (perhaps rather unwillingly) found the sacred sites of Palestine less impressive than those of Greece, especially than Delphi.

It may be convenient to take this opportunity of recording one or two more of his notes of travel. He made a tour in Spain in the autumn of 1880; and observed that, in some Spanish churches, the screen, instead of separating the choir from the nave, is brought down towards the centre of the nave. In this particular they reminded him of Westminster Abbey; and he regarded the resemblance as not merely accidental, but as capable of being historically explained.

He gave a curious account of an interview with Pius IX. He said that the Pope expressed great regret at some trifling illness or accident which had befallen the Queen, and that it was difficult to make him understand that the great sorrow of her Majesty's life was her widowhood. Perhaps, however, this difficulty may have been due to the fact that the Dean was not a good French scholar, and that the Pope was a very bad one. Indeed, a lady who was privately presented to his Holiness, assured me that he spoke with the warmest sympathy of the Queen's bereavement, and said he was "*très ennuyé de l'entendre*" (meaning, of course, *fâché*).

The Dean went on to say that the Pope asked him: "*Connaissez-vous Pusey?*" Stanley thought that he said: "*Etes-vous épousé?*" (the correct word, I need hardly add, would have been *marié*.) After this little misunderstanding had been cleared up and the answer duly given, the Pope exclaimed: "*Pusey c'est une cloche qui sonne, sonne, sonne, pour inviter tout le monde à l'église, et qui lui-même n'y entre jamais.*"

The Dean was curious to learn whether the epigram was the Pope's own; on inquiry, he came to the conclusion that it was original, but not extemporaneous. The comparison is certainly a happy one, and may recall a beautiful passage in the *Souvenirs de ma Jeunesse*, which will be familiar to readers of the Journal.

From these few remarks on Dean Stanley's travels, I pass on to his views on politics and literature. He was an enthusiastic admirer of Scott's novels; and once, when he had been present at a debate in the Oxford Union, in which Claverhouse was vehemently attacked, he intimated that modern Liberals are too apt to apply the standard of their own day to the Tories of former times. Like most of us, he inclined more and more to Conservatism in advancing years. Indeed, I suspect that, in certain states of mind, he was disposed rather to accept than to welcome democracy; and that he acquiesced in it with the sort of resignation with which, according to his friend Clough, an imaginative philosopher might acquiesce in his future bride,—

"Not as the thing he would wish, but the thing he must even put up with."

His conduct after the death of the Prince Imperial led some Liberals to think that he was a strong partisan of the Napoleons. It may therefore be interesting to record a few remarks which (in or about 1867) he made respecting the Emperor. Some years before, an Englishman of my acquaintance, who had been kind to Louis Napoleon during his exile, received from him, when the Empire was established, a very friendly letter, which was followed by more substantial marks of favour. On being asked whether he had not first written something very complimentary which had led to this warm acknowledgment from his old friend, the Englishman

answered: "I told him what I firmly believe, that he is the greatest man since Alexander the Great." Arthur Stanley, on hearing of this incident, seemed surprised that Louis Napoleon could swallow such audacious flattery, but spoke of his recollection of his old friends as a "very fine" trait in his character. He also referred to the Emperor's great affection for his son, though (as he truly said) there was in this nothing very remarkable. He strongly condemned the *coup d'état*. It being remarked that Louis Napoleon was described in the *Saturday Review* as "the most extraordinary adventurer of modern times," the Dean observed that in this comment "adventurer" was the emphatic word. When some one spoke of the Emperor's success as wonderful, he pointed out that this success was purchased at the cost of principle; and he insisted strongly and repeatedly that in the struggle of life, if one party adheres to principle, while the other consents to lay it aside, the two parties are contending with very unequal weapons. Such was his judgment of the means by which the Empire was set up. What he thought of the Empire itself, is another matter. Did he, like Mr. Grote, look upon the French as unfit for self-government? And did he, on that account, acquiesce in the Empire as a less evil than anarchy? I do not know. Yet I cannot help thinking that he regarded the manner in which the Imperial authority was exercised as less culpable than the manner in which it was obtained. So that Louis Napoleon probably appeared to him—if not as an inverted Galba, *indignus imperio nisi imperasset*—at any rate, as a *τύραννος* rather than a tyrant.

French literature as well as French politics occupied his attention. He made some interesting remarks about M. Taine's *Histoire de la Littérature Anglaise*. He had been told that this work contains a curiously materialistic passage, to the effect that virtue and vice are as much material products as vinegar and salt. But he had failed to notice this passage. Indeed, he was struck by the great and even excessive praise which M. Taine bestows on the Church of England. The remark was made, that M. Taine has passed an unfavourable verdict on *Paradise Lost*. He holds that Bunyan's picture of the celestial regions is attractive, if not natural; whereas Milton's heaven is a *Whitehall grossier*, and his god is a facsimile of Charles I. He also seems to think that Milton has transplanted English life and respectability amid the unfamiliar trees and the too familiar serpents of the Garden of Eden. With this last criticism Dean Stanley agreed, so far as to admit that the description of patriarchal life in *Paradise Lost* is far less accurate than in Lord Byron's "Cain." In reference to the other comment, he contended that the great charm of *Paradise Lost* lies in the diction, and that this can hardly be appreciated by a foreigner.

He thought that people are apt to exaggerate the superiority of *Paradise Lost* to *Paradise Regained*. He discovered more "sustained grandeur" in the latter poem than in the former. *Paradise Regained* has, on the one hand, nothing so unnatural as the invention of gunpowder by the rebel angels, while, on the other hand, it has nothing equal to the famous passage about Abdiel. He spoke of Addison's Commentary on Milton as indifferent in itself, but as interesting chronologically, being the earliest criticism of the kind. I will take this opportunity of adding, that I consulted him as to the comparative merits of Carey's and Longfellow's translations of Dante. He thought that Carey's is the better translation, but that Longfellow's has the advantage in respect of the notes.

He also gave me some useful hints about *vers de société*. The occasion of his counsel was a serio-comic squib which I wrote about Fenianism, and which he most kindly looked over in manuscript. He remarked to me that editors are "funny people." They are bound to represent the general reader, and, unless they are "very stupid," they soon find out exactly what that nondescript person will like. He owned that to himself the taste of general readers and of pliant editors was often an enigma. By way of illustration, he told me that he thought Mr. Trevelyan's "Ladies in Parliament," and the poems of Mr. Locker were much less popular than their deserts. He

suggested to me, that the general reader is disposed to admire, without understanding, the classics; and that, in order to humour him, it would be prudent to call my squib by a classical name. He detected some resemblance between the verses and a parabasis of the Old Comedy, and accordingly, at his suggestion, they were published under the title of "An Aristophanic Chorus."

This advice well illustrates what may be termed the Dean's practical scholarship. What his friend said of his memory in general, is especially true of his memory in regard to the classics. Though many persons possessed wider and more accurate scholarship, few were able to turn their scholarship to better account in the way of general illustration. He was quick to discern resemblances and differences between ancient and modern modes of thought. In explanation of my meaning, the following not very satisfactory example must suffice. He told me that, except the phrase *ἡλίου δύντος αὐγαῖς*, he could hardly remember an instance in which a classical writer referred to the setting sun; the fact was that they disliked the idea of sunset, and recoiled from the end of everything. Whether he was right, nay, whether he was quite serious, in this opinion, I am not certain. At any rate, in modern as well as in ancient times, the *finifugal* tendency, as we may call it, is apparent. It takes manifold forms and disguises. One has especially noticed it in friends who, like Shelley, have a morbid abhorrence of wishing one good-bye; who feel this abhorrence strongly in proportion as they like one, and are fearful that they will never see one again; and who, though truthful in other matters, will resort to any evasion or artifice to throw dust in one's eyes as to the day of their departure.

The Dean was amused at the Greek newspapers giving the name of *ἡ ἔξτρασις τοῦ σαββατοῦ* to the *Saturday Review*; and he laughingly said that this shows that the Greeks are not sabbatarians. He thought that Homer designed the word *πολυφλοίσβοιο* to represent the sound of the sea; and he added that, though the word, as we pronounce it, may resemble the roaring of the waves on our coast, the modern Greek pronunciation is more like the gentle rippling of the Mediterranean.

When first I made his acquaintance, Buckle's History was in everybody's mouth. Professor Conington thought that Mill was a great man, and that Buckle was only a clever man. Arthur Stanley praised Buckle far more warmly. If I remember right, it was at Stanley's table that a lady asked Buckle what he believed. "I had rather," he replied, "that you asked me what I do not believe." It was, I think, in answer to a question by the same lady that Dean Stanley thus expressed Buckle's view: "Physical science never faileth: but whether there he faith it shall fail; whether there he hope it shall cease; whether there be charity it shall vanish away." The Dean was a great admirer of Clough, and told me that Clough used to be regarded as the "Rugby genius." It is, therefore, not impossible that Stanley's epigram may have been unconsciously borrowed from Clough's lines:—

"Not as the Scripture says is, I think, the fact. Ere our death-day,
Faith, I think, does pass and love, but knowledge abideth."

There is, however, probably a difference between the words "Faith" and "Love" as used by Stanley, and as used by Clough. Stanley employed the words in their natural sense; whereas Clough may have designed "Love" to include zeal for human progress, and "Faith" to include belief in that progress.

(To be continued).

EDUCATION OF WOMEN IN IRELAND.*

YOU are aware that the struggle for the improvement of women's education has been carried on in the north of

* Paper read by Mrs. Byers, Ladies' Collegiate School, Belfast, at a meeting of the Irish Schoolmistresses' Association, held at the Alexandra College, Dublin.

Ireland as vigorously as in any part of the three kingdoms, during the last fifteen years. The two great factors at work have been private enterprise schools and the Belfast Ladies' Institute. The Ladies' Institute is a committee of eight ladies, representing different denominations in Belfast. It has been working with the greatest vigour and harmony all these years. Among its pioneer efforts, it memorialized for the opening of University examinations to women. It obtained exhibitions and prizes, and awarded them in connexion with these examinations. At the time of the passing of the Irish Intermediate Act, the Ladies' Institute memorialized Government to consider the wants of girls, and collected leading men and women to present this memorial, and to bring influence to bear on the promoters of the measure to include girls in its benefits. Quite lately, mainly through the influence of the Institute, the Senate of Queen's College, Belfast, has opened its Honour classes to lady students who wish to obtain degrees in the Royal University. It was the Belfast Ladies' Institute that first invited northeru Irish schoolmistresses to meet in conference, and, acting the part of a committee, called our Ulster Association into existence. Not only in Belfast but widely throughout the province, we honour and trust this noble band of women. Their oneness of spirit has been largely repeated in the schoolmistresses who are associated with them in their efforts to improve education. It was a matter of great joy to them and to us, when we heard that you proposed to form a somewhat similar association in Dublin, and that you were desirous of starting branches of that society in other parts of Ireland.

While not considering ourselves a branch, as we desire to maintain our own independence, we at the same time ardently wish that the most perfect harmony, sympathy, and union shall be maintained between the two Associations.

Our aims being the same, and our difficulties in a great measure alike, there is no doubt but that we may be helpful to each other and to our great work, by frequent and friendly counsel in any important steps that we may see good to take in the future in reference to the education of Irish girls.

When my fellow-workers in the north elected me one of their correspondents with your Irish Schoolmistresses' Association, with the Intermediate Board, and with the Royal University, while sensible of the honour, I was more deeply impressed with the trust committed to me by them. By this trust I feel in honour bound, in every demand made by me as their representative, not to look simply at my own interest, but at the best means of advancing education in the smallest and most struggling ladies' school in the most remote part of the district which I, as a correspondent, represent; and I presume we are all here in the same spirit, having the strong desire to help each other, to bear one another's burdens as far as we possibly can, and so to fulfil the law of Christ.

Those of us who took the initiative in demanding from Government an interest for girls in the provisions about to be made by the passing of the Intermediate (Ireland) Act in 1878, expected much from the granting of the request, and, though there are some further changes that we desire, still our brightest anticipations have been more than realized.

We must all admit that, under the new stimulus, girls' studies are of a weightier and more educating character, while the yearly improvement in accuracy of thought and expression, as shown by the marks in the Results Books published by the Board, is truly gratifying.

The fact that so many heads of schools, and other ladies, have supported an appeal to the Intermediate Board not to differentiate studies for boys and girls, is another proof that we have now gained a position that four years ago we did not even hope to reach. Reasoning about this very subject before an academic audience at Cambridge two years ago, Mr. Fitch speaks as if he understood our present difficulties and were pleading our cause. He says,—“Nor do I think it at all desirable, in selecting a subject of experimental science for school purposes, to be strongly influenced by considering whether your pupils are boys or girls, or what particular uses

they may happen to make of the knowledge hereafter in the business of life. At first it seems obvious that Mechanics, for example, is a specially masculine study, that it connects itself with many of the occupations which boys are likely to follow. But, after all, the number of men who require in their business or profession to be skilled in practical Mechanics is very small, and the true reason for teaching such a subject at all is, that the learner may know something of the properties of matter, the nature of statical and dynamic forces, and the way in which facts of the visible world ought to be acquired; and all these things have just as close a relation to the needs of a woman's life as to those of a man. Again, to a superficial observer, Botany seems as if it were specially a feminine pursuit. There is a very obvious and natural association between girls and flowers. It is pleasant to think of young maidens in trim gardens, culling posies.

“The rose had been washed, just washed in a shower,
Which Mary to Anna conveyed.”

But such associations do not at all prove that Botany is a specially appropriate study for young ladies; Botany considered as a science, the investigation of the parts, the structure and function of the plants, there is nothing exclusively feminine in it. The truth is, that Mechanics and Botany are both equally fitted, in the case of either boys or girls, to serve the purpose which experimental science is meant to serve.”

I am so accustomed to regard this subject in the light in which Mr. Fitch puts it, that I do not know the arguments which have induced the Irish Intermediate Board to make the retrograde movement that it has gradually been introducing. I think it would be well to have the reasons stated, if they are known to any one present, that we may be familiar with them before meeting the Assistant Commissioners to-morrow.

With regard to the proposed limitation of the programme by subjects instead of marks, those of us who have pupils preparing for the Universities may be inclined to welcome that plan. I should like, with your permission, to read an extract from a letter of a member of our Ulster Association who takes an opposite view:—

“We must remember there is a large number of boys and girls who take advantage of the Intermediate Examinations who have no special talent for either Languages or Mathematics, and whose circumstances prevent them from devoting much time to the study of these subjects. The method of limiting the subjects of the candidate is unfair, inasmuch as it gives an undue advantage to one comparatively small class of students—namely, those who have received a Classical and Mathematical training. In a system of examinations which aims at supplying the wants of different classes of students, and which offers no special inducement to the pursuit of any branch of study, this fact ought not to be overlooked. If such subjects as Botany, Chemistry, Drawing, Music, and Domestic Economy are proper subjects for examination, then the candidates who desire to be examined in them should be allowed the same advantages as those who study Greek, Latin, &c. But if the limitation of subjects be enforced, no one will select a subject the total number of marks assigned to which is only 200 or 500, when he may select one with a total of 1,200 or 1,700. Thus, these subjects are forced out of the programme, and the liberty of choice afforded by the present system of examinations is practically at an end. For the sake of securing a place at the examination, candidates will spend years acquiring a smattering of subjects which they will never have time nor inclination to pursue farther, while the same time devoted to more congenial studies would give them a fair knowledge of some less abstruse and more useful subject.”

There is another objection to the proposed limitation, which is even more important than the foregoing. This is the impossibility of awarding prizes or exhibitions on the answering at a competitive examination in which the number of marks attainable by different candidates is not the same. In the junior grade the total attainable by a candidate who selects the heavily marked subjects is 7,200, while that attainable by one who makes a different selection may be as low as 3,700. What fairness can there be in awarding an exhibition or prize to the former for answering say 50 per cent. on his papers, and refusing it to the latter for 90 per cent? It may be said that the latter can-

didate, by choosing less important subjects, or those requiring less work, deliberately places himself on a lower level than the former. But important considerations may have influenced his choice, and he ought not to be compelled by an arbitrary restriction as to the number of subjects, to offer to the test of examination a less amount of work than he could fairly undertake.

The only object in restricting the subjects of examination is to provide that candidates may not be tempted to overwork themselves for the sake of their place in examinations. The marks assigned to each subject have been given after a careful consideration of the importance of the subject, and the amount of work required to master it; therefore, the only method of obtaining an equal amount of work from those competing with each other is to limit the marks attainable by each candidate. This secures equal exertion, but leaves the direction of the exertion to the judgment of the candidate or of those to whom he submits the decision, and does not compel all to run in the same groove, no matter how unsuited the subject may be for them, both as regards mental training and future utility.

But, while a limitation by marks is desirable, the present maximum (7,000) may be in some respects unsuitable. In the junior grade it seems to allow both to boys and girls a sufficiently wide course:—Latin, Greek, English, Mathematics (not including Book-keeping), French, German, Natural Philosophy, Music, Drawing. In the middle grade, I think that there would be some danger of subjects marked above 500 being crushed out of the programme of those who take Greek. Taking Greek, Latin, English, French, German, Mathematics, the total marks would be 6,700, leaving a deficiency of 300 marks. This might be supplied by Theory of Music, while Natural Philosophy—a more useful subject—would necessarily be excluded, or perhaps German would be left out, and two subjects with a maximum of 500 marks each would be chosen. This difficulty could be met by raising the total marks attainable to 7,200, and, as this change would be made to suit those who take Greek, those who do not take Greek might be accommodated by a slight change in the marking of less important subjects, such as Botany and Domestic Economy. In the senior grade, the great difference in the system of marking between boys and girls creates many unnecessary difficulties, and makes it difficult to suggest any arrangement of the programme which would be suitable for both.

There are many points, if there were time, that we should all wish to have fully discussed in a meeting like the present; but as distances are so great, and we are most of us so fully occupied that we can neither prolong our conference nor meet as often as we would wish, perhaps some questions of general interest might be taken up in papers which might be circulated and criticised by all, even the most distant members of both Associations. In this way we could diffuse a more general interest, and obtain a consensus of opinion that cannot, I fear, be gained in any other way.

A paper on “University Training for Girls of intelligence, and the best means of obtaining it,” would elicit, no doubt, diversity of opinion and good practical results. “The importance of raising Scholarships for Girls after the ordinary school period;” and “Where should Higher Education be given?—should we encourage the habit of sending girls to Colleges already established in England? and, if not, how can we meet the demand for Higher Education at home?” “How are we to provide for the Training of Teachers? and how are we to obtain remunerative employment in this country for women who are thoroughly educated and trained?” “How are girls, the daughters of professional men and of decayed gentlemen, out of the reach of good schools, to be furnished with even a good intermediate education?” “How can we awaken men to a more practical sense of the importance of a higher education for women?”

The Health Question in reference to preparing for examinations, is another subject about which all thoughtful school-mistresses would have something to say that ought to be worth hearing.

But, while we turn our attention to subjects of this kind, let us not forget that, in addition to the training of the intellect,

we must consider questions that relate to the more important duty of moulding the character and the life. And as we try to rise to the dignity of our office, let us never forget that our unconscious influence, the spirit in which our daily work is done, and the motives that are seen to actuate our conduct, affect, far more than we can possibly realize, the destiny, not only of our immediate pupils, but of future generations.

THE CRUSTACEAN PERIOD OF BOYHOOD.

THERE is not a more cheerful object in Nature than a healthy upper middle-class English boy from 9 to 14 years of age. His senses are highly acute, his muscles firm and elastic, and a general intense vigour of life pervades his whole being. Nevertheless, this lively organism is shunned as the plague by all discerning persons. Why is this? Because the modern ingenuous youth requires so much attention, so much paraphernalia, besides a self-denying adult in constant attendance, deputed to ward off the sundry and manifold evils which infest the unescorted wearer of the *toga prætexta*.

In the biographies of the early days of great men, we constantly find the self-denying adult mentioned generally turning out to be a woman, frequently a maiden aunt. Thus it was in the cases of Gibbon, Arnold, and Gambetta.

But most people are not self-denying, and dislike their comforts interfered with. Hence the young lad goes to a boarding-school; from 9 to 13 years of age to a preparatory school; thence to a public school. The youthful urchin, having been "grounded" previously in the three R's, proceeds to a further "grounding" in Latin, Greek, and mathematics, with dribbets of French, science, music, and drawing according to taste.

Here the first marked difference in boyish life takes place. We all know the sentimental slender little fellow under petticoat government, with his soft silky hair and wonderful eyes, who has such profound interest in the "how," the "when," and the "why," who utters such quotable remarks.

We feel a deep admiration for this display of talent, and only hope that such premature bloom will not find an early grave.

We see our young hero, perhaps after five or six years, metamorphosed by his preparatory school and that arch-metamorphoser, Geraskôn Chronos.

All the little fellow's ideality has vanished with his first set of ineisors; he would now scorn to waste his time in metaphysical enquiry. All such questions he considers "rot." But fishing-rod, cricket-bat, tennis or billiard-ball, dogs, horses, boats, guns, &c., the *Field* newspaper, sausages or potted lobster, &c., have charms to soothe his now savage breast. He has gone through the collecting manias of early childhood—postage stamps, bird's eggs, butterflies, moths, and such like.

Even so tender a spirit as Bishop Pattison appears to have passed through a crustacean period at Eton, about twelve years old.

Dean Stanley is an example of a sensitive boy who, greatly owing to the influence of his mother's "porcelain understanding,"* did not develop the usual crustacean hardness for his own self-protection among other boys. For, doubtless, the phenomenon is largely due to *severa necessitas*.

Those boys who have been shielded like greenhouse plants from all malign influences, and who have never departed from their "caretaker," still put forth buds of sentiment, are open to gnomish remarks from elderly relatives, and do not shudder at all books not bound in chrome-yellow.

In fact, the one thing which can be predicated with certainty of an average school-boy, besides his discriminating taste in pastry and potted meats, is his avoidance of printed matter.

He may deign to consult Bradshaw on his journeys, or the athletic-sports corner of the *Times* in a period of ennui; or he will study the deceased wife's sister question in his prayer book at church, or buy a yellow-backed novel at a railway stall:

but this is the very utmost that he achieves in literature; tending to the views of the ancient Persians sadly more than his anxious parents approve of.

In biographies of celebrated persons, we read constantly that "Plutarch's Lives" appears to throw them into an ecstasy of delight; the modern school-boy knows it not, and finds Scott's novels dull.

The early intense contempt for women implanted in the youthful male breast by classical smatterings and worship of athleticism is very prominent in the crustacean period, and much increased by the frivolity and idleness of mothers and sisters. If mothers accompanied their young sons through the public school primer, not even flinching at prolate infinitives or seemingly adjectival, but really adverbial clauses; if they would master the mysteries of *ûv*, and feel no confusion of mind between a pyrrhic and a tribrach, their boys' literary progress would be wonderfully more rapid, and that often too painfully veracious document known as Charley or Reggy's "character" would take a less sensational, but more satisfactory tone. Mothers, if they took some intelligent interest in parasangs and postages, need not so often have to write to their intimate friends:—"We feel very anxious about dearest Monty; I am afraid Dr. Mortimer does not understand the dear boy's peculiarities." But too often the mother has a secret persuasion that her son is a richly-endowed being, and she is above all things anxious that he should associate only with "gentlemen's sons."

The modern school-boy is fond of his school; not with the idealizing fondness of a middle-aged man; but he likes the paternal, almost grandmotherly discipline now in vogue. The excessive roughness of manners displayed even as lately as 30 or 40 years ago, depicted in "Tom Brown's School Days," is now comparatively obsolete: bullying is greatly on the decrease; flogging minimized to the utmost.

The picturesque quaintness of old discipline, such as that so graphically related of a school (1812) in Archdeacon Denison's "Notes of My Life," where a grave offence done by any particular boy was made vicariously universal to all the other boys, each of whom had to write home to his parents an account of the delinquency,—such local colour is gone, and, like thatched cottages and small diamond-paned windows, is probably more agreeable to look at, or to talk of, than to experience.

Also, it would, I think, have a dubious result, if transcendentalism were tried on an English boy now, such as was actually carried into practice by A. Bronson Alcott at a school in Boston, Mass. (1834), when (as Mr. M. D. Conway relates) "The teacher, having found by experience that the rod was ineffectual for discipline, announced one day that thereafter it should fall only on—himself! The boys pleaded with tears and cries to be spared the disgrace of striking their mild and good teacher, but he was inexorable. The plan was effectual, and the ferule appeared no more." The organisation of our great public schools at the present time is very perfect—in fact, one may say too good; for every hour, almost every minute, of the boy's time is accounted for: his days are mapped out by routine, and both work and play are compulsory, at any rate in the lower forms.

Perhaps parents are hardly aware that public school education is little more than—to use Rossetti's language—"a track of dust and dead leaves that leads to the fountain" (that fountain of knowledge and power known as the *sixth form*), which, unless a boy reaches, his parents' money will have been spent mostly in vain.

In this rarefied atmosphere of intellect, the boy thoroughly drops all crustacean habits. Even mean understandings, incapable of ganging his classical or scientific attainments, can discern that his dress is scrupulously neat, his manners condescendingly affable and urbane, and that the daintiness of young manhood begins to appear. He buys a razor and scrapes away at his chin; he modulates his harsh voice with insinuating tones. All his friends declare, "How improved Cecil is! He is so very gentlemanly."

Cheerful object as the boy is in the crustacean period, we prefer him in the more civilised state of *jeune premier*.

* Sidney Smith.

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THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN AMERICA.

By Miss COOPER,

Head-mistress of the Edgbaston High School for Girls.

(Continued from p. 280.)

THE next training institution which I visited was the Girls' Normal College at Philadelphia. Here there are nearly 1000 pupils, and 300 in the practising school.

Here the practical training is conducted on a different plan from that adopted in the New York Normal College. The student-teacher is attached to a certain class for a time, which varies as the circumstances and needs of the college and the student-teachers vary. The first part of this time is spent entirely in observation of the class, and the work done therein. Notes are taken, and questions on points of difficulty are asked of the teacher. After some time spent as an observer, the student-teacher becomes a teacher's assistant, and gives assistance in various ways to the mistress of the class, and under her direction. After this second period comes a third, in which the student-teacher acts as teacher, giving lessons to the whole class, subject to the visitation and inspection of the principal and the mistress of method. The criticisms of the principal and the mistress of method are carefully gone over with the student-teachers in class assembled.

But I must not linger over descriptions of training institutions which I visited, for I could not do justice to them in the brief space of this paper.

I think you will perhaps gain a better general idea of the aims and methods of some of these institutions by the following extracts from some printed reports.

I will first take the Annual Catalogue, as it is called, of the Maryland State Normal School, dated June, 1881. This school is situated at Baltimore. In this report, the number of students given is 264, 30 of whom are gentlemen. There is also a Model School attached, and in this all the grades of Primary, Grammar, and High Schools are represented. I may say that I saw much in this school which called forth my admiration.

"MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, BALTIMORE.—The Maryland State Normal School, established by the School Law of 1865, and re-organized under the law of 1868, is intended for the instruction and practice of teachers in the science of education, the art of teaching, and the mode of governing schools."

"Candidates must be not less than sixteen years of age if young women, and not less than seventeen if young men, and must file a

written declaration that their object in obtaining admission is to qualify themselves as Public School teachers, and that it is their intention to engage in the profession of teaching within the State.

Expenses.—Students appointed by the County School Boards or by the Baltimore City Board are under no expense for tuition, ordinary school-books, and stationery. In addition to the regular appointees, there will be received, as required by law, a limited number of students of the proper age and scholastic acquirements, 'who shall pay twenty-five dollars per session for tuition, and purchase their own text-books.' Such students will not be required to file a declaration to become teachers.

Course of Instruction.—1st Term: Latin Grammar—through the conjugation of the verbs; Arithmetic—rapid combinations of simple numbers; Singing—notes and exercises; Algebra—to the beginning of simple equations; Geography—maps of Europe, Asia, Africa, North and South America, United States, Maryland; Drawing—first series; English Composition; Calisthenics. 2nd Term: Latin Reader; History—16th to 19th centuries, inclusive; Arithmetic—reviewed and completed; Algebra—to the end of quadratic equations; Physiology and Botany; Drawing—second series; English Literature and Composition; Singing; Calisthenics. 3rd Term: Geometry—four books; Physics; Bookkeeping by double entry; Latin—Virgil; Botany; Theory and Practice of Teaching; Drawing—third series; Singing; Calisthenics. 4th Term: Chemistry; English Literature; Elocution; Parsing and Analysis of English Sentences; Theory and Practice of Teaching; Trigonometry and Surveying (optional); General Review of all Studies.

"Inquiries are often made regarding the length of time required to complete the course. It is impossible to give a definite answer to this question. The examination for diplomas is open to all students in good standing who have been at the school for one year. Experience shows that, while some students have graduated in one year, the majority require two years, and some three years. Students differ very greatly both in natural ability, and acquired preparation. It is not expected that all shall make equal advancement in equal times. To fail to pass an examination is of itself no disgrace. The disgrace lies in the want of due diligence; or, still more, in the desire to seem to be what one is not.

"The main object of the school is to give professional training to those who intend to become teachers, and all the departments of study are considered as means to this end. But the general course is well adapted to those who have no professional object in view, and wish merely to obtain a thorough and liberal education. Certificates will be given to all who complete the required course, and to no others; but the diploma of the school, which authorizes the holder to teach in any public school in the State, is not given until after one year's successful experience as a teacher."

I will now give you some extracts from the regulations adopted by the School Board of Boston for their Normal School, as given in their Report for 1881. I visited this school, but I did not see enough of its work to pronounce judgment upon it.

"1. The Boston Normal School is established for the purpose of giving professional instruction to young women who intend to become teachers in the public schools of Boston.

"2. The head-master shall be a graduate of a college in good standing. He shall have a first assistant, and as many second assistants as may be necessary, provided the whole number of teachers, exclusive of the head-master, shall not exceed one for every thirty pupils. An additional instructor may be elected for an excess of twenty pupils, and one may be removed for a deficiency of twenty. Special instruction in music and drawing shall be given in this school, under the direction of the committee on these departments.

"3. Candidates for admission must be at least eighteen years of age, unless an exception is made by a special vote of the committee in charge, and must be recommended for admission by the master or committee of the last school they attended. Those who have completed the fourth year of the High School course will be admitted without examination. Other candidates must show to the head-master, both by examination and recommendation, that they are qualified. All pupils shall be put on probation, and, as soon as in the opinion of the Board of Supervisors and the head-master they prove unsuitable for this school, shall be discharged by the committee on the school, if they deem proper; the probation to cease at the end of the half-year. No pupil who has attended the school for more than half a year shall return a second year without special permission from the committee in charge.

"4. The Board of Supervisors shall, from time to time, examine the pupils in the Normal School, and near the close of the school year recommend for graduation those whom they shall deem qualified; and the committee in charge shall grant diplomas to such of those thus recommended as shall have satisfactorily completed the course of study. When examinations in this school shall be conducted in writing, with questions or topics, the head-master thereof shall be consulted in their selection and preparation.

"5. A diploma of graduation from the Normal School, issued after the year 1872, shall entitle the holder to receive a fourth-grade certificate of qualification. When teachers are to be employed in the public schools, graduates of this school shall have the preference, other things being equal."

"9. When a graduate of this school is appointed as teacher in any public school of this city, it shall be the duty of the head-master to make, or cause to be made by his assistants, one or more visits to her school, for the purpose of criticism and suggestion in regard to her teaching.

"10. Such instruction shall be given, in connection with the Normal School, to teachers in the employ of the city, as the committee in charge may direct, the expense thereof not to exceed the sum of five hundred dollars a year. It shall be the duty of all newly appointed teachers to attend this instruction, when appropriate to their grade, not less than two hours a week for one year, and other teachers who need the instruction not less than twelve hours a year, if the classes are not full.

"11. The head-master shall send the Normal pupils into the public schools for observation and practice in teaching, under his direction, for not less than three months of each school year; and he may send them, under proper guidance, to study the museums of natural history and fine arts, and important manufacturing industries.

"12. There shall be a post-graduate course of one year in this school, for the study of the principles of education and methods of instruction, and for observation and practice in teaching; and pupils attending this course may be employed as substitutes, or temporary teachers, or appointed as permanent teachers.

"13. The course of study in this school is all pursued with special reference to teaching, and is as follows:—1. Mental and Moral Science and Logic; 2. Principles of Education, School Economy, and Methods of Instruction; 3. Physiology and Hygiene; 4. Natural Science; 5. Study of Language; 6. Elementary Studies; 7. Vocal Music, Drawing and Blackboard Illustrations; 8. Observation and Practice in the Training School; 9. Observation and Practice in the other public schools; 10. Sewing.

Training Department.—14. The Rice Training School is intended to give the pupils of the Normal School a practical knowledge of the methods and discipline in the public schools of Boston.

"15. The committee of the Normal School shall have charge of the Training School.

"16. The head-master of the Normal School shall have the direction of the observation, practice, and methods of instruction in the Training School, and the entire charge of the Primary Schools connected therewith, subject to the approval of the committee in charge."

Conditions of Admission.—A certificate that a candidate has completed the fourth year of the High School course is accepted as proof of qualification for admission. The course of study in the Boston High Schools embraces the following subjects:—Composition; Rhetoric; English Literature; Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern History; Civil Government; Botany; Zoology; Anatomy and Physiology; Chemistry; Physics; Astronomy; Arithmetic, including the Metric System; Algebra; Geometry; Plane Trigonometry; Latin, or French, or German; Vocal Music; and Drawing. Candidates who have not completed the fourth year of the Boston High School course will be examined on this or its equivalent."

Tuition.—The rule of the School Board in regard to the payment of tuition by non-resident pupils, applicable to the Normal School as well as the other public schools of the city, is as follows:—

"All children living in the city who are upwards of five years of age, and are not disqualified by non-compliance with the regulations of the Board, shall be entitled to attend the public schools; but neither a non-resident pupil nor one who has only a temporary residence in the city shall be allowed to enter or to remain in any school, unless the parent, guardian, or some other responsible person has signed an agreement to pay the tuition of such scholar, or until a certified copy of a vote of the Committee on Accounts permitting such scholar to attend the school has been transmitted to

the principal. The tuition the coming year will be about 85 dollars.

Necessity for Attendance.—The following extracts from the regulations of the Public Schools of the City of Boston will show the relation of the Normal School to the work of teaching in Boston:—

"The Board of Supervisors shall not admit to an examination (of applicants for situations as teachers) any person who is not a graduate of the Boston Normal School, or of one of the State Normal Schools, or who has not had at least one year's experience in teaching.

"The Board of Supervisors shall grant certificates of qualification for the several grades, after examination, to such candidates as they shall consider entitled to them, as follows:—

"*First Grade.*—To masters and junior masters of High Schools, and principals of evening High Schools.

"*Second Grade.*—To masters, sub-masters, and second sub-masters of Grammar Schools, principals of evening Elementary Schools, and assistants of evening Elementary High Schools.

"*Third Grade.*—To assistant principals, and assistants of High Schools.

"*Fourth Grade.*—To assistants of Grammar and Primary Schools.

"*Special Grade.*—To instructors in Special Studies, Schools for the Deaf, and Licensed Minors, and to assistants in evening Elementary Schools.

"No instructor shall be employed in any higher grade of schools than that for which the certificate shall qualify the holder thereof; and no instructor whose certificate is not recorded in the office of the Committee on Accounts shall be entitled to draw any salary as a teacher, or as a substitute; and the auditing clerk shall not allow the name of any such teacher or substitute to be entered or to remain on the pay-rolls."

I will next take the Circular of the State Normal School at Bridgewater, Massachusetts. Here we spent a very pleasant day, in the company of the secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education, who was there on an official visit of inspection and examination.

I found much to commend in this school, being especially struck with the thorough and practical character of much of the work that I saw done.

The number of pupils for the year 1881-82 was 194, of whom 148 were ladies. There is a small Practising School in connexion. There is also a Hall of Residence, provided for students from a distance.

"STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, BRIDGEWATER, MASS.

"This institution is one of the five State Normal Schools under the direction of the Massachusetts Board of Education. It was established by the Commonwealth, with the co-operation of the citizens of Bridgewater, and received the first class September 9th, 1840. The number of pupils who have been admitted is 2,810: gentlemen 931; ladies 1,879. The number of graduates is 1,691: gentlemen 585; ladies 1,106. The number of graduates from the four-years' course is 47: gentlemen 30; ladies 17.

"*Conditions of Admission.*—Candidates for admission, proposing to qualify themselves to become school teachers, must have attained the age of seventeen years complete if gentlemen, and sixteen years if ladies, and be free from any disease or infirmity which would unfit them for the office of teacher; must present a satisfactory certificate of good intellectual ability and high moral character; must declare their full intention of faithfully observing the regulations of the school while members of it, and afterwards teaching in the public schools of Massachusetts; and must pass a satisfactory examination in reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, geography, the history of the United States, and English grammar. A greater age and higher attainments than those prescribed, with some experience in teaching, make the course of study in the school much more valuable to the pupil. These requirements will be strictly enforced."

The Design of the School, and Courses of Study.—The Board of Education, by a vote passed May 6th, 1880, stated the design of the school and the course of studies for the State Normal Schools as follows:—

"The design of the Normal School is strictly professional; that is, to prepare, in the best possible manner, the pupils for the work of organizing, governing, and teaching the public schools of the Commonwealth.

"To this end, there must be the most thorough knowledge, first, of the branches of learning required to be taught in the schools;

second, of the best methods of teaching those branches; and third, of right mental training.

"The time of one course extends through a period of two years, of the other, through a period of four years, and is divided into terms of twenty weeks each, with daily sessions of not less than five days each week."

"*Studies.*—Two-years' Course—Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry, Bookkeeping, Physics, Astronomy, Chemistry, Physiology, Botany, Zoology, Mineralogy, Geology, Geography, Language, Reading, Orthography, Etymology, Grammar, Rhetoric, Literature, Composition, Penmanship, Drawing, Vocal Music, Gymnastics, Military Drill, Psychology, Science and Art of Education, School Organization, History of Education, Civil Polity of Massachusetts and of United States, History, School Laws of Massachusetts.

"*Four-years' Course.*—In addition to the studies named above, the four-years' course includes advanced Algebra and Geometry, Trigonometry and Surveying; Advanced Chemistry, Physics, and Botany; Drawing, English Literature; General History. Latin and French required; German and Greek, as the principal and visitors of the school shall decide.

"The above is an enumeration of the studies. The order of the studies in the course is determined by the principal of each school, with the approval of the visitors of that school."

"*Senior Class.—Education: Psychology.*—Definition and division of Psychology. The intellect—reason, the presentative, representative, and reflective powers. The sensibilities—the appetites, instinct, desires, affections. The will and the moral nature. The subject is taught from the facts of the pupil's consciousness. The end sought is the knowledge of the different powers of the mind, the order of their development, the conditions and products of their activity, and the ability to use this knowledge in the education of children.

"*Science and Art of Teaching.*—Principles of education, as derived from study of Psychology. The art of teaching—definitions; knowledge of the mind, the pupil, the subject; selection and arrangement of topics; methods of teaching; teacher's preparation; language, voice, and manner of the teacher; means of making the teaching impressive; object and method of criticism. Courses of study arranged for the primary, intermediate, and higher grades; method of teaching the topics in the primary course, and practice with children.

"*School Organization.*—What it is to organize a school. Advantages of a good organization. Opening of the school. Classification of the school. Distribution of studies. Arrangement of the exercises. Provisions relating to order.

"*School Government.*—Definition of government, and what government implies in the governor and in the subject. School government; definitions, the teacher's right to govern, and the end of school government. The motives to be used in school government, and the method of their application.—"*History of Education. School Laws of Massachusetts.*"

"*Principles and Methods of the School: Principles.*—The ultimate object of the Normal School is to make the Normal pupil as far as possible, an educator. The aim of this school is to give the pupil a definite idea of the true object, the principles, and the methods of instruction; a thorough knowledge of the objects and subjects he will need to teach, with such a degree of facility and skill in the application of these principles and this knowledge as will enable him to organize and control his own school and to educate his pupils. The mind is developed by the right exertion of all its powers. The presence to the mind of the proper object of thought is the condition for its activity. The manner of presenting the object to the mind determines the kind of activity excited, and the kind of knowledge acquired. There must be the selection of the *right objects* of thought, and the arrangement of the ideas to be taught in the right order. The idea must be acquired from the object, and be correctly expressed in speech and in writing.

"There must be the constant use of such motives as will secure right moral action. The products of the continued right exertion of all the powers of the mind are knowledge, mental power, and good character.

"The principles of education are derived from the study of the mind. The methods of teaching and training are determined by those principles.

"The teacher, as an educator, must know *what* the different mental powers are, the *order* of their development, and *how* they are called into right activity; and he must know each pupil as an individual. He must also know the *different kinds* of knowledge, the *order* of their acquisition, and the *method* of their acquisition.

"He is to form right *habits* of observation, of thought, of feeling, of action.

"A *course of studies* is required for the training of the mind. The course needed for this purpose is a series of objects and subjects for study, arranged according to the order of mental development. This course of studies, from the nature of the mind, must be in two divisions,—an elementary course, for training the mind in gaining a knowledge of facts about individual objects; and a scientific course, for training the reflective faculty in acquiring general ideas and truths, and knowledge systematically arranged. The elementary course must be so conducted as to prepare the mind for the scientific course.

"*Methods*.—All lessons are conducted on the topical plan. The object or subject is presented as a whole, next its parts, and then the relation of the parts. The topics for the study of an object are arranged in the *natural* order. The subject is presented as a whole, by clearly defining it to show what it includes. It is then analyzed into its main divisions, and each division is outlined in topics *logically arranged*.

"The lessons thus analytically arranged are assigned to the class, showing them what to study, and in what order; and each topic is taught to the class at the time the lesson is assigned, so far as is necessary to teach them how to study it so as to be able to teach or present it to the class. *Nothing is to be done for the pupil which he can do for himself.*

"After preparation, the class are thoroughly examined upon the lesson. The outline of topics is first stated, to present the lesson as a whole. The topics are then taught to the class by different pupils, the class and the teacher criticising the teaching; or the pupil presents the topic to the class, other pupils and the teacher make additions, and the class and teacher criticise the presentation. After the teaching or presenting, the teacher thoroughly questions the class on all the important points of the lesson.

"Each day a review of the preceding lesson is made, in its outline and main topics, to teach the relation of the topics. The subject, as a whole, is reviewed before leaving it, in its outline and main points, to teach all the parts in their relations.

"The teaching of the topics by the pupils secures the most thorough preparation of the lesson; for the pupil must know the subject, the logical arrangement of it, and how to teach it, or fail. It gives the pupil command of himself, makes him self-reliant, develops his individuality.

"All the class exercises, from the beginning of the course, are conducted upon the principles and by the methods that have been indicated. After the pupils have been trained in this way, to teach philosophically, in as full a measure as the time will allow, they come in the last term of the course to the study of psychology, and there learn the philosophy of their work by finding in the study of the mind the principles which underlie the methods they have learned to use; they also observe their application with primary and grammar school pupils in the 'school of observation,' and have some practice in teaching classes from this school.

"Text-books are used as books of reference in the preparation of the lessons. Statements of important principles and definitions are required to be memorized verbatim. The committing of text-books to memory is avoided, the students being trained to depend upon objects of thought rather than upon words.

"Students are expected to govern themselves; to do without compulsion, what is required; and to refrain voluntarily from all improprieties of conduct. Those who are unwilling to conform voluntarily to the known wishes of the principal and his assistants, are presumed to be unfit to become teachers.

"It is not deemed necessary to awaken a feeling of emulation in order to induce the scholars to perform their duties faithfully. Faithful attention to duty is encouraged for its own sake, and not for the purpose of obtaining certain marks of credit.

"*Examination, Graduation, and Employment*.—Examinations, oral and written, are made in each study; and the result in each must be satisfactory, to enable the pupil to advance to the studies next in order.

"The Diplomas are given only to those pupils who have satisfactorily passed the examinations in all the studies of the prescribed courses. Certificates are given to those who take a partial advanced course, and to college graduates who take a special course.

"Graduates of both sexes, from either course, are in quick demand to fill good positions in the public schools, especially those who have taught before coming to the school, and those graduating from the longer course.

"*Expenses and pecuniary aid*.—*Tuition is free to all who comply*

with the condition of teaching in the schools of Massachusetts, wherever they may have previously resided. Pupils who fail to comply with this condition are to pay a reasonable sum for tuition. A fee of two dollars is paid by each pupil, at the beginning of each term, for incidental expenses.

"*Books*.—Text-books in nearly all the required studies are furnished to students without charge."

POETRY.

THOMAS CARLYLE.

TWO SONNETS.

I.

What went ye out to see? A shaken reed,
Stirred into music by the lyric wind?
Or would ye bow before a regal mind,
Clothed in soft raiment of fair word and deed,
Sweetness and light, strong in the ancient creed
Of faith and hope and love, to bless mankind
With his consummate harmonies, and bind
The world to follow whither he might lead?
Why seek the waste and howling desert then?
Do kings and priests dwell in a wilderness
Of isolation? The Unseen has sent
A voice to trouble the dead lives of men.
This prophet came to curse and not to bless,
In echoing thunders moaning forth, "Repent!"

II.

On many a man descends the fire divine;
But foolish souls too oft its purpose foil
With false and idle tasks, that dim and soil
The lamp through which their light was meant to shine;
Or, having squandered, mad with life's new wine,
The precious gift, and, scorning care or toil,
Burnt up too early all the sacred oil;
Their flame goes out: but the pure blaze in thine
Was tended reverently, lest it should waste
In careless splendours such as fools admire;
For all thy work was done with all thy might,
Lessening the darkness, without rest or haste.
Thy spark was kindled in that central fire,
To which thine eyes were dim, the Light of Light.

ANNIE MATHESON.

CORRESPONDENCE.

THE TEACHING OF FRENCH.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—By your kind courtesy, I am enabled to lay before my fellow-teachers a brief outline of the plan of teaching foreshadowed in my former letter. I trust that I may be pardoned, should I have spoken too dogmatically, and my desire for brevity be assigned as the true cause. I believe that the many capable and conscientious Professors and Teachers in our land will welcome any suggestion that may forward their work, and increase or create interest and pleasure in their pupils. The very discussions these letters, I hope, will provoke, will be useful in giving a new direction to thoughts on the subject, and in throwing light on what may certainly be regarded as one of the vexed questions of the day. I write on the French language, as that with which I am most familiar, but I am satisfied that the system I propose would produce equally good results in other modern languages. Before entering on the practical part of my paper, I must say a few words on the proposition which is the foundation of the whole system:—**THINKING IN FRENCH MUST TAKE PRECEDENCE OF SPEAKING AND WRITING THE LANGUAGE.** To justify this assertion, let me quote from the eloquent author of "The Philosophy of the Inductive

Sciences":—"Language is often called an instrument of thought, but it is also the nutriment of thought, or rather it is the atmosphere in which thought lives: a medium essential to the activity of our speculative powers, although invisible and imperceptible in its operation." In brief, *we all think in words*, and teachers should aim to make their pupils so familiar with French, that thoughts may flow as readily in a French channel as in an English one. This leads me to protest against the use of French grammars written in English, and also against comparisons being drawn between the two languages. Comparative philology requires a thorough acquaintance with one of the two languages compared; the unknown can be taught by comparison only with the known. We all recognise that a simile which refers to an unknown object, not only loses its power, but confuses the hearer, and darkens instead of illuminating the explanation. How then can we teach, to those whose minds are immature and uncultivated, so complicated a subject as the grammatical structure of a language by comparison, when they are only students in their mother-tongue? As the result of long experience and careful thought on the subject, I would lay before my readers the following brief syllabus of teaching:—

I. Vocal exercises on the pronunciation of letters and syllables, with spelling. The literal, word for word, translation of very easy French into English, by the help of the teacher, or a dictionary. The best books for the purpose are those arranged somewhat on Mr. Courthope Bowen's system, having the same words repeatedly brought under notice, but without the English. Reading aloud, with simple questions asked in French, but *no explanations given on the structure of the language, and no grammatical rules referred to*; very simple dictations from what has been already read and translated; and easy French rhymes learnt by heart. As the pupil becomes familiar with French words, more difficult books will be introduced, and the translation may become more and more free. Poetry, dialogues (without English), &c., can be learnt, but *no verbs and no grammar*. These lessons must be persevered with until the pupil can read, with ease and pleasure, any simple book in French, without the help of a dictionary. This ought to be attained in weeks or months, more or less, the pupil receiving a lesson every day. These constant lessons will not be required during the second stage, but for beginners are absolutely necessary.

II. Reading aloud, with constant lively questioning, must continue to form part of every lesson, but the pupil may now begin to write exercises by the help of a French grammar, by which is meant a grammar such as French children use. As its verbal difficulties will have disappeared, the learner *will think out the rules in French*, and will find their application to the exercises far more easy than when the grammar is written in English, besides he will have unconsciously acquired, from his translations, a very fair amount of French accidence. Alternately with the exercises, the pupil should write French compositions. In mentioning this word, may I remind my readers of the boy's answer, when urged by his teacher to write whatever came into his head?—"Bnt, Sir, there's nothing in my head!" To meet this too common state of affairs, let the tasks of composition begin with those of the simplest description, going on to narratives, dialogues, and *résumés* of what has been read. Correspondence in French may be attempted next; and it has been found useful, in suggesting ideas, to give letters in French to be answered by the pupil.

By this time he has read a great diversity of French books, of varying degrees of difficulty, so that, when Racine and Molière are put into his hands, he will read them with an ease of comprehension which will leave the mind at liberty to perceive and appreciate their beauties. Idiomatic French may be assisted by the useful exercise referred to by Mr. Storr; the pupil reading aloud, in French, from an English translation of a French work. This is the only translation permissible from English into French; it is much easier than translating an English book into French, but should not be attempted until the pupil can read and speak with fluency.

Every thoughtful teacher will understand the impossibility

of drawing any hard or fast line between one stage and another. I have not desired to do this, nor have I attempted to enter upon the details of the work; rather, I have tried to give the general outline of a Common-sense System*, which, I trust, will commend itself to my fellow-workers as rational and scientific in its principles, as well as easy and interesting in application. One thing is essential to success—that the language in use, during the lessons, should be exclusively French. It is astonishing to see the quickness with which even young children will pick up words and phrases, and understand lessons on the blackboard, by force of iteration, and lively, pleasant teaching. Every lesson will add to the stock of words, every lesson will revise and refresh the words already learnt, and conversational French will advance day by day.

In laying this plan before the Educational Public, I must say something about Examinations. It will be necessary for Examiners to alter their demands before those who are preparing for examination can adopt any new scheme; and I therefore pray the Examining Bodies to take the subject of this letter into their serious consideration.

I am sure the immense majority of teachers will agree with Mr. Storr, that when our pupils fail to translate Macaulay satisfactorily, we do not blush;—for, do we aim at making our school-pupils write like Macaulay? Nay, we are content, indeed, if we can enable them to read, speak, and write the language like ordinary mortals, and then, other things being equal, the more cultivated they are, the better French they will speak and write.

One word more to my fellow-workers and I conclude: let us all be willing to help and to be helped, in our great work; let it be said of each of us, as of Chaucer's Clerk of Oxenford:—

"And gladly wolde he lerne, and gladly teche."

13 Belmont, Bath,
August, 1883.

I remain, Sir, yours faithfully,
HELEN POOLEY.

THE TEACHERS' GUILD.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—The Teachers' Guild, as I take it, is to be upon the widest basis. It has to deal not with children, but adults, who know what they want, but have not time to procure it for themselves. It will be a sort of Co-operative Store of things which cannot be seen—*e.g.*, pleasant holidays, means of thrift, homes of rest, instruction, books, advice in need—intellectual, social, religious.

The work will need sub-division, and there should be not one General Secretary only, but a number of Secretaries for different departments.

Thus, if one wished to know the best books for any particular period of History or Literature, one ought to be able to write for them.

But perhaps one of the most fruitful fields of all is to be found in the arrangement of holidays. Think how large a proportion of a teacher's time is vacation. The working days amount to about 150 out of 365 at the Universities and about 200 in the High Schools. Do teachers need all this time for rest and amusement? Do they all know how to get it? Have we lost the etymology altogether? Can we not help teachers to get what they want? A foreign tour which suits some does not suit all. The anxieties are great when one has only a little money; yet the expense of staying in England is often as great as a tour in Switzerland. But even had all teachers money, this does not give rest to all—some cannot bear the fatigue of travelling. Then they want to get out of a crowd, and they get into it; they want time for reading, and the weight of books they would take would ruin them on foreign railways. Above all, they want time for thought; but planning routes, packing, etc., keeps them too busy: they come back to work with all the subjects they have to take up unthought of; they have to work early and late, and, at the end of term, they are

* Books for teaching French on the Common-sense System are in preparation, and will be published shortly.

so tired that they need further change. I once spent a day in Oxford during the Vacation. As I drew near, uncouth sounds reached my ear—drums, Pinches, merry-go-rounds occupied the High Street. Tents concealed the Colleges; a solitary Don appeared here and there in extra-academical costume; the churches, libraries, halls of all sorts were closed—the gate of the High School I tried in vain.

What a field here for teachers in vacation! Keble did once talk of opening its doors. Why should not some lady with leisure occupy Lady Margaret or Somerville, and provide for teachers? Then they might visit the libraries and museums at their leisure. Surely, too, some would be found willing to give courses of instruction to teachers who need it; and the work during the following half-year would be immensely improved and lightened for those who had spent their holidays in doing leisurely what they would have done hurriedly otherwise, and been fretted.

And those who know what a bit of "forest life" is to a teacher perplexed with the moral and religious questions that meet her in her life and work, will understand how welcome would be a few quiet days, or conference with those like-minded: such days as the Lord took care to provide for those whom He sent out to work for Him—days of recollection for those whose character is apt to get warped, if they think only of the bearing of things on others. The quiet days which the present Bishop of Truro provided specially for teachers one Christmas were crowded, and great was the disappointment felt when his promotion prevented his giving any more.

What applies to Oxford is true of schools everywhere. Are there not many institutions in which, for a portion of the holidays, a party of teachers could be taken in, and some refreshment provided, suited to the taste of each? Some ladies who occupy your houses with their school have long done this during their vacation, and hundreds of teachers owe them a deep debt of gratitude. There is a conference held yearly in the Lake district early in the summer holidays.

I take it that the Guild should be informed of any such provision made, and should print notices of Meetings, Conferences, Quiet Days, Retreats, Instructions, Homes of Rest.

Systematic courses of religious instruction would, I am sure, be welcomed, and special help might be given to those who have generally to fight out their difficulties alone. Teachers of matured experience, who had perhaps given up work, would be able to help the younger; and they would themselves be refreshed by converse with the young, and cheered by the sense that they could help.

A MEMBER OF THE TEACHERS' GUILD.

OXFORD AND CAMBRIDGE SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—The paper which I send you for publication is an illustration of the principle on which many examiners apparently act,—viz., that the aim of examiners should be, not to test the candidate's power of dealing with subjects of which he has some knowledge, but to test the knowledge he is least likely to possess; in other words, to find out his ignorance. In commenting on the questions I send you, I except Questions 5 and 8 as unfair, because they are on books outside the period given. If the paper had been headed "Literature showing the Influence of the Renaissance," of course this would not have been the case, but dates are meaningless unless observed.

If the Examiner thinks that the teachers' lessons should not have been confined to the period given, I can only say that I found that alone too much for the time, for the subjects for examination were made known in January last. Roughly speaking, I gave a fourth of about twenty-four lessons to Bacon, a fourth to the chief dramatists, a fourth to Milton's early poems, and the remaining time to the *Aeropagitica* and the less important writers of the period. But in this paper on English Literature, 1603-1660, there is no mention of Bacon, or of Shakespeare, Jonson, or Beaumont and Fletcher, or of Milton's early poems. There is, indeed, a question on Milton's prose, and, as Milton was *essentially* a poet, and *accidentally*, from political circumstances (the Tract on Education excepted), a prose writer, this exclusion of his poetry is, I suppose, based upon the principle I have alluded to.

A paper on seventeenth-century literature which omits these writers, and contains questions on Fuller, Burton, and Browne, would have its parallel in a paper on nineteenth-century literature which made no mention of history or novels, but contained questions on "The New Republic" and "Curiosities of Literature."

Yours faithfully,
AN ASSISTANT MISTRESS WHO HAD TO MARK A SET OF
EXAMINATION PAPERS ON THE ABOVE.

July 23rd, 1883.

ENGLISH LITERATURE, 1603-1660.

1. In what way does the decline in poetry shew itself during this period? Illustrate your answer by examples. [10]
2. What are the principal works of Thomas Fuller? What is their general character? Write what you know of the history of the author. [12]
3. What is meant by saying that Burton and Browne write "in a witty and learned fashion, but without any true scholarship"? What are their chief works? Give as full an account as you can of any one of them. [12]
4. Explain the statement that Milton's prose works are "Elizabethan in style." [6]
Name the most important, and write all you know of any one of them. [9]
5. Describe the plot, metre, and style of *Samson Agonistes*. Where can we discover in this poem "the higher influences of the Renaissance"? [5]
6. Quote the first lines (or any other passages) from some lyrics of this period, naming the author of each. [12]
7. Name the chief religious poets of this period, classifying them according to their religious views. [12]
8. Estimate the literary merit of the *Pilgrim's Progress*. [10]

OXFORD LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—I shall be obliged if you will allow me to notice one or two points in the letter from Miss Beale which appeared in the *Journal of Education* for August, as it seems likely to convey wrong information to persons who are not fully acquainted with the facts to which it refers:—

(1.) The fees payable to the Delegacy for the Oxford Local Examinations are—for senior candidates £1. 10s., and for junior candidates £1; not £2 and £1. 10s. respectively, as stated by Miss Beale.

(2.) Miss Beale alludes to "the reputation which Cambridge has, and she believes very justly, of exercising more careful supervision in their examinations" (than Oxford), and remarks that "it is by no means desirable to leave the superintendence of the examinations in the hands of the Local Committee." A person less acquainted with the facts than Miss Beale doubtless is might infer that the practice which she condemns is followed by the Delegacy. I need scarcely say that this is not the case. The superintending examiners are (with the exception of one Cambridge M.A.) Graduates of the University of Oxford, nominated by the Delegates, and approved by Convocation. A list of them will be found in the examination papers for 1883, lately published. The Local Committees have nothing to do with their appointment. I am not aware in what respects the superintendence of the Oxford Local Examinations requires to be made "much more careful, if the certificates are to be of any value"; but I am sure that the Delegates will be much obliged if Miss Beale will indicate the defects peculiar to the supervision of the Oxford Examinations, and will do their best to remedy any which may be pointed out to them.

May I take this opportunity of replying to the remarks in your article upon the Regulations for 1884, with reference to the rule by which certain subjects cannot be taken together in the Oxford Local Examinations? As the article points out, the rule is necessitated by the arrangements of the time-table, and I may add that those arrangements are determined by the necessity of concluding the examination within the week. It is obvious that, if candidates are allowed to offer both of two subjects which are alternative under the rule in question, separate times must be found for the papers on them, and it is impossible to find additional time without breaking into another week. The inconvenience to the candidates and the additional expense for room hire, &c., which would be involved in so doing, are sufficient objections to such a change. On the other hand, the amount of practical hardship resulting from the rule may be estimated by the fact that, of 501 candidates who in the

recent examination offered either Music or Mechanics, which were not alternative under the Regulations then in force, only twelve offered, and only four passed in, both those subjects.

I am, Sir, Yours faithfully,
G. E. BAKER,
Secretary to the Delegacy.

Oxford;
August 15, 1883.

CLYDE'S GEOGRAPHY.

To the Editor of the *Journal of Education*.

SIR,—My publishers have called my attention to G. H. Wollaston's letter regarding one of my Geographies, which appeared in your number for this month of August.

To answer Mr. Wollaston in detail would be to provoke a discussion for which you could not be expected to make room. In gross, I should have to thank him for letting me see a faulty expression here, perhaps even an inaccurate statement there, for I have not by me here, in remote country quarters, the means of verification; while in other particulars, I should have to impugn his judgment, and even his knowledge. Moreover, I should have to request you to print longer extracts than his, because of the light thrown on some of the passages by the context. Meanwhile, the public would be indifferent whether or not I proved Mr. Wollaston's criticism to be partial and precipitate; and I should myself be indifferent, except to the improvement of my works.

The practice of weighing with equal care the suggestion of friend and the criticism of foe may partly, perhaps, account for the success of Clyde's Geographies, at which Mr. Wollaston marvels; and so may another practice of the author's, that of getting his account of countries reviewed by men of special knowledge, acquired if possible on the spot. Besides a number of competent persons, some distinguished men, whose names I am ready to communicate to Mr. Wollaston privately, have done my School Geography,—the manual he attacks—such honour. This benefit has not, indeed, extended to my account of North America, on which Mr. Wollaston animadverts; for, though I did once receive notes upon it from a Canadian gentleman, his special knowledge did not go beyond his personal experience, which was confined to the basin of the St. Lawrence. If, then, Mr. Wollaston possesses special knowledge of North America, I invite him, on the supposition that his zeal for geographical accuracy is more than a flash in the pan, to add his own name to the list of my benefactors.

Mr. Wollaston will not marvel at my request if he has behind him an experience like mine. When the first edition of my Geographies was in the press, about a quarter of a century ago, misled by the earnestness of my own endeavour after accuracy, I was not far from thinking them perfect. But the *désillusionnement* soon came, widening with each edition; and I have long known that he who writes 500 pages of Descriptive Geography is doomed to inaccuracy, more or less, just as, according to the famous anecdote, Sir Walter Raleigh found himself to be when writing in the Tower his History of the World.

Gairloch, Ross-shire,
August 22, 1883.

JAMES CLYDE.

SPELLING IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of the *Journal of Education*.

SIR,—May I venture, through the means of your Journal, to ask for advice on the best ways of teaching Spelling in Elementary Schools? I have a number of boys preparing for the Public Schools, and, while I feel that in Latin, Arithmetic, Geography, &c., they do fairly well, I have a painful consciousness that they cannot spell all the words they commonly use. I have some hope in the case of my very small boys, because they are taught to read on Sonnenschein's principle, and spelling comes much more naturally to them; but, in the case of those who join the school at eight, nine, or ten years of age, I cannot feel I am at present successful, and shall be much obliged to any fellow-teachers who will give me help. The boys are in the habit of writing a short paper every week, generally putting into their own words some story that has been read to them. These papers are criticised in class, and of course the mistakes in spelling are pointed out, but the same faults are made again and again, and little good seems to be done. The boys also write from dictation, but the results do not appear to be satisfactory.

Walmers,
August 14, 1883.

Faithfully yours,

F. E.

WORDS AND THINGS; OR, TEACHERS *versus* BOOKS.

To the Editor of the *Journal of Education*.

SIR,—Since reading the letter of J. E. A. in your last issue, the

question has occurred to me, Can your correspondent have ever had a single day's experience in the tuition of small boys? and, if so, can that experience have been turned to any profitable account? I happen to be one of those simple people who have tried that "amusing" method of teaching the Case, recommended in *The Competitor*, and can add my feeble testimony to its admirable efficacy in the case of young beginners in the Latin Grammar. Though not, perhaps, a strictly scientific explanation, it is yet, in a rough-and-ready sort of way, quite a true statement of the Case, sufficiently accurate, surely, for all elementary purposes, while at the same time possessing the inestimable advantage of being readily apprehended by the smallest boy, and not, as a rule, quickly forgotten.

Sandown, I. W.

August 21, 1883.

I am, Sir, yours faithfully,
F. C. T. BOSANQUIT.

COMMISSIONS ON PUPILS.

To the Editor of the *Journal of Education*.

SIR,—You occasionally comment upon the manner in which "Boarding Schools" are conducted; are you acquainted with the enclosed proposal, addressed to me a few days since as Head-mistress of a High School?

July 25, 1883.

Yours truly,

A.

"DEAR—, We, being desirous of extending our schools, think that you are able to assist us in so doing, by using your influence wherever you suppose it likely a pupil may be sent from home, either from amongst your own scholars or neighbourhood; and, as a remuneration for the time and trouble you thus expend, we will give you two pounds for each pupil we get, through your introduction, on the terms of enclosed prospectuses, and we will assist you in any way you think desirable. The schools give general satisfaction, and are in good repute.—We are, yours faithfully," &c.

REVIEWS AND MINOR NOTICES.

Satires of Horace. Edited, with Notes, by ARTHUR PALMER, M.A., Fellow of Trinity College and Professor of Latin in the University of Dublin. (Macmillan & Co.)

If the merits of Prof. Palmer's edition were much less than they are, it would still claim a cordial welcome from all those who are practically interested in classical work. This little book meets a want which has been (or ought to have been) long felt. Ordinary learners and ordinary teachers have been too long contented either to accept without examination the text of any edition which they may happen to be using, or, from a variety of jumbled readings, to select the one which may commend itself to their caprice as "giving the best sense," or "going best with the context." Against the former course we have not much to say, inasmuch as the limits of work and intelligence at schools and universities forbid anything like a critical study of all the texts read; moreover, the gain to scholarship might be more than compensated by damage to literary sensibility. But the latter course deserves unmitigated reprobation. Not only does it disregard the comparative authority of MSS., and ignore the solid work of the greatest scholars, but it is a direct encouragement to that *prurigo corrigendi* from which no author has suffered more undeservedly than Horace. Prof. Palmer has removed the excuse for this kind of slatternly or random work. The excellent arrangement of his notes, and his neat manipulation of simple symbols, have made the textual study of the *Sermones* not easy, but interesting. Intended, as this edition seems to be, for young scholars, it states all the problems clearly, and gives such evidence as exists for the solution of them; and, although Prof. Palmer seldom shows any hesitation about the views which he has adopted, his candour never allows him to conceal what may be urged against them. The intellectual activity evoked by his textual notes is the best argument which could be found to confute those who deride the sterility of classical work.

Towards the close of his excellent Introduction, Prof. Palmer

makes out a very strong case against "the cautious editor who sits entrenched behind fabricated MSS.," but he has not been led into making rash emendations of the text; and we have some reason for regretting that his modesty has confined him to the introduction of his undoubtedly correct emendation of l. vi. 6,—"Ignoto aut ut me libertino patre natos," for "Ignotos." Others which he has suggested have much to support them. We do not by any means share his confidence in accepting "octonos" for "octonis," in l. 6, 75; and we are inclined to think that the objections to the interpretation of the older reading have been made too much of. Again, the text which he has adopted in the famous passage in II. ii. 29 and 30, seems open to the gravest exception; and we have not the slightest belief that the infinitive *petere* can be "exclamatory." But we should be sorry to restore the *patet*, or to add another to the many conjectures already hazarded; and most scholars will agree with Prof. Palmer in rejecting Madvig's view that *magis* = *lanx*.

Abundant use has been made of the labours of preceding editors of Horace, but Prof. Palmer is not afraid to differ even from such authorities as Keller and Holder; and he attaches great value to the Blandinian MS. known as V., adopting eight of the readings which it gives. He regards it as "an interpolated descendant of a better archetype than that from which other Horatian MSS. are descended." In contrast with the dogmatical contemptuousness of inferior editors, Prof. Palmer acknowledges the brilliant work of Bentley, but he is too staunch an upholder of MSS. to favour many of his emendations, although he has incorporated a few of them into his text.

The chief merit of the translations offered in this edition is that they are few in number. We have the strongest objection to an editor inserting his rendering of a passage just because it is, or because he fancies it to be, happy. And, frankly, we do not think that Prof. Palmer shines as a translator. To take the opening Satire, l. 15, "To what issue I will bring the matter," seems at once verbose and inexact; in 30, the instances here quoted of the use of *currere* do not justify its translation as *to sail*; and, in 38, it is little better than a vulgarism to give "knowing" for *sapiens*. The "sermo quotidianus" of Horace never degenerates into anything corresponding to Prof. Palmer's colloquial English. Such renderings may pass muster if they are meant to be merely explanatory, but then they are not translation. Again, in l. 7, the suggestion that *Quid enim* is to be rendered "For why?" is nothing but the substitution, for an intelligible Latin phrase, of a locution which is neither English nor Latin, but the base-born offspring of an illicit mixture of the two languages. Nevertheless, we have no sympathy for the learner who adopts, or the teacher who accepts, a translation from a note.

The grammatical notes, so far as we have examined them, appear, as a rule, to be sound and clear. We must protest, however, against the importation of a "Potential Mood" into Latin. Most of us have been so mistaught that we have come to tolerate this grammatical monstrosity in English grammar, repugnant though it is to any true understanding of the real use of auxiliary verbs and indirect moods. Again, it is no explanation of *referat* with the dative *viventi*, to say with Schütz that it is "substituted" for the usage of *ad* with the accusative. The analysis (adopted by Maclean and others) of *referre* into *rem ferre* seems much preferable. In the notes generally, we see that the pith of Orelli and others has been carefully extracted and condensed, and that a good amount of original explanation has been added. There is no ambiguity of expression, nor any shirking of difficulties.

In conclusion, we have nothing but praise for the biographical, historical, literary, and social comments. Nothing has been left unsaid which would be useful for an intelligent study of the *Sermones*. Any young student who took the trouble to master Prof. Palmer's notes would have no mean understanding of the politics and literature of the Augustan period; nor do we think that this department has been overdone. Prof. Palmer seems to have borne well in mind the wants of the class for whom he was writing; and, where he

has taken the bit between his teeth, as in the introduction to Satire iv. of Book II., arguing for the discarded view that Catus is a disguise for Matius, Cicero's gastronomical correspondant, the dissertation is interesting, even if it is longer than the importance of the question warrants. The general remarks in the Introduction we commend for careful reading, especially about the influence of Lucilius upon Horace, and the influence of earlier writers upon Lucilius. Here and there points seem to be exaggerated: *e.g.*, it is said that "the ruling ambition of Horace was to be the friend of the great," and the contrast between "the Lucilian freedom of the Second Satire," and the "growing preference for moral commonplaces" is too sharply drawn. But such minor blemishes do little to impair the solid value of an important edition.

Horace, Odes. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by T. E. PAGE. (Macmillan & Co. 1883.)

We have already called attention to this edition of the Odes as it appeared in parts, but the complete edition is too important a work, at least from the schoolmaster's point of view, to be passed over with a simple announcement of its appearance. For scholars, Orelli's edition is not likely in this century to be superseded, but the present degenerate age of schoolboys will not endure notes written in Latin, and in our opinion, they are quite right. The choice for them, therefore, lies between Mr. Page and Mr. Wickham, and an estimate of the relative merits of the two editions may perhaps be the most profitable way of reviewing the work of the more recent writer. And, first, as to the relations between the two. We have on a previous occasion noticed the rather captious spirit in which Mr. Page criticises his predecessor; it is, therefore, the more remarkable that so many notes in his commentary should be practically identical with those of Mr. Wickham. Of course this is, of itself, no proof of plagiarism. In editing a classical author, two people may often think of the same thing, and one of them, as Mr. Puff discovered, must needs make use of it first. But, when these resemblances or identities are of very frequent occurrence, we must conclude that, if the later writer has not made undue use of his predecessor's labours, the range of the subject under treatment is so narrow as to render his work superfluous. We do not pretend to have read the whole of Mr. Page's commentary side by side with Mr. Wickham's, but we have compared some parts of the two works carefully and minutely, and we shall take our examples mainly from the first few Odes of the third book. In Ode I. at l. 3, Mr. Wickham quotes Theocritus xvi. 29, *μουσῶν ἱεροῦς, ἰεοφῆτας*, in illustration of Horace's "musarum sacerdos." So does Mr. Page. At l. 8, the same passage of Homer appears in both books. Mr. Page's note on "descendere," in l. 10, is substantially the same as Mr. Wickham's. At l. 18, Plato's *Συρακοσία τράπεζα* is compared by both Mr. Wickham and Mr. Page with "Siculæ dapes." In Ode II., at ll. 13 and 29, Mr. Page quotes lines from Tyrtaeus and Æschylus which are given in Mr. Wickham's notes; while his notes on the Stoic paradox at l. 17, and that on the form "Diespiter" in l. 29, may have been taken directly from Mr. Wickham. In the next Ode Mr. Page's explanation of "possit" in l. 43, and his note on "ferox" and "triumphatis" in the following line, are almost the same as Mr. Wickham's; and at l. 66 both commentators quote Virgil's "Trojæ Cynthius auctor" in illustration of "auctore Phœbo." It is in the citation of parallel passages from other authors that Mr. Page seems to follow Mr. Wickham most closely. Two more examples occur in the very next Ode; but it is needless to pursue the comparison farther.

With regard to the general character of the two works, Mr. Page's is, for the most part, the more elementary of the two, and contains more positive information. Notes on elementary etymology are more frequent; explanations are fuller. Mr. Wickham often drops an illustration without any comment to enforce it, and his point might sometimes be missed by a dull boy, when Mr. Page's would be understood. Mr. Page gives boys less credit for knowledge of classical mythology than Mr. Wickham, and he now and then tells

them things for which they should certainly be referred to books of reference. For instance, he tells them, in IV. ix., that Cydon was a city in Crete, that the Cretans were famous archers, that Idomeneus was a Cretan leader, that Sthenelus was the charioteer of Diomedes, that Deiphobus was Hector's brother, that Sappho was a native of Mytilene. A good point in Mr. Page's commentary is the frequent use of illustrations from English literature, which are very sparingly employed by Mr. Wickham. Thus, Swift's imitation of the lines "dulce et decorum est pro patria mori," &c., are given. Mr. Tennyson's *Will* is quoted in connexion with the opening of III. iii.

Strangely at variance with the elementary character of much of Mr. Page's commentary is its polemical tone. Not only Mr. Wickham, but Orelli and other editors are frequently and needlessly assailed, and this in spite of Mr. Page's statement that "the bulk of my notes are the result of a long admiration for Horace, and have been written down without reference to any books whatever." Mr. Wickham's edition, while it gives evidence of greater learning and more original investigation, is delightfully free from controversial matter. Mr. Wickham, too, is more successful than Mr. Page in showing the connexion of Horace's thoughts, and in keeping the scheme and purpose of an ode clearly before the reader. A good instance of this is to be found in IV. ix. 29, where Mr. Wickham shows the application of what has gone before to the case of Lollius. Of course, the application is obvious enough to anyone who can read the Latin with tolerable ease, but might easily be missed by a schoolboy toiling laboriously through the Ode. Both editors prefix to their notes on each Ode a summary of its subject matter. Mr. Wickham here succeeds much better, it seems to us, than Mr. Page. He writes simpler and clearer English, and makes the general purpose of the Ode perfectly plain. Here is his summary of III. vi. :—

"We are suffering for our fathers' sins. They let the temples go to ruin. They let the sacredness of marriage laws be tampered with. Our blood is poisoned, and we go from bad to worse. They sprang from different parents, and had healthier homes, who conquered Pyrrhus and Antiochus and Hannibal. Our sons will be worse than we. Where is the remedy?"

Mr. Page is longer, high-flown, and less distinct:—

"The sins of the fathers will be visited upon the children until the crumbling temples of the gods are restored: to reverence for the gods we owe the rise of our empire, to our neglect of them we shall owe its ruin: let the defeats we have already suffered be a warning to us. Moreover, immorality, like a rising flood, has overspread the nation and sapped the foundations of that simple household life in which were reared the early soldiers of Rome. Alas! so we move from bad to worse."

But Mr. Page is perhaps weakest as a translator. He translates frequently, and very often not because such help is necessary to the understanding of a passage, but apparently because he has ready a translation which pleases him. This is not the best possible reason for translating, though, when the meaning of a passage is clear, a brilliant rendering may be useful as a help to boys in mastering the difficult art of translation. But such renderings must justify their existence by their felicity. Mr. Page is not, as a rule, happy. His translations are, for the most part, such as any boy with a due sense of his grammatical responsibilities might hammer out with the aid of a dictionary. Here is Mr. Page's version of III. ii. 31, 32:—"Rarely has Retribution, with her halting foot, left the track of the guilty, though far in front." L. 61 of the following Ode supplies another gem:—"Of Troy, if it rise again with mournful omens, the fortune shall be repeated in grievous disaster." Two or three examples from Ode IV. of the same book must close our selection. At l. 37 occurs a singularly clumsy rendering:—"You, too, to exalted Cæsar, longing to end his labours as soon as he has disposed among the towns his war-worn squadrons, give repose in a Pierian cave." L. 41,—"You gentle counsels gave, and, when they are given, rejoice with kindly care." L. 73,—Piled on her own monsters, Earth groans, and mourns her offspring hurled by thunderbolt to pale Orcus." Why this passage

should have been translated at all passes our comprehension. There is only one point to be noticed in it—that *suus* = *se natis*, as Mr. Wickham explains; and this point is passed over in Mr. Page's translation.

We do not wish it to be supposed that Mr. Page's is a bad edition of the Odes. It is a careful and generally accurate piece of work. But it is dull, laboured, and wanting in originality. In our opinion Mr. Wickham's edition is decidedly to be preferred. It gives less direct assistance, but it is suggestive and stimulating. It impresses one with a sense of power, and is, on the whole, more helpful than Mr. Page's.

Messrs. Bond & Walpole's Edition of the Odyssey, Book I. (Macmillan & Co.), contains a vocabulary and notes, for the most part of an elementary character. It is therefore, we suppose, intended for boys reading Homer for the first time. The introduction, ridiculous in itself, is peculiarly unsuited to young boys. Here is an example of the style:—

"A chief famed for his sage head in the council and for his red hand in the foray, Odysseus, was not straightway to return to the rocky home of Ithaca for which he sorely yearned. For two whole years every peril of sea and land alike had he faced together with his comrades. He had foiled Kirke's baleful charm and the Cyclops' cruel might, the Seiren's deadly guile, and the clashing sea-monsters—had foiled them by unwearyed patience and resourceful craft."

After more of such stuff as this, we have an offhand statement of the probable dates of the Iliad and Odyssey, and a page from Mr. Gladstone's Primer, which we hope boys of fourteen will appreciate. The chapter on Homeric forms is useful, so far as the Accidence is concerned, but a great deal of the Syntax, especially that of the moods, is not specially Homeric. A beginner would gather from Messrs. Bond & Walpole that the use of final conjunctions with the subjunctive was confined to Homer. In the notes, the editors seem to have sought to display their own learning rather than to help boys. There is too much etymology for beginners, and the notes are crammed with grammatical technicalities. What is the use of talking to young boys about *parataxis*, *epanalepsis*, *asyndeton*, and so forth? In another connexion, what idea will be conveyed to boys by the information that "many Homeric epithets have become crystallised into mere titles"? or by this quotation from Mure—"Omnipresence, or all-pervading control over mundane affairs, far from being an essential, was scarcely the possible attribute of the chief of a pagan pantheon." Altogether, it has seldom been our fortune to meet with a more foolish school edition of a classical author.

Mr. Hamilton's Edition of the Odyssey, Books XXI.—XXIV. (Macmillan & Co.), is of a very different stamp. The preface contains a good, short, and sensible introduction to the four books; the notes are terse and workmanlike. They give quite sufficient help and illustration, and are delightfully free from technicalities. Questions of etymology are sparingly introduced, and are discussed with evident knowledge and with good judgment. We may specially mention one on the difficult word *ἀάρος* (xxi. 91), and another on *ζαρρος* (xxii. 70). In an appendix, the much-debated question about shooting through the Axes is well and clearly put.

In *Mr. Gwatkin's Edition of Demosthenes, Philippic I.* (Macmillan & Co.) the fifteen pages of text may seem to be somewhat overweighted with forty pages of introductory matter, and some forty more of commentary; but the work may be regarded as an introduction, and a good one, to the speeches of Demosthenes in general. The notes are, for the most part, paraphrased from those of Rehdantz, so that it is not necessary to say much about them, except that they are thoroughly scholarly and well suited to their purpose. The translations, for which of course Mr. Gwatkin must take the credit, are both accurate and vigorous. The introduction contains an account of the earlier years of Philip's reign, and of military affairs at Athens and in Macedonia, an estimate of Demosthenes as an orator, and a short chapter on MSS. and editions.

Casey's Elements of Euclid. (Dublin: Hodges, Figgis, & Co. 1882.)—In the text of the propositions, the author has adhered, in all but a few instances, to the substance of Euclid's demonstrations, without, however, giving way to a slavish following of his occasional verbiage and redundancy. The use of letters in brackets in the enunciations eludes the necessity of giving a second or particular enunciation, and can do no harm. Hints of other proofs are often given in small type at the end of a proposition, and, where necessary, short explanations. The definitions are also carefully annotated. The theory of proportion, Book V., is given in an algebraical form. This book has always appeared to us an exquisitely subtle example of Greek mathematical logic, but

the subject can be made infinitely simpler and shorter by a little algebra, and naturally the more difficult method has yielded place to the less. It is not studied in schools, it is not asked for even in the Cambridge Tripos; a few years ago, it still survived in one of the College Examinations at St. John's, but whether the reforming spirit which is dominant there has left it, we do not know. The book contains a very large body of riders and independent geometrical problems. The simpler of these are given in immediate connexion with the propositions to which they naturally attach; the more difficult are given in collections at the end of each book. Some of these are solved in the book, and these include many well-known theorems, properties of orthocentre, of nine-point circle, &c. In every way this edition of Euclid is deserving of commendation. We would also express a hope that every one who uses this book will afterwards read the same author's "Sequel to Euclid," where he will find an excellent account of more modern Geometry.

The Elements of Geometry; or, the first six, with the eleventh and twelfth Books of Euclid. Edited by Prof. WALLACE, M.A. *Elements of Arithmetic.* By Prof. WALLACE, M.A. *Elements of Algebra.* By Prof. WALLACE, M.A. (Cassell, Petter, Galpin, & Co.)

The three above books are rather triumphs of printer's and publishers' enterprise than marvels of editorial skill. They each contain from one hundred and fifty to two hundred closely printed pages, offered to the public at the modest sum of one shilling. They are another instalment of what are termed People's Editions. In looking through their pages, we hardly know whether to pity those who have to get their intellectual food in so condensed, and to us utterly unpalatable a form, or to admire them for their courage in swallowing it and, as we hope, digesting it. But this may be a mere matter of taste. Not so, however, the fact, which cannot be blinked, that very close printing, which abounds in all three, must in the long run be injurious to the student's eyes.

The treatment of each of the three subjects is satisfactory and very full, if not very original or suggestive. In the Euclid, we think the effect of crowding the whole of the propositions into one or two long paragraphs hardly calculated to aid the student in following the argument easily. In the Arithmetic, there are no answers to the problems, which, if they are published separately, is in our opinion a far better plan than that adopted in the Algebra, of giving them with each problem. The plan now generally followed, of giving them at the end of the book, is in most cases to be preferred.

The Public School French Grammar, based upon the "Nouvelle Grammaire Française" of A. BRACHET. Part I. Accidence. New Edition, revised and enlarged, by Rev. P. H. E. BRETTE, G. MASSON, E. JANAU, and H. C. LEVANDER. (Hachette & Co.)

This is a new edition of a grammar now tolerably well known in the scholastic world, and we will therefore not enter into a detailed investigation of its merits and demerits—the more so, as its right place among other grammars and its practical utility have been discussed at the meeting of the Education Society of the 11th of June. It is substantially the same as the former edition in mode of treatment and design. It differs from it in having had the benefit of the revision of four editors, who between them have added here and there some etymological notes and references, as well as four appendices on the principal orthographical changes introduced by the French Academy in 1878, the plural of simple substantives and adjectives (given for the first time in the "Dictionnaire de l'Académie"), the plural and the orthography of compound nouns, and the exceptions to the general rules for the derivation of French words from Latin.

General Aims of the Teacher, and Form Management. Two Lectures delivered at Cambridge in the Lent Term, 1883. (Cambridge University Press. 1883.)

Of the first lecture, which is a reprint from the columns of this Journal, we need say nothing. The second lecture, by Dr. Poole, the head-master of Bedford Modern School, is sensible but not lively reading. We cannot help contrasting it in this respect with the lecture on the same subject that Mr. Quick delivered last month before the College of Preceptors. Both lecturers, for instance, discourse on banter, and lay down that it must be good-natured, but Mr. Quick drives the nail home with an illustration. A boy had turned the tables on a master who was given to joking, by making him believe that he had mistaken the day of the week, and calling out *April fool!* "The master looked grave, and drew up the regular paper to be taken to the head-master, which meant a flogging. The crest-fallen joker was leaving the room to take this paper, when he heard behind him from the master's desk the words *April fool!* and a roar of laughter from the form showed the master's victory."

The Second and Third Historical Readers, edited by Professor

MEIKLEJOHN (Blackwood & Sons, London & Edinburgh, 1883), are in many respects just what such books ought to be. They do not attempt a consecutive history, but give in each reading a clear and lively picture of a single subject. Some matters seem to be left out without due cause. In an historical reading-book edited by a Scotch Professor, it is odd to find no mention of William Wallace. One or two statements might also be amended. For example, the writer has fallen into the common error of describing Richard II. as "very much like his grandfather, Edward II." And, in the Third Reader, the account given of the British Constitution is so unsatisfactory that we wonder that the Editor allowed it to stand. It is evident that the writer does not know what constitutes an Estate of the Realm (iii., p. 235), and he implies that the Irish peers who have seats in the House of Lords are not representative. In spite, however, of some faults, these Readers are, on the whole, thoroughly well suited for the use of the upper standards in elementary schools. They are well and clearly printed on substantial paper; they contain many fairly executed woodcuts, and the covers are in good taste.

Mr. Morris tells us, in the preface to the *Senior Standard History Readers* (3 vols., by Rev. D. MORRIS, B.A. Lond., Longmans & Co. 1883), that they "consist of the author's well-known 'Class-book History of England.'" The epithet would have come more gracefully from any one else. In reproducing his "well-known" book, Mr. Morris would have done well to correct some of his old errors. He still believes that, after the Norman Conquest, all law business was carried on in the Norman-French language. Does he suppose that at the great court, for example, held on Pennenden Heath, Bishop Æthelric declared the English law in a foreign tongue? On p. 136 he says that Richard II. "resembled Edward II. in disposition, general conduct, and unhappy fate." Children will easily see for themselves the superficial and false resemblance which is here pointed out; what should have been shown is the total unlikeness of the two kings. We should be glad to know how Mr. Morris reconciles two of his statements concerning the British Constitution. We read on p. 520, that "the three Estates of the Realm are the *Lords spiritual*, the *Lords temporal*, and the *Commons*"; and on p. 522, "To make a law, the three Estates of the Realm must agree." Does he believe that if the whole bench of bishops voted against a bill, it would therefore be thrown out of the Upper House, if a majority of that House were in favour of it? Still, with some faults, these little Readers are on the whole carefully written. We are, however, inclined to think them too full of facts for use in Elementary Schools.

The English History Reading Book, Part V., by Miss C. M. YONGE, (National Society's Depository, 1883), is a supplement to the four other Historical Readers of this series which have previously appeared. It is meant to "fill up the details of the condition of the English people" for which these former volumes had no space; and so to make the whole series such as may meet the requirements of the New Code. The "Part" before us is, therefore, in the nature of "lines left out"; and cannot be used to good effect without constant reference to the record of facts contained either in the other "Parts" of the series, or in books of a like character, which have been already used by the scholars in the lower standards. The publication of a supplementary volume, in order to prevent four other Readers from being cast aside in favour of some new series, is a device which is more likely to benefit the publishers than the teachers who may use it; for the necessity of making the children keep before their minds the work of former years while they are engaged in a more advanced book will add to the labour of teaching. It is almost needless to say that Miss Yonge has written her Readings in a pleasant style, and that children will find them full of interesting matter. They have probably been put together "against time," in order to meet the new demands of "my lords," for the book sorely needs careful revision. Miss Yonge says, for instance (p. 34), that the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle came to an end in less than two hundred years after it was begun; she evidently thinks it possible that there may have been a Lord Mayor of London named William of the Beard—is she thinking of Richard's days?—at the date of the Conquest (p. 79); she mixes up Earl Waltheof and Bishop Wulfstan (p. 49); and she says that Piers Gaveston called Guy, Earl of Warwick, the Wild Boar of *Ardenne* (p. 86)!

Miss Yonge has made another effort to meet the New Code by editing *Historical Poetry, Part III.* (National Society's Depository, 1883.) In this volume a number of pieces by various authors are arranged according to the times with which they are concerned. Several extracts have been made from the historical plays of Shakespeare, and two or three from the poems of Sir W. Scott. Unfortunately, Miss Yonge has admitted some trash into her volume. From a few words in her preface, it appears that she has found it difficult to meet with ballads on English history, and that she has, therefore, taken such as

she has included in her collection from the poems of Mrs. Mitchell. If she had given the matter a little more attention, she might have found that the ballads of "Chevy Chase," "The Rising in the North," and many more, would have saved her from being forced to draw on Mrs. Mitchell. It is provoking to find the period of the Civil War illustrated by verses on Marston Moor, containing such lines as—

"The summer sun is still on high,
The summer air is sweet;
O warriors, soon the azure sky
May shine beneath your feet;"

while we look in vain for the stirring lay which tells how—

"It was about the noon of a glorious day of June
That we saw their banners dance, and their cuirasses shine,
And the Man of Blood was there with his long essence'd hair,
And Astley, and Sir Marmaduke, and Rupert of the Rhine."

We have but little opportunity given us for instilling poetic feeling into the minds of the children of the poor. The greater pity is it to offer them a stone when we might give them bread.

Mr. Arnold's *Selections from Pope* (Longmans) consist of the *Essay on Criticism* and the *Moral Essays*. The *Dunciad*, we are told in the preface, is to follow. Mr. Arnold points out that school editions of all Pope's principal works will then exist. Mr. Arnold is not such an editor as Mr. Pattison, and his notes contain little literary criticism; but the edition is good and useful. Allusions are explained; obscure words, expressions, and constructions are made clear; and there are plentiful illustrations from English and classical literature. The introduction contains a few short but good remarks on the *Essay on Criticism*, and on the chronological order of Pope's works, together with the leading dates and facts of the poet's life. Mr. Arnold apologises for the necessity of rigorous expurgation. Seeing that the edition is prepared *virginibus puerisque*, the operation was inevitable.

Mr. Ritchie's *First Steps in Latin* (Rivingtons) is constructed on a thoroughly good plan. It begins with the present tense of the first conjugation, and goes on adding conjugations of verbs and declensions of nouns until the indicative mood (active and passive) of the regular verbs, the declension of regular nouns and adjectives, and the comparison of adjectives have been learnt. Simple syntax is taught side by side with accidence. Some of the common uses of the cases are given, such as the ablative of instrument and agent, as well as a few prepositions. The pronouns are wisely omitted. To each lesson an exercise—English-Latin and Latin-English—is attached, and the accidence which has been learnt is collected in an appendix.

The *Fifth Edition of Mr. Millington's Selections from Latin Prose* (Longmans) contains some modifications. The more elementary portions have been included in another work, and the volume now contains some hundred passages of English prose, with notes and suggestions for turning into idiomatic Latin. The passages are well chosen and the notes good. After carefully working through the book, the student should thoroughly appreciate the differences between the English sentence and the Latin period. He will moreover have picked up a good stock of Latin idioms.

Pattern Logic is a fantastic name which Mr. Blanchard has given to an edition of the first book of Euclid without diagrams. The idea of making boys work out the diagram of each proposition for themselves is a good one. Of course, a good teacher is required to make the method fruitful. We remember learning about half of Book I. without any references to diagrams whatever, and with much secret wonder why the form-master took the trouble to draw figures on the blackboard. He never explained the operation.

The plan of *Messrs. Chambers' Graduated Readers* is by this time so well known, that it is needless to do more than mention the publication of Book IV., which contains a good many moral lessons, as well as articles on various subjects, including salt, paper, ants, Niagara, ostriches, and Sir Isaac Newton. The poetry consists largely of versified tracts, but there are also some good poems.

Messrs. Chambers' Geographical Reader for Standard II. is a very useful little work, with excellent illustrations, which will do more to make children realise geographical facts than hours of explanation. We should like to give a copy to every child of our acquaintance.

SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES.

SCOTLAND.

The results of the University of Glasgow Local Examinations have been published. These examinations were held on the 22nd of May at fourteen centres. The total number of candidates examined amounts to 545. Of these, 325 were examined in common subjects, and 238 passed. Of the 192 candidates examined for the Junior Certificate, 165 passed. 100 candidates were examined for the Senior Certificate, of whom 76 passed. The same number of candidates as last year (14) presented themselves for the Higher Examination for Women, and of these 11 passed. A slight improvement is noticeable this year in the common subjects, and a more decided improvement in the Junior Certificate for special subjects, but there is an increased number of failures among the candidates for the Senior Certificate, although the marks obtained by the two best are higher than those gained in any former year.

The Executive Committee of the "Queen Margaret's College," which has taken the place of the Glasgow Association for the Higher Education of Women, has asked and obtained the consent of H.R.H. the Princess Louise to retain her as President of the College. Her Royal Highness also expresses the interest which she has taken in the report of last year's work. Mr. J. Innes Dunlop, M.B., C.M., has gained the Brunton Memorial Prize, awarded to the most distinguished student of Medicine in the University of Glasgow.

The two highest candidates in the Local Examinations of the St. Andrews University for the Senior Certificate are Robert Spence, E. Anstruther's Public School, and Mary Anne Thomson, Tillicoultry Public School. These have each obtained a prize of £5. The two highest candidates for the Junior Certificate—Alexander M'Kenzie, Dundee High School, and Lizzie White, Miss Niven's School, Dundee—have each obtained a prize of £3. The second best boy and girl—David Duncan, Dnnfermaline High School, and Jessie Donaldson, Miss Hodge's School, Dundee—have received each a prize of £2. Various prizes have been bestowed on the successful candidates of different Local Centres. These results point to the successful competition of scholars of the Public Schools with those of Secondary and Private Schools. Mr. W. Peddie has been appointed Assistant to the Professor of Natural Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh, in the room of Cargill S. Knott, D.Sc., F.R.S.E., who has been appointed Professor of Natural Philosophy in the Imperial University at Tokio, Japan.

The Calendar of the Dundee University College has just been issued. It commences with an account of its foundation, constitution, and objects. £100,000 has been appropriated for a permanent endowment fund, and £50,000 has been spent on the adaptation of buildings near the centre of the town for the purpose of College work. The Deed of Endowment and Trust commissions the Trustees to use the means committed to them for "founding, establishing, endowing, maintaining, and conducting a College for promoting the education of persons of both sexes, and the study of Science, Literature, and the Fine Arts." No religious test is to be applied to students or teachers, but each student is required to produce a certificate of good conduct. The College is thus to be conducted on the most liberal principles, and the fees are to be lower than the minimum yet existing in Scottish Universities. The course of study is intended to prepare, at first for the Matriculation, and afterwards for the Degree Examinations of the London University. It is also suitable for the St. Andrews LL.A. Examination. The hours of tuition commence at 8 a.m., and evening classes are to be held for the benefit of those employed during the day. Some of the classes meet on Saturday, including one in Practical Physics on Saturday afternoon. The Practical Classes in the Laboratories form a special feature in the College curriculum, and the Privy Council has intimated its intention of paying three-fourths of the fees for teachers of Science in Elementary Schools who receive instruction in those classes. The College is in possession of one Bursary—the Smart Bursary for Engineering, founded by James Smart, Esq., of Brechin. It consists of the interest of £500, and is tenable for one year. Principal Peterson will have all the classes in Classics and Ancient History; Professor Steggall those in Mathematics and Natural Philosophy, with Mr. J. W. Capstick for Demonstrator in the Laboratory. The teacher of Chemistry is Professor Carnelley; of Engineering and Drawing, Professor Ewing; and of English Language and Literature and Modern History, Professor Gilray. The Trustees hope to be able to appoint lecturers on such subjects as Political Economy, Theory of Education, Geology, etc. The arrangements for the

At a meeting held at Lord Shaftesbury's house, it was resolved to establish a House of Residence for the Missionary Medical Students, in the neighbourhood of the London School of Medicine for Women and Royal Free Hospital. For this purpose a sum of not less than £2000 is required, which ought to be raised without difficulty for so good an object.

Inaugural Address have not, so far as we know, been completed, but we understand that the Earl of Rosebery cannot open the College, as he sails for Australia on the 25th of August. The Town Council intend to present the freedom of the burgh to the Earls of Dalhousie and Camperdown, as well as to the Earl of Rosebery (when he returns from his tour), in honour of the opening of the College.

SCHOOLS.

ARCHBISHOP HOLGATE'S SCHOOL, YORK.—The Archbishop of York presented the prizes to the successful pupils. The report of the Examiner was thoroughly satisfactory. The Archbishop paid a very feeling tribute to the memory of Mr. Daniel, the late Head-master, and cordially welcomed his successor, Mr. A. W. Welch. The following is a list of the successful boys:—English Subjects, Class V.—E. Birks; Class IV.—(1) L. W. J. Jagger, (2) A. T. Foster; Class III.—(1) F. Wood, (2) W. W. Smith; Class II.—(1) W. Wallace, (2) W. J. Buckle; Class I.—(1) J. H. Greenwood, (2) T. Laycock. Mathematics, Class V.—(1) J. W. Axe, (2) G. Armitage; Class IV.—(1) F. Wood, (2) W. G. Ederington; Class III.—(1) W. H. Wallace, (2) A. Penty; Class II.—(1) J. H. Greenwood, (2) J. H. Crawshaw; Class I.—(1) T. B. Hunter, (2) G. Armitage. Latin, Class IV.—E. G. Cautley; Class III.—(1) F. Wood, (2) E. Dewing; Class II.—(1) J. H. Crawshaw, (2) E. W. Howitt; Class I.—T. B. Hunter. French—(1) J. H. Greenwood, (2) H. R. Burkill, (3) C. Hedley; Drawing, Mr. Wakefield's Prize—E. Birks; Music, Mr. Child's Prizes—(1) J. H. Greenwood, (2) T. L. Bulman.

BRADFORD GIRLS' GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—Honours gained by pupils holding scholarships from this school:—Cambridge:—Natural Sciences Tripos, Part II., First Class—M. Greenwood, Girton College; Moral Sciences Tripos, First Class—K. Tennant, Newnham College. Oxford:—Women's Final History, Third Class—F. Gwyther, Somerville Hall. Bloomsbury School of Art:—Art Class Teacher's Certificate completed—L. Sallitt. The University Scholarships which were competed for in June have been awarded to E. Priestman, A. Wallace, and E. Hitehon.

BRUCE CASTLE SCHOOL, TOTTENHAM.—Saturday, August 4th, being the Prize Day at Bruce Castle School, the Rev. the Head-master and Mrs. Almack entertained a large party of friends, some two hundred and fifty assembling on the occasion. The visitors, on arriving, lunched in the school "refectory," and afterwards proceeded to the cricket-ground, to witness the cricket match between past and present members of the school. At five o'clock the whole party adjourned to the big schoolroom, where Archdeacon Farrar distributed the prizes to the successful pupils. After congratulating the Head-master on the many successes gained by past and present "Brucians," and especially on the extraordinary success of a very young "Brucian"—who, within six months, had gained two scholarships, and prizes both for Classics and Mathematics in the summer examinations at Marlborough,—he reminded the boys, in a few well-chosen words, of the necessity of always faithfully following the course set before them by duty, and of the unfailing success that follows genuine work.

DURHAM SCHOOL.—The Speech Day was Wednesday, July 25th, when the School prizes were distributed, and various recitations given. A novel feature, which excited much interest, was the introduction of some scenes from Sophocles' "Antigone," in ancient Greek costume. The exhibitions of £60 a year were awarded to E. Brutton, who has also gained a scholarship at Jesus College, Cambridge, and A. King. The Governing Body were represented by Dr. Tristram, Prof. Farrar, and Canon Body. In the course of the year very extensive additions have been made to the School, including a Carpenter's Shop, and a School of Art, where a most promising set of drawings were exhibited on Wednesday, after the delivery of the speeches. The School Library has also been called into new life, and about £300 worth of books have been added to it. The increase in its use may be illustrated by the fact that the number of books taken out by the boys has risen from 374 last year, to 2,274 this year. A swimming-bath (65 ft. by 45 ft.) is now on the point of completion; while a commencement has been made with a large group of new buildings, comprising a museum, laboratories, and lecture-rooms for science teaching. Arrangements have also been made for nearly doubling the size of the playground, and re-laying the whole of the old ground, in the course of the ensuing autumn.

HAILYBURY COLLEGE.—C. E. S. Headlam gained prizes for Latin Prose Translation and Latin Hexameters; C. E. Brownrigg for Greek Prose Translation; G. D. Barry for Greek Iambics. Kay Elocution Prize—L. G. Larpent; English Essay—F. H. Trench; MacNeile

Greek Testament Prize—G. D. Barry; Rhoades Prize, French Composition—E. H. Young; Council Prize, English Verse—R. B. Chapman. College Scholarships, &c., outside the School:—G. D. Barry, Open Classical Scholarship, Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge; C. E. Brownrigg, Open Classical Exhibition at Magdalen College, Oxford; G. Gascoyne won the 1st Silver Medal at the Slado School of Art, for painting from life. W. Kennedy, Pembroke College, Cambridge, has joined the staff of masters this term. We regret we have to record the retirement, at the end of this term, of the Rev. H. Walford from his duties as a Master, owing to ill-health. He has been on the staff almost from the commencement of the College on its present footing, and his loss will be much felt in many ways. The annual Speech Day took place on June 28th, and was attended by numerous friends of the School and boys. In the remarks made on the occasion by the Master, he drew attention to the fact that this year the School attained its majority, and that, during its existence, it had played no unimportant part in the annals of the great Schools of England. The speeches partly consisted of acted selections from the "Miles Gloriosus" of Plautus, Shakespeare's "Coriolanus," "L'Avocat Patelin," and "The Rivals," all of which had been carefully prepared, and were well acted. The musical part was better than ever, and reflected great credit on the energy of Mr. Jones, the Choir-master. Refreshments were provided for the guests in two large tents erected in the quadrangle, and the programme of the day was carried out smoothly and satisfactorily. The Natural Science and Antiquarian Societies have each had their summer expeditions—the former to the Fisheries Exhibition, and the latter to Standon, in the neighbourhood, where objects of antiquarian interest, opportunities of sketching and photographing, charming country, and fine weather combined to make the outing very enjoyable. The School broke up for the summer holidays on Thursday, July 26th.

KING EDWARD'S SCHOOL, BIRMINGHAM.—The Speech Day was July 27th. Scenes were performed from the *Acharnians* of Aristophanes, Kotzebue's *Der Gefangene*, Ourliac's amusing comedy *Qui casse les verres les paye*, and Sheridan's *Critic*. Among the honours gained during the year are two fellowships and four scholarships at Cambridge, and an Academical Clerkship at Magdalen College, Oxford. Dr. Benson, an old pupil of the School, has been appointed Archbishop of Canterbury.

MARLBOROUGH COLLEGE.—The annual distribution was held on Monday, July 23rd. H.R.H. the Duke of Albany was present on the occasion, as a guest of the Head-master, and the town and College united to give him a cordial reception. In answer to an address read by the Senior Prefect, he spoke of his great interest in the School; and he afterwards graciously consented to become a member of the Council. There was a large gathering of friends and visitors to witness the prize-giving, and do honour to the occasion, and many members of the Council were present, amongst whom were the Marquis of Ailesbury, the Marquis of Bath, the Dean of Westminster, the Bishop of Bath and Wells, Canon Duckworth, Mr. Seton-Karr, and others. A good list of Honours was read by the Head-master, who briefly reviewed the condition of the School during the past year; and the Rev. Henry Furneaux, M.A., late Fellow and Tutor of C. C. C., Oxford, one of the Examiners, spoke favourably of the results of their Examination. A luncheon followed in the School Hall, with the usual toasts; and at 4 p.m. Mr. Bambridge, the College organist, gave an organ recital in the Chapel. In the evening, there was an entertainment given by the choir, ending with an amateur performance of "Box and Cox." The School broke up on the following day. The Exhibitions were awarded as follows:—Cotton Exhibitioner, L. T. Hobhouse; Council Exhibitioner, F. E. Rowe; Hodgson Exhibitioner, R. C. M. Harvey; Leaf Exhibitioner, M. L. Davies. The Savernake Prizes for Modern Languages were awarded to H. O. Fox, E. H. Hughes, H. S. Wood, and A. F. V. Williams.

STATIONERS' SCHOOL.—The distribution of prizes took place on Tuesday, 31st July, at Stationers' Hall; Mr. John Miles, Master of the Company, in the chair. Satisfactory reports from the Examiners were read, and the following awards made, amongst others:—Brown Medal and Bursary—Knights *ma.*; Grimwade Bursary—Rintoul; Butterworth Prizes—Pullen *ma.*; and Young *ma.*; Foss Prize for Shakespearian Reading—Alvey. The School reopens on Monday, 10th September.

TONBRIDGE SCHOOL.—Honours gained outside the School:—S. H. Olivier (Corpus Christi College, Oxford), honourably mentioned for the Cobden Prize; L. Twyford and E. C. N. Parry passed into Sandhurst at the recent examination. Our Speech Day was on Wednesday, July 25th. The prizes were given away by — Webb, Esq., Master of the Skinners' Company, and the Head-master. The Judde

(leaving) Exhibitions were awarded as follows:—Draper £90, Musson £80, Walton £70, Crofts £60. The Gold Pen was won by Draper, the Silver and Parcel-gilt by Peake and Schreiber respectively. Prizes:—Greek Prose—Peake; Greek Verse—Horne; Latin Prose—Schreiber; English Essay—Horne; First Mathematical Prize—Musson; Modern Languages—Holding; History—Draper; Divinity—West. Between the recitations, scenes were acted from "She Stoops to Conquer," and from "L'Amour Médecin." In the latter, much amusement was caused by the lively acting of Alexander and Kerr. After the School prizes had been distributed, H. B. Nicholl received the Silver Medal presented by the Royal Humane Society for proficiency in swimming with a view to save life from drowning; and the House Cup for cricket was handed over to Le Fleming, as the representative of the Day Boys, who had won the final house match on the preceding day. The holidays began on Thursday, July 26th, and end on Friday, September 14th.

WELLINGTON COLLEGE.—There will be an election in October to (1) one Durand Scholarship, and (2) five Open Scholarships. The Durand is worth £60 a year as long as a boy remains at the School, and is also tenable at R. M. A., Woolwich. The Open Scholarships vary from £20 to £50 a year. Distinctions, &c., gained outside the School:—J. E. H. Skinner passed 3rd, and C. E. Bunbury 15th, for Indian Civil Service. J. B. Atlay and D. J. Medley gained a First Class in Final History Schools, Oxford; and T. E. Bidgood and E. Hudleston gained admissions into Woolwich. Mr. Lowry leaves us for Eton. Mr. Alan Grey, of Trinity College, Cambridge, has been appointed organist.

WESTMINSTER SCHOOL.—The Phillimore Verse Translation Prize has been awarded to C. C. J. Webb, Q.S., and the Phillimore Prose Translation Prize to C. J. Shebbeare, Q.S. At Oxford we have obtained the following honours:—Final Classical Schools, 1st Class—H. B. Cox; 2nd—E. U. Eddis and T. B. Strong; Moderations, 1st Class—H. R. James; 2nd—H. Munro. On Tuesday, July 31st, at 11 o'clock, the personal gift to Dr. Scott, subscribed to by Old Westminsters and others, was made in the presence of the whole School, and a number of Old Westminsters and visitors, among whom were the Dean of Westminster, Lord Richard Grosvenor, Sir Watkin Wynn, Canon Bull, Canon Duckworth, Canon Barry, &c. Letters were read by the Secretary, R. H. Mure, Esq., from the Archbishop of Canterbury and others, regretting their inability to attend. The Secretary also stated that the amount subscribed to the Scott Memorial Fund now exceeded £1,000. The presentation, which consisted of a large silver vase and two silver candlesticks of antique type, was made by Sir Watkin Wynn. He was followed by C. C. J. Webb, Head of Q.S.S., who presented, on behalf of the School, a silver bowl and salver. Dr. Scott having replied, Canon Bull and Lord R. Grosvenor also spoke; the latter alluding to the universal regret at the absence of Mrs. Scott through ill-health. The proceedings terminated with hearty cheers for Dr. and Mrs. Scott.

TRANSLATION PRIZE.

For each month, till further notice, there will be set a passage, generally from a French or German Author, to be translated into English. A PRIZE OF TWO GUINEAS will be offered each month for the best version. Initials or a nom de plume must be adopted by competitors, but the successful competitor is required to send his real name and address to the Prize Editor for publication. Versions must be forwarded to the "Prize Editor" of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, 96 Farringdon Street, E.C., not later than the 15th of the month. Any translation which is sent with an addressed envelope and six postage stamps, will be returned with corrections. A First Class is entitled to a copy of "Prizes and Proximes," which will be forwarded on application. Those who have already

received "Prizes and Proximes" may apply for a copy of "Maria Wuz."*

"Denise," the winner of last month's prize, is Miss F. Harrison, Weybridge.

The prize for the best translation of Victor Hugo's poem has been awarded to "Prospero."

Un hymne harmonieux sort des feuilles du tremble;
Les voyageurs crautifs, qui vont la nuit ensemble,
Haussent la voix dans l'ombre où l'on doit se hâter.

Laissez tout ce qui tremble
Chanter.

Les marins fatigués sommeillent sur le gouffre.
La mer bleue où Vésuve épand ses flots de soufre
Se tait dès qu'il s'éteint, et cesse de gémir

Laissez tout ce qui souffre
Dormir.

Quand la vie est mauvaise ou la rêve meilleure.
Les yeux en pleurs au ciel se lèvent à toute heure;
L'espoir vers Dieu se tourne et Dieu l'entend crier.

Laissez tout ce qui pleure
Prier.

C'est pour renaître ailleurs qu'ici-bas on s'encombe.
Tout ce qui tourbillonne appartient à la tombe.
Il faut dans le grand tout tôt ou tard s'absorber.

Laissez tout ce qui tombe
Tomber.

BY PROSPERO.

The trembling leaves intone a measured hymn;
Men journeying in fear through darkness dim
Sing all together, as they haste along:
So, trembling hearts, solace yourselves with song.

The weary sailor slumbers on the deep;
The sea below Vesuvius sinks to sleep,
And leaves her moaning when the fire-streams cease:
Even so, tired sufferers, rest and sleep in peace.

When life is hard, men dream of better days;
Their tearful eyes unto high Heaven they raise;
Hope turns towards God; God hearkens to her call:
Find comfort then in prayer, ye weepers all.

Death is but birth into another life,
The grave ends all the bustle and the strife;
We all return into the mighty whole:
Resign thyself to sink, O sinking soul!

We class the 160 versions received in the following order:—

First Class.—Prospero, Gentian, Trilobite, Henrietta, Sloe, A. L. S., Em. C., M. L. H., Democritus, M. O. I., Arbutus, E. S. M., M. O. I. (Bandrum), Erato (version a), John.

Second Class.—A. H., Che faro, D., Penny Whistle, Mew, Sapphire, Moorland, Volo plus I., S. E. A., Cricket, Clifton, Oak, Astor, Staffa, Ttoilla, Oleander, E. A. S., Heraclitus, Whey, Bettws-y-coed, L. A. M., Cinque, Clío, Gabrielle, Thornbry, Denise, Fictor pinxit, En route, Quis, Red rag, Ephah, Enid, S. S. L., X?, Erato (version b), Alan B., A. C. T.

Third Class.—Cuthnlin, Benigna, Knowle, Britomart, Yod Pi, Lady P., B. L. T., Reine-Claude, E. H. O., Chica and another, M. C. R., P. F., Alp, Tom Brown, Gendis, Printanière, M. L., Antiquary, Micrafter, E. S. N. (1), Lycidas, Charlotte, M. B. T., Mrs. Poyser, Shuna, C. E. L., S. M. M., T. L. B., Era, Noon, Grannie, Q. in the Corner, M. or N., A. Z., 100,000, Nobody, C. J. S. Also two unsigned versions written on one sheet of notepaper.

Fourth Class.—Amylum, Cricket, Earthworm, Chica, K. N. E., Happy Hampstead, Maccabæus, Minciber, A. M., Down, Désormais, Daisy, Martel, Stoker, J. C. S., M. M. B., Mother Molly, Gavroche, Aletes, H. J. G., Antigonus, Mnscoite, Schattenlos, Exile, Daphne, Herr Schmidt, Amitié, Fog-signal, Clarissa, E. E. T., H. W. G. O., Pop, Sprach, J. N. F., Fiji.

* "Maria Wuz and Lorenz Stark; or, English Prints of two German Originals," reprinted from the *Journal of Education*. Crown 8vo, price 4s. 6d. (Longmans.)

Fifth Class.—Mab, Dulcamara, Uplands, Abertawe, Osmunda, Argentiexteribronides, E. S. N. (2), M. W. C., Custom, Urien, I. B., Omega, R. M. S., Jeanne, Poopoo, Piers, Crepuscule, H. A. L., O., Guido, Diogenes D.

Sixth Class.—Furor Scribendi, Heimweh, Donatus, Madeap Helen, Big Big D., An Old Maid, Lurlei, W. L. P., Excelsior.

Hybrius the Cretan, E. A. Jay, and M. F. L. E. arrived too late for competition.

The general senso of Victor Hugo's poem can scarcely be mistaken, but to preserve its spirit in a translation is very difficult indeed. Consequently, while few thoroughly bad versions were received, the first class is small. Even "Prospero's" version is not quite satisfactory in the first stanza, and his last line is also open to criticism. Far too many competitors adopted the Alexandrines of the original. The result was invariably unmusical. With regard to actual translation, the force of the words, "où l'on doit se hâter," was very generally missed. There was a good deal of uncertainty, too, about the subject to "cesse de gémir." Of course it is "la mer bleue," not "Vésuve." The last stanza was fatal to many, though the obvious misprint in the third line presented no difficulties. Many failed to perceive that philosophical technicalities are out of place in poetry. "The mighty Kosmos" is not a satisfactory rendering of "le grand tout."

A correspondent calls our attention to the remarkable resemblance between the first part of "Mac's" version of the French Folk Song, which we printed last month, and a song entitled "Aye Wankin', O," which occurs at p. 203 of Messrs. Boosey's "Songs of Scotland." The resemblance is too close to be accidental. Our correspondent further points out that Messrs. Boosey's edition very often gives part only of the words of a song; and, from the abruptness of the ending, this seems to be the case in the present instance. We have not been able to find a more complete version of the Scotch song, and we will, therefore, hope that the remainder of "Mac's" adaptation is original. The following lines of the Scotch song certainly justify our correspondent's suspicions:—

"When I sleep I dream,
When I wake I'm eerie;
Rest I canna get
For thinkin' o' my dearie.
Lanely nicht comes on,
A' the lave are sleepin';
I think on my bonnie lad,
An' blear my een wi' greetin'."

A Prize of Two Guineas will be given for the best translation of the following extract from Goethe.

Es war ein Samstagsabend im Winter. Der Vater liess sich immer bei Licht rasiren, um Sonntags früh sich zur Kirche bequemlich anziehen zu können. Wir sassen auf einem Schemel hinter dem Ofen und murmelten, während der Barbier einseifte, unsere herkömmlichen Flüche ziemlich leise. Nun hatte aber Adramelech den Satan mit eisernen Händen zu fassen. Meine Schwester packte mich gewaltig an und recitirte, zwar leise genug, aber doch mit steigender Leidenschaft:

"Hilf mir! ich flehe dich an, ich bete, wenn du es forderst,
Ungeheuer, dich an! Verworfner, schwarzer Verbrecher,
Hilf mir! ich leide die Pein des rächenden ewigen Todes! . . .
Vormals konnt' ich mit heissem, mit grimmigem Hasse dich hassen!
Jetzt vermag ich's nicht mehr! Auch diess ist stehender Yammer!"

Bisher war Alles leidlich gegangen; aber laut, mit fürchterliche Stimme, rief sie die folgenden Worte:

"O wie bin ich zermalmt! . . ."

Der gute Chirurgus erschrak und goss dem Vater das Seifenbecken in die Brust. Da gab es einen grossen Aufstand, und eine strenge Untersuchung ward gehalten, besonders in Betracht des Unglücks, das hätte entstehen können, wenn man schon im Rasiren begriffen gewesen wäre. Um allen Verdacht des Muthwillens von uns abzulehnen, bekannten wir uns zu unsern teuflischen Rollen, und das Unglück, das die Hexameter angerichtet hatten, war zu offenbar, als dass man sie nicht aufs neue hätte verrufen und verbannen sollen.

So pflegen Kinder und Volk das Grosse, das Erhabene in ein Spiel, ja in eine Posse zu verwandeln; und wie sollten sie auch sonst im stande sein, es auszuhalten und zu ertragen!

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The Committee invite attention to some important changes in the Regulations for 1884. The chief of these are:—(i.) That two Examinations can be held, one commencing June 9, the other July 14; (ii.) That the Examination in Religious Knowledge is optional; (iii.) That Candidates, Junior and Senior, intended for the Professions of Law, Medicine, and Music, can be admitted although they are over 16 and 18 years of age.

The Committee have decided to hold the usual Examination in July. They will also be prepared to have one in June, provided a sufficient number of Candidates present themselves. *Early notice of this is particularly requested.* Copies of the Regulations will be sent on application to

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The Inaugural Address for the coming Session will be given by R. Stuart Poole, Esq., LL.D., Correspondent of the Institute of France, on Wednesday, the 10th of October, in the Vestry Hall, Kensington, at 3 p.m.

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OCCASIONAL NOTES.

THE London School Board has discovered that certain of its masters have been guilty of falsifying the registers of attendance, in order to secure for their pupils the prizes awarded for punctuality. It has, in consequence, issued a circular to teachers, which has provoked considerable indignation, as casting a slur upon the whole body. If their views are faithfully expounded by the letter of a schoolmaster under the Board, which appeared in the *Pall Mall Gazette* of the 3rd, we cannot feel much sympathy with their grievance. The writer begins by casting the blame on the Board for not providing any check. He goes on to minimize the offence by stating that no direct pecuniary benefit could result to a master from the perpetration of the frauds. The fraudulent practice, if a fact, is due to excessive sympathy of masters for deserving pupils who come within a mark or two of a prize. If the letter ended there, we might pronounce a verdict of guilty with extenuating circumstances; but the writer, in his eagerness to make another point against the Board, forgets his former plea, and states that to make a good show of punctual-attendance pupils is the surest way to promotion. The Board, by its craze for results, has placed a direct premium on dishonesty. We are no worshippers of “results,” and it may be as the writer states, but if so,

his plea for the sympathetic schoolmaster must be abandoned. At the same time, we are not prepared to endorse the Board's circular, which seems to us a needlessly offensive way of correcting a grave scandal.

THE report of the “Special Committee on Evening Classes” of the London School Board gives the results of a new experiment which was started last July. Eighty-three of the Board Schools have been opened in the evening for adult classes. The average number on the rolls has ranged from 3,850 in the winter term to 1,673 in the summer term, the percentage of attendance to the numbers enrolled being about 60. The instance of our correspondent “Dominie” shows how completely the modicum of knowledge acquired even in the sixth standard disappears if it is not kept in use, and it is to be hoped that sufficient funds will be provided for continuing and extending these admirable night classes.

THAT these classes, and night schools generally, attempt only the elementary subjects, and have abandoned the original intention of giving higher instruction, proves indirectly what we learn from statistics, that our elementary education, though, if judged by numbers, it has grown by leaps and bounds, is, in the majority of cases, only skin deep. Of this Mr. Mundella is fully aware, and a significant hint that he dropped in his speech on the Estimates makes us hope that he is prepared in due time to drive the plough deeper as well as extend the area. “The school life of the English child is shorter than any other in Europe on this side the Alps. In Belgium the ordinary time spent in school is from six to twelve. In Saxony the compulsory school period is from the termination of the sixth to the termination of the fourteenth year. Norway, Sweden, and Switzerland are all on the same lines.” In England, on the other hand, the common standard of total exemption is Standard IV., and the average age for leaving school is between ten and eleven.

THE most noticeable feature of the new Blue Book is the unanimous verdict which the four-and-twenty Inspectors pass on Reading. “Seldom fluent and still more seldom intelligent,” Reading is the worst taught of the three compulsory subjects, though it commands the greatest number of passes. It is strange that no Inspector should have tried the obvious remedy of screwing up the standard. The explanation of this leniency is doubtless to be found in the consciousness that reading aloud is, after all, only a subordinate branch of reading, and that it would be hard measure to pluck village children for defects of elocution, an accomplishment which is at least equally rare in higher schools. We should like to see some simple test imposed, other than reading aloud, to decide the main matter—whether a child understands what he reads. It should be an instruction to Inspectors to see that each child is able to give the substance of a sentence or

paragraph, orally or in writing, according to the standard, with books closed, a sufficient time having been allowed for the silent perusal. An extra grant might then be given for Elocution, an ornament but not a necessary of education.

M. RENAN tells us that a red-letter day in his seminary life was that on which he first attracted the notice of M. Dupanloup. The good bishop used every Friday to read out the order, and comment on the weekly essays of the Saint Nicholas students. That week Renan had not distinguished himself, but when his turn came M. Dupanloup remarked, "If the subject had been a letter to your parents, that of Ernest Renan to his mother, which I read this morning, would have stood first." How an English schoolboy would have been affected by such a distinction may be inferred from the following anecdote, which we commend to the notice of M. Max O'Rell for his 10th edition. "What have you been doing to yourself, Maud?" said a monitor to his fag one morning; "you've made my study smell like a barber's shop." "I'm very sorry," was the answer, "but old Honeysuckle (the nickname of his house-master, the Rev. Herbert Suckling), you know, was always laying hands on me, like the bishop at confirmation, and going on about my 'sweet little head running over with curls,' so I bought the biggest pot of bear's-grease in Twopenny's shop and laid it on thick, to see if that would stop him."

The Nineteenth Century sums up the controversy which some recent elections have raised about Clerical Headmasters, and concludes that in boarding schools a common worship is desirable, and that in the majority of cases it must be that of the Church of England. On the other hand, Mr. K. Paul urges that all the offices of a headmaster, with the one exception of reading the Church Service, may be as well or better performed by a layman; and that for this a chaplain is all that is needed. "Education has ceased to be administered by the clergy, and to place a clergyman as a mere figure-head is misleading and illusory."

THE metaphor is not a happy one. Whatever may be the defects of our clerical head-masters, no one would accuse them of being *rois fainéants*. A closer parallel to the facts would be, if a custom obtained that every captain of a ship should be a barrister-at-law. Naval government might be less effective, but it would not be less drastic. But, instead of carping, we prefer to quote a story of the good old clerical days. "At mid-day on Sundays Eton boys showed up a Latin exercise in school, prefaced by prayers, to which not the smallest attention was paid. When the buzz of conversation and of childish frivolities, recognised up to a certain point, became quite intolerable, Dr. Keate was wont to strike his desk vehemently and shout, "If you are not quiet, boys, I'll begin it all over again."

ANOTHER story which is told of a famous living professor, who was lately a public school master, will show that the present régime does not necessarily secure the object of its defenders. Notice of a lecture was sent round at which attendance was voluntary, but the master, wishing to put a gentle compulsion on his house, added to the notice a rider of his own:—"Dr. Yeo will give a lecture to-night on the Chinese alphabet. Those who like may go; those who do not like will come to the house class-room, and I will read to them the Burial Service from 9 till 10.30."

ARCHDEACON DENISON'S letter to the Archbishop of Canterbury, protesting against the action of the Church Day School Company in admitting a Conscience Clause, is a masterly piece of logical reasoning, worthy of the Irrefragable Doctor, which his Grace will not find it easy to answer. The main argument, which the Archdeacon drives home, is that a conscience clause in a school to be established on the principles of the Church of England is a stultification of those principles. In the case of elementary schools, the Archdeacon would suffer it as Moses suffered divorce, but a school that voluntarily relinquishes the Catechism is like a Church that pronounces the sacraments "facultatives." It is a rare delight in these days of compromise to find a man who has the courage of his opinions. We have ourselves expressed the same sentiments, *nur mit ein bischen andern Worten*.

THE well-turned compliment that Mr. Gladstone, in his speech at Kirkwall, paid to his fellow tourist, Mr. Tennyson,—“His work has been on a higher plane of human action than my own, and his name will be remembered when mine has been long forgotten,”—has started an academic debate in the newspapers on the comparative durability of the statesman's and the author's fame. We are not concerned to discuss with the *Spectator* whether Moses or David, Munoo or Valmiki is better known (we wonder how many of the *Spectator's* readers recognized either of the latter pair); but, without joining the fray, we may add our contribution to the controversy. If we were to set as a prize puzzle a list of the ten most famous living English men of letters, we fancy that in every nine lists out of ten the name of John Morley would occur. Yet such is literary fame that *Punch* confounds the author of the Life of Cobden and the late Editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette* with Professor Henry Morley. It is not often that we catch Mr. Burnand napping even in literary matters; but can we conceive his making a similar confusion between two politicians—say, Sir William Harecourt and Colonel Harecourt, the member for Oxford?

MR. FRANCIS GALTON has a teeming brain, and the various memoirs and essays which he has recently collected and arranged under the title of "Inquiries into Human Faculty and its Development," beyond their general interest, are full of hints and suggestions for the schoolmaster.

One of these hints we hope will be generally adopted. Each school should possess a register of its pupils, containing a brief summary of family antecedents, measurements of growth, illnesses, and physical peculiarities, and a series of photographs taken at stated intervals. Schools offer exceptional facilities for such methodical records, and their *laches* in this respect seems to Mr. Galton a cruel waste of opportunity. The scheme has been partially carried out at Marlborough, and we would suggest to Mr. Galton that he should draw up and circulate among schools a form of anthropometric register, giving the heads of information that he and his fellow-workers desiderate.

THE most original, but to our minds the least satisfactory, chapter in the book is that on twins. It occurred to Mr. Galton that the life-history of twins would afford a certain criterium by which to estimate the relative shares of heredity and education (of Nature and Nurture, as the author happily terms it) in framing the character and intellect. His induction is two-fold. First he takes the case of two twins who closely resembled each other in childhood, and inquires whether dissimilar surroundings in after-life have produced dissimilar characters. Next he takes the case of unlike twins (we would suggest the term "doublets"), whose nurture and surroundings have been as nearly as possible identical, to find out whether the same education tends to obliterate the original difference. The conclusion at which he arrives (we wish we could discuss the steps) is that education is almost powerless to diminish natural difference of character. It seems to us that a far larger number of instances and far more carefully sifted evidence are required to establish so sweeping a proposition. Educators are too apt to magnify their office, but the most thorough-going of determinists has never so absolutely vilified it, and the Civil Service Commissioners are not likely to adopt Mr. Galton's corollary and assign marks in competitive examinations for family merit. The physicist has not yet absorbed the schoolmaster. Let each stick to his own province and render mutual help.

THE pension from the Civil List that has been conferred on Mr. Matthew Arnold is expressly on account of his merits as a poet and a *littérateur*, not for his official services. Such a recognition of so eminent a writer, though unusual, has met with almost universal approval, and our satisfaction is only tinged with a feeling of jealousy, like that expressed for other reasons in Browning's "Lost Leader," that the Government should have stepped in and paid the debt which was owed by the public. Our congratulations are not the less sincere if we add a hope that Mr. Arnold will have strength and leisure to give us more poetry, or, if this is asking too much, more prose of the quality of "Essays in Criticism." A single lyric, like "Dover Beach," or the *causerie* on Academies, is worth more than dozens of articles on Eton Boys, Burial Bills, and Deceased Wife's Sisters.

MAXIME DU CAMP, in his lively Literary Reminiscences, tells a wicked story of Victor Hugo. In his *sallet* days, Du Camp ventured to send a copy of his verses to the great literary dictator, and received with rapture the following answer,—“Ma gloire, monsieur, si j'en ai une, est moins dans ce que je dis que dans ce qu'on me répond, moins dans ma voix que dans mes échos. Vous suffiriez à vous seul pour le prouver. Je ne sais pas si je suis un poète, mais je sais que vous en êtes un.” His friend Chancel, to whom he showed the letter, damped the poet's ardour by telling him that he had seen some fifty exact replicas of the letter addressed to similar aspirants whom the author of *Hernani* wished to secure as *claqueurs* for his next play.

DU CAMP's story is borne out by one that was told us of Hugo when he was an exile in Guernsey. A young Frenchman called on him with introductions, and was welcomed with *empressement*. On leaving, he requested the loan of ten pounds for a few days till he received a remittance that had been delayed in the transmission. “Young man,” exclaimed the indignant poet, “you have, I see, a gold watch-chain and a silk umbrella; pawn or sell these, and blush to have begged.”

THE Collège Hall of Residence for women students in London, which was opened last October at No. 1 Byng Place, Gordon Square, has proved so thorough a success that the Committee are enlarging their bounds, and are adapting the adjoining house, which they hope to open for students in January, 1884. It is found that the fees for board and residence, which range from 51 to 75 guineas a year, cover all expenses, including the Principal's salary, except rent. For the cost of adapting and furnishing the second house, which is estimated at £1,000, the Committee appeal to the public. Seeing that such a College is as much needed in London as Newnham and Girton are at Cambridge, we hope that this appeal will meet with no less liberal a response than those made in behalf of the sister institutions.

EDUCATION SOCIETY.

THE TEACHING OF MATHEMATICAL PHYSICS.

By Professor MINCHIN.

LAST January I read a paper before the Association for the Improvement of Geometrical Teaching on the teaching of Elementary Dynamics, and in that paper I dealt solely with the subject of Statics. The plan adopted in the paper consisted in dealing successively with particular portions of the subject, and even particular problems, rather than with generalities, as the consideration of these latter alone did not appear to me to possess the *definiteness* of suggestion required by an association whose object is the improvement of teaching and the production of good text-books. For a similar reason I shall adopt the same method in the present paper; and, while I propose to deal chiefly with the remaining branches of Dynamics which occur in the ordinary course of mathematical study (namely, Kinematics and Kinetics), I shall take occasion to offer some suggestions on the teaching of Physics generally.

Every elementary work on Kinetics begins by defining the term *velocity*, and also by saying that the measure of a variable velocity is

"the space which would be passed over in a unit of time if the velocity remained constant during the unit and that same as at the instant of time considered." This enunciation, I think, does not give the student a sufficiently definite idea of the method of estimating the magnitude of the velocity at any proposed instant; and I would suggest that any selected numerical example in which the distance travelled by a moving point is given in terms of the time occupied would place him in a better position for understanding the matter. Thus, if a point move along a right line so that the distance travelled at the end of t hours is $20t^2$ in miles, what is the particular rate of going exactly at the end of 3 hours? You may begin by proposing to estimate it by the distance passed over in the whole hour between the 3rd and 4th, and point out that this estimate is much in excess. The student will admit that it would be better to find the space gone over in half an hour and multiply it by 2 (or divide by $\frac{1}{2}$). He will then see that it would be better still to find the distance travelled over in a quarter of an hour and multiply it by 4 (or divide by $\frac{1}{4}$); and, again, better to find the distance gone over in 5 minutes and multiply by 12 (or divide by $\frac{1}{5}$); and so on, diminishing the time-interval continuously, until he will see plainly that, if we find the distance, Δs miles, gone over in the time Δt hours, and take the quotient $\frac{\Delta s}{\Delta t}$

when Δt and, consequently, Δs are both indefinitely diminished, this would be the accurate expression for the rate of going at the end of the 3rd hour. A table of the successive approximations to the true number (viz., 120 miles per hour), showing the closeness of approximation for the smaller intervals, appeals strikingly to him; and in this way he gets a much stronger and more definite and real idea of the measure of a variable velocity than he can possibly get from the rather vague definition which I have quoted.

This process of taking Δs and Δt , dividing the first by the second, and showing that there is evidently some number (or magnitude) to which we are approaching more and more closely the more we diminish Δt and Δs , is the basis of the Differential Calculus, and as such, of course, frightens people. Well, don't tell the student that it is the Calculus, and you won't frighten him. Why there should be such a strong feeling against touching on the ideas of the Calculus at an early stage I cannot understand. Some of them are as simple to the beginner as his sums in Simple Proportion, and might be taught with his elementary Geometry and Algebra.

There is often the same vagueness in the definitions of other quantities whose magnitudes are functions of distance, time, or any other variable. Thus, for example, with regard to the electric density at any point on a charged conductor—"if the surface be not uniformly electrified, we define density as the quantity which would be on a unit of area, supposing the density uniform and of the same value as at the point under consideration."

Of course, we meet with the same looseness in the definitions of acceleration. But, with regard to this conception, I may say that no other physical entity is so erroneously spoken of in text-books. Thus, if we agree on feet and seconds as the length and time units, we are repeatedly—almost invariably—told that the acceleration of a body falling in vacuo near the Earth's surface is 32 (or 32.2) feet per second. It is extremely important that the beginner should be taught the radical difference between *velocity* and *acceleration*—that he should clearly understand that the absurdity of adding the one to the other is as great as the absurdity of adding a quart of water to the light of a star. *Acceleration should never be spoken of as feet per second*, and yet in almost every book, without exception, which I have met with, it is spoken of in this manner.

I find that, when in conversation with some people whose business it is to teach, I suggest that acceleration can be properly described in only one way—viz., as feet per second per second, the expression is received with merriment, as if it were meant only as a joke. I ask, however, what would be thought of a student, or of a writer, who described the quantity of work 1,650 foot-pounds as equal to 3 Horse-power, because 1,650 is 3 times 550, and 1 Horse-power is 550 foot-pounds per second? Yet the error of speaking of g as 32.2 feet per second is precisely the same as that of describing a quantity of work as so much Horse-power, since acceleration is time-rate of velocity, just as Horse-power is time-rate of work.

There are people, no doubt, who will set this contention down as hypercritical. That it is not so, I am quite sure from my observation of the odd mixtures of velocity and acceleration—utterly wrong and self-contradictory from their neglect of the principle of homogeneity—which students persist in making, and *will* persist in making so long as they are taught that acceleration and velocity are both in feet per second.

Here, for instance, are two typical questions, taken from text-books

in very general use, in which the nature of acceleration is inaccurately described:—*

"If a body weighing w pounds lie on a platform which is descending with an acceleration of n feet per second, find the pressure on the platform."

Of course, it is evident here, that if the velocity of the descending platform is increased by n feet per second, the increase taking place in a month, the pressure of the weight on it will be very different from its value if the increase takes place in the $\frac{1}{10000}$ th part of a second—a distinction which is ignored in the question, and which the beginner is not likely to evolve for himself.

"Find the tension of a rope which draws a carriage of w tons weight up a smooth incline of 1 in n , and causes an increase of velocity of m feet per second."

There is the same omission here as in the previous question, and the looseness of language employed in these and similar questions is very likely to lead to erroneous ideas in the mind of the beginner.

I believe it to be important that the student should be taught to distinguish velocity from acceleration, and I think it unfortunate that scientific men have not adopted a standard term to signify a *unit velocity*, and another to signify *unit acceleration*; the only suggestion in this reference that I have met with is one by Professor Lodge who, in his *Elementary Mechanics*, proposes to call the unit velocity "a speed" and the unit acceleration "a hurry." Were some such system agreed upon, I am sure that a great deal of the loose language ordinarily employed, and many erroneous ideas prevalent, would be done away with.

Recently electricians have met in congress, and decided on the adoption of very precise definitions of the magnitudes with which the science of Electricity deals. The result is, that even a practical electrician, with very little theoretical knowledge, will at once see how absurd it is to speak of a quantity of electricity as so many amperes, or the power of a current as so many ergs or kilogramme-mètres, instead of so many watts.

Why should not the C. G. S. system be completed by the addition of terms for the *unit velocity*, the *unit acceleration*, and the *unit momentum*?

If these were separately named, the student would not be so prone to confound them as he is at present; and the experience of high-class electricians, as related to me in conversation, goes to show the great practical advantage of a systematic nomenclature and the ease with which it could be introduced if a few people zealously set themselves to work with such an object.

After the kinematical conceptions of velocity and acceleration, we come to that of *Mass*, or quantity of matter. On one supposition, the mass of a body and the equality of the masses of two different bodies would present no difficulty to the mind of even the mere beginner. Granted that in the ultimate conceivable analysis of all apparently different kinds of matter—wood, clay, platinum, feathers, &c.—we should meet with atoms all absolutely alike in every respect, except that they occupy different points in space, then the mass of any body might be defined as the *number of these atoms contained in it*. Moreover, it would be clear that by a mere rearrangement of the atoms in a feather, a piece of platinum could be produced. We know that some recent speculations and experiments (founded, I believe, on Spectrum Analysis) have aimed at proving the identity of the substratum in all matter.

If, then, this ultimate identity exists, no difficulty can be felt in conceiving the *equality* of two masses; but how if it does not? On this important point, some at least of our current text-books—and those of a high class too—are silent.

You will observe that we have not yet come to the idea of *Force*, nor can we do so logically until we have introduced the idea of *Matter*. Inasmuch, however, as we are now brought face to face with the possibility of heterogeneity in the ultimate analysis of matter, it is quite certain that, in order to allow for such a possibility, and at the same time to say what we mean by *equal masses*—equal quantities of non-identical substrata—some *tertium quid* must be introduced. This *tertium quid* must be some one *invariable effect*, be that effect of whatever nature you please; and it must be such that the test which it applies in defining the equality of two masses must evidently hold good in case the physicists should ever succeed in establishing the existence and identity of ultimate atoms in all kinds of matter.

On this point, Clerk Maxwell, in his little book, "Matter and Motion," is the clearest writer I have met. He says,—"As long as we have to do with bodies of exactly the same kind, there is no difficulty

* In these examples I purposely suppress the numerical data, leaving the wording in all other respects unaltered, in order to avoid identification which might give offence—the giving offence being an object very far from that which I have in view.

in understanding how the quantity of matter is to be measured. If equal quantities of the substance produce equal effects of any kind, we may employ these effects as measures of the quantity of the substance. For instance, if we are dealing with sulphuric acid of uniform strength, we may estimate the quantity of a given portion of it in several different ways. We may weigh it; we may pour it into a graduated vessel, and so measure its volume; or we may ascertain how much of a standard solution of potash it will neutralise. We might use the same methods to estimate a quantity of nitric acid if we were dealing only with nitric acid; but if we wished to compare a quantity of nitric acid with a quantity of sulphuric acid, we should obtain different results by weighing, by measuring, and by testing with an alkaline solution." Clearly, then, such tests of the equality of masses are inapplicable, and Clerk Maxwell, in passing on to the real, universal, and consistent test, introduces the conception of *Force*; but observe the manner in which he introduces this *tertium quid*, and you will see that Force, as thus introduced, does not suppose us to have already attained the notion of a method enabling us to assert the quality of two masses,—i.e., the very method of which we are in search. In fact, the only principle which he introduces for the purpose is that of "the permanency of the properties of bodies" (p. 38):—"We know that a thread of caoutchouc, when stretched beyond a certain length, exerts a tension which increases the more the thread is elongated. When the same thread is drawn out to the same length, it will, if its properties remain constant, exert the same tension."

The stretched thread exerts *force*, but force as defined only by Newton's First Axiom; namely, a cause producing *acceleration*, no matter how the *magnitude* of this cause is to be estimated; and if the thread, being stretched to the *same extent*, generates velocity at the same time-rate in two masses, we call these two masses *equal*.

This definition satisfies our requisite conditions; and, having bridged over the (possible) gulf between kinds of matter, we may make use of the new conception to define Force quantitatively as *time-rate of generation of momentum—whatever be the mass which it is moving*,—as is done in Newton's Second Axiom.

Here, then, at the very threshold of all Science, where it is of the utmost importance that the student's ideas should be very clear, the state of affairs is usually put before him in the most obscure and entangled manner, and it is no wonder that he should complain,—“In defining magnitudes of different kinds of matter, I am supposed to know how force is measured, while, in defining the magnitudes of different forces, I must know how different kinds of matter are compared as to quantity.”

We next come to the *quantitative* definition of Force—a term which has been, if possible, more abused than even *Acceleration*. The simple definition of Force contained in Newton's Second Axiom is, in general terms, *time-rate of generation of momentum*, the merely *qualitative* definition being supplied by the First Axiom, and it is this qualitative definition which, as we have just seen, is made use of in the definition of equal masses.

It would be difficult to enumerate all the absurd and contradictory uses of the word Force with which we meet. Prof. Tait, in his famous Glasgow lecture, during the meeting of the British Association in 1876, mentions some of these misuses, and stigmatizes them with just severity. There is, however, one definition of Force which has appeared in print, and which has escaped Prof. Tait's notice. Some years ago a hot dispute was carried on in the columns of *The Field* between a Cork gentleman (Mr. P.) and another (Mr. F.) in England, on the question whether force should be used when the angler throws out his cast of flies in trout fishing. Mr. P., who was an advocate for force, appeared, after much discussion, to have got into difficulties, and, in fact, to be regularly "cornered," when, by a magnificent stroke of genius, he tore himself out of the toils. "Although," said he, "I am an advocate for the use of force, Mr. F. must remember my definition of force, which is as follows—*Force is the legitimate exercise of power, judiciously employed upon lawful occasions*!"

Seizing at first on the most salient point in the usage of our textbooks, we may observe that the student is taught to group forces under the two great heads—*Statical Forces* and *Dynamical Forces*—as if they were two separate and dissimilar entities. One writer tells us that "in Dynamics we estimate the magnitude of a force by the velocity it is capable of producing in a given time," when it would have been equally easy for him to say that the force is estimated by the rate at which it generates *momentum*—this latter definition having the merit of being right, and also of calling the attention of the student to the fact that it matters not how small or how great a mass the force is moving, in accordance with Newton's Second Axiom. The truth is, that the entity force with which we deal in Kinetics is precisely the same as that with which we deal in Statics; and that Statics and

Kinetics differ, not in dealing with two different things, but in dealing with the same thing under different circumstances. The ordinary student, however, goes away with the impression that statical and "dynamical" forces are two utterly different things. It is not surprising, then, that we find such a writer proposing the problem,—“If a body, under the influence of a constant force, move through 5 feet in 3 seconds, find the magnitude of the force which animates it. *Ans.*: 1.111 feet per second”!

Can any rational man suppose that the beginner, if questioned on this result, would be able to explain that what he means by such an answer is, that the effect of the aforesaid force on the body is to increase its velocity by 1.111 feet per second every second? Certainly, I have not found in beginners either a disposition or an ability to correct the obscurities and inaccuracies of teachers or writers by lucid explanations of their own.

Some of the misleading and erroneous expressions with regard to Force which have been exposed and ridiculed by Prof. Tait, though found in the writings of certain experimental physicists, are not to be met with in works by mathematical writers—as, for instance, "the principle of the conservation of force"; but, unfortunately, some of them are to be found in the works of authors who ought to know better.

It was to be expected that our old friend "centrifugal force" would not be allowed to pass without well-merited condemnation. The idea which this term conveyed, still conveys to many students, and is certainly calculated to convey, is that a particle moving in any curved path is acted upon, in addition to all the external forces urging it, by an *outward normal force produced by the very motion of the particle itself*. Possibly those who have not had much to do with the actual verbal teaching of students may be inclined to believe that I am misrepresenting the state of the case, but I have certainly found this grotesque notion to prevail. Happily, many of our current text-books are very explicit in their condemnation of this fallacy; but let me take one instance to the contrary. The writer of a work largely used in Ireland devotes a special paragraph to "centrifugal force," the value of which he proceeds to find. We have the usual figure—a circle with a polygon of a large number of sides inscribed in it,—and it is explained that, in order that a body should revolve in the circle, some force must act upon it in the direction of the normal; this is called "the deflecting force," *f*, and it is proved to be equal to $\frac{v^2}{r}$. No mention is made in

the demonstration or exposition of centrifugal force, until the result of the investigation is summed up thus in italics,—“*The centrifugal force, which is equal and opposite to the deflecting force, is therefore directly proportional to the square of the velocity, and inversely proportional to the radius of the circle described.*” Is the bewildered student, then, to understand that the body is acted upon by two equal and opposite forces along the normal—the one "the deflecting force," and the other "centrifugal force"? Certainly he is, if words have any meaning. After this follows (by way of elucidation!) the mysterious oracular statement,—“The force *f* is understood to be the force applied to the unit of mass. If it were necessary to compare the effects of centrifugal force upon different bodies, we should then multiply each centrifugal force by the mass of the body it is applied to move.” The last words here remove all doubt as to the intention of the writer to class "centrifugal force" among the external forces applied to the body; and just try to fathom the meaning of "comparing the effects of centrifugal force upon different bodies"!! Then follow some examples giving us "centrifugal force" as "14.062 feet per second," &c. Saturn is so peculiar a planet that perhaps we must not object to be told that "centrifugal force" at his equator is "5.79243 feet per second"; but this is the only possible defence of such a statement. We are also categorically told that, in consequence of "centrifugal force," "every particle of the matter composing the earth is repelled from the axis of rotation by a force proportional to its distance from that axis."

All this language is exceedingly erroneous, and my contention with regard to it is this,—that language which is strictly correct, and calculated to convey sound ideas, is just as readily intelligible to the student, or that it could be made so by proper teaching.

In my *Uniplanar Kinematics*, I have advocated the entire abolition of the term "centrifugal force," on account of the erroneous idea which, even etymologically, it conveys; and I have advocated a reversion to the usage of Newton. Anybody experiencing "change of motion" reacts on some agent—which may be no other than a surrounding medium—producing this change of motion, and the force exerted by the body on the agent may either be called "resistance to acceleration" or "force of inertia." The latter term is that which I have adopted, because of its comparative conciseness; and it is in very general use among the best foreign writers. The component (external) force acting in any direction on a particle, and the force of inertia of

the particle in that direction, are merely two aspects of the same stress, as is clearly pointed out by Clerk Maxwell. Of this fact, some of the "centrifugal force" men do not give the student the slightest inkling; and the result is, that resistance to acceleration (exerted by the particle) and external force (exerted on the particle) are hopelessly jumbled together in the mind of the student, until, by some lucky accident, he unlearns the errors, the acquisition of which cost him so much labour.

As my business lies with scientific text-books, and with students who make, or attempt to make, a study of Dynamics, I am not concerned with the almost innumerable errors of ordinary conversation and newspaper writing on the employment of the word Force and other dynamical terms. I must, therefore, pass on to the next term which suffers at the hands of some authors of text-books; namely, the term *Power*.

Among physicists this word is in frequent use, and it denotes, as we know, *time-rate of doing work*. In the C. G. S. system the unit power is 1 erg per second, for which no special name exists; but the electricians, with their admirable method, have adopted a term to denote a convenient unit-power in practical electricity; namely, the "watt," a term suggested by Sir William Siemens to denote a volt-ampère. The "Horse-power" is scarcely scientific enough, and for the ordinary class-room applications of Dynamics it is, as a unit, probably too large.

Now the word "power" is also sadly misused. We all remember being taught something about the relation between the "power" and the "weight" (!) in a machine in equilibrium or in uniform motion. Here, then, "power" means simply *force*; but the writer just referred to, who uses "power" in this sense, uses it also in a contrary sense. Thus,— "If steam be admitted into a cylinder at a pressure of 45 lbs., while it raises the piston 18 inches, and then be allowed to expand until it raises the piston 6 feet, calculate the work done, supposing the cylinder to have a diameter of 40 inches. *Ans.*: 192,321 foot-pounds, or 5·83 Horse-power." This writer, of course, would say that if we could get a pole long enough for a snail to crawl up until the aggregate work done by him was 33,000 foot-pounds, the snail had worked with 1 Horse-Power, although he might have occupied a century in the performance. Again, why 192,321 foot-pounds should be 5·83 Horse-power, and not 349·8 Horse-power, is not evident, because 1 Horse-power is 550 foot-pounds [per second] as well as 33,000 foot-pounds [per minute]. The question of time is vital; and the student should be taught that Horse-power is a time-rate.

(To be continued.)

THE NEW DEPARTMENT FOR WOMEN IN THE OWENS COLLEGE, MANCHESTER.

AN important step in the higher education of women in the North of England is now being taken. The Victoria University, by its original charter, granted in 1880, was empowered to confer degrees on "all persons, male or female, who shall have pursued a regular course of study in a College in the University, and shall submit themselves for examination." This provision, so far as it concerns women, has been hitherto inoperative, as the only College at present in the University is the Owens College, Manchester, which was established and grew to maturity before the desirability of giving women opportunities of higher education was generally recognised. For several years the Manchester and Salford College for Women has been at work in Brunswick Street, and latterly about eighty students have been attending lectures and classes there. While the instruction has been given, and the examinations held, by professors and lecturers of Owens College, it has yet been an independent institution, having no organic connexion with the College, and unrecognised by the University. Last June, however, on the second degree-day of Victoria University, it was announced by Dr. Greenwood, who is at once the Vice-Chancellor of the University and the Principal of Owens College, that the Manchester and Salford College for Women had been as it were annexed, and that its work would now be carried on as that of a regular department of the Owens College. Women, therefore, who are now students of the Department, and have attended the necessary courses of instruction, will be qualified to present themselves for the degree,

and other examinations of the Victoria University. Two women students have already passed the Preliminary Examination.

The first Prospectus of the Department for Women of the Owens College, Manchester, has accordingly just been issued. About twenty different classes are announced, falling into three sections—Elementary, First year, and Advanced, the last supplying instruction for the second and third years of study. The subjects of instruction are Greek, Latin, German, French, Mathematics, English Language, English Literature and History, and Logic. The instruction is in all cases given by professors and lecturers of the Owens College, and the Department is under the direct supervision of the Principal. The only official peculiar to it is the Lady Secretary and Tutor.

Students of the Department must be at least sixteen years of age. Each student may join as many or as few classes as she likes. This arrangement is made with the view of meeting the wants of two different classes of students. There are those, in the first place, who, being over school age, wish to continue their studies, but who have not the time or strength to take up a large number of subjects at once, or to work for several years. Such students have now first-rate teaching offered them in whatever subject they choose, and it is understood that the consideration of the authorities is likely to be called at an early date to the desirability of establishing a scheme of certificates, by which a formal recognition will be conferred on the successful prosecution of special studies. Several of the courses for the present year are so arranged as to be useful to students who are reading for the Higher Cambridge Local Examination, which, no doubt, will be a convenience to many. In the second place, provision is made for the smaller, but very important, class of students who are able to go through a full College course, with the view of obtaining a University degree at its close. These students will matriculate as members of the Victoria University, and will pass in succession the Preliminary, the Intermediate, and the (ordinary) B.A. degree examinations; or, the Preliminary, and the Honour degree examinations. The Council are further empowered to admit women students who have passed the Preliminary Examination of the University to certain of the more advanced classes in Owens College itself, and it will probably be found convenient to give them part of their instruction in this way.

In so large and energetic a population as that of Manchester and its environs there must be a large number of women to whom the first-rate education now offered will prove attractive. The lecture fees are very moderate—two-and-a-half guineas for a class meeting twice a week for three terms, for instance,—and it is likely that Scholarships will be established in connexion with the new Department. There can be no doubt that the Women's Department of Owens College ought to be an important centre of women's education.

The present Prospectus marks a beginning, and further experience will show in what directions the work of the Department can most profitably develop.

COLLEGE FOR THE PREPARATION OF CANDIDATES FOR THE CIVIL SERVICE AND ARMY.—In order to meet the acknowledged evils of the system of crammers, a number of distinguished men connected with the public service and education have formed themselves into a provisional committee to found a College which shall combine special preparation with the advantages of a corporate life and of proper moral control. The College is to consist of a central educational institution, surrounded by boarding-houses assigned to separate masters, and the site is to be away from any large town. A guarantee fund is being raised, and subscriptions may be sent to the Honorary Secretary, 7 Pall Mall, S.W.

THE INTERNATIONAL MICROSCOPE.—Having examined, at the request of the Scientific Instrument Agency, their new three-guinea microscope, we can report most favourably on it. It has inch, half-inch, and quarter-inch object-glasses of excellent definition, and besides all the usual fittings, what is rare in microscopes of the price, a fine adjustment. In every respect it seems to us as good as one for which we gave twice the money, but this was ten years ago.

NOTES AND RECOLLECTIONS.

SIR CHARLES WHEATSTONE—DEAN STANLEY—
CANON KINGSLEY.

By the Hon. L. A. TOLLEMACHE.

(Continued from p. 307.)

The following account of an interview between Dean Stanley and Chunder Sen, which has been communicated to me by an eye-witness, may be worth inserting, though it relates very indirectly to the Dean. Theologians of various shades of opinion were invited to meet Chunder Sen at the Deanery, in the generous, if rather ambitious, hope of bringing about an alliance between the Brahmo Somaj and the English Church. Chunder Sen made the very plausible remark that the doctrine of the Incarnation seems to present an insuperable objection to such an alliance. Thereupon an enthusiastic clergyman rose up *calidus juvenis*, and used words to the effect that the doctrine in question may admit of modification, and that the Second Person of the Trinity will not hold the same rank in the theology of the future as in the theology of the past and present. When this startling speech was over, one of the champions of orthodoxy withstood to the face the presumptuous Elihu, who had been instant out of season, and had uttered opinions unwelcome to his elders. At the close of the evening the Dean made a few remarks, but, with admirable wisdom and moderation, forbore to express sympathy with either of the combatants.

Shortly after the appointment of the present Primate of the Northern Province, Stanley, being asked whether he was not surprised at his rapid elevation, made the oracular reply: "There has been nothing like it since Ambrose." Ambrose was chosen, before he was baptized, to be Archbishop of Milan.

The Dean once made the acute remark that "the Hebrews were not an *inscribing* people." Even in the account of their passage of the Jordan, they are represented as merely setting up a cairn of stones; the Greeks or Romans would have commemorated the event by a monument or tablet. It should, however, be borne in mind that the Moabites were, at least in one instance, *inscribers*; and that the inscription on the Moabite stone—which reads exactly like the first chapter of the Chronicles of the kings of Moab—would prove, even if other evidence were wanting, the kinship between Moab and Israel.

Dean Stanley was never a mathematician. I am told that in mature life, when his reputation was achieved, he revisited his first school, a private school at Liverpool, where Mr. Gladstone had been before him. He modestly told his former teacher that he was still as bad at figures as ever. The teacher gave him an often condemned but ever welcome sort of consolation—the consolation which, not Rochefoucauld only, but St. Peter deduces from our "knowing that the same afflictions are accomplished in our brethren which are in the world." In fact, the pedagogue comforted his old pupil by the assurance that Mr. Gladstone had also been weak in arithmetic. If this could truly be affirmed of one who is now the greatest financier of the age, we are tempted to say that in his case: *Orator nascitur, mathematicus fit.*

The Dean told a story about Westminster Abbey, which tends to show that this house of prayer used to be regarded, if not as a den of thieves, at least as a monopoly of beads. Not long before his appointment, a lady, contrary to the Protestant fashion, knelt down in the sacred edifice to say her private prayers. A veteran beadle, shocked by the innovation, interrupted her devotions; he told her that if such an irregularity were permitted, there would be no end to it: either she must join a party of sightseers, or else leave the abbey!

Our notice of Arthur Stanley may conclude with a few trifles which derive their sole interest from their relation to this most interesting man. As Shakespeare would have said,

"He mends the jewel by the wearing it."

He was much amused by the experience of an old friend and neighbour, a Cheshire clergyman, who always wore a black necktie when travelling to London. The shrewd divine had observed that he was neglected by the porters at the Euston Station; and learnt, on inquiry, that clergymen, being poorer or more scrupulous than other first-class passengers, seldom give the customary tip, and are treated accordingly. He, therefore, being wise in his generation, assumed the character of a *prêtre défroqué*. The Dean, on hearing this, playfully declared that he was quite willing to give the customary shilling; but he really dared not doff his ecclesiastical uniform. Was it impossible by some less violent method to appease the anti-clerical officials?

When I was an undergraduate at Balliol, my tutor rebuked me for using too frequently—if it was not for using *at all*—the word "adequate." Shortly after the reprimand, I attended a public lecture by Mr. Matthew Arnold, in which the words "adequate" and "inadequate" occurred so frequently that I could not resist counting; and, so far as I remember, the word ("adequate" and "inadequate" being counted as practically identical) was repeated little short of two dozen times. Not only did I relate the fact to my kind friend and tutor (the translator of Plato), but I also mentioned it to Arthur Stanley, who afterwards said to me, with a comico-mischievous smile, "I told it to Matt." My chief triumph, however, was that, within ten minutes after the lecture was over, my little computation had the honour of becoming anonymous, and was repeated to me as a piece of news.

The sympathetic and versatile temperament of the Dean was shown by the boyish pleasure which he took in puzzles and *jeux de mots*. I remember his being delighted with a rhyme—the only possible one, I believe—to the word *month*, which was invented by some Cambridge man:—

"He who would fain a senior wrangler be,
Must eat but little and must drink but tea,
Must burn his midnight oil from month to month,
And solve binomials to the $n + 1^{\text{th}}$."

The Roman general who gave battle on the most inauspicious day in the whole Calendar—the common anniversary of Cremera and of Allia—was expected to lose: and he lost. No one felt a greater interest than Dean Stanley in extinct modes of thought, and in the strange accidents which, by impartially confirming contradictory beliefs, are the bulwark of all superstitions and of none. It may, therefore, be worth remarking that on this same anniversary (July 18th) his own death occurred. The coincidence recalls a more extraordinary one which had relation to Otfried Müller, who, after having written disparagingly about the Hellenic Sun-god, died at Athens from the effects of a sunstroke which he received on the site of the temple at Delphi! May not the scholar who was blessed with so appropriate a fate be likened to a soldier falling in the moment of victory? *Credibile est ipsum sic voluisse mori.*

The apology with which I prefaced my short notice of Dean Stanley is yet more needed by my far shorter notice of Canon Kingsley. My intercourse with him was confined to a single day, which I had the great pleasure of spending at Eversley, and to the exchange of a few letters. One of those letters and part of another are published in the *Life*. The following is an extract from a letter which he wrote to me about my article on *Longevity*. As the letter was unfortunately mislaid when the *Life* was published, the extract is now printed for the first time:—

"I have thought over the subject for some time. It seems to me that life over eighty is very rare (if you like, I will send you a précis of deaths of old folk in my parish, a very healthy one, for 30-40 years past, of those who have died of mere old age). But I have held that where races, as in Russia, Ireland, and other savage countries, are *éprouvés* of their weakly members by hard living, a few great strong ones might live on to any age, if their circumstances (food, air, habits, clothes) were not altered. And I should therefore look for cases of extreme long life, not among the higher,

but among the lower classes; never among the town-dwellers, always in remote agricultural districts. Continuity of circumstance, I know from medical experience, is everything in keeping the very aged alive."

That Mr. Kingsley was a man of genius, no one doubts, and no one could talk to him long without feeling it. But it would be impertinent as well as needless to enlarge on this topic. So I will confine myself to the particulars of our intercourse.

He rather surprised me by his acceptance of the doctrine of Philosophical Necessity. He thought that there could be no doubt that our actions are determined by the preponderance of motives. Nevertheless, I venture to think that he did not do justice either to Comte or to Buckle. He held that the latter attached too much importance to the fact that for every twenty girls that are born, there are twenty-one boys.

He said that he was a strong Darwinian; and, like many physiologists, he did not regard black men as by any means our equals.

He was opposed to the enfranchisement of women. Yet he considered that women, though in political capacity inferior, are on the whole superior to men. He came to this conclusion by assuming that mothers possess *ἐν δυνάμει* the qualities of their children. He would not acknowledge that these are as much the father's children as the mother's.

Dean Stanley used to say, more or less in jest, that he might congratulate himself on the badness of his handwriting, inasmuch as the best compositors had to be told off to decipher it. Be this as it may, Canon Kingsley's compositions also afford an example that the most readable writings are not always the most legible. The following incident may illustrate this. I received from Mr. Kingsley a most kind letter inviting me to Eversley, and containing in the postscript the seemingly harmless assertion, "My station is Wokingham." I showed the letter to an extreme Tory and Evangelical lady, in the hope that the sight of his autograph might soften, if not convert her. She read patiently through the arch-heretic's epistle until she came upon the fatal postscript. She then exclaimed, in a voice more of sorrow than of anger: "Ah! how mistaken he is!" I modestly suggested that, in indifferent matters such as the name of a railway station, even a Liberal would generally tell the truth. "Oh! is that it?" she said; "I thought the words were '*My trust is the working-man.*'" I have kept the postscript by me as a curiosity, and I am bound to say that my Tory friend (whom, by the way, I failed to convert) was not without excuse for her misapprehension.

This mistake suggests an incident related by an eminent living person who, in a lecture at Exeter Hall, spoke of "that special invention of the devil—a double lie in the shape of half a truth." He told me that the next day he found, to his consternation, that he was reported to have said "a double eye in the shape of half a tooth." "But," he added philosophically, "the phrase was printed in inverted commas; and my readers mistook it for a quotation fraught with some recondite and mysterious meaning."

Before taking my leave of these two distinguished clergymen, I would fain say a word about their intellectual positions; or rather about the intellectual position of the one whom I knew better than the other, and with whom I feel more in sympathy. I once heard a leading Broad Church divine complain that hardly 500 of his clerical brethren are Liberals; he, however, qualified this statement by adding, "Stanley is what I call a Liberal; Kingsley is not." Many of us may think this judgment too rigorous; but, at any rate, it testifies to the general impression that the school of thought which Stanley represents is wholly different from the school which Kingsley represents. In what does the difference consist? Perhaps we may answer this question roughly and in a few words by saying that Stanley had a firmer grasp of the truths set forth in the following sentences of Mr. Freeman:—

"The discovery of the Comparative method in philology, in mythology,—let me add, in politics and history, and the whole range of

human thought,—marks a stage in the progress of the human mind at least as great and memorable as the revival of Greek and Latin learning. . . . And not the least of its services is that it has put the languages and the history of the so-called classical world into their true position in the general history of the world. By making them no longer the objects of an exclusive idolatry, it has made them the objects of a worthier, because a more reasonable worship. . . . The heroes of ancient legend, the worthies of ancient history, lose not, but rather gain, in true dignity by being made the objects of a reasonable homage instead of an exclusive superstition."

It is obvious that this remark applies just as much to the "worthies" of Palestine as to those of Greece and Rome; nay, in the case of the former, the admonition is more needed in proportion as they have been objects of a worship more exclusive, if not more idolatrous.

Many years ago I was much struck by a University sermon of Arthur Stanley, in which he said (as nearly as I can remember) that the great peculiarity of Christianity, which proves Christianity to be true and all other religions to be false, is, not that it has so many miracles, but that it has so few. Of course this is a hard saying, open to very obvious logical objections. But Dean Stanley (as he himself frankly admitted) was not a logician. His interests were, in the main, personal. If it would be too much to say that he loved Canterbury Cathedral chiefly because it reminded him of Thomas à Becket, it may safely be affirmed that, when he read the history of the third century, his heart had little room for the subtleties of Athanasian disputants: it was penetrated with the wisdom and the zeal of Athanasius himself. In short, Stanley was a man of imagination (some might say a poet *manqué*) rather than a metaphysician. Such being his temperament, there is no paradox in maintaining that his views show their real import, not so much in himself as in his friends and followers. Yet, even so far as he himself is concerned, the passage which I have quoted from his sermon, furnishes one among many proofs that in his mind (to borrow the phrase of his friend Mr. Matthew Arnold) "the comparative history of all miracles was a conception entertained and a study admitted." That is to say, he applied the Comparative method to religious beliefs; and, thus applying it, he was convinced that the conventional view of the relation of Christianity to other beliefs requires readjustment. His friends and followers, while agreeing with him on this essential point, will take their own views of the readjusting process, and will express them in their own way. Some of these, comparing other modes of worship with their own mode, would rather regard their own as *facile princeps inter pares* than liken it to the Seraph who (in lines ranked by Stanley as among the finest in our literature) is represented as

"Faithful found,
Among the faithless faithful only he,
Among innumerable false unmoved,
Unshaken, unsexed, unterrified."

In other words, they think that they are not betraying, but exalting and establishing their faith, when they maintain that Christianity is in the religious "grove the very straightest plant," instead of being the Tree of Life in a forest of Upas-trees.

THE SKINNER STREET TRAINING COLLEGE.

BY EMILY SHIRREFF.

THE re-opening of this College for women teachers after the autumn vacation was marked by a fact of no small importance in the world of education; namely, by the addition to its former work of a department for Kindergarten training. This has long been the purpose of the governing body, but circumstances were not favourable. This year, however, an opportunity offered, and was promptly seized, and the new work has been accepted by the able Principal of

the College in a spirit that gives the best augury of success. The department will, indeed, for various reasons, into which it is needless to enter here, begin its labours on a small scale, and only with students who have completed their first year's study, and passed a portion of the Fröbel Society's examination; but the small numbers and restricted scale of the work are of little consequence, since they leave untouched the significance of the fact that for the first time two hitherto entirely distinct spheres of training will be amalgamated; that Fröbel's system will be placed in its rightful position, as the basis of all subsequent education, and the Kindergarten be recognized as the true portal of the school.

In some measure, of course, the two departments of the College must still be distinct; the training for the Kindergarten proper must be separate, and have its own practising school,—the nature of the practical work makes this indispensable; but both will be under the same general direction, and the students (though trained apart for the special teaching they severally adopt) will share the lectures on the theory and principles of education, on philosophy and the portions of science required by the educator. From this union we cannot but hope that the idea of the essential unity and continuity of education will be kept before them all, as it never has been till now, and the clearness and firmness with which this idea is grasped, and held as the guide of all our efforts, marks one of the greatest distinctions between the educator and the mere teacher.

It is surely not too much to expect that students preparing for school teaching will thus be led to take a truer view of the importance of the period which precedes that where their own labour begins, and lose in consequence the notion—still, alas! so common—that the least-skilled teachers may be trusted with the youngest scholars, and avoid the no less common assumption that, in beginning school instruction, they have minds hitherto untaught and unbiassed to deal with. They will learn by their contact with Fröbel to show more respect for natural activity, for individual manifestations and peculiarities; to attach a deeper significance to them, and to realise that among these lies their work, far more than among books, till that later period when the necessity arises for special teaching for the work of life.

On the other hand, the Fröbel students will, it may be hoped, run less danger of becoming mechanical in their work, because less tempted to forget its ultimate aim and purpose, forced to see more clearly how subordinate is the *practice*, which is for one age only, to the mental training carried on through and by that practice which is destined to be the foundation of the work of all after-years. They will be helped to realise how important is the first direction given to tastes and aptitudes, when they see before their eyes, in the work of their companions, to what development those tastes and aptitudes are tending; they will feel how momentous is each groove of habit they help to trace, when they have the evidence before them of the help or hindrance those early habits give at the next stage of education. While the other students will, as we said, be induced to look back and see the root of their labour, so we trust the Kindergarten students will have their minds opened to look forward beyond their immediate task,—to feel through all they do, that while playing with babies, they are educating men and women; that the minute traits of character which they watch, the associations with things good and true which they strive to form, the love of the beautiful they seek to call forth and cultivate, the senses they train to higher delicacy,—that all is so much labour for the future, for that after-course held more constantly before their eyes by the work of their fellow-students, in which are manifested the graver issues of conduct and of intellectual and physical activity which are beginning to take shape under their own fostering care.

And if the effect of this new united work of the College should be thus beneficial to the students, we may also hope that it will not be lost upon the public. Little enough does that general public, which prates so glibly upon education in this our day, give itself the trouble to study what education

means; in token whereof, it has commonly looked upon the Kindergarten as a place where little children may be amused and kept out of mischief, and upon schools as bound to rectify all the mistakes and neglect of earlier years, and to sow knowledge broadcast into every soil, whatever the difference of nature or preparation. Now, it would seem that to persons prone by habit and fashion so to judge, a new light may be thrown on the subject by this new comprehensive work of the Training College. It seems not impossible, that seeing students prepare side by side with equal labour and earnestness for school and for Kindergarten teaching, may induce them to alter their views of both, and begin to ask in sober earnest what Fröbel did profess to teach, and in what manner his system really does promise to make later school work more efficient and profitable. There is but a step from the recognition of the service thus rendered to that of the general principle that the continuous unfolding and strengthening of faculty is the supreme function of education, since it is by the aid given to that natural development that the Kindergarten prepares for the school.

Again, these facts once recognized by the public, make more and more evident the necessity of having trained teachers. The Kindergarten alone forces that conviction upon any who will attend to it. A man or a woman who has mastered some portion of arithmetic or of grammar may fancy that he or she can impart the knowledge they possess; but they will hardly fancy that, without learning the right method, they can deal, as Fröbel has dealt, with the faculties, mental and physical, of little children; that they can assist and direct natural effort without any study given to the nature they wish to influence. We may be sure that, wherever Fröbel is accepted, the reign of spontaneous teachers is drawing to a close.

The whole question of training as regards at least first-class teachers—*i.e.*, of persons already educated, and requiring only professional training for their special work—is still, as we know, a confused one in the English mind, and apparently open to debate; though the action of the University of Cambridge in establishing an examination for such teachers, and, let it not be forgotten, the foundation and good work of the very College we are speaking of, have had no small effect in bringing it nearer to a solution. We may say that nowhere has it been thoroughly solved, since countries that accept in principle the necessity of training apply it only partially, and that they have never yet adopted training for the Kindergarten system as an integral part of the work. To England, then, after all, has been reserved the honour of inaugurating a complete system; and to the Skinner Street College—so young an institution, and so unaided by the public—will be awarded hereafter the high praise of being the first to comprise in its studies every period of education, and to send forth a body of teachers among whom shall be found some capable of giving instruction in the higher branches of knowledge, and others devoted to early childhood; but all imbued with the same principles, working upon the same foundation, and all following with patient observance the same laws in obedience to which the human being attains his full and perfect stature.

ART FOR SCHOOLS ASSOCIATION.

THE Committee have drawn up a form of questions, which they are circulating widely among Masters and Mistresses and Managers of Schools, whom they invite to express their opinion of the scheme, and to say how far they are individually willing and able to forward it. The plans of the Association are announced as follows in their general circular, which goes with the questions.

They propose—“1. To negotiate with Art publishers for the purchase of prints, photographs, etchings, chromo-lithographs, &c., on advantageous terms, and to supply them at the lowest possible price to schools. 2. To reproduce, from time to time, by one or more of the processes familiar to engravers and printers, carefully selected examples likely to have a large circulation. 3. To print a descriptive catalogue and price list of the examples which the Committee are prepared to

recommend to the notice of schools. 4. To present to schools, in special cases, and as the funds of the Association shall allow, small collections, and books explanatory of them. 5. To arrange various loan collections to be placed at the disposal of schools, on such terms as may prove convenient. 6. To bring together a number of examples to be exhibited in a suitable place as a tentative model of a standard collection. The collection to consist of pictures of the simplest natural objects, birds and their nests and eggs, trees, wild-flowers, and scenes of rural life such as town children seldom see, and country children often fail to enjoy consciously until their attention is specially called to them; pictures of animals in friendly relation with human beings, especially with children; pictures of the peasant and artisan life of our own and foreign countries, incidents of heroic adventure, &c.; pictures of architectural works of historic or artistic interest; landscapes and sea-pieces; historical portraits; scenes from history; and last, but by no means least, such reproductions as are available of suitable subjects among the numerous works of the Italian, Dutch, and modern schools, especially of those in our English public galleries. 7. To assist in, or otherwise promote, oral instruction such as may explain the works of Art in our National Collections, or those supplied to schools by the help of the Association."

Owing to the immense number of schools of one sort and another, it has been found impossible to send the circular to every one. But we understand that it was the original intention of the Committee to make their canvass exhaustive. It is to be hoped that those schoolmasters who have not received circulars but have heard in other ways of the movement, and feel well disposed towards it, will not hesitate to write for papers to the Honorary Secretary, Miss Mary Christie, Kingston House, Kew.

THE "ENGLISH ILLUSTRATED MAGAZINE."—Messrs. Macmillan's new venture marks an epoch in the history of periodicals. It offers to the million a combination of the best in art and literature, which hitherto only the few could obtain, and that in separate publications, and at ten times the price. Huxley for science, Grant Allen as naturalist, Swinburne as poet, and Black as novelist is an ideal staff. Not even *Fraser* or *Blackwood* in its palmiest days formed such a "ministry of all the talents." And the magazine is almost as strong in art as in literature. Tadema's "Shy," and Rossetti's "Lady Lilith," engraved by Theodor Knesing, are marvels of delicacy and skill.

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THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN AMERICA.

By Miss COOPER,

Head-mistress of the Edgbaston High School for Girls.

(Continued from p. 314.)

BESIDES its Normal Schools and Departments, America has done something to further the cause of educational training by the establishment of Chairs of Pedagogics in three of its Universities. It was at the State University of Michigan, situated at Ann Arbor, that I had the pleasure of making the acquaintance of the occupant of one of these chairs, Professor W. H. Payne. The name itself was full of pleasant associations to an old pupil of that great worker in the cause of English education, the late Professor Joseph Payne; though there was no relationship between the two, and though their educational views are not quite the same, the spirit of earnestness and zeal in such important work distinguishes the American professor as it did his English namesake.

Since my return from America, I have received from Professor W. H. Payne, an extremely interesting little work on education, entitled "Outlines of Educational Doctrine." The work is indeed outline, but it is full of suggestions, and one or two points are particularly well put. I will describe the work of Professor Payne at Ann Arbor in the words of the University Calendar for 1881-2:—

"The aims of the University in providing instruction in the Science and Art of Teaching are:—

"1. To fit University students for the higher positions in the public school service. It is a natural function of the University, as the head of our system of public instruction, to supply the demand made upon it for furnishing the larger public schools with superintendents, principals, and assistants. Year by year these important positions are falling more into the hands of men that have received their education in the University. Till recently the training given to our graduates has been almost purely literary; it has lacked the professional character that can alone give special fitness for the successful management of schools and school systems. Now, however, the University offers students that wish to become teachers ample facilities for professional study.

"2. To promote the study of educational science. The establishment of a Chair of Teaching is a recognition of the truth that the art of education has its correlative science; and that the processes of the schoolroom can become rational only by developing and teaching the principles that underlie these processes. Systems of public

instruction are everywhere on trial, and the final criteria by which they are to stand or fall must be found in a philosophical study of the educating art.

"3. To teach the history of education, and of educational systems and doctrines. The supreme right of the school is to grow; and much hurtful interference might be avoided by ascertaining the direction of educational progress, and the history of educational thought.

"4. To secure to teaching the rights, prerogatives, and advantages of a profession.

"5. To give a more perfect unity to our State educational system by bringing the secondary schools into closer relation with the University."

"*The Teacher's Diploma.*—The Teacher's Diploma will be given to resident graduates and to students of the University at the time of receiving a Bachelor's or a Master's degree, provided the candidate has completed one of the courses of study offered by the Professor of the Science and Art of Teaching; and, also, at least one of the Teacher's Courses offered by other Professors, and by special examination has shown such marked proficiency in the course chosen as qualifies him to give instruction.

"*The Science and Art of Teaching. First Semester.*—1. Practical: the art of teaching and governing; methods of instruction and general schoolroom practice; school hygiene; school law. Recitations and lectures. Text-book: Fitch's 'Lectures on Teaching.' Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday, 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ —9 $\frac{1}{2}$. Professor Payne.

"2. School supervision: embracing general school management; the art of grading and arranging courses of study; the conduct of institutes, &c. Recitations and lectures. Text-book: 'Chapters on School Supervision.' Monday and Wednesday 5—6. Professor Payne.

"*Second Semester.*—3. Theoretical, critical, and historical. Text-book: Bain's 'Education as a Science.' Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday, 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ —9 $\frac{1}{2}$. Professor Payne.

"4. Seminary; for the study and discussion of special topics in the history and philosophy of education. Monday and Wednesday, 5—6. Professor Payne.

"A prescribed course of reading will be required in connexion with Courses 1 and 2. Either Course 1 or Course 2 is requisite to obtain a Teacher's Diploma. Students whose purpose is to prepare themselves for ordinary schoolroom duties are advised to pursue Course 1; those who purpose to assume the management of high schools or of graded schools should take Course 3 in connexion with Course 1."

I will conclude my long series of extracts by some statistics and remarks taken from the Report of the U.S. Commissioner of Education for 1880.

The following is a comparative summary of Normal Schools, instructors, and pupils reported to the Bureau for the years 1871 to 1880, inclusive:—

	1871	1872	1873	1874	1875	1876	1877	1878	1879	1880
Number of Institutions	65	98	113	124	137	151	152	156	207	220
Number of Instructors	445	773	887	966	1,081	1,065	1,189	1,227	1,422	1,466
Number of Students	10,922	11,778	16,620	24,405	29,105	33,921	37,082	39,669	40,029	43,077

"The training of teachers is provided for in (1) Normal Schools or Normal Departments, in (2) Normal Institutes, and (3) by chairs or lectureships in Universities or Colleges. Normal Schools are independent institutions, established for the express purpose of imparting instruction in the theory and art of teaching; Normal Departments are connected with State Universities or other Colleges. In some instances these departments have scarcely more than a nominal existence, differing from the other departments of the institutions to which they belong simply by the omission of a portion of the regular course, and the substitution of a course of lectures on education.

"The increase in the number of institutions, instructors, and students in the successive years is set forth in the table. Of the number now reported, 106 are public institutions—i.e. supported or aided by the State—county or city appropriations, or forming departments of State Universities. The course of instruction in these schools embraces from one to four years, three or four years being

the full period in the majority. The model schools reported in connexion with 62 of the Normals are schools of elementary grade in which the Normal students are exercised in teaching, under the observation of experienced teachers and subject to their criticism and approval. In a few cities, the same end is sought by sending Normal students to act as substitutes in the lower grades of public schools.

"The supervision and general care of public Normal Schools is entrusted in some States to the State Board of Education or other general officers of education, and in others to a Normal School Board. In a few States, Normal Schools have a permanent endowment fund, as in Wisconsin, where the fund is nearly 100,000 dol. In general, the schools are supported by annual appropriations.

"Apart from the schools for training kindergarten teachers, 13 public Normal Schools have a course of a single year. In the case of city Normal Schools, it is comparatively easy to give a strictly professional character to the year's work. Candidates for admission must have completed the ordinary high-school course, or must show upon examination equivalent attainments; they are required to present testimonials of character, and generally to give some pledge of their intention to teach.

"These requirements secure to the school a number of students of substantially equal development, and well prepared for special training.

"The Normal Schools of Washington and Boston are good examples of those which give a strictly pedagogical training during a single year's course. They pursue nearly the same plan which will be understood by an examination of the programme published in the annual report of the Boston school.

"The work of the school is grouped under five heads:—(1) physiological study; (2) psychological study; (3) special reviews; (4) methods of instruction; (5) teaching under criticism. The course of training exercises laid out for the year and rigidly pursued is as follows:—

"First exercise (time, one week), observing and reporting.—One section of the Normal pupils, accompanied by their teacher, visit a class in the training school daily; they witness the regular work of the room twenty or thirty minutes, return, and report orally to the teacher accompanying them. This report is merely an orderly statement of what is done and said in the room visited, the teacher making the statement complete, and calling attention to such excellences as she deems best. These visits are made at the same hour on successive days, so that the same lesson is seen each day during the week. The other section of the Normal pupils, under the direction of another of their teachers, do the same thing at the same time.

"Second exercise (time, one week), teaching before the normal class for criticism.—Normal pupils teach classes from the training school, following the regular programme of the room from which the children come. One section teach a class of twelve children twenty or thirty minutes daily, under the direction of one of the Normal teachers, the same subject being taught at the same hour, to the same pupils for a week. After the teaching, the rest of the hour is devoted to criticisms by the Normal pupils and their teacher. Special preparation for these lessons is made at another hour. The other section do the same under the direction of another Normal teacher.

"Third exercise (time, one week), observing and reporting single lessons.—Repeating number one.

"Fourth exercise (time, one week), observing the work of a room for two whole days.—One section is distributed through the grammar department of the training school, three or four being sent to a room. They remain in the same room two entire days. Each pupil reports the programme of the room in which she observes the first day; the second day she reports the programme and one lesson. The report of the lessons shows (1) The object of the lesson, and (2) the steps by which this object was attained, as the Normal pupils gathered it from their observation. The next two days the other section do the same. The Normal teachers see their pupils in the rooms as far as practicable.

"Fifth exercise (time, one week), teaching before the class.—Repetition of number two.

"Sixth exercise (time, two weeks), teaching in the training school.

"Seventh exercise (time, one week), teaching before the class.—Repetition of number two.

"Eighth exercise (time, two weeks), observing and teaching in the public schools.

"Ninth exercise (time, three weeks), model lessons in teaching.—All the Normal pupils go to the primary school hall for an hour aud

a quarter every day for three weeks, to witness model lessons in teaching, and for criticism of these lessons. Part of the lessons are given by the Normal teachers and part by the pupils, one lesson every day by each. About half the time is spent in teaching and half in criticism.

"The object of these lessons is to give the Normal pupils the best type of teaching, especially by beginners. In other than city Normal Schools it is difficult to give definite character to a single year's course. The classes are large, and represent various degrees of preparation. Oftentimes the chief need is instruction in the elementary branches pursued in the common schools; and all exercises in methods, and all general consideration of the teaching office, its bearing upon life and society, the relation between mental processes and results, are omitted, or made secondary to the mastery of simple branches of knowledge in which the future teacher must be proficient. Fortunately, efforts are being made to free these schools from the conditions which interfere with their special work. This purpose can be furthered by proper entrance examinations, and a systematized course of study and training exercises. The Normal Schools having more than a year's course include a number of thoroughly organized and efficient institutions maintained by liberal appropriations. Many of this class, however, included in Table III. are affected by the untoward conditions previously noted.

"Candidates are admitted at too early an age, and without adequate or sufficiently uniform preparation, and in the course of instruction too little provision is made for special training in the theory and art of teaching. The disposition is everywhere manifest to examine into these institutions, to ascertain what changes and regulations are needed for the maintenance of their character as training schools, and to hold them more strictly to their requirements. It is worthy of note that every investigation of Normal Schools ordered during the decade has resulted in fuller appreciation of their value. On a close examination of the work done by these institutions, it appears that some of them adopt the term 'Normal' rather as a declaration of their purposes than as an indication of their exclusive devotion to the training of teachers in methods."

(To be continued.)

CORRESPONDENCE.

GERMAN CLASS-BOOKS AND GERMAN TEACHING.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—I read with so much advantage Mr. Storr's lecture on French Class-books, which you printed a short time since, that I have looked carefully in your Journal in the hope of seeing a somewhat similar article on German Class-books; and, as nothing of the kind has appeared, I venture to send you the following remarks, mainly with the hope that other teachers, of greater experience than myself, will be led to state in your columns what books, and what methods of using them, they have found most useful. I write as one who has been, and still is, feeling his way, and who wishes to get, rather than to give, advice.

First, as to *Grammars*. By far the most complete and scholarlike Grammar which has appeared in English is Mr. Eve's. No teacher should be without it; and the highest boys will certainly find it most useful to refer to, even in schools where it is not regularly used in class. I must confess, however, to having been a little disappointed with the syntax as a regular class-book—perhaps it is a little diffuse; at all events, it seems that boys and master may spend a good deal of time over it without any very definite and permanent result. I am inclined to think that "Aue," though far less valuable for reference and far less scholarly, may be more useful in the long run: the exercises are useful for *vivâ voce* after the preceding syntax has been learnt; and most teachers will probably agree that syntax, without definite exercises, however carefully it be learnt, melts away like snow in summer.

But no one, perhaps, should put such books as the above into a beginner's hands; the best plan would seem to be, to have some very simple accidence, e.g., Lester's "Wellington College Accidence" (which, by the way, is almost too long, and

sadly needs re-editing), with as few notes as possible, so that a beginner may fairly hope to get hold of all that he sees before him. This a boy may be expected to know all through the school, but, as soon as he reaches the upper school, "Eve" or "Aue" may be given to him.

But how should one actually begin? Certainly not with the substantives—they are most disheartening. I have found it best to take article, adjectives, auxiliaries, with a little construing as soon as possible to make the work palatable. Arnold's "First German Book" is no doubt old-fashioned, and no one could learn the substantives from it; but I believe that those who have tried it longest will value it most. I know nothing which makes the first steps so easy. Of course, "the old count," and "the experienced general," &c., pall upon one after a time; but the boy, by constant repetition, gets hold of a very respectable vocabulary; and (*pace* Mr. A. Sidgwick) I very much doubt if, after a little while, small amusing stories do not weary quite as much as sentences. Pills in jam are all very well until one has bitten the pill. "Otto" is not bad, but very long, and not nearly progressive enough. Herr Naftel's cheap little series I have often used with advantage. It is much to be wished that he would publish a fuller exercise-book, adapted to the needs of boys at the top of the middle school. I hope it is not merely in a spirit of despairing conservatism that I have again and again turned to Arnold.

Next, as to *Construing Books*. Certainly, one should begin to construe as soon as possible; any teacher who is worth his salt will be able to lift his boys over irregularities and unfamiliar forms, and nothing encourages a boy like being able to make out the sense of a few lines. Of books with vocabularies there are many. The old "Heroen Geschichten" is perhaps as good as any, and the questions at the end of the sections may be made really useful, not so much for *vivâ voce* as for answering, when a start has once been made, in German on paper. Buchheim's "Reader" is not to be recommended; the vocabulary is often defective, and help is often given where not needed, and withheld in real difficulties. Mr. Storr's "Lessing's Fables" are well known, but they are not, I think, very easy. The points, too, of Lessing's fables appeal to the experience of adults rather than to that of boys. When a dictionary has been bought (may I recommend Whitney?—it is clear, complete, and legible, and the etymologies are often useful)—Mr. Mullins and Mr. Storr's "Hauff" may be recommended, though I have not actually used it myself. There is no better book than Hoffmann's "Erzählungen." Stoll's "Erzählungen aus der Geschichte," four or five little volumes, will be very useful, as enabling a Form-master to illustrate almost any period of history. I have found it particularly valuable in giving modern school boys a glimpse of ancient history; but the periods should be very carefully selected, as the book is "dry-bony" in parts, and overloaded with figures. Low's "Second German Reader"—good selections, fair notes—is suitable for upper middle forms. More good reading-books with moderately long selections are much needed.

For upper forms, one has more or less of the classical field to roam over; but what shall we select? First, as to Notes in general. Shall I be considered heretical if I say that, in the vast majority of cases, it would seem best to give the boys plain texts, and keep the notes for the master? Not one boy in fifty reads a long note; few use even short ones with discretion. They may, of course, be driven to "get them up," "expected to know them," &c., but, after all, very little good is done; and any one who has examined on notes to text-books will probably allow that, if they are reproduced at all, it is usually in a most mangled and garbled form. Publishers will hardly thank me, perhaps, but the best order to give to the school bookseller in nine cases out of ten is,—“Please get me the edition with notes, but, if possible, keep it out of the boys' way.” This remark would certainly apply to such a book as Mr. Wolstenholme's painstaking edition of "Zopf und Schwert" (Pitt Press), with 108 pages of text in large type, and about 75 of notes in very small type. It contains a vast deal of useful information, and many scholarly notes. The ladies at Newnham no doubt read the latter, but no modern

school boy would wade through half of them. Mr. Bull's "Götz von Berlichingen" (Macmillan's School Series) seems to have hit the happy mean in this matter; and this remark will apply to most of the works edited under the care of M. Eugène-Fasnacht. Dr. Buchheim's name is well known, and his scholarship undoubted; I hope it is not presumptuous in me to say that his Clarendon Press editions, though almost indispensable to the teacher, seem often wholly unfitted for boys. The notes are far too long, and the English—far too often given—is poor. Take, for instance, such a sentence as,— "It is exceedingly difficult to give an adequate expression for the adverbs 'noch gar' in the sense in which they occur here; the translation 'now torment me yet with your crying' for 'Weine noch gar' will convey the meaning approximately." Surely this is how notes should not be written. One most excellent book, Von Sybel's "Prinz Eugen," Dr. Buchheim has almost spoilt for class reading. Happily, the simple text can be obtained in an edition of Von Sybel's "Kleine Schriften," which, though rather costly, is very valuable. It contains, for example, three capital lectures, "Die Erhebung Europas," which are in style just what one wishes for. Being lectures, they are free from the ponderous involved sentences which only too often appear in German professorial writings; the matter is interesting; the history valuable; they are not too long: in fact, they are just adapted for good upper school forms. Most of Herr Wagner's well-known editions are useful, but even his notes will make most impression when imparted orally. Possibly many teachers will be found who will not give assent to the proposition that, for ordinary form reading, verse is superior to prose; but it certainly seems to be true in the case of the less capable boys,—the verse strikes home more, gives the imagination more play, and sticks somehow in the memory when all recollection of prose has faded away. It will be objected, no doubt, that the boys want to learn to write prose, not verse, and that the latter gives them neither the vocabulary nor the style they want. As to style, do boys really copy what they read? Is not most German prose "far above, out of their sight"? If they can remember the verse, their vocabulary will grow. The "stage directions," by the way, are not to be despised; they are very idiomatic, and deal with such matters as boys often have to write of. Of course, short plays—Benedix, Kotzebue, &c.—will be constantly used. From such a play as the latter's "Der gerade Weg der beste," a boy may acquire real scholarship as well as idiom; especially if he be encouraged to make for himself an index (after the manner of Mr. A. Sidgwick's, in his editions of plays), he will learn more than he would from pages of notes. If the custom of using texts only be adopted, or, indeed, in any case, the greatest good may be done, especially where German is made a mainstay of education, by giving the boys short historical handbooks to get up *beforehand* as "extras," or for holiday task,—e.g., Morris's "Age of Queen Anne" as a preparation for "Prinz Eugen," Longman's "Frederick the Great" before Freytag's "Friedrich der Grosse," Gardiner's "Thirty Years' War" before Schiller's History or "Wallenstein," and so on. For one's best sixth form boys no book is more valuable than "Laocoon." Dr. Hamann's edition is useful, but even here I should say "text only." Let it be analyzed, by all means; and no boy with Hamann before him will analyze for himself to advantage. A plaster cast, by the way, of the group, a legacy from a late colleague, has been invaluable to me, and I should be only too grateful to anyone who would suggest books or casts by which such teachings as the "Laocoon" suggests could be followed up.

A few words only on *Composition*. Buchheim is good, but there is a terrible gap between it and books of the Arnold or Otto type. Lester's "Germanica," published by Nutt, a little-known book, is a step in the right direction. One is almost driven, *faute de mieux*, to dictate or chromograph short exercises; but perhaps any book is, in the long run, better than no book. Dictation produces endless blunders, chromographic copies are lost; in any case, there is the risk of dwelling exclusively on one's own pet points; and, without a book, revision is difficult. For the sixth form an Essay of Macaulay or a cheap volume

of Sir Walter Scott is, perhaps, as good as anything else. Free use should be made of good translations, if such can be found; references to grammars, &c., given. Such hints should be chromographed, and the pieces set to be done again in school, without dictionaries or hints, later on in the term. If corrected copies are given back to the form *en masse*, and "talked about," it will be well to make each boy keep a note-book for "notes on copies," and, at the end of the "talk," dictate a few notes on main difficulties. This will prevent the "talk" from evaporating into thin air. It is almost useless to tell boys to take notes at random; they will make endless mistakes, and their notes, to be of any use, will require regular correction. The "notes on copies" may with advantage be learnt up from time to time, or a few sentences on them may be set to be done at the head of the next connected piece.

With many apologies for my many words, I remain,
Very faithfully yours,

J. H. D. MATTHEWS.

[Mr. F. C. Turner's paper on German Class-books, read before the Education Society, will appear next month.—ED.]

OVER-PRESSURE OR UNDER-TEACHING?

To the Editor of the *Journal of Education*.

SIR,—We hear so much of over-teaching in the Board Schools, that it may interest your readers to hear of the under-teaching in the National and Denominational Schools.

I met yesterday an H.M.I. at the house of a friend, who is a schoolmaster, and we discussed over-pressure and its results. "By-the-bye," said the schoolmaster, "my wife has just engaged a new servant, who has actually passed the seventh standard. Shall we examine her?" "By all means," was the eager reply. Speedily the girl made her appearance.

Master. Agnes, I hear you have passed the seventh standard. Is that so?

Agnes (a bright, cheerful girl of 16). Yes, sir, I have passed all the seven standards.

Inspector. And earned the grant?

Agnes. Oh, yes, sir.

Inspector. In what subjects?

Agnes. In reading, writing, and 'rithmetic.

Master. And grammar?

Agnes. No, we never learnt grammar.

Inspector. Geography and needlework?

Agnes. Yes, sir, geography and needlework.

Master. In what school?

Agnes. In the Natural School at Blankthorpe, in Essex.

Master. Natural School? You mean National School.

Agnes (hesitatingly). Yes, sir, National School.

Master takes up the day's paper, and asks *Agnes* to read aloud a short passage. The girl, having complied, is next asked to sit down and divide five thousand and ninety-seven by seventeen. This is the exact copy of her work; I preserve the original for your inspection:—

17)5097(0202

54

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34

17)72(3

51

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17

4 over

We next adjourned into the school-room, and, pointing to Stanford's Physical Map of England, the *Master* required her to name a certain river (it was the Thames); she did not know it. Being shown the name on the map, she was asked to indicate where the river began and ended, and as she looked for the source of the river near the Wash, she was advised to

trace its course with her finger. She did so, and indicated the mouth as the beginning, and the source as the end of the river.

Master. What does this blue colour all round the map indicate?

Agnes. The sea.

Master. And do you really think the rivers flow from the sea up into the land?

Agnes (catching the scent). Oh, no, sir; the rivers make the sea, so the river begins here and ends there (this time pointing correctly).

Master. Thank you, Agnes; I will not keep you any longer.

Agnes having left the room, the Inspector said to the Master, "She reads about as well as your little boy" (a child eight and a-half years old), "and, as for the rest, I can only say that her case is typical. I am convinced that there are scores of thousands like her in the country."

Now consider, Sir, that this girl's arithmetical knowledge alone has cost the country in grants 7s. x 4s., her reading ditto, and so on. Add to this the cost of inspection, the local contributions, and the child's own school pence of threepence to sixpence a week, and the total will turn out a handsome little sum of money. It may well be asked if it is worth while to spend so much money, and the childhood of our little ones, on work such as this.

I am, sir, yours, &c.,
DOMINIE

WORDS AND THINGS; OR, TEACHERS *VERSUS* BOOKS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—I am afraid Mr. Bosanquet, by his confession in your last issue, has but added his mite to the many mighty "amusing pieces of rubbish" written anent the teaching of English Grammar.

I can lay claim to several years' experience in "the tuition of small boys," and have as yet, I am glad to say, failed to perceive the advisability of teaching boys—"young beginners" especially—what is radically wrong. In fact, I must confess myself ignorant as to how such a course can be called "*turning one's experience to profitable account.*"

Your correspondent contends that, though his way of teaching the Case is not "a strictly scientific explanation, *it is yet, in a rough-and-ready sort of way, quite a true statement of the case, sufficiently accurate for all elementary purposes.*"

Though I fully agree with the earlier part of this quotation, I must, with all due respect, and backed up, I imagine, by all competent authorities, beg to differ as regards that part which I have set in italics.

Presumably, it will be allowed by your correspondent that, before anything is taught about Case, the meaning of a *letter*, a *word*, and, finally, of the *Parts of Speech*, must be explained. Granting this—granting that a boy clearly understands a noun to be a *name*,—surely he should be very far from "readily comprehending" how a noun can do anything.

But even supposing, for the sake of argument, that a noun *can* do something, the answers in *The Competitor* are altogether and ridiculously untrue.

Take this short sentence: "The man was beaten." The word "man," being the subject of the sentence, is in the Nominative case; but, according to *The Competitor* and your correspondent, a noun is in the Objective case when something is done to it. Therefore "man" is in the Objective case. Surely this should be enough to show the absurdity of such "rough-and-ready" answers. The fact is, if the distinction between words and things is pointed out clearly—which can be done very easily—even "the smallest boy" will have no difficulty at all as regards the Cases.

Your correspondent would do well to take the advice given in the "Primer of English Grammar" by Dr. Morris, and explain what is meant by Sentence, Subject, and Predicate, before touching on Case. When a boy knows what a Sentence is, what are its component parts, and what is meant by Subject and Predicate; then, and only then, can he be relied upon to give a true explanation of the Cases—an explanation, too, which will not only be *simple*, but *scientific* also.

Why little boys, because they *are* little and take longer to "readily apprehend" than their elder brethren—not always the case, by-the-by—should for this reason be hurried along with some "rough-and-ready" definition, wholly wrong and to be unlearned in later years, is hard to understand. Even the hurry-scurry style of master must see

that, though trouble may be saved at the time by the "rough-and-ready, *not, as a rule, quickly forgotten*" explanation," yet later on much trouble is incurred in eradicating the mistaken notion planted in earlier years.

'Tis true, "nonsense-verses" are made by beginners in Latin verse: seldom, however, do we hear of "nonsense-definitions" being employed in the teaching of English Grammar.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

September 4th, 1883.

J. E. A.

CLYDE'S GEOGRAPHY.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—I fear I may be late for your next number, which I should regret, as I wish to thank Mr. Clyde for the courteous tone of his reply to my criticism of his *School Geography*. I had not the least idea when writing to you before that Mr. Clyde was a living personality, or I should have congratulated him on his rare good fortune in seeing his work in its twenty-second edition. I am sorry that the fact of my criticising his book should cause me to be classed as a foe, which I am very far from being; it is only a malicious or unfair criticism which is hostile, and Mr. Clyde has not shown that my note was in any sense malicious or unfair.

I do not think that the fact of my possessing no special knowledge whatever of North America in any way deteriorates from the value—whatever that may be—of my criticism; nay, on the contrary, the very fact of my knowledge being derived from sources open to all—I allude to the works of Logan, Dawson, Lyell, and the publications of the U.S. Survey, and many others—seems to me to justify my remarks, and to show that Mr. Clyde has scarcely profited as much as he might have done by the aid of competent persons and distinguished men.

In my former note I gave references to Lyell's "Principles"; I believe Sir Charles Lyell to have been a very careful and accurate man. With regard to the codfish and the penguins, it will be better if (with your permission) I quote the words of Wallace "Geographical Distribution of Animals," Vol. ii., p. 366):—"The penguins are entirely confined to the Antarctic and S. Temperate Regions, except two species, which are found on the coast of Peru and the Galapagos."

One of my colleagues at Clifton College, who has lately returned from the Newfoundland Fisheries, tells me that nothing is more striking, to a man accustomed to see the vast flocks of gulls over our shoals of herring and mackerel, than the lack of birds over the fishing grounds.

I am perfectly willing to admit that I may have been wrong in criticising Mr. Clyde's statements on the subjects of "inosculation," "glacial period and gulf-stream," "deflection, &c., of trade winds," "Canadian Pacific Railway and Parallels of Latitude." In so doing, however, I beg leave to urge the plea of my incapacity to understand them.

In conclusion, allow me to assure Mr. Clyde and your numerous readers, that, in finding fault with his North American sections (to which alone I have confined, and do confine, my remarks), I seem to condemn his book, I am only acting on the old saying—it may be an unfair one, but I do not wish to be unfair—*Ex pede Herculem, ex ungue leonem.*

I remain, Sir,

Your obedient servant,

24 College Road, Clifton, Bristol.

G. H. WOLLASTON.

September 22, 1883.

DICTATION.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Your correspondent "F. E.," at the close of his letter on the difficulties attending the teaching of Spelling, remarks,—“The boys also write from dictation, but the results do not appear to be satisfactory.”

I will hazard a guess that the lessons have been conducted in the following fashion. The teacher has had a large class of pupils before him, perhaps two ordinary classes thrown into one. He has taken a passage at random, possibly from some book with which the pupils were unfamiliar, and read out the sentences more or less slowly, dictating the "stops" as he went on. He has then spelt the words of the lesson one by one, tolerably rapidly, leaving the pupils to correct, or perhaps only to *mark*, the mistakes made in their own or their neighbours' exercises.

During many years I have had occasion to watch this process and its results as regards both English and French, and have no hesitation in saying that it is a sheer waste of time. Let me recommend "F. E." to try the following method instead. Let the dictation class be of

moderate size, so that the teacher may command the attention of each pupil. Take some reading-book in use in the school, so that each pupil may have before him the passage that is to be dictated. Let this passage be read two or three times by the class, the teacher each time directing attention to the words most likely to be spelt amiss, and showing how the stops are inserted. Let the passage be then dictated to the class, the pupils putting in the stops for themselves, but not attempting at first more than the full stops. The accuracy in spelling which will soon be attained by a course of drilling of this sort will surprise any one who has not tried the method. The pupils learn to attend to the spelling of the words that they read, and it is far better to impress correct spelling on the memory by writing, than to make blunders and have them corrected.

I have often seen a French teacher dictating to a class of mere beginners a passage in French, of the meaning of which the pupils were perfectly ignorant. Could there possibly be a more idiotic waste of time and effort?

Yours truly,
C. P. M.

OXFORD LOCAL EXAMINATION.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—I think there is some distinction to be noted in Mr. Baker's letter between the "superintendence" of an examination and "super-*vision*." Nominally, the superintendence is in the hands of the Local Examiner; generally, it falls for the most part, so far as the girls are concerned, (of which I know most at different centres) into the hands of the local Lady Secretary, or some member of her family, or of the Ladies' Committee. It would be a very ungrateful task to make complaints about honorary services, rendered generally with the best motives, by people of standing in the same neighbourhood. Such services should not be honorary, and care should be taken that super-*vision* should not be left to those who might be thought to be interested in candidates. The London University is open to comment in this respect, since, for the examination of girls at the London centre, they seem (I speak of two occasions specially) rather to appoint for supervision those who send in pupils. It may be very unreasonable to object, but teachers generally are prejudiced on this point. As regards the fees, I am certainly mistaken. The local fee at this centre is ten shillings, and thus the cost of examination for each pupil is what I stated, but it includes the local fee.

I am, yours faithfully,

Belmont House, Leicester.
September 10, 1883.

A. CHRYSOGON BEALE.

OXFORD AND CAMBRIDGE SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—It was my duty to mark a set of answers to the English Literature Paper quoted in your last number before they were sent in to the Examiner—a proceeding which obviously lightens his task,—and I was exceedingly disappointed to find that, with the exception of parts of Questions 2 and 6, the paper had been set entirely from Stopford Brooke's Primer of English Literature. Now, although this is a very estimable and useful little work, it is none the less a *cram*-book from its exceeding sketchiness, and on that account I do not allow it as a text-book to my class. We generally use Morley for the subject-matter, and I personally use other authorities as I think advisable. My pupils were interested in the course, and were naturally disappointed in the paper for which they had so carefully prepared. One or two alone had studied the Primer, and they consequently took the highest marks, though they were by no means the best pupils in the subject. The Examiner must have a very low estimate of the teaching of English Literature in our High Schools if he supposes Stopford Brooke's Primer to be the basis of lessons for Forms VI. and V.

Yours faithfully,

September, 1883.

L.L.A.

REVIEWS AND MINOR NOTICES.

English Towns and Districts. By EDWARD A. FREEMAN, M.A., Hon. D.C.L. & LL.D. (Macmillan & Co. 1883.)

Many of us, as soon as the long-looked-for day has dawned which begins our holiday, rush off to foreign lands, either to feast ourselves on the beauties of nature, or to enrich our minds with the memories which cling round historic spots, or to gaze on the triumphs of foreign art. Yet, while it is true

that there is nothing so refreshing as travelling abroad, it is well that we should be reminded of how much there is to see at home, and how we may gratify our tastes and cultivate our minds by visiting places in our own land. In England, however, as well as on the Continent, most of us want to know, not so much what to see—our guide-books can tell us that—as the meaning of what is before us. When we stand for the first time in the streets of a city, be it Köln or Colchester, Berne or Exeter, we at once feel a desire to know all that the city means. No small pleasure is it to find ourselves in some foreign town which has been made the subject of one of Mr. Freeman's "Historical and Architectural Sketches," and now we welcome a collection of essays of like character on certain "English Towns and Districts." Very few of us know the history of our own land well enough to be able to see at a glance the place which any city where we may chance to be has held in that history. Fewer still can look at it in a wider light, and see how it stands with reference to the cities of other lands or other ages. Mr. Freeman has just this power of marking the relations of any particular spot to the general course of the history of its own land, and to the history of other lands. No better instance of this power can perhaps be given than his treatment of Colchester, *Colonia Camulodunum*, in this volume. While others may labour over the dry-bones of Roman antiquities, deciding the stations of the legions or the inscription of a tablet, Mr. Freeman shows that he understands, as few perhaps do understand, what the Roman occupation meant here and elsewhere. This sort of treatment exhibits the difference between the narrowness of the local, or at best the insular antiquarian, and the wide view of the historical scholar. And this width of view is no less conspicuous when Mr. Freeman is dealing with architectural details as it is in his historical work. It is not merely that in his eyes no building stands alone,—for this is more or less true in the case of every one who looks on buildings with any intelligence,—but that every specimen of architecture seems at once to suggest to him numberless points of likeness or unlikeness to instances at home and abroad. It is seldom given to any one to be so familiar with local peculiarities and minute detail, and yet to see every spot and every building as part of a great whole, and to be able to assign to each its own place in the history of the world and of art. Most of the sketches contained in this volume are either addresses delivered before different Archæological Societies, or reproductions, more or less altered, of articles which have appeared in the *Saturday Review*. In the first four sketches, which treat of South Wales, questions of race are naturally prominent. Mr. Freeman merely states the theories concerning the non-Aryan and the Gaelic populations; and leaves it to others also to determine, if they can, the question of the Flemish settlement in Glamorgan. On the other hand, he gives us a lively sketch of how, in such a town as Kidwelly, the French, English, and Flemish burgesses dwelt together, either wholly shutting out the Briton from their settlement, or, at all events, not admitting him to municipal rights; and shows how the ecclesiastical and military elements, sometimes, as at Kidwelly, still represented by the priory and the castle, formed no small part of the life of the new municipality. All the foolish talk about Flemish houses and Flemish speech, which implies that the colony planted by Henry I. was composed of modern Belgians, is swept aside by the plain statement that "the Flemings may fairly pass as another English tribe, like Angles, Saxons, or Jutes, only coming so many ages later" (p. 37). No less interesting are his architectural notes on the same district, when he takes the churches of St. David's, Llanthony, and Llandaff as each marking a stage in the change from the round to the pointed arch. It is, however, to the second part of the volume, which treats of the West-Saxon land, that all who know Mr. Freeman's historical work will turn with especial interest. This part includes the well-known address delivered to the Archæological Institute at Taunton on the Shire and the *Gá*. In this address, the difference between the territory occupied by the settlement of a tribe and a division of land, a shire or *share*,

formed for administrative purposes, and taking its name from some town, is illustrated by an historical comparison between Somerset and Northamptonshire. Two extreme examples are taken, and it will be well to remember that the very term *gá* as applied to an English division of territory is of doubtful authority, and that the use of "shire" is as old as the use of the tribal name,—that we read of *Defnascire* as early as we read of the *Sumorsætas*. Still, though Mr. Freeman states his case somewhat broadly, the distinction which he makes is evidently true in principle, and his illustration of it is conveyed in eloquent language, and with picturesque detail. A short paper on Glastonbury contains a masterly discussion of the value of the legends of that famous house, and, without entering into architectural questions, gives in a few words the key to the ruins of the two churches of the abbey. Among the shorter papers on the West-Saxon land, the accounts of the little church of Bp. Ealdhelm at Bradford-on-Avon, and of the castle of Devizes, strike us as particularly interesting. A longer paper on the place of Exeter in English history deals chiefly, as indeed do all these sketches, with the writer's special period, the eleventh and twelfth centuries. In this paper we must demur to the highly coloured statement of the character of the resistance offered by Exeter to the Conqueror. The refusal of the burghers to admit William within their walls, their offer to pay him the same *geld* which they had paid to the kings before him, and the help which they received from the men of the neighbourhood, though all worthy of remark, scarcely warrant the assertion that "Exeter stood forth for one moment to claim the rank of a free Imperial city, the chief of a confederation of the lesser towns of the west" (p. 70). Many who cannot or will not read Orderic or Florence, will, we hope, read Mr. Freeman's "English Towns," and they should not be led to imagine that the chroniclers say any more than they really do say. Among the Mercian sketches, the articles on præ-academic Oxford and præ-academic Cambridge illustrate some important features in either city, and will show the crowd of visitors who flock to them that there are buildings to be seen in them more ancient than the oldest college, and associations to be marked more ancient even than those which cling round the Universities themselves. Some interesting points are noted in early Northumbrian history, though, where the ecclesiastical questions of the seventh century are concerned, we miss the firm grasp which is conspicuous in the treatment of the eleventh and twelfth centuries; and it is unsatisfactory, to say the least of it, to find no mention of Wilfritt or Ealdfritt, or Aolfritt, or Acca. On the other hand, we have most valuable notices of Cistercian Kirkstall, of Benedictine Selby, and of the ancient monastery of Lastingham, where, by the way, Mr. Freeman forgets to record the good service which the monks of that house did Bæda in supplying him with information for his *Historia Ecclesiastica*. One of the most striking parts of the volume is a paper on the case of the Collegiate Church of Arundel. In this case, the right of the Duke of Norfolk to the eastern limb of the building was established on the ground of his being the successor of Henry, Earl of Arundel, the grantee of the College, which held the architectural choir as its separate church. This celebrated case has led Mr. Freeman to discuss at length the various instances in which a parochial church and the church of a monastic or collegiate body exist under the same roof, a subject which he has made peculiarly his own. The cases of Dunster and Ewenny, of Worksop and of Blyth, are fully explained, and the paper forms a chapter of singular importance, both in ecclesiastical and architectural history. Last, but not least, comes an address on "the place of Carlisle in English History," in which the varying fortunes of the city, "which, having once become English, became British again," are clearly traced down to the times when Rufus refounded it again as an English city, and his brother Henry made it the see of an English bishopric. As by far the greater number of these sketches were written to be spoken, they naturally present in rather an exaggerated degree the peculiarities of the author's style. More words and more frequent repetitions are, we ven-

ture to think, used in expressing a single idea than is either necessary or agreeable, and such reiteration of "I speak not of" and "I speak of" as may be found on page 50, if it may possibly have been effective in speaking, is certainly unpleasant when the speech is turned into a printed article. To the same cause must be attributed such a sentence as "if he is very metropolitan in his ways of thinking, he may be inclined to call it a village" (pp. 27—28). For we presume that the writer does not refer here to a man whose thoughts are much on Canterbury, but simply to one who is used to a large town; and that Mr. Freeman, having been betrayed in speaking into the vulgar use of a word which he has often justly condemned, has overlooked the slip in preparing the present volume for the press. These, however, are small matters, and we should scarcely have noticed them in the work of a less distinguished writer. The book contains some excellent illustrations, founded on the author's own drawings. Every intelligent Englishman who reads these sketches will feel that Mr. Freeman has done him good service by pointing out the stores of architectural and historical treasure contained in many a village as well as in many a city of our land, and by showing how each bit of local history has its bearing on the whole story of England, and its place in the history of the world. No one else probably could have done this so well; for, while Mr. Freeman knows certain parts of the history of the world, and especially of our own land, with extraordinary minuteness, he knows the general course of history as perhaps no other Englishman knows it.

Theory and Practice of Teaching. By the Rev. EDWARD THRING. (Cambridge University Press. 1883.)

Books may be divided into two classes, those that are manufactured and those that grow. Out of every hundred volumes that are sent to us, we may safely assert that ninety-nine are articles made to order,—“manuals which, like the frogs in Egypt, come up and swarm, yea even in the very beds-chambers, covering the tables and littering the floors.” And when a reviewer, after this plague of manuals, finds a book with a touch of true life in it, he is inclined to rest from his labours and content himself with proclaiming his discovery. Such a book is Mr. Thring's "Theory and Practice of Teaching," and it appeals to us in more ways than one. It is a worker's treatise addressed in the first instance to workers. It is, moreover, if we are not mistaken, a direct answer to a challenge that we have once and again made to head-masters. We seem in Mr. Thring's preface to catch an echo of our own words:—"Schools have been invaded, schools have been operated on, and schools have been dumb. The voice of the skilled workman, who has spent his life in teaching, has rarely, or never, spoken. Their lips have been sealed." This reproach of silence Mr. Thring has wiped away, and those who complain that the masters of our great public schools have contributed nothing to the science of education will henceforward have to make one notable exception.

Any attempt to summarize the contents of the volume would fail to give our readers a taste of the pleasure that its perusal has given us. The originality is more in the manner than the matter. Mr. Thring has no new doctrine to preach, but he has grasped firmly some first principles which most teachers allow, but few carry out consistently, and by force of homely illustrations, vigorous rhetoric, and a racy style, he has driven them home and made them living truths. He speaks out of the abundance of his heart, and his words have the weight of a preacher's who is known to follow himself what he teaches. The book, however, lends itself to quotation, and we take at random a few of the most striking apophthegms.

"This transmission of life from the living, through the living, to the living, is the highest definition of education."

"Half the bad work of the world arises from want of hope, not from want of vigour."

"Genius is an infinite capacity for work, growing out of an infinite power of love."

"No skill, even when there is skill, can reach a boy who does not believe in the value of what he is doing, or who does not believe that he can get it, however valuable it may be."

"St. Augustine hit the point when he said of teaching, 'a golden key which does not fit the locks is useless, a wooden key which does is everything.' He might have added with advantage, that using one big key for all locks is idiotic."

"A dull boy's mind is a wise man's problem."

"Never try to fill the little mind with lumber, under colour of its being of use by-and-by."

"There is a fearful theory born and bred in the quagmire of Marsh-dunce-land, that nothing is learning unless it is disagreeable, or worth having unless it is difficult."

"A little judicious blindness and deafness is a great virtue in a wise teacher."

A good hook is not necessarily one with which the critic agrees entirely, though the two are commonly confounded. On many points we differ from Mr. Thring, but we have left ourselves no room for joining issue on them and can only indicate what in our judgment is the radical defect of the hook. It is assumed that Latin and Greek will continue to form the staple of public school teaching; and, except for a commendation of drawing, and a proviso that no child should learn any language but his own before the age of ten, there is no recognition of any other subject. Mr. Thring's cure for ignorance of common facts—a belief in carnivorous stags and four-footed whales—is an afternoon lecture in the winter term, though in a previous chapter we have been told that no lecturer can possibly teach. This limitation of view is doubtless regrettable, but it is hardly a paradox to say that it detracts nothing from the value of the book. The author may plead Jacotot's maxim, *Tout est dans tout*. Whether the subject be languages or science, the same principles of teaching apply; and we may go farther and say that a boy trained in Latin and Greek as Mr. Thring would train him will have received a better education than a boy who has been instructed in all theologies by a crammer who knows nothing of the theory and practice of teaching. One omission we cannot help noticing. Nothing is said of the systematic training of teachers. Doubtless it seemed to Mr. Thring a corollary that no reader could help drawing from his theories, but for the sake of his weaker brethren we wish that he had set his name to what we look upon as the touchstone of the true believer in education.

The Student's Mechanics. By W. R. BROWNE.
(Charles Griffin & Co.)

Before referring to the special features of this book, we may observe that, in those well-worn parts of the subject, where difference of opinion does not emerge, and the only originality possible is that of words and form of statement, the exposition is always clear and forcible, and supported by a fulness and aptness of illustration which characterize the practical engineer. The book is well got up, the type distinct and sufficiently large, and the figures good.

Independent treatment is seen in the very lengthy account of first principles, in the subject of Impact, and in matters of detail throughout the work.

The discussion of the motion of two bodies, which opens the article on Elasticity, is a pleasing innovation in an elementary book, which the student is certain to appreciate.

One would think an engineer the last man in the world to revert to the Boscovichian theory of matter. This, however, permeates the discussion of principles throughout the volume, from the definition of matter as a collection of centres of force, to the statement of the laws of elasticity. In our view, it is distinctly a retrogression. There is also a strong disposition to make the most of *à priori* metaphysical argument, examples of which are that on the text, "effects live" (p. 21), which carries us back to the dark ages, and that on the conservation of energy (p. 169). Notice in this last passage the words, "the true measure of the effect of a force," and forget the historical controversy of Leibnitz and Bernoulli.

The terms "Potential" and "Kinetic" *Work* seem to us

open to strong objection. The outcome of work may be Potential and Kinetic *energy*; but that is no reason why the work itself, which is always the same, should bear the epithets that naturally distinguish the results.

It is a pity that the words "centripetal" and "centrifugal" are not discarded from books on Mechanics. There is little or no difficulty in the facts, but the words are always creating mischief. The explanation is here pretty clear, but the words, "it may be taken as acted on," should surely be, "it is acted on." After learning that the centrifugal force is no force at all, it seems strange to read at the finish—"Since the expression for the so-called force is $\frac{mv^2}{r}$, it will be seen that,

other things being the same, the tendency (to move farther from the centre) is greater as the mass is greater. Hence, if a mixture of two fluids, one heavier than the other, be set in rapid rotation, the heavier, owing to its greater mass, will pass more rapidly towards the outside," &c.

We know the fact, and fancy we understand it, but there are points in this account of it which beat us.

Finally, in the examples, mass and weight are confused, and an acceleration is spoken of in the same terms as a velocity, as for example "4 feet per second" (p. 204).

Intermediate Text-book of Physical Science. F. H. BOWMAN.
(Cassell, Petter, & Galpin.)

This volume is intended to impart "a general knowledge of the phenomena of the universe," and treats of Astronomy, Mechanics, Hydrostatics, Sound, Light, Heat, and Electricity, Molecular and Chemical Physics, with a chapter on the Atomic Theory. A programme so comprehensive, treated in the modest space of 300 rather small pages, implies "condensation to the utmost degree consistent with clearness," and we should like to suggest, a few degrees beyond this consistency.

The author must have had a fearful struggle to compress Electricity, frictional and current, within 30 pages, and at the same time to keep quite up to date by touching upon the Telephone, Microphone, Phonograph, and storage of Electricity. After indicating thus lightly that the plan of the treatise is not good in our eyes, let us pass on to a more special criticism. Page 30 contains one or two curious statements about induction and deduction, calculated to raise the ghost of John Stuart Mill; and page 33, a few things about mass and weight, which would move to anger, or perhaps pity, the living author of a well-known tract on Thermodynamics. This for example:—"Absolutely the mass always remains the same, because it is the real quantity of matter which forms the physical universe, and its increase or diminution, which is the creation of new matter, or the annihilation of old, is *inconceivable*." We had never seen forces divided into *active* or *accelerating*, and *passive* or *retarding*, till we came to page 46 of this book. It is passing strange. Page 47 contains a choice example of confusion of force, power, and work, thus:—"The unit of work is the pound weight raised one foot high, and we therefore estimate the intensity of a force by the number of pounds weight which it will raise against the force of gravity when operating for one minute of time." Page 110 has the following confident statement:—"The *discovery of the existence of a medium in space*, which is, when disturbed into vibrations, the mechanical cause of light and radiant heat, has suggested," &c. Page 173 has what may, perhaps, be a joke,—"The human voice is *really* produced by the existence of a natural organ-pipe within the throat." What is it produced by virtually, hypothetically, or apparently? On page 243 is a definition of potential, which for the student is as much wanting in lucidity and perspicuity as for the scientific man it is wanting in accuracy. What would Mr. Fleeming Jenkin say to the following:—"Beneath the surface of the electrolyte the two plates are in the opposite condition to what they are above"? Ohm's law is stated without any definition or explanation of the term "resistance," and in the next sentence we have:—"From this it follows, that the resistance of any uniformly conducting wire is proportional to its length," &c. Is this logic in science, or is there some stronger name in the language for it?

Letters of Cicero after the Death of Cæsar (being those included in Part V. of Watson's Selection). Translated by S. H. JEYES, M.A.
(Oxford: James Thornton.)

A very tolerable translation of Mr. Watson's *Select Letters* appeared some two or three years ago, but Mr. Jeyes's little book justifies its existence by marked superiority to its predecessor. The work is intended

for the use of candidates for Classical Honours in Moderations, and, supposing them to need a translation at all, they could scarcely have a better one. Besides help in reading their Cicero, students may gain from it an insight into differences between English and Latin idiom which will be most useful to them in writing Latin Prose. For example, Cicero, in his letter to Antonius about the recall of Sextus Clodius, writes, "Contendi cum P. Clodio, cum ego publicam causam, ille suam defenderet." Mr. Jeyes translates, "My conflict arose with Publius Clodius through my defence of the public interests against his assertion of his own." Happy turns of this kind are to be met with in every letter. Mr. Jeyes is equally successful in rendering words and phrases. "Nominal appointment abroad" is a better translation of "libera legatio" than Mr. Watson's "free commission." "Debtors' Relief Act" renders "tabulæ novæ" excellently. In the letter of D. Brutus to M. Brutus and Cassius, Mr. Watson translates "ubi consistamus" "a place where we may take up a safe position." Mr. Jeyes's "centre to rally round" gives its true sense to the passage. In Cicero's letter to Mutius we find some happy renderings of single words,—"Secutum illud tempus est quum me ad Pompeium proficisci sive pudor meus coegit sive officium sive fortuna," "Then came that period when my regard for opinion, or my obligations, or perhaps mere chance, forced me to join Pompeius." And, later on in the same letter, "Omnia me tua delectant, sed maxime cum fides in amicitia, consilium, gravitas, constantia, tum lepos, humanitas, litteræ," "Everything about you is delightful to me—your humour, refinement, and taste, not less than your loyalty in friendship, your judgment, your earnestness and fortitude." It would be impossible to give a proper idea of Mr. Jeyes's style without lengthy quotations, for which we have not space. We might read page after page without discovering that the work was a translation, yet a comparison of these very pages with the original would probably fail to reveal the least inaccuracy. Indeed, the only fault that we can find with the book is the painful yellow tint of the paper on which it is printed.

Elementary Classics—Eutropius. By W. WELCH and C. G. DUFFIELD. (Macmillan & Co. 1883.)

Eutropius used to be as familiar a name to schoolboys as Ovid or Cæsar, and there is no reason but fashion why it should be as unknown to the present generation as Lilye or Comenius. Abridged and simplified by two masters of Cranleigh School, it makes an excellent First Latin Reader. The accompanying exercises, which are founded on the text, are a valuable addition. The Editors have discovered or adopted the true way of teaching Latin Composition.

Moffatt's Pupil Teacher's Course. Edited by THOMAS PAGE. Second Year. Price 5s. New Edition, revised and enlarged. (Moffatt & Paige.)

The subjects treated in this course are Geography, English History, English Grammar, Recitation, Composition, Music, Geometry, and Arithmetic. So much of each subject is included as is required for the qualifications for the pupil teacher's certificate at the end of the second year under the New Code. To Geography and History the greater share of space is given, but this is also the case in the examination for which it is prepared. The part on Grammar is, on the whole, better done than that in the first year's course. Yet, here too, we notice an occasional fault, as, e.g., the incomplete definition of a conjunction as "a word used to join sentences together."

Modern England, from James I., edited by F. G. HEFFORD, B.A. Lond. (Marcus Ward & Co.), is divided into 72 "readings," bringing the history down to the trial of Arabi. It may well be doubted by any one who reads the section entitled "The War in Egypt," whether it is desirable to include such recent events in books of this character. Some of the sections are composed of well-selected pieces from the works of Lord Macaulay and other first-rate authors. The rest are original, and are bright and interesting narratives or descriptions. In the hands of an intelligent teacher, who will take the trouble to show his class the connexion between the different sections, this Reader will be found to give a very fair knowledge of the history of England in modern times. It is sure to be popular with the children who use it, and is just the kind of book to make them wish to know more of the subject.

The Standard Authors Readers. (Griffith & Farran. 1883.)

The Editor of "Poetry for the Young" has now completed his series of reading-books for the six standards. In reviewing similar class-books we have noticed three points in which they seemed to us mostly to fail. The selections should be taken from the best authors; no second-rate literature should be admitted. The first object should be to interest; the attention once secured, instruction will follow of course. Meanings of words and explanations should be separate from

the text; what is the good of questioning on the text when the answers are given at the bottom of the page? The present series satisfies all these tests, and we need only add that paper, print, and binding are equally satisfactory.

Blackwood's Educational Series.—School Recitation Books.

The type and paper are both prepossessing, and the contents of these small volumes do not belie this favourable impression. The pieces of poetry chosen are not only good absolutely, but, what is even more important, good relatively to the standard for which they are intended. The annotations are mainly in the form of questions, on the plan pursued in Mullins's *Simple Poems*. We should have preferred to see the explanations of hard words relegated to the end of the volumes.

German Conversation-Grammar. By I. SYDOW. (W. Kent & Co. 1883.)

The author informs us that this grammar was originally composed in French for the use of Belgian schools, and that it has been generally adopted in Belgium. He claims to have invented a new method, the secret of which is, that "all the exercises, while exemplifying the grammatical rules, embody them in sentences that make sense with one another," and relate to matters of daily life and experience. On a cursory inspection, the conversations seem to us to bear a strong family likeness to Ollendorf, though there is not the same "damnable iteration," and we fancy that schoolboys will endorse the concluding remark of exercise 55, 180,—"My friend, I think you question simply to annoy (*langweilen*) me." Nor, by the way, will Etonians approve of the rendering in the same exercise of "Public School" by *Stadtschule*, any more than the Froebel Society will accept *Kleinkinderschule* as an equivalent of "the Froebel School," or the egg-collector get ostrich eggs if he asks for *Strasseneier*. These are small blots in a generally meritorious work; and, though we hold that Herr Sydow has added another failure to the attempts of grammarians "protesse et delectare," we gladly acknowledge that in many respects his work is an advance on Otto and even on Aue, to name the two most popular school grammars. Thus he makes a clear point by starting with the sentence instead of the word, and also in utilising at once the knowledge acquired in translating from the German. The main fault that we find with the book is that the grammatical information is imparted piecemeal, and in such a way that a boy will never grasp his inflections as a whole or know where to turn for the information he wants. Thus it is not till page 81 that we reach the plurals of nouns, while genders are first treated on page 120. Gender and inflection, declension of singular and plural, are so correlated that the loss in treating them separately far outweighs the gain.

French and German Selections for Translation at Sight. For the use of Wellington College. (D. Nutt. 1883.)

A century of French and the same number of German passages, of an average length of twenty lines, make a book that modern schoolmasters have long desired. Great care has evidently been taken with the selection so as to provide in each case a fair amount of difficulty, and from the success attained we should conjecture that the book had been formed by a process of natural selection, the pieces having been set in school. The German, as is right, is easier than the French. The best notion we can give of the quality is to say that it approximates to the Woolwich standard. Precisions will complain that they are cheated of six pieces in the French.

Schiller's Song of the Bell, and Ballads. By MORITZ FOERSTER. (Williams & Norgate. 1883.)

Private students may find this edition of use; for school purposes it is out of court by reason of the notes at the bottom of the page. Whom it can profit to be told in a note that *Zinn* means "tin," *Wein* "wine," *Mutterliebe* "mother's love," and so forth, passes our comprehension.

Handbook of German-English Conversation. By GUSTAV HEIN. (Williams & Norgate. 1883.)

A small book of very simple phrases for beginners which we can recommend to those teachers who use the conversational method.

THE *Cambridge Examiner* has, we notice, just changed hands, being now published by Messrs. W. Swan Sonnenschein & Co.

We have to acknowledge new editions of:—*Gepp's Latin Elegiac Verse* (5th Edition revised, Rivingtons); *Sidgwick's Cicero de Amicitia* (2nd Edition, Rivingtons); *Hamblin Smith's Study of Heat* (8th Edition, with Solutions to the Numerical Examples, Rivingtons); *F. J. Gladman's School Method* (8th Edition, Jarrold & Sons); *Haughton's Natural Philosophy Popularly Explained* (5th Edition, Cassell & Co.); *Spratling's Latin for Little Folk* (2nd Edition, Simpkin, Marshall, & Co.); *Page's Advanced Text-book of Physical Geography* (3rd Edition revised and enlarged, W. Blackwood & Co.)

SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES.

CAMBRIDGE.

NEWNHAM COLLEGE.—The Scholarships offered by the Council of Newnham College for success in the Cambridge Higher Local Examination held in June last, have been awarded as follows:—Miss Bell, Bristol (Groups A and H), Goldsmiths Scholarship; Miss Dymond, Newnham College, (Groups B and C), Clothworkers' Scholarship; Miss Townsend, London, (Groups A and B), Drapers' Scholarship; Miss Rickett, Newnham College, (Groups B and C), a Scholarship of £50 a year for two years; Miss Bonner, Oxford, (Group A), Scholarship; Miss Rogers, Exeter (Group D), Scholarship; Miss McAulay, Grimsby (Group E), Scholarship; Miss Freeman, Birmingham (Group H), Scholarship. Since the announcement of the Scholarships was made, an anonymous donor has offered a Scholarship for success in Greek in the Higher Local Examination, to be given in 1883 and 1884; it has this year been awarded to Miss Silcox, of Newnham College.

SCOTLAND.

Several of the professors of the University of Edinburgh will begin the new session's work with new assistants. In addition to Dr. Knott's appointment, referred to last month, we have to announce the election of Mr. Andrew Seth, Assistant to Prof. Campbell-Fraser, Professor of Logic and Metaphysics, to a Professorship in the new University in South Wales. Prof. Tait's chief assistant, in a series of experiments on the influence of pressure on deep-sea thermometers, Mr. R. T. Omond, has been appointed Superintendent of Ben Nevis Observatory. He has been a most distinguished student of Edinburgh University, and a frequent lecturer to the Royal Society of Edinburgh.

The Earl of Dalhousie will perform the ceremony of opening Dundee University College on the 5th of October. Prof. Stuart, of Cambridge, will deliver the inaugural address, and the Earl of Camperdown will present to Miss Baxter her portrait in oil, which, it is expected, will be acknowledged by Mr. W. E. Baxter, M.P., on her behalf. A public banquet, given by Provost Moncur, will conclude the proceedings.

On the 25th of August, Prof. Geddes presented the prizes and certificates won by the successful candidates at the Aberdeen University Local Examinations, in the hall of Marischal College. In the course of his speech, he remarked on the recent and rapid growth of the examination scheme, and the relatively high number of candidates sent up by the sparsely peopled North compared with that sent up by the densely populated neighbourhoods of Edinburgh and Glasgow. The 400 candidates of Aberdeen compare favourably with the 600 of Glasgow and the 900 of Edinburgh; and the quality of the work done by them is equally excellent with that done by those examined at the other Universities.

In the Technological Examinations of the City and Guilds of London Institute, the Glasgow College of Science and Arts gained six Medals and two First Class Honours; the Technical College (Weaving Department) gained three Medals; while two Medals and two First Class Honours went to Anderson's College. One Medal went to each of the following towns:—Edinburgh, Aberdeen, Wishaw, and Blairgowrie. Miss Young, a student of the Glasgow College of Science and Arts, was first in the Glasgow University Higher Examination for Women, and gained a prize of £10.

George Watson's College School for Boys has for the last month or two been unable to afford accommodation for those seeking to enter it. Accordingly, plans have been drawn up for the extension of the buildings. Two new high-class schools will be opened in October on the south side of Edinburgh—the Morningside College, under Dr. Ranking, and the Southern Academy, under Mr. J. M. Green.

A site has been secured for the proposed high-class school in Dunfermline. The sum to be expended on the building, which is to accommodate 300 scholars, is not to exceed £5,900. The sum already subscribed is £5,250. The Marquis of Huntley has issued a scheme to induce the boys and girls of the Public Schools in several parishes of Aberdeenshire to remain at school after they have passed Standard VI. He proposes to devote the money drawn at the Aboyne Highland gathering to provide bursaries of the annual value of £5 each, tenable for two years, for the continuation of the winner's education at the Parish School. A somewhat similar scheme for the promotion of Agricultural Education was inaugurated in Forfarshire lately by Lord Dalhousie and Mr. Buckmaster.

IRELAND.

There are at present but twenty-one Fellows of the Royal University, who, with twenty-seven other Examiners, have to conduct all the examinations of the University. It is announced, however, that at its meeting in October the Senate will appoint additional Fellows, as follows:—For Classics, 1; Natural Philosophy, 1; with 8 Medical Fellows, as follows:—For Anatomy and Physiology, 5; Medicine, 1; Surgery, 2.

The Arts Examinations of this University for the present year were held during the month, having commenced on the 10th and the 17th ult. The Examination was for the first time held at local centres throughout the country. The Matriculation Examination begins on October 2nd.

The mode in which the marks for Exhibitions conferred at these examinations are estimated has been a matter of some inquiry. It now appears, from the long-withheld Calendar of the University, that where marks on Pass papers have to compete with marks on Honour papers, the Pass marks shall in every case be divided by *three*; except in the cases of Experimental Physics and Chemistry, where they shall be divided by *two*. The Pass standard is stated to be one-third of the maximum.

Presuming that this Calendar embodies what is now intended to be the permanent organization of the University, we think attention should be drawn to an arrangement which has been accepted apparently without protest, although involving, we believe, a serious defect. In *all* the annual examinations in Arts, the Honour and the Pass examinations in the several subjects are to take place simultaneously; and every examination for Honours in a given subject must thus be brought to a conclusion in a single day. Now, is it supposed that the extended courses of the more advanced examinations can be properly compassed under this limitation? The thing is impossible. It works now in this way: Honour papers are of such extravagant length that the best candidates leave questions unanswered from sheer lack of time. This is unfair. But much of their work is not examined into at all. And it is unjust for candidates to be called away to *vivâ voce* when occupied with their paper work, as they are at present. The Honour examinations of a University mainly determine its status. The present arrangement has a certain superficial convenience, but a University that can have little influence in any other way cannot afford to sacrifice the efficiency of its examinations for a matter of convenience.

The results of the Intermediate Examinations of this year were issued on sale in pamphlet form on the 13th ult. It was therefore brought out some ten days earlier than last year. It has been the practice to issue the Prize List to the daily papers some eight or nine days beforehand; but this was not done this year. The numbers examined are now definitely stated for the first time. There were examined 5,037 boys and 1,125 girls. Hence for the first time there has been a notable decrease in the number of boys, viz., 116. It is somewhat curious to notice that there is no fall in the great Junior Grade—on the contrary, an increase of 71; so the fall in the other grades is the more remarkable. In the number of girls there has been a decrease of 336; which, like the fall last year of 344, is almost confined to the Junior Grade. One very conspicuous result of the examination demands notice. Of the whole number of girls of the prescribed age that were examined, as much as 80 per cent. has "passed" the examination. Now for the boys this percentage is as low as 56.6. Why is this? It is not a difference of age, nor yet of standard. It is, moreover, to be remembered that, when tested last year by an increased Pass-standard, the boys fell down from 66.8 to 57.8 per cent, whereas the percentage for the girls then actually rose. There is, therefore, a marked progressive improvement among the girls' schools, while the boys' schools are slowly falling back. We would wish to trace the explanation to the high character of the girls' schools: but why deceive ourselves? The girls' schools stand wide enough from perfection. But, with this three-years' verdict against them, how low must be the organization of the boys' schools! Schools are not "grinding shops": their true test is the junior classes. And it is mainly in the Junior Grade that the girls gain their marked superiority over the boys. But they are superior in all grades.

The 49th Report of the Commissioners of National Education shows that for the year 1882 there were 7,705 schools in operation, being a net increase of 57 schools. Of these, 54 per cent. have a mixed attendance of Roman Catholics and Protestants, this percentage having very gradually decreased for many years back. The average daily attendance was 469,192, which shows a substantial increase of 15,625, and is the best attendance ever attained. The

number on the rolls (*i.e.*, who put in some appearance during the fortnight preceding the examination) was 678,970. The average attendance then was 69.1. In England and Scotland, it is 71.9 and 75.8,—with compulsory powers. As the total of those who made any attendance during the year amounted to 1,083,298, it will be seen that there is ample room for the operation of a Compulsory Act in Ireland. Of those on the rolls, 515,384 qualified for examination by making at least 100 attendances, which shows the large increase of 18,646. The percentages of passes in Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic were 92.9, 94.7, and 76.6 respectively, which surpass the figures for England and Scotland. The gross total of teachers, 10,899, shows a decrease of 95; and we notice that only 3,491 are trained teachers. We are sorry that the tables showing the average incomes of the teachers have not been continued this year. Owing to the publication of the Census Tables for 1881 during the year, it has been found possible to give an estimate of the progress of National Education since the year 1871. The percentage of children of *five years old* and upwards who were unable either to read or write was found to be 25.2. This is a reduction of 8.2, the greatest reduction ever made in one decade; and we must accept the Report in attributing the improvement to the system of payments by results, which had its beginning in Ireland in 1871. But five years is manifestly too low a limit for those who may be expected to read and write. Now, if we consider only those between 15 and 20 years of age, for whose education the National system may to a certain extent be held responsible, we find the percentages of illiteracy in 1861, 1871, and 1881, were 27.3, 17.5, and 12.4 respectively.

FINSBURY TRAINING COLLEGE.—We are glad to hear from the Principal of the Finsbury Training College that two Cambridge graduates in honours, and an undergraduate who is just about to take his degree, have entered the College this term, and that a London B.A. will enter in a few weeks. This is a move in the right direction, and we hope the three will prove to be the beginning of a goodly stream from the Universities. As soon as the College can send out a number of well-trained men of good education, we fancy few head-masters will hesitate about choosing them in preference to the raw youths they are at present compelled to take, and make the best of they can.

WHITELANDS TRAINING COLLEGE.—The Apothecaries' Society, the owners of the Chelsea Botanic Gardens, have for some years been doing their best to encourage the study of Botany among young women. For this purpose they hold an annual examination in June, limited to candidates under twenty, particulars of which can be obtained from the Secretary, Apothecaries' Hall, Blackfriars. At a Court of the Society, held at the Hall on the 4th September, the Gold Medal was presented to Gertrude Brent, and the Silver Medal to Annie Turner, both junior students at the Whitelands Training College. Four other Whitelands junior students obtained first-class certificates, signed by the Rev. M. Berkeley, the veteran examiner. Whitelands has now obtained the Gold Medal four times out of six. The medal is as large as a crown piece, in fine gold, and has on the obverse a fine bust of Linnæus to right, with the inscription, "Carolus Linnæus." On the reverse is an emblematic figure of Science instructing a youth, and pointing him to a tablet on which are the names—Ray, Linnæus, Jussieu, and Sloane, the last being the donor of the gardens. The inscription is—"Ob solertiam in studiis Botanicis Laudatam," Soc. Pharm. Lond. Voluit. A.D. 1830." Round the external edge is the name of the winner—"Gertrude E. Brent. 1883." The Silver Medal is *facsimile*.

SCHOOLS.

GATESHEAD HIGH SCHOOL FOR BOYS.—The following additional masters have been appointed:—Mr. W. A. Chater, B.A., Scholar of Christ's College, Cambridge; Mr. T. L. Shann, B.A., of Trinity College, Cambridge; and as an assistant in the Junior Department, Mr. Cyril Spooner, formerly of St. John's School, Leatherhead. The school opened for the second term on September 18th with 162 boys; 48 of these are in the Junior Department.

MARKET BOSWORTH.—The Rev. D. H. W. Sampson, second Master of the Worcester Cathedral School, has been appointed to the Head-mastership.

OUNDELE.—The new buildings added by the Grocers' Company to their famous school were opened last month in the presence of a distinguished company. Lord Lyvedon, in a humorous speech, con-

gratulated Mr. Fry, the new Head-master, on living in more peaceful times than those of "one Hackett, who bit off the schoolmaster's nose and swallowed it."

ROSSALL.—Prizes, &c., gained in the school:—Beechey Exhibition, A. M. Knight; Classical Exhibition and Lord Egerton of Tatton's Prize, A. H. Davis; Ainslie Gold Medal (Mathematics), W. Hall; French School Prize, H. S. Jones; Lower Monitors' Prize, A. G. Bather; Probationers' Form Prize, Mathematical Prize, and French Prize, Osborn; Science Prize, R. Pearson; Chapel-reading Prizes, A. H. Davis and T. J. Robinson. Distinctions, &c., gained outside the school:—Woolwich Entrance Examination, 38th place, H. E. Marsh; Foundation Sizarship, Trinity, Cambridge, H. M. E. Price. Prize Day was held on the 31st July; the Annual School Concert on the evening of the 30th. The prizes were distributed by Archdeacon Thickness. The school met again on the 19th September. In the examination held under the Oxford and Cambridge Board, nineteen certificates were obtained and ten distinctions in special subjects. H. S. Jones deserves special mention for earning distinction in three different subjects.

TONBRIDGE SCHOOL.—Entrance Scholarships:—The Judd—Geldart; Other Foundation Scholarships—Nicolas, Turner, Field, and Parry. Of these, Nicolas is from the Queen's School, Basingstoke. The others were already in the school. Nicolas and Field were also awarded House Scholarships. Honours:—A. T. Bryant came out first in the Civil Service Examination for the Straits Settlement Cadetships.

WAKEFIELD GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—Mr. M. H. Peacock, late Scholar of Exeter College, Oxford, and Senior Assistant Classical Master of the Bradford Grammar School, has been elected to the Head-mastership vacant by the appointment of Mr. R. L. Leighton to the Bristol Grammar School. There were fifty-two candidates.

WINCHESTER.—The Scholarship which was placed at the disposal of the Oxford Delegacy of Local Examinations, according to the scheme arranged by the Committee of the Head-masters' Conference, has been awarded to F. Marchant, a boy at Bancroft's Hospital, a Middle-class School belonging to the Drapers' Company. The Scholarship is worth £70 a year, and is tenable for three years.

TRANSLATION PRIZE.

For each month, till further notice, there will be set a passage, generally from a French or German Author, to be translated into English. A PRIZE OF TWO GUINEAS will be offered each month for the best version. Initials or a nom de guerre must be adopted by competitors, but the successful competitor is required to send his real name and address to the Prize Editor for publication. Versions must be forwarded to the "Prize Editor" of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, 96 Farringdon Street, E.C., not later than the 15th of the month. Any translation which is sent with an addressed envelope and six postage stamps, will be returned with corrections. A First Class is entitled to a copy of "Prizes and Proximes," which will be forwarded on application. Those who have already received "Prizes and Proximes" may apply for a copy of "Maria Wuz."

The prize for the best translation from Goethe has been awarded to "Pensive Gurgler."

"Prospero," the last prize-winner, is Mrs. Pumphrey, Elm Park, Shotley Bridge.

Es war ein Samstagsabend im Winter. Der Vater liess sich immer bei Licht rasiren, um Sonntags früh sich zur Kirche bequemlich anziehen zu können. Wir sassen auf einem Schemel hinter dem Ofen und murmelten, während der Barbier einseifte, unsere herkömmlichen Flüche ziemlich leise. Nnn hatte aber Adramelech den Satan mit eisernen Händen zu fassen. Meine Schwester packte mich gewaltig an und recitirte, zwar leise genug, aber doch mit steigender Leidenschaft:

"Hilf mir! ich fleho dich an, ich bete, wenn du es forderst, Ungeheuer, dich an! Verworfener, schwarzer Verbrecher,

Hilf mir! ich leide die Pein des rüchenden ewigen Todes! . . .
Vormals konnt' ich mit heissem, mit grimmigem Hasso dich
hasson!

Jetzt vermag ich's nicht mehr! Auch diess ist stechender
Jammor!"

Bisher war Alles leidlich gegangen; aber laut, mit fürchterlicher
Stimme, rief sie die folgenden Worte:

"O wie bin ich zermalmt! . . ."

Der gute Chirurgus erschrak und goss dem Vater das Seifenbecken
in die Brust. Da gab es einen grossen Aufstand, und eine strenge Un-
tersuchung ward gehalten, besonders in Betracht des Unglücks, das
hätte entstehen können, wenn man schon im Rasiren begriffen
gewesen wäre. Um allen Verdacht des Muthwillens von uns abzu-
lehnen, bekanten wir uns zu unsern teuflichen Rollen, und das
Unglück, das die Hexameter angerichtet hatten, war zu offenbar,
als dass man sie nicht aufs neue hätte verurtheilt und verbannont sollen.

So pflegen Kinder und Volk das Grosso, das Erliebene in ein Spiel,
ja in eine Posse zu verwandeln; und wie sollten sie auch sonst im
Stande sein, es auszuhalten und zu ertragen!"

BY "PENSIVE GURGLER."

It was a Saturday evening in winter. My father always had him-
self shaved by candle-light, so that on Sunday morning he might
dress for church comfortably. We sat on a stool behind the stove,
and, while the barber made his lather, murmured our usual curses as
quietly as might be. But now came the time for Adramelech to lay
his iron grasp on Satan. My sister clutched me hard, and recited, in
a low enough voice, but still with rising passion:—

"Help me, help, I beseech thee, I pray thee, if this thou requirest,
Monster portentous; thou black, thou abject transgressor,
Help me; I suffer the pangs of torturing death everlasting.
Time was when I could hate thee with fiery, terrible hatred,—
Now I can hate no more; this, too, is heart-goading sorrow."

So far all had gone off tolerably well. But when she uttered aloud,
and in awful tones, the words that follow,—

"Woe is me! how am I shattered!"

the good chirurgon took fright, and emptied his lather-bowl over
my father's breast. A great commotion ensued, and a strict investi-
gation was held, with especial regard to the calamity that might have
resulted if the shaving had been already in progress. In order to
avert from ourselves all suspicion of malicious intent, we confessed
to our diabolic rôles, and the mishap which the hexameters had
brought about was too obvious not to require that they should be once
more denounced and proscribed.

Thus do children and the world turn into comedy, into burlesque
even, the great and the sublime. And, were it otherwise indeed, how
should they be able to support and endure it?

We class the 258 versions received as follows:—

First Class.—W. W. S., Denver, T. Hews, Sturm und Drang,
Dunedin, Kay, Dromalane, Wagner Famulus Alter, B. L. T., G. E. D.
W. W. S., J. E. D., L. E. S., Borealis, John, A. L. S.

Second Class.—Helen G., Aroostook, Elle U. U., Enid, F. A. R.,
M. F. W., Hartlip, W. S. M., S. W. D. S., H. M. L., Verity, Unsigned,
Gentian, M. E. S., Elizabeth N., Diogenes, D. C. E., Ram Lal, Sloe,
Eon, D plus W., Darby, Bannockburn, G., Little Henry G., Asymp-
totes, Heather Bell, Roy, Cheshire Cat, Lorelei, Beethoven, Mell,
Alpha, Translator, M. L. B., Down, Mab, Henrietta, Clio, Ariadne,
East Wind, M. or N., Trilobite, Prospero, Ant, Bonny, E. H. O.,
Standard, Combazz, Ora, The Dodo, P. P., Bella, Auf Wiederseh'n,
Volo plus I., Ingomar, F. E. Tattersall, Fides, Adsum, Antigonus,
X? Gniala, H. G. H., Harold Skimpole, Venom, L. A. M., Che faro,
M. C. S., Earthworm, Petit Gavroche, Chitteraway, Sweet Briar,
Vetter aus Bremen, Diaphenia, C., Peter, E. S. M., M. L. H., Airam,
J. W., C. E. L., Ida, Emmo, E. C.

Third Class.—Boots, Neo, Dulcamara, Deadly Nightshade, Dray-
algma, Atalanta, Old Woman, Stella, An Ancient Briton, Vorbei, Max
Bertie, Gabrielle, Demerara, Niemand, Gilgeous, Clair, Cymra, Old
Fogy, Torfrida, Mad Tony, Allets Retsbew, Bamba, Dionysius, W. L.,
Jill, Désormais, L. C., Pakeha, Exile, Lucile, Clarissa, Phyllis, Clifton,
Camôes, Clio, Live—Love—Learn, Hazel Hall, Grace Ann, William,
J. C. S., Fiji, Dot, Yendis, Venezia, Henrietta, Maria, Nondum,
Cordelia, Pentagon, Y. E. M., Altatore, Hedera, Das hässliche Entlein,
Bess, Locksley, Schattenlos, Bidge, J. Senior, J. Junior, Dame
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The extract from Goetho's "Wahrheit und Dichtung" is a straight-
forward piece of narrative, such as would be set for a Woolwich
"Unseen," and presented fewer difficulties than usual of style and
idiom. Of schoolboy mistakes the most current were:—1. *Sonntags
früh*, "early on Sunday morning," or "for early church on Sundays,"
instead of simply "on Sunday morning." 2. *Als dass man sie, &c.*,
literally "for them not to be bound to abuse and ban them (the hexa-
meters) anew." The elder Goetho's literary conservatism could not
abide the new-fangled foreign metre. 3. *Volk* is not "their elders,"
but "uneducated people," "the masses." Klopstock's hexameters
should assuredly have been rendered into English hexameters, but it
was a nice point to decide whether bombastic versions were a con-
scientious attempt to preserve the "Ercles vein" of the original. The
prize version is correct, but somewhat tame; "maledictions" would
be better than "curses," "to-do" than "commotion"; and the last
sentence but one is stiff and wooden. More spirited versions were
debarred by some positive mis-rendering.

To recur to last month's translation, several correspondents have
kindly sent us references to the Scotch Song on which Miss Harrison's
version of the French Folk-Song was modelled. Variations of it may
be found in Miss Aitken's "Scottish Song," p. 133; Burns, Globe
edition, pp. 263, 274.

It may be as well to warn competitors not to take as a precedent
the wholly different metre of Prospero's prize version, and not to lay
themselves open to suspicion, as Prospero does in the first line, by
rendering *les feuilles du tremble* "trembling leaves."

"X. A." hauls us over the coals for using the expression *nom de
plume*, "an anglicism for *nom de guerre*, the only French equivalent."
Having searched Littré in vain for it, we must confess our error, and
let it go the way of *double entente, en déshabille, toujours perdrix*, and
à l'outrance.

"Dry-rot" is requested to send address.

*A Prize of Two Guineas will be given for the best trans-
lation of the following passage from Théophile Gautier:—*

La déesse dont le corps porte sur une jambe, et qui s'appuie
de son genou replié sur un tertre moussu où se frisse un bout
de draperie bleue, se présente de dos, les reins cambrés par le
mouvement du bras ramassant derrière la tête une opulente
torsade de cheveux. La main noyée dans les flots lustrés et
bruns, est d'une élégance toute florentine, amenuisée et fucelée
comme une main du Primatice; le visage découpe un profil demi-
perdu, très-pur, très-délicat, très-jeune, qui mélange la finesse de la
Renaissance à la correction de l'antique; le bras droit, mollement
abandonné sur la hanche, s'enlace au bras potelé d'un petit Cupidon
tout frisé et tout rose, qui, de sa lèvres cerise, rit au miroir et se con-
tourne dans une pose gracieusement maniérée. Un vélarium de cou-
leur safranée se noue aux branches des arbres, dont le feuillage clair-
semé, les tiges grêles, laissent filtrer par places l'azur du ciel et
l'azur du lointain. Sur la tête d'un Hermès, qui sourit dans sa
barbe de marbre, deux colombes voltigent en se becquetant et en pal-
pitant des ailes. Parmi l'herbe git le carquois de l'amour, près d'un
chapeau corinthien, auquel les plantes sauvages semblent vouloir
ajouter de nouvelles acanthes. Ce chapeau, débris d'une colonne
tombée, vestige d'un peuple disparu, nous inquite à cette place.
A-t-il un sens symbolique, et signifie-t-il déjà que le beau temps de la
Grèce est passé, mais que *l'éternel féminin* ne disparaît pas avec le
culte des Dieux? En effet, le bois ne ressemble guère à un bosquet
cythéren; les arbres ont poussé à l'aventure sur un sol inégal; les
herbes sauvages hérissent le gazon plein de folle avoine et de bug-
losse, et même un pissenlit arrondit dans un coin sa boule de duvet.
L'Hermès a reçu plus d'une cassure, et la mousse verdit le bas de sa
gaine. Serait-ce l'antique Vénus déchuë de l'Olympe qui revient par
la force de l'habitude, faire sa toilette à l'endroit où jadis s'élevait
parmi les myrtes et les lauriers-roses son gracieux temple de marbre?

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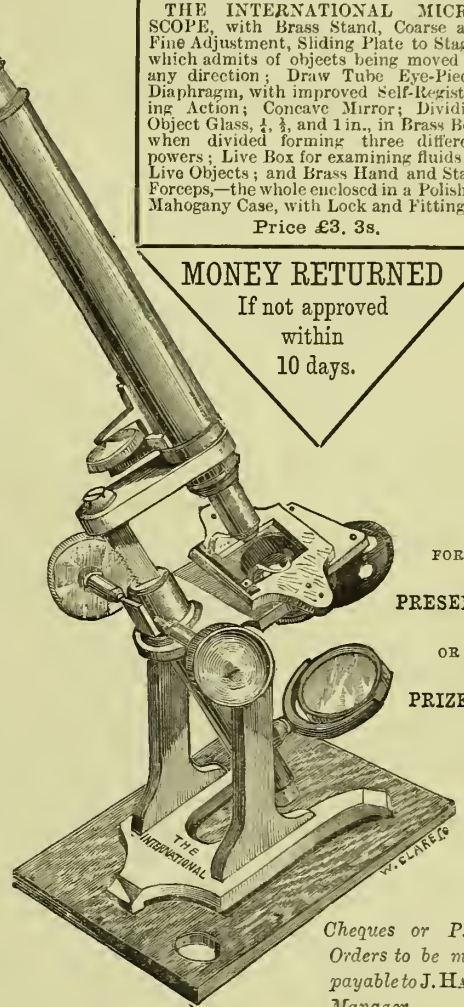
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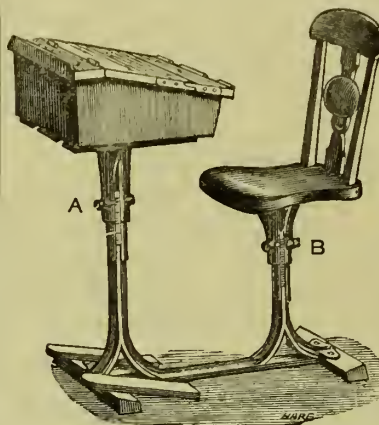
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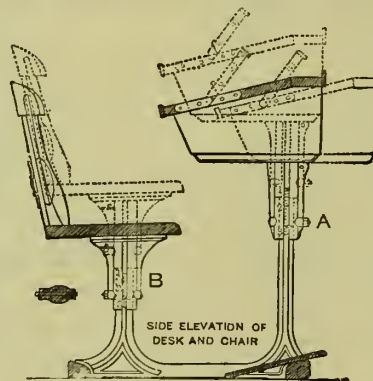
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96 FARRINGTON STREET, LONDON, E.C.

OCCASIONAL NOTES.

THE Reading meeting of the Church Congress was largely occupied with questions of education, and the relation of the Church to the Universities and the Public Schools formed the subject of several able, though necessarily one-sided, papers. If the Congress had the courage to invite the expression of lay opinion,—of genuine laymen like Mr. Eve and Mr. Kegan Paul, not lay figures like Sir J. Mowbray and Mr. B. Hope,—it would hear real debates, instead of academic orations; and the clergy of the present day may be trusted not to fly at their opponents' throats.

THE Bishop of Oxford, in his presidential address, struck the key-note. It was his desire to see the Church still hold the keys to the great door of education which admitted the children of the upper classes into public life. Mr. Wickham's and Bishop Abraham's speeches were variations on this theme. Mr. Wickham deprecated the suspicion of casting any slur on lay masters. They had their use, and he did not believe that the younger generation of masters was to any extent tainted with agnosticism.

Only let them know their place. The maintenance of a considerable clerical element in the teaching and government of schools was of high moment, and (it is implied, if not stated) the head-master-key must not be allowed to pass from the hands of the clergy.

BISHOP ABRAHAM's experience did not confirm Mr. Wickham's opinion of assistant-masters' orthodoxy. He found their teaching the residuum of belief, confined to such parts of the Bible as no one can object to, such doctrines as all Christians are agreed on. Of the future, too, he took a more desponding view. The inevitable tendency was for the Governing Bodies and the school staff to be more and more laicized, and the religious teaching to become less and less catholic. His concluding advice was very much to the point. “The Church, if it is to hold its own, must train up young men to be both first-rate scholars, mathematicians, and physicists, and also for the truth's sake to become clergymen. Then, by merit, they will earn their places as teachers.”

WE will not inflict on our readers a restatement of our position as regards clerical masters, but confine ourselves to one or two obvious comments. We may pass by the President's pious ejaculation as out of the region of practical politics. By the Act of 1868, the Public Schools are declared to be undenominational, and it is as idle to desire the exclusion of Dissenters' sons from Eton and Harrow as of Dissenters from Parliament. If Whitaker's Almanack is to be trusted, Mr. Wickham has not the courage of his opinions. The lay masters at Wellington College outnumber the clerics in the proportion of two to one; and, among the twelve juniors on the list, we do not find a single clergyman. We are no Paul Bertists, and preach no anti-clerical crusade. All we desire is that the *detur digniori* principle enunciated by Bishop Abraham should be faithfully carried out; that the best educators should be chosen to educate, without respect of persons or of parsons.

We rejoice to find that the *Times* has come round to the same opinion. In a leading article of October 25th we read,—“No man who values education as he ought will ever dream of asking to what denomination a competent teacher belongs, any more than a lover of good bread will inquire into the tenets of the man who grew the wheat.”

THE debate on the Universities was begun by Mr. Appleton, of Trinity College, Cambridge, who read a very sensible and straightforward paper. He accepted the Act of 1877, not only as inevitable, but as beneficial. Before that Act, the Universities did not represent the knowledge of the country. They can now claim to be national homes of learning; and, not only have they grown in knowledge, but also in moral tone and religious earnestness. One in eight of the Undergraduates is, at the present moment, engaged in active Christian work. The Church has a fair

field and no favour. What more can honest Churchmen desire?

THIS high tone was unfortunately succeeded by the feeble querulousness of Mr. Wordsworth, and the somewhat Pharisaical boldness of Mr. Welldon. Archdeacon Denison, whose sense of humour is even stronger than his churchmanship, was moved to laughter at Mr. Wordsworth's ideal sketch of old Oxford,—“Colleges of priests and Churchmen, bound by no vows; weak, perhaps, in Science and Philology, but strong in the service of a liberal culture.” In the Archdeacon's reminiscences of Oxford, there were evidently more monks of Thelema than monks of the Thebaid.

IT is not the first time that Mr. Welldon has figured at a Church Congress, and expressed the opinion that unbelief is generally more a matter of the heart than of the head; that the cure for the agnosticism that is in the air is not the study of the *Evidences*, but regular attendance at chapel and Sunday-school teaching. We had hoped that the day for theological intolerance and personal arguments of this sort had gone by, at least in England. We had hoped that increasing years, and the rebuff which his former attack provoked, had taught Mr. Welldon more discretion. The clergy have ceased to vituperate Mr. Huxley and Mr. Tyndall, Mr. Arnold and Mr. John Morley; they have built the tomb of the last agnostic prophet. Mr. Welldon still believes in whipping as a cure for agnosticism.

WE hear so much now-a-days of the evils of competition, that it is well to be reminded of the alternative evils from which we have escaped. Charles Austin, who knew the old system and lived in the days when there were no Educationists in the land, had such a lively horror of it, that he advocated a self-denying ordinance to disqualify any dispenser of patronage from nominating or appointing any relative or connexion to a public post. A bill is now passing through the Victorian Legislature to reform the Civil Service, by substituting competition for political patronage. By the Act now in force, there is a qualifying entrance examination, but temporary appointments have been allowed without examination. The result has been that the lean kine have eaten up the fat kine; and at the present moment there are 2,432 unclassified against 571 classified or duly qualified Civil servants. The consequence, as might be expected, is (we quote the *Times* correspondent) that “the whole Service has become so utterly blocked by incompetent men and lads, that public indignation cries out at the iniquity.” Seeing that every post in the Service will be open to British subjects, wherever born, the scheme offers a more promising opening to over-childrened parents than General Fielden's or Mr. Hughes' Utopias.

THE *Times* of October 13th prints a very clever letter from Mr. Walter Wren, professedly dealing with the subject of health and competitive examinations in connexion

with a paper read at the Social Science Congress. One of Mr. Wren's earliest recollections is how Kirke White killed himself by overwork and anxiety in competing for the blue ribbon of the senior wranglership. (As Kirke White died in 1806, this must be a case of Platonic amnesia.) On the other hand, he recollects Mr. Todhunter, who was over thirty when he graduated as senior wrangler, and still enjoys a green old age. For the Home Civil Service, candidates can compete up to 24. There are no cases of breaking-down in the Home Civil Service. For foundation scholarships at Eton, the limit of age is 14. Mr. Wren knows of more than one case of brain failure among the Fellows of King's. The moral is plain. Raise the age of competition, especially for the Indian Civil Service, where most break-downs occur.

WITH Mr. Wren's protest against the Public School Foundation Scholarships we heartily agree. With his proposal to restore the original limit of age (23) for the Indian Civil Service we as strongly disagree. The change was made for two reasons. First, the Indian Government opined that more work was to be got out of men who began their official life at 21 than from men beginning at 25. Secondly, (and here the shoe pinches) the Civil Service Commissioners desired to get the raw material direct from the public schools, not the highly wrought article supplied by the crammer. When Mr. Wren raises the cry of *Carrière ouverte aux talents*, and denounces this last move of the aristocracy to exclude inspired apothecaries and geniuses of ushers, he is trailing a herring across the scent. When he talks of “the high-born aristocrats of Haileybury” we are at a loss to know whether he is sneering at the *plebeii Deciorum anime* the Outrams and Kayes, the Jos Sedleys and Oakfields of the old East India College; or satirizing the lordly superciliousness of the modern Haileyburians who win writerships over the head of Mr. Wren's pupils. If, as we suppose, the latter, we may be allowed to recount an incident that lately came to our knowledge. A duke wrote to have his eldest son's name entered at Haileybury. The head-master replied, declining the honour: “I fear your son would be a fish out of water. We should not know what to do at Haileybury with a live Marquis.”

THE Chairman of the London School Board, in his review of the past year's work, reports steady progress both in numbers and efficiency, and vindicates the policy of the Board against recalcitrant vestries and pseudo-economical obscurantists, as typified by the *St. James's Gazette*. During the last twelve months, room for nearly 35,000 more children has been provided; yet even now, London, with all its advantages, is worse provided with school accommodation than Scotland; and, if the present rate of building is maintained, it will take seven years to overtake the increase of population. The average rate of attendance for London has risen 10 per cent. in the last ten years, and it is 10 per cent. higher than the average rate for England.

The number of passes in the three compulsory subjects is over 89 per cent., and the merit-grant under the new Code is equally satisfactory. The two burning questions of Free Schools and Higher Elementary Schools are *adhuc sub judice*; but one important administrative reform has come into operation since Mr. Buxton's speech. The Board teachers will henceforth be paid by fixed monthly instalments, instead of having to wait for their share of the Government grant. The boon is a double one. They will have their salaries in hand, and will be delivered, in part at least, from the tyranny of percentages. We hope that other Boards will follow this example.

MR. MICHAEL FOSTER, as "a good deal examined youth," and, at one time of his life, "the most examining man in England" (so he described himself to the Pharmaceutical Society), has a right to be heard on the subject of examinations. He is far from joining in the general hue and cry that has been raised against them. The Pass Examination, he believes, may generally be trusted to separate the stupid and idle from the clever and industrious men. The Class Examination, though often a fallacious sieve, is a goad that we cannot dispense with. Many of our present leaders in science have gone to it for purely business ends. "Like Saul, the son of Kish, who for business matters went to seek his father's asses and found a crown; they have gone in for a medal or certificate, and in the end have found what was better than either medal or certificate,—knowledge." The defects of examinations, which are freely acknowledged, must be cured by multiplying them, and by leaving them mainly in the teacher's hands, "with the help of [an assessor, if you will, in order that things may be straight, and square, and above board." We welcome so valuable an ally as the Professor in carrying a reform for which we have hitherto fought almost single-handed. Our readers, too, will not fail to recognise "a certain University where the subjects are so many that, as a poor, disappointed, despairing student said to me, preparing for it is like driving a lot of pigs."

M. LEGOUVÉ, the author of that charming little manual *L'art de la lecture*, has just published his report of the examination for women teachers in higher schools. A special interest attaches to this examination, as by it women are for the first time admitted to degrees in the University of France. Candidates were examined in the following subjects:—1. Explanation, with grammatical and literary analysis, of a passage from a standard French author. 2. Correction of a pupil's exercise *vivâ voce*. 3. A lesson of history. 4. A lesson of geography, with the blackboard or blank map. 5. A lesson on some point of moral philosophy. On comparing the French scheme with the Cambridge, London, and St. Andrews Syllabuses, one marked defect is apparent. The philosophy of education, psychology, and logic are entirely ignored. Of this defect M. Legouvé seems aware, though he does not suggest the remedy. "What is wanting," he writes, "in

the majority of our *agrégées* is the critical spirit and the knowledge of pedagogic. They know better than they teach, they describe and relate better than they judge; they are more occupied with self-instruction than instruction, with knowledge than with understanding (*de connaître que d'apprécier*)." A feminine failing was very apparent in the geography lessons of the candidates:—*Elles savent trop les petites choses et pas assez les grandes*. "I heard a professor dictating to his class the names of forty affluents to a river in Russia, names so barbarous that he had to spell them letter by letter." The remark is at least as pertinent in England as in France, and holds good in other subjects besides geography.

DEAN BURGON, like Boyle, Atterbury, and many other distinguished Oxford men, is a poor scholar, but an admirable wit. His onslaught on the New Testament Revision was an excellent piece of sophistry; but his sketch of the late Provost of Oriel, in the *Quarterly Review* for October, is a brilliant fragment of biography. Arnold, in a "light blue coat with metal buttons, and a buff waistcoat"; Whately, in a "pea-green coat, white waistcoat, stone-coloured shirt, flesh-coloured silk stockings," smoking a surreptitious cigar on the leads of the Provost's lodge, or replying to the rustic parson, who thanked him for the instructive evening he had passed in Common Room,—"Oh, not at all, it's a very pleasant thing to have an anvil to beat out one's thoughts upon"; "Davidson on Prophecy" bringing his College accounts in despair to the Provost, and detected in adding in the date of the year,—all are living figures of a generation of worthies that has nearly passed away. But, perhaps, the Dean's best story is of Hawkins's admission to the headship. "The gates of the College are duly closed; the Fellows, drawn up in two ranks, are waiting under the archway to admit their elected Provost." At last a knock was heard, and the Dean (now Cardinal Newman), advancing, asked—"Quis adest?" "Please, sir," replied a tremulous voice, "it's me, the College washerwoman." The judicious reader will skip "The Disestablishment of Religion in Oxford, the betrayal of a sacred trust," a sermon by the Dean of Chichester, which is foisted into the article like Yorick's sermon in *Tristram Shandy*, but not so skilfully dovetailed.

A RECENT circular of the Education Department directs Inspectors to impress upon masters moderation in punishment, and to advise that corporal chastisement should be inflicted by the head-master and an entry of the fact made in the log-book. It is added that My Lords receive frequent complaints of the excessive use of corporal punishment in schools, and a hint is given that, in awarding the merit-grant, inspectors will be guided by the maxim that the better the master the less the need of chastisement. These mild and, in our opinion, most necessary cautions have roused the indignation of an anonymous writer in *Macmillan's Magazine*, a veteran schoolmaster and the editor of a defunct educational journal, as he lets us

know.—Britons never will be slaves, least of all Britons who are members of the N. U. E. T. Let them arise and shake off "the trammels of sentimental regulations." Schoolmasters know their own business, and need no ignorant inspectors to tell it them. It is clearly their interest not to flog, therefore they do not flog. If the assistant or pupil-teacher can only "send up" to the head-master, he will appear to his scholars as "an arbitrary underling." Not only is it clear *à priori* that masters do not over-flog, but statistics prove it. There have not been in the last two years fifty cases of teachers convicted by magistrates of inflicting excessive corporal punishment.—We assure our readers that this is not a parody, but a fair abstract of an article misnamed "Corporal Punishment in Schools." The thing itself is neither strange nor rare, but how on earth did it get into *Macmillan*?

A CORRESPONDENT sends us a piece of his experience, which we commend to the notice of those interested in the religious education of the poor. "I have just come from a village school, which is kept up simply because the managers declare that religious teaching cannot be properly given in a Board School. When I entered, a large number of children were saying a hymn to the assistant-teacher. They said it simultaneously in pure sing-song, without the least regard to meaning. 'Do the children understand the meaning of the words?' I asked. 'No, sir; they are not expected to know the meanings, sir,' was the ready answer. I went immediately to the master of the school and said, 'Miss — tells me the children are not supposed to know the meaning of the hymns they learn.' 'No,' said the master, 'he expects them to know the meaning of the catechism, but not of the hymns.' 'He? who is he?' 'The Inspector.' In this case the great HE was not the greatest but only the Diocesan Inspector." It is the old story—*Non vitæ sed scholæ*. What can be the value of "religious instruction" when the children are taught, not for God, but for the Inspector?

IN reference to a story given in our last number, illustrating the intellectual condition of a National School-girl who had passed Standard VII., a correspondent sends us another with a different bearing. "A poor London boy of twelve years old, who had been to an excellent Board School and passed all the standards, was given an hour's work in the morning by a gentleman's family to clean boots and shoes at one shilling a day and his breakfast (his only earnings). As he was delicate, he was taken down in the summer by his employers into the country to do a little out-of-door work, and it was thought that he and the gardener's young brother would make agreeable company for each other. But he declined the acquaintance on the ground that 'he could not associate with a boy who had not passed even the Fourth Standard!' In point of fact, he found his only intellectual compeers in lads of seventeen or eighteen years old." *Mit dem Theodor will ich gar nicht*

mehr umgehen, er ist ein Lumpenkerl, denn gestern wusste er nicht mal, wie der Genetiv von mensa heisst.

PROFESSOR HUXLEY does not mince matters. The reformed Medical Act, introduced by the Government last Session (so he told the students of the London Hospital), was a highly cumbrous and complex machinery, wholly untried and of doubtful efficacy, for the purpose of superseding Universities and Corporations, the great majority of which are at present doing their work exceedingly well. Instead of this, Mr. Huxley proposes two simple amendments of the present Act:—No one shall be placed on the register who has not passed an examination in the three branches of medicine, surgery, and midwifery; each of the present examining bodies shall have as coadjutors a certain number of members appointed by the Medical Council. Whether the proposed scheme would be equally effective with the Government scheme in securing uniformity and efficiency of examinations, we are inclined to doubt, but this is a question for experts. Of another suggested reform—the substitution of an examination in physical science for the present preliminary examination in general knowledge, we heartily approve. We are able, from our own experience, to endorse Mr. Huxley's opinion of the futility of the present system, which is satisfied with a smattering of Latin, French, and Mathematics.

"OUR schools and colleges," said Mr. Mark Pattison in his weighty address to the students of Bedford College, "lay out their endeavours upon the understanding." They teach languages and logarithms, but the development of the original inherent capacity of feeling, the cultivation of the emotions of sympathy, tenderness, and graciousness—in a word, poetic feeling—is stunted, crushed, and atrophied. School-learning itself may turn us into pedants, and destroy our sensibility. The lop-sided training began at school is continued at college, and the sole acquirement gained at Oxford is often "the puppy criticism of the unfledged Bachelor of Arts, who proves his smartness by writing down Tennyson." No one will deny that this is good criticism according to Mr. Pattison's definition,—sincere, serious, and ripe,—but, when we come to the constructive part of the address, we cannot help echoing the Rector's complaint that even of good criticism there may be too much. "To cultivate a quick and ready sympathy for actualities" is indeed a sovereign remedy, but where are we to get this *elixir vitæ*? "Search the classics," says Mr. Thring; "*Divide et impera*, dissect and analyze," says the author of "Lay Sermons"; "Live for humanity," say Comte and the *Pall Mall Gazette*. With which of these schools does Mr. Pattison agree? His last word is, "Cultivate the æsthetic emotions," but we cannot accept this as the sum of his philosophy or the symbol of his faith. Doubtless the full text which is promised us in the *Nineteenth Century* will make this point clear.

It may perhaps occur to some people that the Education

Department of the Social Science Congress must have been badly off for subjects when they took to discussing the teaching of Forestry. However, if a school of forestry is to be established, it should certainly be quartered in Exhibition Road. Kensington Gardens would make an excellent practising school; the present condition of the timber in that haunt of nursemaids might serve to show the students how the cultivation of trees should not be managed. An Indian forest officer, quoted in the *Pall Mall Gazette*, let the cat out of the bag: "We do not preserve forests in India. We only write about it. My department was an invention of clever humbugs, to make snug places for themselves and their friends."

MUCH has lately been written in newspapers, from the *Times* downwards, about the Salvation Army, but the best description of its doings is to be found in Ovid's account of the arrival of the statue of Cybele in Rome (*Fasti* IV., 341):—

"Exululant comites, furiosaque tibia flatur;
Et feriunt molles taurea terga manus."

We add, for the sake of our classical readers, an original construe attributed to a present Westminster Boy: "They howl at the comets and blow the furious shin-bones, and bring beefsteaks in their podgy hands."

THE Manchester School Board are doing a good work in founding scholarships and exhibitions to enable the most promising boys and girls in their elementary schools to carry on their education. This year they awarded thirty scholarships of £10 a year, which are held at their higher grade school, and last year six exhibitions of £25 a year were given, enabling the holders to proceed, if boys, to the Manchester Grammar School; if girls, to the Girls' High School. If only for this work, the Board fully deserves the panegyric that Mr. Oakeley passes on it in his Report. And the Governors of the Grammar School, by throwing open annually twenty entrance scholarships, deserve equal praise. Four-fifths of these, we are glad to see, have hitherto been gained by boys coming direct from elementary schools. We hope that the Governors of the Girls' High School will do likewise.

WE would call attention to the Extra Prize offered this month. It was suggested by an Occasional Note of last month, in which we somewhat rashly asserted that, in nine out of every ten lists of the most famous English men of letters now living, the name of John Morley would be found. If a sufficient number of lists are sent in to make it worth while, we propose to tabulate the results, which will not only afford some immediate amusement, but may also prove an important document to the future historian of English literature in the nineteenth century. We would, therefore, venture to ask even those who are careless of the prize, to send in a list of ten names without troubling themselves about the works. In adjudicating the prize, if we are in any doubt, as we can hardly help being, we shall refer the matter to a critic against whose

judgment there can be no appeal. It may interest our competitors to know that the piece set this month for translation is marked in Macaulay's copy of *Lucan* as his favourite passage.

WE are preparing for publication in our next number a lithographic chart showing the average stature, weight, chest-girth, and strength of children and adults of both sexes, constructed by Mr. C. Roberts, F.R.C.S., to illustrate the final report of the Anthropometric Committee of the British Association. It will be accompanied by a description of its chief features of interest, and of its use, to parents and persons engaged in education.

ART FOR SCHOOLS ASSOCIATION.*

By the Rev. BROOKE LAMBERT.

THE question of Art in towns has more than once occupied the attention of the Social Science Congress, and I now ask your consideration for the proposals of an Association which will, I trust, create such a taste as to make the demand for Art in towns more general. Till the public understands more about Art, *your* efforts will be useless, and therefore we must begin at the schools. Experience shows what may be done. In one branch of Art, school teaching has done something. Music has made rapid strides in our own day. In one department of pictorial Art, some slight foundation has been laid by the Science and Art Department Examinations. If the plan we have set on foot succeed, it will appeal to a number of children not wholly uninstructed in form. The success of the music crusade leads one to believe that some future prince may father a movement like that lately put before the public by the Prince of Wales, and the Royal College of Music find a counterpart in a Palace of Delight such as has been sketched in "All Sorts and Conditions of Men."

My subject has two divisions:—I. The Proposals of the Association and the means of carrying them out. II. General Considerations.

†I. The proposals are ranged under seven heads:—The first five relate to the methods of obtaining and supplying objects of Art; the sixth to a tentative exhibition; the seventh suggests a means of applying and supplementing the instruction to be obtained from the objects of Art. Or, to make the matter perfectly clear, our seven objects may be summed up under three projects:—*A.* We propose to make arrangements to procure objects of Art for schools; *B.* We propose to have an exhibition where those interested in the matter may see the sort of objects to be distributed; *C.* We propose to set on foot a system of teaching in these and other Art subjects.

I. *A.*—(1.) We propose to make arrangements to procure objects of Art for schools. It may be interesting to note, by the way, that a similar plan is under discussion by the French Government. They propose to have a small museum of objects of Art attached to each school. The objects will cost some £10 to £12. We hope to get our collections easily within that limit, but we fear it will be long before we can rely on any help from the public exchequer. In trying to find what we could exhibit, we have been met most cordially by lovers of Art, and Art publishers. We have little doubt but that the first head of our five objects will give us little trouble. (2.) With regard to the reproduction of specimens, we have already arranged with Mr. Griggs for the preparation of two flower drawings kindly placed at our disposal by Mr. T. Armstrong, Director of the South Kensington Art Studies. As to (3), we lay great stress on being able to show school managers what

* A Paper read at the Social Science Congress at Huddersfield.

† The proposals are printed in full in the *Journal of Education* for October, 1883, p. 343.

they can get at little cost. (4) is an object on which it is unnecessary to dwell. This must be the work of private individuals in the main. We shall hope to stir them up, and our Association will be the means of directing their efforts into suitable channels. (5.) On this object I shall speak more under my third head—General Considerations.

I. B.—(6.) On our second project—the formation of an exhibition of the works selected—we set great store. The plan of beautifying our school walls cannot succeed whilst it exists only in the form of a dream. That dream has, however, been dreamt by such men and women as those whose names appear on our Executive and General Committee, and is not likely to be woven only in such stuff as dreams are made of. Miss Christie's letter in the *Journal of Education*, to which this Association owes its formation, met with so ready a response as to show that the matter was in many minds. The meeting at Mr. Storr's, when we assisted at the baptism of the infant project (forgive the clerical simile), was largely attended. There were plenty of people to father it—I should rather say, God-father it, for they came forward with offers of money and pictures. We have one part of the public with us; but the public—aye, there's the rub—the public of school managers and ratepayers, what will they say? We must, therefore, give our dream a visible form. We must gather on walls specimens likely to be attractive. I speak for myself only when I say that the exhibition should, in my judgment, be composed of groups of objects mentioned in sub-paragraph (6). Each group should contain one or two pictures of natural objects, one or two pictures of animals, one landscape, one historical portrait, and so on; each group containing, say, 12 objects. There would probably be one or two smaller groups of less expensive objects. Each group would have the cost of the whole, and of each separate object, plainly marked. We should thus show how far we could suit the tastes of those only able to add to the decoration of a small village school, and, as well, the tastes of those who wished to furnish the handsome buildings in which our elementary scholars are housed. I say "elementary scholars," because, though we by no means wish to confine our efforts to the schools which belong to this class, it is to be feared we shall have little chance of helping middle and higher class schools: first, because it may be a matter of doubt whether, as a rule, their schoolrooms have walls clean enough, and are themselves bright enough, to show off works of Art. The rooms used for the purposes of education present in a visible form what is, I believe, an axiom with Englishmen, "There must be no nonsense of beauty in a workroom." Therefore, in ordinary life the æsthetic parts of the house are, like our society clothes, reserved for the eyes of strangers. The elevation may be decent, and the drawing-room artistic; but the workroom, the office, the kitchen, and the schoolroom are left in that sort of undress in which we are seen before and after meal-times. When the present generation has learnt to appreciate the value of beauty, perhaps our schools, our children, and our mill and office hands may do their work under pleasanter conditions. But, secondly, it is particularly in the middle and higher class schools that we shall find it hard to get teachers to see the use of Art. Knowledge puffeth up, and these Pharisees of education, who thank God that they are not, as other teachers are, in need of training, are not likely to see the advantage of Art culture for children. They represent the practical English mind of the father, who will not allow his children to learn to swim at school because they are not going to be sailors. All knowledge must have a direct result in life, or in examinations which are to teachers the main business of life.

Our third project, I. C. (7), is to set on foot a system of teaching as regards the objects exhibited in schools and other Art collections. I lay great stress on this. The object-lesson of a wall brightened with Art treasures is useless without the oral teaching. Why should we take the trouble, indeed, to reproduce those beauties of Nature imperfectly which may be seen, if children and men had eyes to see, in all their perfection in nature? The clouds which are a canopy to the dullest street; the red flower-pot, with its Creeping Jenny of long green tresses with gold hair-pins; or the delicate balsam, with its gem-

setting of scarlet, are objects of Art which can convey lessons as deep as those of any great master's painting. How are the children to learn that among themselves there may be faces as worthy of note as the historical portraits, unless one teach them? We want to explain why things are beautiful, and so to lead children to look for and love the beautiful around them. It is true that the mere collection of things beautiful concentrated in a small space may call attention to beauties before unnoticed, just as when you have looked carefully through a telescope or opera-glass, more things are visible to the naked eye in the landscape than were before apparent; and this due to the concentration of the field. But, apart from this, we want special instruction. We want to know why a combination of colour pleases the eye; and why this or that contour or outline is satisfying. And we want to learn just the rudiments of Art, so as to know what pains went to make this effect; and we want to know just enough of the history of Art as will show us what light the history of Art may receive from the history of the times, and what effect Art has on the lives of men and women. When this project was first discussed at Mr. Storr's, a letter was read from Mrs. Merritt, who said that, sympathising much with the movement, she thought her best way of helping it was to take children from time to time to the National Gallery and explain the pictures. That reveals a great want in our museums and galleries. I have seen this teaching going on in the museums and galleries of Copenhagen and Stockholm. There has been but little provision for it in England. Mere handbook instruction is but as the picture of a strawberry or cowslip: it lacks all the delicacy of odour and taste, which can only be conveyed by the touch of the living thing. We are seeing this; Mr. Newton has done something at the British Museum. The late Dean of Westminster is followed by his successor in the attempt to make our Valhalla speak to Englishmen. One great feature in Mr. Barnett's Art Exhibition in Whitechapel is the telling off of a certain number of educated people to go round with the sightseers and explain the pictures.

But let me turn from the proposals of the Association, and the means of carrying them out, to some General Considerations.

II.—(1.) As regards the method of distribution. Shall the objects of Art be given to the schools, bought by the schools, or shall they be put on loan? Great as are the difficulties of the loan project, the machinery being costly and the detail laborious, I can see myself no other way of making the project really useful. It may be assumed that, as a result of this scheme, we shall secure for some schools at least a work worthy to remain for ever on the walls. But in most cases we shall only be able to provide a small group of objects; and, in stating the average of such collections to consist of 12 objects, I think I have not erred on the side of over-statement. I doubt whether we shall get 12 in most schools. It seems to me that these will soon lose their value, and that the contempt bred of familiarity will of necessity come in. I think I could forecast the nicknames which would become current as to many of the objects, the compendium in which the children would summarize the prominent details. The explanation of the teacher would become very much like the well-learned lesson of the *valet de place*, and a comic version would soon become current among the children. To my mind, it would be essential to secure a constant change of objects, and this as much in the interests of the teachers as of the children. Select as carefully and widely as you may, there will always be some objects for which each teacher will, from habit of mind, have a special attraction, and equally others into the description of which he will find it hard to throw that heart, that enthusiasm which is the sunshine of teaching, making dull objects sparkle and beam with ever-fresh beauty. Such teaching alone can wake up the scholar, and leave the teacher, the lesson over, in that state of pleasurable exhaustion which is the concomitant of all agreeable exercise, and in which one dreams best of future subjects of exertion. I think also that, as a matter of finance, it would be easier for schools to pay 5 per cent. interest on the capital value of objects loaned, than to find the money for purchase,

The system will require a little nursing at first; but I hope there will be as little as possible of the *elemosynary*, *i.e.* of the free-gift system, except as regards real works of Art.

II. (2.) The second point on which I wish to dwell is as to the objects to be exhibited, and of these I would say one or two things. First, that the objects must be in themselves striking. Those objects which require microscopic examination will never be generally useful in the teaching of children. For instance, I trust that one of the series of objects to be exhibited would be facsimiles of coins and medals. Such facsimiles in plaster can be got for a trifle. (They form, I believe, one of the series in the French plan.) But I think that the smaller coins would be almost useless in an Art in Schools scheme: first, because you want in oral teaching something that can be seen at a distance; secondly, because the child's eye is not focussed for small objects. This latter is somewhat of an assumption, but I am inclined to think it is based on fact. As in early architecture and design the general effect is of large contour, and the ornamentation, where it exists, is rude; so in childish drawings, it surely cannot be merely want of proportion which makes the general outline so superior to the details. I have a theory that if we could dissect the eyes of the pyramid-builders; and of the stouemen of Carnac, we should find that either the lenses were different to our own, or that the eyes were set at a different angle to our own. But, at any rate, I am certain that, as a matter of fact, children cannot be induced to care for minutiae; and when you add to this the consideration of how hard it is to show them to a class, unless each has a specimen under his eyes, you will allow that I have something to say for my contention for large objects.

Further, I would say that the objects should, as a rule, have some colour in them. Monochrome in pictures is like monotone in reading—it fails to wake the attention. However much education may do to make one at last somewhat careless of colour, if only the eye may revel in glorious outline, such a feeling at least is the result of education. And we must never forget that we have generally seen the originals of pictures which delight us as engravings. And, therefore, though we actually see only the lines, we instinctively associate them with notions of colour, which add much to the picture. And, lastly, surely all education, to be successful, must be based on the attempt to guide rude instincts into better channels. It is certainly a fact that the uneducated do buy coloured prints in preference to engravings.

And I would say, as the last remark I have to make on this matter of the choice of subjects, let the pictures be rather those referring to action than mere pictures of contemplation. However desirable it may be to develop eventually the contemplative instinct, the instinct of youth is action. And, therefore, scenes of action (pity our former warlike instincts should necessitate the explanation that I do not mean battle-scenes only); pictures which have to do with fishing, yachting, wood-hewing; scenes of history and travel; pictures of Arctic regions and tropical forests, which suggest action; portraits of great men and pictures of great places, which suggest history, should be our principal objects. The ordinary photographs of celebrated pictures, of holy families, of grotesque saints and insipid angels, should be used sparingly. I can conceive no worse moral lesson to a boy than to suggest to him that, if he be persistently good, he may one day hope to be numbered amongst those uncouth beings painted as saints, those passionless objects which figure as angels—beings without the vigour of women or the strength of men. To be told that if one is good, one will live among them, is enough to wake all the evil in our constitution. I have always had much sympathy with the child who, being told that if he was good, he would be allowed one day to play with the angels, asked pathetically whether he might not have a little devil now and then to play with. I am, however, not merely joking. The one man of whom I have read on good authority that his face was as the face of an angel, was a man who was about to face a mob, full of religious fury, and plead for his life. Stephen, methinks, would have had little of the typical angel-face on such an occasion. I would also plead strongly for a distinct selection

of country sights for town children, and of town sights for country children. We should remember the saying, that one half the world does not know how the other half lives, only to do away so far as we can with the fact. It is most important that a town child should know something of country life, and a country child know something of town, manufacturing, or pit life. I think the beauty of a machine should be represented as well as the hideousness of a factory chimney. And I would have children know that there is something in country toil which can make a pretty picture. But by all means let us have pictures of birds, and flowers, and shells, and eggs—of all the marvels with which the world is furnished.

And now I must draw to an end. But first let me say two things. I should like to acknowledge that the work which this Society proposes to do has been in some measure anticipated, so far as Manchester is concerned, by Mr. T. C. Horsfall, who has, however, so little jealousy of us, that he has become a member of our General Committee and a liberal subscriber to our funds. Perhaps some of us in passing home may learn how his Art Museum prospers, and what the other Art scheme in Manchester has to teach us.

The second thing is, to point out that this work opens another door for volunteers. This is an age in which men are craving for some work in which they can make themselves useful to their fellow-creatures. There are many ways in which we can be helpful. Some who cannot give such help as did the lady who built the Palace of Delight in Mr. Besant's novel, may feel that, whilst they do all they can to make their own houses look pretty, they should try to do something to kindle that love of beauty which, if dormant, is always ready to be awakened in others. Some can give personal service, the help which comes from making the scheme a matter of conversation—learning the objections urged against it, and showing us how to do better. Some others may, perhaps, go farther, and give us help in explaining the pictures and taking people round the public galleries. My own belief that those who try will find an undeveloped power of explanation (which will not satisfy themselves, but is none the less immensely useful), is founded on the experience of Mr. Barnett's Art Exhibition in White-chapel. And then, bye-and-bye, when they have been educated into giving, and the less wealthy of our neighbours into receiving Art subjects, we shall hope for more. People will continue to send their pictures to exhibitions; but we shall look for more: we shall hope that they will call to their houses, not only the rich, but also the poor—the poor who, poverty-stricken in other respects, are especially so in this, that they are deprived of the constant presence of those beautiful works of Art which, in some form or another, we can all to some extent possess. When this movement has done the work for schools, it will, like all good works, spread a love of giving others the pleasure of seeing pictures, not in the cold atmosphere of the museum, but in a house built so as to set off these objects of beauty by their surroundings as well as by their position.

EDUCATION SOCIETY.

THE TEACHING OF MATHEMATICAL PHYSICS.

By PROFESSOR MINCHIN.

(Concluded from page 340.)

As soon as the student has understood the meaning of velocity and acceleration, he ought to be made perfectly familiar with Newton's Second Axiom, which, simple as it is, seems to possess great difficulty for the beginner. My experience tends to show that the root of this difficulty in the student's mind is the ingrained (and almost innate) error of regarding the *weight* of a body as an original, necessary, and unalterable property of the body. A long course of experience and popular teaching—I do not mean in lectures alone, but in conversation with his play-fellows, his parents, and others—has produced and crystallized this notion in his mind, in such a way that he can no more imagine the lump of lead or brass which is marked "1 lb. weight" as being devoid of weight, than he can imagine a round square.

Then, again, has he not seen a picture of the "room in which Mr. Baily weighed the Earth"?—and perhaps he has amused himself

by guessing how many millions or billions of tons the Earth does weigh. His popular astronomicals and his books of poetry also lend a powerful assistance to the production of this nefarious error. You must spend some time in getting him to understand that while the *mass* of a body is something which cannot be increased or diminished by taking the body to the moon, to Neptune, or into the interstellar spaces far removed from suns and planets, its *weight* changes in every one of these conditions, being practically nothing at all in a portion of space remote from attracting suns and planets. It is just as fleeting and contingent a property of mass as are its colour and its shape. When you have succeeded in clearing this rubbish away, you can place *matter* before the student in its simple nature, unhampered by deceptions and contingencies,—in the very state in which Newton takes it up in his Axioms, and you can then make him understand what is meant by an “absolute measure” of force, and what by a “gravitation measure.”

Newton's Second Axiom includes both a *scalar* and a *vector* conception; it deals with force both as a *numerical* and as a *directed* quantity, and hence students never understand it without a great deal of verbal explanation. The axiom in reality contains the whole theory of the motion of a particle.

Speaking of the principle of Work and Energy, the Lecturer said,—But here also there are two rocks on which the student may be wrecked, and he must be specially warned against them. The chances are a hundred to one that he thinks that if a mass is moving from right to left with a given velocity, its energy is equal and *opposite in sign* to that which it would have if it were moving with the same velocity from left to right. In other words, he will suppose that energy is, like force, velocity, momentum, &c., a *directed* quantity. Call his attention to the fire in a grate, and show him that at any given instant there is probably as much motion of vibrating molecules up as down, or from right to left as in the reverse direction, yet this does not affect the boiling of water; and at any instant the total energy of any collection of particles (as a fly-wheel, for example) is the arithmetic sum of their individual energies, though it is different with their total momentum.

The other point to be observed is this, that though the principle of the conservation of energy pledges itself to the constancy of the amount of energy developed by the doing of a given amount of work, it provides no guarantee for its preservation in any particular form; that is, no guarantee against its transformation. Take, as a very simple example, the case of a bullet weighing 2 lbs. which is dropped from a height of 500 feet. Here is a case in which 1,000 foot-pounds of work is done on a body, and the body, by means of the velocity acquired, becomes a store of this work, to be got out of it again when it is wanted. Conceivably, we may employ this energy for causing the bullet to penetrate a deal board or a bank of earth. Now, suppose that we have the means of estimating the mean magnitude of the resistance opposed to the bullet while it is penetrating the wood or the earth, and that we multiply this force by the distance penetrated; if we do so, we shall certainly obtain a quantity of work less than the 1,000 foot-pounds which we, perhaps, expect to get. Why is this? Because part of the energy of the bullet was turned into energy of motion of molecules in the bullet itself, and this, however we may dislike it, we cannot possibly avoid.

A very vital consideration, which is overlooked in some text-books, with regard to the application of the equation of work and energy, and one to which the attention of the student should be specially called, is this, that *this equation may not be at once applicable in cases in which impulses act*. I quote the following typical example in the solution of which this important consideration is overlooked:—A weight P lying on a smooth horizontal table is connected by means of a string with another, Q , which lies on the ground; a velocity u is given to P : find the height to which Q will be raised. The erroneous result to which I refer, is that Q is raised to a height $\frac{Pu^2}{2Qg}$, and this is obtained on the supposition that the whole of the original energy, $\frac{Pu^2}{2g}$, is converted into the work of raising Q , while it is manifest that some of it may possibly be used in doing work against the tension of an imperfectly inextensible string; some more converted into energy of molecular motion in the weights and in the string when the sudden tightening of the latter takes place; and some into the energy of vibration of the surrounding air.

The true result is to be found by determining the common velocity which P and Q will have immediately after the tightening of the string; this is, by considerations of momentum, $\frac{Pu}{P+Q}$; and after the impulse is over, no further change of energy into the molecular form

takes place, so that the amount really available for raising Q is $\frac{P^2 u^2}{2(P+Q)g}$, and the required height is $\frac{P^2 u^2}{2Q(P+Q)g}$.

The difference between the true and the false result may be made very striking by taking a numerical example, and it serves admirably to caution the student against a serious and very probable error—thus again illustrating the fact that, although we can be sure of the constancy of the total energy of any system, we cannot prevent the passage of some of it into forms which perhaps do not suit our special purposes.

[Some examples of the application of graphic methods to illustrate the conservation and transformation of energy, more particularly in the case of the electrical transmission of power, were next given.]

Here, perhaps, is the proper place for the few observations which I intend to make with regard to the teaching of Physics proper.

Now, the subject-matter of Electricity and Magnetism differs in one marked respect from the subject-matter of ordinary Statics and Kinetics; viz., that it is much more abstract, intangible, and unrealizable. Whatever difficulty we may have in defining matter, we are, at any rate, greatly assisted by being able to exhibit the actual mass which we call a gramme or a pound; but the corresponding things in Electricity and Magnetism—the unit charge and the unit pole—cannot be exhibited to the senses in the same way. As in other cases, it is with them “out of sight, out of mind”; they are very apt indeed to exist for the student as mere algebraical symbols, and when he says, “Let e be the quantity of the charge, and m the strength of the pole,” you will find in most cases that the mere letters e and m are really all that he has in his mind.

Hence, I think, arises the necessity for concrete specification of units in teaching these subjects, the object being to make the student, by incessant repetition and familiarization, realize instinctively both the *nature* and the *quantity* of the magnitudes with which he is dealing, and in this way to remedy the disadvantage at which he is placed in not being able to *see* or *touch*.

It will not do to propose to him the question, “A charge e is placed at a distance a from the centre of a spherical conductor; calculate the density of the induced charge at any point on the conductor,” and to be satisfied with an algebraical expression involving e , a , and r . He must be questioned as to the meaning of his result; and he must instinctively figure to himself that a and r are so many centimetres, that e is so many electrostatic units—so many times that quantity which, acting on an equal quantity, at a distance of 1 centimetre, produces on it a force of 1 dyne,—and that the symbol σ which he shows you for the surface density means the number of such units per square centimetre at the point on the conductor. He must, I say, be so drilled by repetition that his mind spontaneously, and without conscious effort, regards the magnitudes in this way.

Hitherto there has not been in our text-books enough of this concrete defining process, and the result is that much that might have become real and useful knowledge has been lost as mere symbolism.

Next to a knowledge of the method of measuring the fundamental units of Physics, the conception which plays the most important part throughout is that of *Potential*. It is a word in the mouth of every one who in any way comes in contact with Physics; and it is so eminently mysterious a word, and withal so scientific in appearance, that by no one is it so much used as by the “scientific phenomenologist.”* But take a student whose acquaintance with it is derived from the average text-book or from a teacher who is only a scientific phenomenologist, and what a state of bewilderment he reveals on Electrical Potential! If he tells you about water flowing down from one level to another, and that “if electricity flows from A to B , A is said to be at a higher potential than B ,” that is about all the information he possesses on the subject. As to associating any *numerical magnitude* with the potential at a particular point in an electric field—of this he does not dream.

Now, here again is eminently a place for numerical calculation. You must not stop until you have made the student come to regard the potential at any point in any electric field as the number of ergs of work which would have to be done against all the forces of the field in bringing that same electrostatic unit, which we emphasized so strongly a few moments ago, from an infinite, or practically infinite, distance—perhaps only from the other end of the room—up to the point considered. The definite notion of the erg should never be allowed to drop out of his mind when he tells you that the potential is $\Sigma \frac{e}{r}$; if you allow it to do so, his knowledge lapses into symbolism.

I can, of course, barely touch on these important points, although a

* A most expressive title, invented and immortalized by Prof. Tait.

great deal more might well be said on them. I pass on to the mention of "Lines of Force," which have now firmly established themselves in our text-books. Mathematicians have, of course, no difficulty in speaking correctly of a line of force; but in that most delightful book, Faraday's *Experimental Researches*, it is amusing to collect and compare the very loose and sometimes inconsistent definitions which it contains. Of course, we know that if in any part of an electric field, say a room with some charged conductors in it, we draw a very large number of lines of force—a good bundle of them—and follow them in imagination through the field, if we come to a place where they are closer together or farther apart, the electric quantity separated per unit of surface in that neighbourhood is greater or less; but this is a very rough way of speaking, altogether lacking of scientific accuracy. Again, we are almost invariably told that the charge on any surface in the field is measured by the number of lines of force entering that surface, and often, when we are told this, we have been told to draw the lines of force in the rough, indefinite, hap-hazard way just mentioned above. Sometimes, again, we are given a very much better rule for mapping out our electrical field; we are told to imagine it wholly occupied by tubes of force—unit tubes, moreover, so that each is perfectly definite. And then we are told that the charge on a surface is to be estimated by the number of these unit tubes cutting through the surface. This is much more satisfactory, but still not satisfactory. Before we can estimate the charge by the number of unit tubes, the unit (surface-integral of normal force) chosen for the tubes must be indefinitely small, or there will be halves and quarters of tubes unintersected by the surface in question; and if the unit is indefinitely small, the number of tubes cutting through any finite surface will be enormously great, and the measure will be inconvenient.

What would you say to a mathematician who told you that the area of a given plane curve is to be got by breaking up the axis of x , describing a number of unit rectangles, and counting the number of them intersected by the curve? Yet this is precisely the unscientific procedure so common in our physical text-books.

It is much better to form the conception of the "electric area" of a surface placed anyhow in an electric field, this being simply the surface-integral of normal electromotive intensity over it. And, in exactly the same way, we are told that when a closed circuit revolves in a magnetic field, the electromotive force induced in it is measured by the number of lines of force subtracted out of its area per unit of time. I would suggest, just as before, that it is measured by the time-rate of increase (or decrease) of the "Magnetic Area" of the circuit; and that we should picture a circuit in a magnetic field as having in every position a "Magnetic Area," which is, definitely, the surface-integral of normal intensity taken over any cap having the circuit for an edge. We can form, after very little practice, as good an idea of the "Magnetic Area" of a closed circuit as of the ordinary space-area of a surface; and we thus avoid that unscientific and objectionable, though, perhaps, roughly useful term, *number of lines of force*.

One more consideration with regard to teaching before we finish. Probably the most important maxim to enforce on the student is that he ought to aim at filling his mind with Principles and not with Equations. It is much better to teach him the principle of mass-moments for finding the distance of the centre of mass of a system from any plane, than to make him remember some formula for \bar{x} , or some polar equation for the purpose. It is much better to teach him that the equilibrium of a rigid body requires the vanishing of the total component of force along every direction, and the vanishing of the total moment round every axis, than to bewilder him with some formula involving the use, perhaps, of angles always measured counterclockwise, and therefore many of them greater than two right angles, which your formula requires for its consistency. And, in the special department under our consideration, it is better to teach him the two principles involved in the collision of bodies, and to solve each problem by the direct application of these, than to allow him to take the general results and fit into them the particular values of the masses, velocities, and coefficients of restitution which belong to the special problem. This latter is a mere machine process, involving no exercise of thought, while the former produces and fixes a knowledge of the subject. You will probably have observed that I have omitted to say anything about the use of experiment in teaching Kinetics. Nothing but want of time has prevented me from doing so. As a matter of fact, I employ the experimental method myself with students, more particularly in calculations relating to the moments of inertia of solid bodies; but the apparatus used, the measurements made, and other things, must be left unmentioned. You will find a very great deal practically useful, easily attainable, and suggestive of further experiment in a little work recently published by Professor Perry—Perry's *Practical Mechanics*. Such a course of experimental

illustration and calculation as Professor Perry and Professor R. S. Ball employed with their students is such as any one may easily employ; and without it you will find, as I found, that the meaning of the moment of inertia of a body, for example, is never sufficiently realized by the student.

No discussion of the proper method of teaching science can be complete if it deals only with what may be called sins of commission on the part of writers: it must also deal with sins of omission.

On this latter subject very much more might most usefully be said with regard to English books than I am now prepared to say.

Speaking generally, I think many people will agree with me in saying that our English works are marked by one very general characteristic—namely, *obscurity*.

I say this at the same time that I have in mind some writers and teachers who are remarkable for the very reverse; the extreme lucidity and naturalness of expression in their writings often passing into slang. I am by no means an advocate for slanginess of expression, but I regard it as a practical protest by the writers referred to against the stilted obscurity which the English writer in general supposes to be proper to a scientific treatise.

I am not alone in saying that if, on any given scientific subject, I knew of two works covering the same ground, the one by an English and the other by a French writer, I should unhesitatingly prefer the French work, because I should feel certain of meeting in it with a clear, simple, and logical exposition of the subject.

The English writer, as a rule, seems to be quite satisfied with the performance of his duty if on his subject he tells "the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth."

Exhaustive as this division appears to be, it really does not include everything necessary: it omits a most valuable element of education, and one which can be readily supplied with a little tact and without any serious extra expense to the author.

In Dynamics generally the number of erroneous ideas to which a student is naturally prone, and the number of wrong methods which might be employed in attacking a problem—methods, moreover, the errors of which are by no means obvious even to one who is tolerably well acquainted with the subject—is extremely large. The thoughtful student of an English work may find a proper account of the method to be employed in some special case, and perhaps he will find no vagueness or multiple meaning in the exposition; but he will often have a method of his own which he proposes to apply. He applies it, and he finds that the result disagrees with that of the author. Supposing that he has no competent instructor to consult on this difficulty, he must be content with the very unsatisfactory knowledge that something is wrong somewhere. Of course, I do not mean to say that an author is bound to notice all wrong methods when he has given a right one; but I do say this, that in a great many cases the errors which even a clever student will make ought to strike the writer, and that a few words of warning and explanation ought to be given. To suppose that the mere pouring out of true propositions, even if they are clearly expressed, is the whole of what constitutes an educating process, is to take a very limited view indeed of education.

Let us just go back to that problem of the two weights, P and Q, the first of which is on a horizontal table, and is connected by a string with the second, which lies on the ground. Here it might have been seen *a priori* that the very first attempt of the intelligent student to obtain the solution would be to assume that the energy of P is that which is available for the raising of Q; and a notice of this fallacy in half a dozen lines once for all would remove a most serious error, not only here, but throughout the course of the student's subsequent work in Physics. The same would, in all probability, be the procedure of the student in the case in which a bullet is fired into a block movable round a fixed horizontal axis.

In many such cases, I say, the English writer might make his teaching much more effective by giving his pupil a little more than the mere truth for which, somewhat after the manner of Shylock, he appears to have bargained.

For my part, I believe in no method of teaching, whether oral or in books, which is not Socratic in its idea. In oral teaching, you can question, you can draw out and deal with individual characteristics and difficulties, and, placing yourself exactly in the position of a student, make use of his own admissions for the purpose of refuting his own objections; and this is by far the most efficacious method of teaching. All this cannot be done in a book, but a great deal of the same kind can be done, if only English writers will adopt a more sympathetic tone, a more simple and homely way of putting things, and give up the idea that a scientific treatise should pose as a grave grammatical work of art—a thing calculated to inspire the student with awe, but not to be readily apprehended without some ponderous canon of hermeneutics.

CORRESPONDENCE.

BOYS VERSUS GIRLS.

To the Editor of the *Journal of Education*.

SIR,—The correspondent who supplies you with news from Ireland on educational matters has, in your last issue, favoured your readers with some remarks on the respective merits of boys and girls, of a kind so utterly misleading that I must ask you for the shortest possible space that will allow me to put him right. As an Irish schoolmaster, I may say that I would read your journal with the greatest pleasure if it contained no Irish news at all; but, if you do include us, in however brief a space, you will agree with me, I am sure, that your news should be as correct as possible. Perhaps what I am about to say may have a wider interest than that of a mere correction of a misstatement, as it deals with the question of the merits of boys *versus* girls. The arena, too, on which the question has been tested is that of a practically national competition. It is seldom such an opportunity is offered for the scientific mind.

Well, in the first place, to look at the question in the mass. Your correspondent says that 80 per cent. of the girls passed the Examination and only 57·8 of the boys, and calls on us (very naturally, one would suppose) to admire the superiority of the girls. If percentages are worth anything, surely they seem to bear out your correspondent's conclusion. Let us, however, look into the statistics with some light to guide us,—the light that comes from a full knowledge of all the facts,—and see if the conclusion is warranted.

Your correspondent notices the continued decline in the total number of girls, this decline being 344 in 1882, 336 this year—a very great falling away, where a decided and continued increase was fondly hoped for and firmly expected by those who advocate the better education of our girls. Now, is it not clear that if the girls who would merely have passed and no more, or who would have failed to pass, stayed away from the Examination altogether, whereas all the boys—good, bad, and indifferent—were indiscriminately shoved through the ordeal of the Examination, any comparison of *percentages* between the two sexes is wholly illusory? If we only take into account those who competed, let it be conceded that more girls than boys passed. But what are the actual facts? The Examinations begin about the 18th June, say ten days or a fortnight from the end of the term immediately preceding the holidays. As a rule, the senior classes of a boys' school all enter for the Examination. The most junior classes have no reasonable prospect of doing anything at the Examination. They are in many cases too young even to write what they do know. Nevertheless, if there must be a choice between allowing a junior class for a fortnight to constitute a school, or to let them try their luck at the Examination with their schoolfellows, and learn how to answer a paper by making the actual experiment, most teachers, or many at any rate, will try the latter course. This year many did so. I myself was one. I did not expect many of the most junior boys to pass, nor was I disappointed. Nearly all failed. Of the boys, then, many were sent in who had but little prospect of passing, who were too young to make any fair show at a written examination, and who were only intended to learn how the thing was done.

On the other hand, there is a growing feeling among many schoolmistresses and parents that such Examinations are not the "correct thing" for girls. Many schools do not send in any, others only send such as desire to be examined. Shall we say, that if the schools which abstained from the Examination had sent in their progeny, they would materially have helped to lower the percentage of the girls' passes? It might be ill-natured to press that point, yet there is a good deal in it. I prefer to put the facts in the following way: whereas the boys, big and little, are sent in to the Examination, the girls are largely allowed a discretion, whether that discretion be personal, or on the part of teacher, parent, or guardian.

Now, if there were not such facts as these to account for the general disparity, we should have a very unaccountable state of things to explain, to which your correspondent does not allude. We should be forced to conclude that, while the majority of girls can be brought to pass the Examination with merit, few or none can be raised to that higher standard of merit which gains Exhibitions, and which is common enough among the boys. This would indeed be a curious result, and should be commended to the notice of Mr. Francis Galton. For let it not be overlooked,—surely an important point in any comparison between boys and girls,—that if the girls were competing with the boys, and not, as at present, only with each other, the number of Exhibitions which would fall to their lot would be few indeed. The exact figures are as follows:—In the Senior Grade the girls are awarded five Exhibitions, value £40 each. I find on comparing the marks (the Examination papers are the same for both) that

not one girl would gain an Exhibition if competing against the boys. Again, in the Middle Grade the girls are awarded nine Exhibitions of £25 each for two years. The first girl on the list is of remarkable merit, but, with this single exception, not one of the other eight who are here awarded £400 of the Board's money would have any place on the Exhibition list if competing with the boys. Hitherto we have met with but one girl who would have been successful against the boys, and we have always been taught that one swallow does not make a summer. Let us now look at the Junior Grade. The girls are awarded twenty-three Exhibitions in this grade, at £15 a year for three years, amounting in all, therefore (probably), to £1,035. Of these twenty-three, I find that four only would have obtained Exhibitions competing with the boys. Summarizing, I find, under the system of protection now enjoyed by the girls, that they have been awarded this year, in Exhibitions only, not to speak of prizes, the following sums (I assume that Junior and Middle Exhibitions will be retained):—

Senior Grade.	Middle Grade.	Junior Grade.	Total.
£200.	£450.	£1,035.	£1,685.

Whereas if they had been competing without any protective system against the boys, the amount would have been—

Senior Grade.	Middle Grade.	Junior Grade.	Total.
—	£50.	£180.	£230.

It is only right to add that this year is in no way exceptional, but is fairly representative of the five that have elapsed since the Examinations were established. Let me also say that I am advocating no theory, that I am not seeking to depreciate the merits of girls, but that I am merely establishing the facts necessary before any inference can be drawn. Your correspondent's remarks are a fine example of the danger of looking at one side of statistics only.

If I have trespassed on your space, the importance and interest of the subject must be my excuse. I fancy that the boys and girls of Ireland are much the same as the boys and girls of England or Scotland, or of any other English-speaking country. The subject is therefore of interest to all persons connected with the work of education, as we have here the means of comparing the general education of boys and girls on a larger scale, and with more definite facts for guidance, than in any other case with which I am acquainted.

Lurgan, Ireland.

Yours faithfully,

October 3rd, 1883.

W. T. KIRKPATRICK.

[Our correspondent's explanation will be found under the heading "Ireland."—ED.]

GERMAN CLASS-BOOKS.

To the Editor of the *Journal of Education*.

SIR,—It is not my intention to discuss all Mr. Matthews's admirable remarks on German Class-Books. Most of what he says, particularly with regard to Grammars, coincides so fully with my own experience, that I have little or nothing further to say on the subject.

There is only one observation to which I would take exception, and that is, that "in the majority of cases it would seem best to give the boys the plain texts." In this I agree with him, that numbers of notes are given that had far better be left to the master, especially long critical or historical discussions; but, for myself, I infinitely prefer my boys having an annotated edition of a German author, and for this reason, namely, that *the eye is an invaluable aid to memory*. A boy is far better capable of retaining a fact that he sees before him in black and white, than one which is merely told him, to be forgotten the next moment. This appealing to the eye I firmly believe in, and myself constantly use the blackboard to explain and illustrate a rule of grammar. The notes, too, are always there for future reference. At the same time, I must admit that very many of the editions now in use in Modern Schools are over-annotated. It often seems as if the editors gave notes merely because a note was "due," as if such a thing as a page without notes were as heterodox as a book without a preface, or a modern novel in one volume. Notes should be short and concise, and should contain the following:—

- (1) A short statement of historical facts bearing on the passage referred to, as a ground-work for the master to dilate upon if he thinks fit.
- (2) An explanation of allusions, historical, mythological, biographical, &c.
- (3) Very short biographical notices of persons mentioned,—say, date of birth and death, and principal deeds and works.
- (4) Hints for construing, but certainly not, as in Hamann's *Laocoon*, a construe of a difficult passage, with remarks on peculiar constructions.
- (5) An explanation of any out-of-the-way or obsolete word, or provincialism, exceptional genders, and other grammatical irregularities.

(6) Notes on Synonyms, such as the distinction between *bitten* and *fragen*, *Geist* and *Gemüth*, *tauschen* and *wechseln*.

A map of places mentioned in the work would also be of great assistance to the learner,—as, for example, in *Wilhelm Tell* or *Der letzte Kreuzzug*.

Mr. Matthews is right in his assertion that there is still much to be desired in the annotation of German authors for school use. With him, too, I consider Mr. Bull's *Götz von Berlichingen* a near approach to what notes ought to be, but even he omits much, as, for instance, an account of Götz's quarrel with the Bishop of Bamberg, and of how the former lost his hand. He might also, with advantage, have omitted his sketch of the characters in the play, for it would be a good test of whether a boy understands and appreciates what he reads, to make him sketch them for himself, and a good exercise if done in German.

But I have dwelt on this subject longer than I intended, and must apologise for the length of my remarks.—Yours faithfully,
H. S. B. WEBB.

VOCABULARIES.

To the Editor of the *Journal of Education*.

SIR,—In the now largely increasing supply of construing books for beginners it is found almost necessary to add to the text a vocabulary; indeed, the demand for it is so general that I believe the vocabulary has been added to many elementary books that when they first appeared could be studied only with a dictionary.

Nearly all these vocabularies are *abridged dictionaries*, giving in alphabetical order just the words of the text. But another kind of vocabulary was tried some thirty years ago in a book which was strongly recommended by the late Dr. Donaldson (of Bury St. Edmund's) and still used in many schools—Woodford's *Epitome of Caesar*. In this little volume the words are given in the order of the text, and by means of an alphabetical list at the end the learner is referred back to the place where he has seen a word before.

The difference of plan will not seem important except to those who have tried both; but after long experience (I began to teach from Woodford in '58), I have no hesitation in saying that for a small book, and with beginners, "the order of the text" has immense advantages over the "dictionary" arrangement. Of course it is much easier to look out a word in a vocabulary than in a dictionary, and when the word is found the learner is not bewildered by a mass of information little of which concerns him; but still the vocabulary alphabetically arranged has one great defect of the dictionary, viz., that the learner has no sooner glanced at the word than it passes out of the field of view. To become properly acquainted with the word, he must look it out several times, whenever it occurs, or he must have a note-book and make for himself a vocabulary in the order of the text. No doubt, where the learner is diligent and accurate, this latter plan answers very well; but some boys shirk the trouble, and some make mistakes in copying. So I have found the ready-made list of words for each lesson answer best. Part of every lesson should be spent in examining the learners in selected words of previous chapters, and thus the most important words of the language should be thoroughly learnt first in, and then out of, the context, and that *both ways*.

Whoever is inclined to try this plan with beginners in Latin may do so by means of Welch and Duffield's *Eutropius*, which has just been published as one of Macmillan's *Elementary Classics*. In some ways the book is better than Woodford's *Epitome of Caesar*. Woodford made the mistake of giving some words not in the text for the purpose of distinction, and with the result of confusion. Besides, the *Eutropius* has much less *oratio obliqua*, and the editors have given sentences in English for retranslation. This is a very useful addition, and with these distinctive features the little book seems to me likely to do something to improve the teaching of the elements.

Sedbergh.

Yours faithfully,

Oct. 17.

R. H. QUICK.

OVERWORK IN HIGH SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS.

To the Editor of the *Journal of Education*.

SIR,—A considerable stir (and I think rightly) has been made lately, both in Parliament and by the Press, about overtaxing the minds of scholars in Public Elementary Schools. But is there not as much, if not greater, reason to fear the same evil in Higher Grade Schools? I fear very much that, in the great desire to prove to the world that the minds of women are capable of taking in as much intellectual food as those of men, the mistake is being made of endeavouring to cram far too many subjects into the brains of young girls in the present day. Such a system, if not checked, will be alike hurtful to the *mental* as well as to the *bodily* health of the rising generation. As regards the latter, there

has been unfortunately within the last few years abundant proof of the evil effects of increased brainwork and confinement upon young girls. It must also be detrimental to their *thorough* education, because, with the exception of a few, the endeavour to fill their heads with such a number of subjects must result in a mere superficial knowledge of them. I would earnestly, then, press this question on the attention of all who are interested in the work of education, whether it would not be advisable to lessen the number of subjects now taught in most of the Public Girls' Schools, or, at any rate, to make due allowance for the various intellectual abilities of the children, and not to compel a child to endeavour to struggle through the whole of the subjects in the curriculum assigned to each form, when she is capable, possibly, of not mastering much more than half of them. The result too often is, that a girl who is not very quick in taking in this multiplicity of lessons (or class lectures, as they very often are now), comes away each day from school with her mind in a state of utter confusion, and no one lesson thoroughly understood. It is unfair to the children, it is unfair to the teachers, because the pupil *must* come to the later lessons with mind and body thoroughly worn out.

I am induced to utter these few words of warning as much from a dread lest, in consequence of the ill effects to which I have alluded, a reaction against the higher education of women should set in, as from a strong feeling that there is great danger at present in making a girl's education less useful to her in after life than it might be.

St. James's Vicarage,
Devonport.

Your obedient servant,

J. A. BULLEN.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN AMERICA.

To the Editor of the *Journal of Education*.

SIR,—Business and illness combined have prevented me from following up your journal for some months. I happen, however, to have with me now, as travelling companions, in a journey undertaken for health's sake, some educational publications, including your Journal for September, and also the large Report of the American Commissioner of Education for 1880 (the last Report published). In your Journal I find Miss Cooper giving an account of the Girls' Normal School for Philadelphia. She states that there are nearly 1,000 pupils, and 300 in the practising school. May not this statement, however, without further explanation, be misleading? The so-called Normal College is, in fact, a high school for girls and a training school combined. My experience in the visitation of American institutions—and the results of a long study of the subject—would lead me to expect that the number of pupils in training as teachers in that institution would not reach 150. I remember that when, a few years ago, I visited the New York Normal College for Girls, I found there 1,000 pupils, but that only about 80 of these went annually into schools as teachers, of whom many had not had more than six months' training.

Trained teachers, in the English sense, do not abound in the States. The Commissioner, in his Report, thus sums up the state of things for the whole country:—"All the States contemplate and most of them have some provision for the special training of teachers, and some prescribed mode for ascertaining their qualifications and regulating their appointment." Ten years ago, the proportion of trained teachers in the public schools did not exceed 3 per cent.

Oct. 6, 1883.

JAMES H. RIGG.

CANON KINGSLEY AND WOMAN SUFFRAGE.

To the Editor of the *Journal of Education*.

SIR,—In Mr. Tollemache's "Notes and Recollections" in your last number, there occurs a passage which I would ask your kind permission to make a small comment on.

"He [Mr. Kingsley] was opposed to the enfranchisement of women. Yet he considered that women, though in political capacity inferior, are on the whole superior to men."

Mr. Tollemache's report of Mr. Kingsley's opinions is gathered, he tells us, from one day's conversation with him, but even if he had had better opportunities of ascertaining them, I do not think the world would have lost much by their not being retailed. The good Canon's opinions (with all his genius) were too much the offspring of feeling rather than reason, and too easily and completely changed and recharged to make them of much value. And, were this otherwise, it was scarcely worth while repeating a platitude which might perfectly have been the expression of any ordinary man who had never thought on the subject, and was only talking by rote. As it happens, Canon Kingsley was for some time an ardent supporter of women's suffrage, as a very thorough-going and generously vehement pamphlet of his on that subject, which I have now by me, demonstrates. I believe he considerably modified this opinion afterwards, in consequence of the unpleasing behaviour of some then prominent agitators in the cause.—I am Sir, yours, &c.

A. S.

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THE ALPHABET.*

OUR old familiar friend (or foe) of the nursery has appeared in a new guise, nay, in a new shape. The swarm of little pigmies which troubled so our pigmy-brains, has swelled into a giant of antiquity, whose wondrous story is contained between the covers of two large and handsome volumes. This is in every sense a great work. Mr. Taylor, who is well known as a philological essayist in special fields, has as yet done nothing so important. Before attempting a sketch of it we may observe that, in the study of so learned a work we are greatly helped by the clearness of thought and clearness of expression, which are his very element [a lucidity which has an æsthetic beauty of its own], a style which may be said to be pure and transparent as running water. In carrying out his object—the tracing of the genealogy of written speech—Mr. Taylor rejects, to begin with, the prescientific theories of last century, which regarded alphabets as arbitrary inventions or mere haphazard accidents, from which it resulted that their conjectures were little more than guess-work, and bases his enquiries on the principles of inductive science. The combination of the law of continuity with that of slow differentiation by minute variation resting on natural causes, will account for the greatest changes, and justify the position that the mere likeness or unlikeness of two scripts is no absolute guide in judging of their affinity. The condition under which the greater alphabetic changes have been made, is the transmission of a script from one race to another, this transmission being effected by colonisation, commerce, conquest, and the introduction of new creeds. It is sometimes a little difficult to keep in our minds the necessary distinction between languages and alphabets as we follow the historical series of transmissions—a task in which philology is often either a help or a complication. Alphabets change so much more frequently and completely than languages, that we might be in danger of thinking them less subject to natural and irresistible laws than the latter, but for learning the vast periods these changes have taken for their evolution, and that the first original variations were made according to the physical and psychological laws whereby phonetics are regulated; that is, to the needs of each language in the adaptation of signs to sounds.

Mr. Taylor enumerates five independent systems of writing, prevalent from the oldest times in different parts of the

* *The Alphabet.* By Isaac Taylor, M.A., LL.D. (Kegan Paul & Co. 1883.)

world, most of which have developed by regular stages into alphabets. He gives the process thus:—1st. Ideograms, that is, picture-writing, either as simple drawing of objects, or as pictorial symbols of those objects (as in Egyptian hieroglyphs); 2nd. Phonograms, or graphic symbols of sounds, first as verbal signs standing for entire words (as in the Chinese), then as syllabic signs used for the articulations of which those words were composed, and finally as alphabetical signs, or letters representing the elementary sounds into which those syllables can be resolved, these letters being originally only phonograms reduced by long detrition to extreme simplicity of form and value. The law that human progress passes from the more complex to the simpler arrangement, emphatically holds good in the evolution of the alphabet.

In his Chapter II., on the Origin of the English Alphabet, Mr. Taylor traces, with beautiful clearness, the long course of its story from the very letters printed on this page, back to those dateless hieroglyphics of Egypt which seem to us truly "as old as the world." Reasoning by analogy, the evolution of the stages above enumerated could not have taken less than a thousand years, and from the memorials that exist in the Valley of the Nile we must put back the earliest beginnings of the graphic art to seven or eight thousand years ago. The Semitic alphabet, of which the earliest important memorial yet discovered is the famous Moabite inscription of the ninth century B.C., but which can be proved to have existed before Moses, was the parent of the Phœnician and a great number of other Semitic alphabets, extinct or still surviving, besides being adopted by Aryan races, who in no case seem to have invented an alphabet of their own. The numerous developments and modifications, however, required by the nature of their languages, produced a far more perfect alphabet than their Semitic cousins have ever contrived. The especial difference is in the creation of vowel signs, which were not used in the Semitic languages, to whose words vowels were not essential; of the Aryan languages, with their more delicate inflexions and finely graduated sounds, vowels were a radical feature, and they formed them accordingly from the breaths and semi-consonants of the parent alphabets.

Of the old Semitic groups of alphabets, with all their ramifications amongst different races and languages, all are dead with the languages they embodied—Phœnician, Aramean, and South Semitic. Of some, we can but with difficulty interpret the silent stories from carved stones or disinterred papyri of long ago; others show like the dead features of ancestors faintly traced in their distant descendants; others are embalmed, as in a living death, in the sacred scripts of some obscure race or faith.

In the long chain of proof by which Mr. Taylor connects these various national scripts with each other, and with the accompanying movements of races, the links are fitted with a closeness of reasoning and a delicate beauty of arrangement of which our meagre summary can give, of course, no idea. But on one point we must dwell a little more fully, as it is the one great primary fact of the genealogy of written speech, and the question once most obscure and still most interesting in the whole series. This is the question of the source whence the Semites derived their conception of the alphabet—a conception, as Mr. Taylor observes, so magnificently simple, and yet so hard to grasp that ages of endeavour passed without its being fully worked out. This question, for want of evidence, had long remained unanswered. The vague early tradition which traced it back to Egypt, was contradicted by the impossibility of connecting these letters with any of the characters on any inscription hitherto discovered—Hieroglyphic, Hieratic, or Enchorial. It is true that even among the earliest hieroglyphs we can detect alphabetic symbols; but no link, either of likeness or of historical evidence, connected them with the Semitic letters, till a discovery which, as Mr. Taylor says, "first made a History of the Alphabet possible." This was the discovery in 1847 of the Papyrus Prisse (so named from its finder) in a tomb of the eleventh dynasty, and of a date much older than Moses, probably than Abraham, which was deciphered by the illustrious Egyptologist, M. de Rouget. This

oldest book in the world (of which the subject is the moralising lameout of an aged sage over the good old times!) consists of eighteen pages of magnificent Hieratic writing; the period of this writing—and this is the turning-point of the whole question—is that of the early Empire which prevailed up to the invasion of the Hyksos, the Semitic race, akin to the Edomites, who, under the name of Shepherd Kings, ruled Egypt from the Delta for five or six hundred years. This early Hieratic contains twenty alphabetic forms, which De Rouget set himself to compare letter by letter with the few ancient Semitic inscriptions known to us. The result was that almost all the letters of the latter could be indubitably traced to the Hieratic alphabet. The conclusion was drawn by De Rouget that the Semites, during their six centuries in Egypt, formed their alphabet from the writing which they found then prevailing, and, when expelled, carried it away with them. The date of its formation is fixed by the fact that there is no resemblance whatever between these Phœnician letters and the Hieratic writing of that later Empire which arose after the expulsion of the Shepherds. We must refer the reader to Mr. Taylor's own most luminous exposition of the subject, the excellent alphabetical tables which enable us to follow his analysis of the letters, and the able summing-up alike of the objections to this view, and his arguments in reply. The latter appear to us convincing, and his statement of the historical and geographical probabilities as satisfactory as it is interesting. There is one obvious objection which he can only provisionally answer, but sufficiently, we think, for the purpose. This is the entire absence, amongst all the vast number of Egyptian records, of any writing, monumental or other, during the six hundred years of Hyksos occupation. We should have expected some trace of the change of Hieratic characters to a formed alphabet; some records during that long period of the new script which they carried away with them. This is a difficulty which the unearthing of a single inscription from some one of the cities of the Delta not yet excavated might any day remove. And even for the finding of no such memorials, reasons can be suggested in the fact that, in the damp climate and alluvial soil of Lower Egypt, writings would be sure to have perished, unless buried in tombs, as was done by the native Egyptians; but this the Semites, who had not then that belief in a future life which prompted the Egyptian care of the dead, were not wont to do. Nor would a semi-barbarous race of sovereigns, like the Hyksos, have the recording and inscribing habits of the Egyptian dynasties.

The second great fact which late discoveries have enabled us to confirm, is the derivation of the Greek alphabet from a Phœnician source. From the oldest of the two Phœnician kinds of writing—that which is engraved on the Moabite stone—Mr. Taylor deduces, by the testimony of traditional belief, of historic inference, of proved commercial intercourse, and of philology, joining hands with that of numberless inscriptions of all dates, that beautiful Greek script which embodies for us the sublimest intellectual creations of the old world, and from which the Latin alphabet, with all its later developments, was evolved. Cadmus, the "man of the East" in Semitic speech, who brought letters to Europe, or the "West" (the same word as the Semitic *Ereb*, "darkness, evening, west," whence *Erebus* and the Arabic *gharb*, the "west," and the name of Algarve in Portugal), represents the Phœnician colonies which settled in Thera, Thasos, and Naxos, at a period fixed by strong evidence before the Trojan war; that is, more than 1200 years B.C. The wonderful series of inscriptions, beginning with rude letters older than those of the stone of King Meshed, and illustrating the evolution of letters in Greece, culminates in the famous Abou Simbul inscription—the first whose date is absolutely fixed—on one of the four great Rameses statues that sit hewn out of the rock in front of the huge temple-cave of Ipsambul. This inscription of five lines, in well-formed Hellenic characters, records the visit of Greek mercenaries in the service of King Psammetichus of the twenty-sixth dynasty, in the seventh century B.C., and two hundred years before Herodotus wrote. We would gladly quote the very beautiful passage in which Mr.

Taylor describes the matchless interest of this grand solitary monument in the Nubian desert, which has affected human hearts with wonder and awe for two thousand years, as well as the immense value to Palaeontology of the inscription itself. We commend to the reader's careful study Mr. Taylor's detailed exposition of the various stages of Greek writing, which is full of historical and philological interest; marking the gradual change in the direction of the lines, the introduction of from five to seven vowels and the retention of the Semitic semi-cousonant *vau*, in the shape of the so-called digamma *F* and with the sound of *ω*, and closing with the absorption of the forty local alphabets in Greece into the Ionian, publicly proclaimed as the national alphabet in 403 B.C.

Of the Hellenic derived alphabets, those most immediately concerning us are the Italic, and of these the Latin is the earliest, the one preserving most closely the old Phœnician type, and, except Arabic, the most widely diffused in the world. Mr. Taylor gives a minute analysis of the process corresponding all through with a like process in the Greek script, by which the old Latin arrived from the square lapidary capitals to Uncials, Cursive letters, and finally to the Minuscules of modern writing—changes which took from the third to the thirteenth century A.D. The character finally and generally adopted was that of the Caroline minuscules, so named because during the reign of Karl the Great they were introduced into Europe, though they owed their origin to the Anglo-Saxon script brought by Alwin of York to the Continent, and afterwards improved in Italy into what was known as the Lombardic type. The progress of this writing follows the usual course of evolution: in its perfection in the eleventh century, it then began to be coarsely written and deformed into what is called the Black Letter; this, abandoned by Italian scholars, but retained by Germans, was adopted by Gutenberg for his printing types. The rest of the world preferred the Italian minuscules; in England, as usual the last to follow, they were introduced by Henry VIII., who, desirous to please the Pope, had his *Defensio Fidei* printed in that character.

We have now followed the track of the Alphabet from its mysterious source to its resting-place in Western Europe, but we have not pursued its lateral windings among the South-Eastern races of Europe, or the Aryan nations of Asia. We have omitted, in our hasty recapitulation of Semitic scripts, many a trait of deep human interest; we have not been able to touch on those most interesting branches of the science, the Cuneiform writings of Babylonia and Assyria, and the Syllabaries of Cyprus and of Asia Minor, bearing, as do the two latter, on the vexed Homeric question; and we have hardly drawn anything from the last chapter, the Epilogue, as he calls it, which contains a masterly summary of the contents of these two volumes. In a future article, we shall hope to return to the subject.

A LETTER FROM HONG-KONG.

THE Central School is the school of Hong-Kong. It is supported by Government, and costs about £8,000 a year, I believe. It contains between 400 and 500 boys, each of whom pays 1 dollar a month. They are mainly Chinese, but there are specimens of almost every race; and, while the ages seem to be mostly from twelve to eighteen, there are a few married men among them. Government also supports some primary village schools, and subsidizes some denominational schools. In the interest of the latter, it is supposed, the late Governor, Pope Hennessy, tried hard to sublimate the Central School out of existence by converting it into a Normal College; but the Commission which he appointed ultimately rejected the scheme, and the fighting over it makes their blue-book quite entertaining reading. There was a good deal that was plausible about it, but the immediate result would have been to break up the best school in the colony. As it was, the school suffered

from the attack on it. You can fancy that a school which embraces all races and religions—Christians, Mahometans, Buddhists, Parsees, Jews, and Confucians—wants delicate driving, with enemies about. I asked Dr. Stewart, who took me to see it, and who was Head-master for several years, though he is now Registrar-General, how they dealt with the religious difficulty. He says the education is absolutely secular; no attempt at any kind of "universal prayer" or all-comprehensive Theism. "How about History?" I asked. He said he had found the only course was to let History alone, too, though this had been thrown in his teeth by opponents. Even Geography was a difficulty, for the writers of school Geographies would denounce the habits, customs, and morals of various races which had their representatives here. To compensate for these omissions (not that Geography was omitted), he had started Physical Science—especially Chemistry, to which the boys took very kindly; but Hennessy stopped that, as too high a flight altogether. Another great difficulty has always been how to carry on English and Chinese teaching satisfactorily side by side. Four hours a day used to be given to each, but it was thought those hours were too long, and only two hours is now given to Chinese. That is not found to be enough for anything more than a mere business knowledge of the language, especially with the kind of teaching given by Chinese teachers. I watched it for some time, and it reminded me very much of the languid way in which we pretended to learn French and German at school. The class was very large—forty or fifty; each boy got up and read a sentence rapidly in a low tone; and I didn't hear any corrections by the master. Then he (the master) took up his Mencius, and read and expounded it in that extraordinary Chinese sing-song, like intoning psalms through the nose. The class was as listless as we used to be, but much better behaved. Then they began to write, their copy-books being pocket-leaved, and transparent, so that they can slip their copies between the leaves and trace the characters through. The Chinese teaching is, of course, under the control of the Head-master, and its style has been a good deal modified by him. To see it in its full native vigour, with the whole class yelling at the tops of their voices, one must go to a village school; and the Head-master (who is Acting Inspector of Schools) has promised to take me some day. But it seems agreed that, with any mode of teaching, it takes a good deal of time to acquire any literary mastery of the Chinese language, even for Chinese themselves; and yet, if that is neglected, however much of Western knowledge they may possess, their countrymen will all reckon them ignoramuses. Most of the boys come to school merely with an eye to getting situations as clerks in Hong-Kong, and for them, perhaps, it doesn't much matter; but some go to Canton, and a few to the north of China. It seems to me that it would be a grand thing if there were means, either out here or by Exhibitions to Europe, of giving the best boys a prolonged and complete European education, and making them Chinese scholars at the same time, in the hope that they would make their way in the Chinese public service, and undermine the great wall of ignorance and prejudice. This would do much more for Chiu-thau missions, I should think. But Dr. Stewart, who himself knows Chinese well, says that, even if they were up to the literary standard, their Western superfluities would be reckoned against them, and any innovating tendencies would be jealously watched. It is at the Foochow Arsenal that boys from here must often find employment; and, altogether, it is in the art of war that China is most disposed to take lessons from Europe; so perhaps that is the most likely door for Western ideas to get in by. I'm afraid that this colony looks at education in a strictly practical way, and with no other aim than to supply its own wants; and even in this view it is rather stingy. The present building is not nearly big enough for the numbers: classes are packed together in one room; and for some they cannot even afford punkahs, though the British soldier has them night and day. A new building is promised, but it has been a long time in the air, and is not yet on the ground.

REVIEWS AND MINOR NOTICES.

Samson Agonistes. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by J. C. COLLINS. (Clarendon Press. 1883.)

If, as we gather from the preface, this edition is intended primarily for public schools, we cannot agree with the Editor in regretting that "this noble work does not hold a more important place in the curriculum of English studies." The *Agonistes* is a noble work, and, as the most personal and probably the latest utterance of the great Puritan poet, it is unsurpassed in interest; but to the average school-boy, who knows nothing of Milton, who supposes him (we are not inventing) to have flourished about 1830, and who under the most favourable circumstances has devoted one hour a week to English literature, the play will not seem a relief from his "task of servile toil," but "a tune harsh and of dissonant mood." Even so sympathetic a critic as Mr. Pattison feels the composition of the drama "languid, nerveless, occasionally halting, never brilliant." With this proviso—and it is hardly needful to add that we do not love the *Agonistes* less but *Lycidas* and *Comus* more—we can approve of Mr. Collins's edition as a fair piece of 'prentice-work. There is not, indeed, much originality, and no new light is thrown on the few really difficult passages; and there is, besides, a good deal of the "farthing rushlight" style of commentary. The first two notes will suffice to illustrate the latter defect:—

"*These dark steps*.—*These* exactly corresponds to the Greek *τοῖσδε*. 'Dark' is here used in the sense of 'that cannot see,' the word *cæcus* and *τυφλός* having the same meaning in Latin and Greek. Perhaps the term was immediately suggested by Euripides' *Phænissæ*, 834—*ὡς τυφλῷ ποδὶ ὀφθαλμοῦ ἐὶ σὺ*.

"*Servile toil*.—Exactly the Latin 'servilis labor,' toil which slaves perform. Here, my task of 'toiling as a slave.'"

All this is pedantic surplusage, and a boy who cannot understand "dark steps" is not likely to be enlightened by the gloss of "steps that cannot see." If it is worth while to supply him with classical parallels, why not rather remind him of the opening scene of the *Œdipus at Colonus*? And, while we are on the subject of quotations, we feel bound to enter our protest against a common sin of editors—the appropriation, without acknowledgment, of their predecessors' labours in this field. It would be wearisome to substantiate this charge, but we would refer to notes on lines 53, 87, 118, 191, 549, 605, 748. The Editor's own quotations make us sometimes suspect his scholarship. How, for instance, does he translate "*pinu jacentes sic temere*" (quoted thus on l. 118); and how does he scan "*quem deus vult perdere prius dementat*," quoted as "a line" on l. 1675? In his interpretation we find ourselves more than once differing from Mr. Collins, who seems to us to have followed too blindly the glosses of commentators. On line 172 he explains the *sphere of fortune* "in the Latin sense of a circular globe or wheel." So says Keightley, though "circular globe" is Mr. Collins's own; but why should not "sphere" mean sphere? In *Henry V.*, Fortune is painted with a wheel, but "her foot is fixed upon a spherical stone." The connexion of the difficult lines 323-325 (see Masson's notes) is not explained, but why attribute to Milton's peculiar views of matrimony his delineation of Delilah as unchaste? Is not Josephus's *γυνὴ ἐταριζομένη* warrant enough? A reference to *Paradise Lost*, l. 174, will show that "thunder" in l. 1696 is not "placed by enallage for lightning." But the strangest misapprehension is on l. 1689,—

"But he, though blind of sight,
Despised, and thought extinguished quite,
With inward eyes illuminated,
His fiery virtue roused," &c.

where we read, "*Thought extinguished*." This = the Latin ablative absolute—thought having been extinguished. Milton is fond of this idiom."

Mr. Collins has made a name for himself as a brilliant essayist and lecturer on English literature, and there is no reason why, with more pains and practice, he may not win equal repute as an editor.

Aristotle's Ethics, Explained by Question and Answer. By K. D. COTES, M.A. (London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co. Oxford: J. Vineent, 90 High Street. 1883.)

It is perhaps too late to discuss whether the authorities of Oxford did wisely in adopting the most suggestive, but most vague and tentative, set of hints on morality as the chief road for a University degree. If passmen have to prepare Aristotle, Aristotle must be minced small for the passman's mind. The mincing process has been fairly well performed by Mr. Cotes. The gristle has been carefully removed, and the strong meat carefully changed to spoon meat. But we humbly beg to differ from him when he writes that the book may be useful to the student of Ethics who is a candidate for honours, or who knows no Greek. The great utility of the book to the passman will be the constant insertion of Greek "tags," and those ignorant of Greek would go empty away. The teleological and logical foundations of the Ethics are correctly, though somewhat diffusely, explained. The explanations are too like the notes which we find in the passman's note-book. Aristotle begins deductively,—"*Every thing has a use, and that use is its τέλος; what then is the τέλος of man?*" In the case of Ethical inquiry, the method cannot be accurate (*ἀκρίβεια* requires some further explanation). We must begin with facts whose truth is realisable by ourselves. These facts are *ἀρχαί*, principles, and are contemplated *ἐθισμῶ*, just as physical facts are contemplated by or in an induction. Mr. Cotes says that, if Ethics begins from *ἀρχαί*, Ethics starts deductively. This seems to us both misleading and mistaken. The particular recognition of the moral law is an *ἀρχή*, a primo fact, just as the perception of the colour of a table-cloth, or of the fact that fire burns. Yet surely we do not start deductively, if we use these *ἀρχαί* as stepping-stones to higher generalisations. Ethics is inductive, except so far as concerns the existence of a *τέλος* of all human action. Having found out the *τέλος* of man, and defined happiness in outline, the sketch is filled up by the resolution of *ἀρετή* into its lowest terms, after some popular difficulties of the day have been cleared up. We miss a concise and connected outline of the purpose of the Ethics in Mr. Cotes's book. '*Ἀρετή* is twofold, moral and intellectual. What is moral *ἀρετή*?' Mr. Cotes says that its *genus* is "a habit," and its *differentia* "the mean." Surely this is again as misleading as it is incorrect. Virtue is not a habit, but "a formed state of deliberate choice." Aristotle should perhaps have more carefully guarded himself against the charge that his system is mechanical; but his discussions on the painfulness of courage, and the struggle of the soul to get pleasure and avoid pain, show that he does not intend to eliminate moral freedom. Mr. Cotes does not satisfactorily clear up the difficulty of the "object of wish," and passes over the interesting questions of the painfulness of courage, and the psychology of intemperance. The analysis of *προαίρεσις* and the virtues is well done, and many of the English quotations are suggestive, but the conceptions of *τὸ καλόν*, and the *σπουδαίος*, the absolute (not quantitative) distinctions between virtue and vice, and the exact portion of pleasure in Aristotle's system, are either unnoticed or smilingly put by. It would perhaps not be quite clear to all passmen what the following means: "There was an objective standard of beauty to be maintained, the ideal motive of correspondence with an existent law of rectitude." There is much that is good in the book; but there is a general want of system. Quotations should be concisely translated. The main conceptions of Aristotle's philosophy should be simply and exhaustively explained, and the so-called essays, notably that on the difference between ancient and modern Ethics (p. 161), might be remodelled or expanded.

Selections from Vergil. By E. S. SHUCKBURGH. (Macmillan's Elementary Classics. 1883.)

The principles that should guide an editor in his choice of passages for a book of this nature are pretty obvious, though they may not be so easy to carry out consistently. The extracts should be easy; they should, as far as possible, be intelligible apart from the context; and they should, as far as these limitations allow it, represent the author at his best. The present selection, judged by these canons, is only moderately successful. The first extract from Eclogue I. contains some of the most disputed lines in Vergil; the last is from *Æneid IX.*, and the funeral of Pallas, the story of Camilla, and the death of Turnus, three of the finest passages in all Vergil, and not specially difficult, are thus omitted. Again, surely some easier illustration of Vergil's pessimism might have been chosen than the fifth extract (Geor. I. 197-203), a passage the difficulties of which are strangely slurred over in the notes. This, we hasten to add, is not a common failing, and the notes generally are terse and to the point. Occasionally, as of *geminatus enim, exercita cursu*, we get a translation, or, worse, a paraphrase, instead of a comment, and occasionally Mr. Shuckburgh dogmatizes. On the very first page his distinction between *quævis* with

the indicative and with the subjunctive will not hold water. The vocabulary wants revising, especially in the matter of quantities.

Livy, Book I. Edited with Notes and Vocabulary, for the use of Schools, by H. M. STEPHENSON, M.A. (Macmillan & Co. 1883.)

It is astonishing how little attention has been given by English scholars to editions of Livy. Books I. to III., and XXI. to XXIII. are edited and re-edited, but no one goes farther afield. We have always felt that the first book of the great historian is peculiarly hard for young boys. The political and archæological questions involved, can only be approached by mature scholarship and advanced criticism. Besides, the textual difficulties are great. If a new edition of Book I. was wanted, Mr. Stephenson's edition is sensible and correct. The "vexed questions" are judiciously avoided, and the translations are fairly literal and crisp; the young student is not troubled with too many various readings and renderings. The archæological and philological notes are simple and good. We may instance those on *Quirites*, *Feretrius*, *Gradivus*, *Lucumo*, *augur* (Ch. xviii.). We should hardly call the construction *centum amplius post annos* a "mistake." The note on *accensi* (Ch. xliii.) is vague and insufficient. Mr. Stephenson has made good use of previous editions, and given a great deal of information in a small space. The introduction is useful, though very short. Schoolboys cannot have too much Livy, but we hope that other less known books will soon be brought before their notice.

Goethe's Götz von Berlichingen. Edited by H. A. BULL, M.A. (Macmillan & Co. 1883.)

Götz von Berlichingen is a play of such significance in the history of German literature, that it well deserves a school edition. It was the trumpet-call for poets and men of letters to win their laurels on their native soil and in a purely German fashion. The strict proprieties of the French stage were to be disregarded. Nature was to be the only law; and, of the three unities, that of action the only one to be adhered to. This revolution, however, could hardly be expected to discriminate nicely what was purely artificial and what was essentially artistic in the French School. Hence its first productions were vigorous rather than polished; they lacked most of the qualities of manner, without which their influence could be but transitory. Had *Götz von Berlichingen* been published anonymously, there can be little doubt that it would have been forgotten long ago. Goethe himself, after he had worshipped at the shrine of Hellenic beauty, was the first to see the imperfections of his earlier efforts. With him, the *Sturm und Drang* period ended; when once the conditions of its existence had been fulfilled. Lewes, in his *Life of Goethe*, simply styles *Götz von Berlichingen* a dramatic chronicle; to him it has neither the completeness nor the artistic form of a drama. To this the Editor rejoins, "The question becomes comparatively unimportant, if we are content to look upon the work as a succession of historical pictures, each endowed with a special and characteristic life, and painted by a master's hand." This begs the entire question; but, whatever is our estimate of its dramatic merits, this edition affords the student an excellent opportunity of mastering one of the best specimens of Goethe's prose style. The notes are copious, correct, and clear. The introduction gives a very good analysis of the characters in the play, of its style, and of its place in German literature.

Sybel's Prinz Eugen von Savoyen. With Notes by Dr. C. A. BUCHHEIM. (Williams & Norgate. 1883.)

We agree with the Editor that Sybel's masterly sketch forms a suitable reading-book for schools. The memoir is clear, lively, and short. We cannot, indeed, accept without reserve the German historian's estimate of his hero. It is true, as Dr. Buchheim points out, that no one has thought of casting a slur on Eugène's character on account of his having fought against his own country; yet, although his just hatred of the aggrandizement of Lewis was undoubtedly the leading motive of his life, we cannot forget that his choice of sides was originally dictated by personal pique, and should hesitate to call him a loyal patriot. More doubtful still is his claim to "humane dispositions." Not only was he reckless of men's lives in the furtherance of his plans, but his exactions as an administrator were harsh even for that age.

Dr. Buchheim's notes give all the historical and geographical information needed. His translations of words and phrases are often superfluous, and a *résumé* of the life and times would be a useful addition.

German Composition. By HERMANN LANGE. (Clarendon Press. 1883.)

Mr. Matthews must possess a Fortunatus' wishing-cap. He remarks on the terrible gap there is between Buchheim and books of the Arnold and Otto type, and—*hey presto!*—the gap is filled by Lange's *German Composition*. We begin with simple stories of two or three sentences each, and so fully annotated that they may be read off into

German by a boy who knows his first accidence, and ascend by easy gradients to Sir Walter Scott and Macaulay. It is throughout a careful, accurate, and scholarly piece of work. We have only one suggestion to offer. In the directions for use, we are told that each section should first be prepared for *viva voce* translation in class, then written down and corrected, and lastly read off again without the assistance of the notes. If the author would print separately the text, or at least the text of the first 150 sections, he would double the value of the book. A practical schoolmaster will hesitate to put a boy on his honour not to look at the notes on the lead-us-not-into-temptation principle.

Essays of Dryden. Selected and Edited by C. D. YONGE. (Macmillan & Co. 1882.)

In the case of Dryden, as of Cowley, of Gray, of Cowper, and of Shelley, the poet has eclipsed the prose-writer; and, for every hundred who could quote the character of Zimri, not more than one has read the "Essay on Satire." Yet Dryden, with the possible exception of Temple, may claim to be the first writer of modern English prose, the direct progenitor of Swift, Addison, Hume, Gibbon, and Macaulay. As such, he cannot be neglected by the student of English literature, and we are grateful to Mr. Yonge for introducing us to three characteristic essays which were before only accessible in the rare and expensive edition of Sir W. Scott. But with the text our gratitude ends, and perhaps the less said about the notes the better. Mr. Yonge is an adept in the art of blackening chimneys and holding his bull's-eye to the sun. The first few pages will suffice to substantiate our complaint. P. 1: "Titus was not more the delight of mankind." Instead of the reference to *delicta humani generis*, we have a character of Titus from Tacitus, with comments on the same. P. 2: "A truth of the nature of a first principle which needs not the reformation which Descartes used to his." Instead of telling us Descartes' test of truth, Mr. Yonge gives us a life of the philosopher. P. 4: "To assume so much as the competitors of Themistocles." No note. Perhaps Mr. Yonge imagines that every boy knows his Plutarch's *Lives* by heart; but surely the same boy need not be told that "Tacitus is one of the two great Roman historians, Livy being the other." And we need not travel farther to find almost as many sins of commission. To say nothing of misprints, of which there are not a few, we find Dryden's description of Rochester's satire as "an insolent, sparing, and invidious panegyric," transferred by Mr. Yonge to Jonson's verses on Shakespere (p. 5). If Mr. Yonge had read to the end of the sentence, he could not have made the mistake. On the next page we read that Cowley's "*Pindaries* were a translation of Pindar's Odes." Mr. Yonge can never have read the *Pindaries*, and the absence of a note points to equal ignorance of the *Mistress*. We have said enough to justify our strictures, which may seem unnecessarily severe; but we have no patience with an editor who floods us with information from the Classical Dictionary, and, whenever a real difficulty occurs, leaves us hopelessly in the lurch.

Shakspeare's Hamlet, Henry V., As You Like It, Richard III. (W. & R. Chambers.)

This cheap and handy edition of the separate plays leaves nothing to be desired in the matter of paper, type, and binding. Schoolmasters have long wanted something less elaborate than the Clarendon Press annotations, and yet fuller than the suggestive, but rather erratic, notes of the Rugby edition. Professor Meiklejohn has hit the happy mean, and has packed all the information that a school-boy requires on words, grammar, and prosody into a wonderfully short compass. We must qualify this approval by adding that the ideal edition of Shakespere for schools is still to seek. Messrs. Chambers have given us the Clarendon Press (like Lamartine's Bible) *abrége et épuré*. There is no attempt at elucidation—what Mr. Wright scoldingly calls "the higher criticism." Given a Schmidt's Lexicon and an Abbott's Grammar, and nine-tenths of the notes are superfluous. Why does not some enterprising publisher give us a shilling grammar and a half-crown dictionary of Shakespere? Such books, if intelligently executed, would swallow up the whole tribe of — Our readers will have no difficulty in supplying the blank.

Professor Meiklejohn's name appears only on the first volume, and we are perhaps not warranted in assuming that he is responsible for the whole series. Certain slips and inaccuracies in the later volumes would lead us to suspect that he has done his work by deputy. The explanations of the terms of tennis, for instance, recall the answers which the present reviewer lately received from a class of school-girls, who, one and all, imagined that the allusions were to lawn-tennis. Without being prudish, we may wish a certain couplet in *As You Like It* omitted. On points of prosody, Dr. Abbott has been severely followed, and he is, we hold, as unsafe a guide in prosody as he is generally safe in syntax.

GEOGRAPHIES AND ATLASES.

Oliver and Boyd's Pronouncing Gazetteer (Fourth Edition, revised and corrected) is, for the size and price, the best gazetteer we know. A reference to *Krakatra*, *Tamatave*, *Ischia* will show that it is posted up to date. We would suggest that in the next edition the head-line *Fäte, fät, fär, &c.*, might well be omitted; also the etymological notices. *The West Indies* have an interesting derivation, which is not given; the derivation of *London*, which is given, is pure guess-work. But, even if the philology were perfect, it would be lost on ninety-nine out of every hundred readers. The maps are necessarily small, but very clear, and not overcrowded with names.

Chambers's Geographical Reader for Standard I. (W. & R. Chambers) is well adapted for its purpose. The print and illustrations are of the right sort, and the book proceeds with due regard to the rule that in teaching young children we must base everything on very simple facts which can be observed. The only exception is the explanation of the term "Geography," in the very first chapter, which is allowable, perhaps, though scarcely necessary. We observe one rather delusive statement on p. 21, that "towns are built according to plan." The same remarks apply in general to *Blackie & Son's Geographical Reader for Standard I.* But the introduction of the "sun's course" into the chapters on the points of the compass seems to involve a sacrifice of simplicity without need, or apparent advantage.

The Round World (Marcus Ward & Co.) is put forth as "A Reading-Book of Geography for Standard II.," and certainly contains all the information that the Code requires. But the style of the book is unsympathetic, and too much matter is crowded into the chapters. Instead of leading up to geographical conceptions, the author works downward from the definitions, which generally come first in order. To illustrate our meaning, we would refer to the corresponding book in the National Society's series, where the "maïontic art" of making a child construct a general idea for himself has certainly been studied. The language is also too hard for children of eight, and not well-chosen in itself. Sentences such as "The North Sea which is situated on the east side of Great Britain is greatly resorted to by fishermen, its waters being full of fine fish, such as the herring and the cod," form the main staple of the work. The selections of poetry are, on the whole, far from happy, and surely the verses of Eliza Cook (p. 18), which put the atrocious lines, "and cinnamon formeth the bark of some trees," and "I wish I could see half the curious glories," into the mouth of a little boy, ought to be finally banished from school-books. Nor should he be told to pronounce "Blanc" as "Blong." There are few positive inaccuracies, but we demur to the assertion that "in India, an immense mass of mountains, the Himalayas, springs up suddenly from the level plain."

For the same standard is designed *Physical Geography*, by W. J. STEWART, B.A. (Longmans and Co.) As a primer of Physical Geography this is doubtless a useful book, well written in clear and easy language, and well printed, with capital illustrations. But the Editor's statement in the preface, that "Mr. Stewart has primarily kept in view the requirements of Mr. Mundella's Code," is disproved by the contents. The "size and shape of the world" is treated of as well as "the physical geography of hills and rivers"; but only a few of the ordinary geographical terms are explained, and that too with certainly insufficient "reference to the map of England." On the other hand, the chapters on the sun, the motions of the earth, condensation, clouds, dew, and so forth, deal with matters many of which a long trial has proved to be too difficult even for Standard IV., and which are certainly not asked for in Standard II. We like the book in itself, but it is not what it professes to be.

In the hands of a good teacher, *Lawson's England and Wales* (Oliver & Boyd) will be a capital text-book for the Geography of Standard III. The author sees that the only true way to teach English Geography is to give the learner a grasp of the physical facts, on which all others depend; and, therefore, he divides his work into two parts, one of which deals with natural, the other with political features. Part I. begins with the mountains and hills, then explains their functions as water-partings, and so leads on to river-basins, concluding with the coast and climate. All this is thoroughly well done. We learn, for instance, not only the fact that the Wealden and East Anglian heights are the southern and northern boundaries, respectively, of the Thames basin, but also the reason why. The only risk about these Physical lessons is, that an injudicious teacher who simply puts his class through them, without introducing variety sometimes, and always adding plenty of oral explanation, may cause them to appear dry and difficult, clear and interesting as they really have been made by Mr. Lawson. In Part II. there is no such danger. Mr. Lawson has the courage to leave the counties and chief towns, as such, out of the reckoning altogether, and to confine himself almost entirely to attractive accounts of our various industries, and the incidental

matter. We think he shows excellent judgment, and should be pretty confident that a child who has an intelligent knowledge of his book will be quite sufficiently instructed.

Comparing *The World at Home* (Nelson & Sons) with *Chambers's Geographical Reader* (W. & R. Chambers), both for Standard V., we think that, of the two, the former will answer its purpose best, while neither can be compared, for literary or practical merit, to the corresponding volume in the National Society's series, which we noticed some months since. *The World at Home* is more truly a reading-book than Messrs. Chambers's manual. It is written in fair style, and contains a good deal of anecdote, extracts from travels, poetry, and illustrative matter generally. The physical geography is clearly explained. We very strongly doubt the advantage of giving lists of difficult words with explanations at the end of each chapter—a plan adopted also in Messrs. Nelson's *Royal Readers*. Such lists, even at the best, only encourage children not to think, and good teachers dislike them. But they lose all pretension to usefulness when "compulsory" is explained by "imperative," "precincts" by "walls," "chivalry" by "adventure," and so forth, and when they consist of words in great measure capriciously selected. For the credit of Austrian scholarship, we trust that the imperial motto was not really "*Austria est imperare orbi universo*," as the writer of this book gives it on p. 178, adding, as a translation, "Austria is to rule the whole world." In Messrs. Nelson's favourite distance-squares we see little use. Children will not attend to them, and they certainly will confuse them with the lines of Latitude and Longitude. These latter are so completely ousted, that their position is only marked by numbers at the sides and on the top of the map. Yet some knowledge of Latitude and Longitude is expressly prescribed in the Code, and a chapter on the subject (dry enough, it is true, and in small type) is added at the end of this book. Is not this rather like sacrificing common sense to a hobby? Messrs. Chambers's Reader has clearer and better maps on the ordinary plan, equally good illustrations, and far superior chapters on Latitude and Longitude. But, as a reading-book, it is spoiled by the accumulation of facts and the dryness of the style. This is a pity, for the matter itself is accurate and well-chosen. Less solid information, and more literary character, are what are really wanted in a work of this kind.

W. & A. K. Johnston's Shilling National Atlas contains twenty-four maps. The marking of mountain-chains by lines instead of shading, adds greatly to the clearness. So does the paucity of names, which is, perhaps, carried to an excess. Thus, in the five western counties of England there is but one river name, and we look in vain for Exmoor, Exmouth, Dartmouth, St. Ives, the Mendip Hills. In the map of France, it is a mistake to give the Departments, and omit such historic names as Quiberon, La Rochelle, Bayonne (we take the west coast as a test).

J. Riddiman Johnston's Commercial Atlas, which is published at the same price, and has the same number of maps, is in every other respect a contrast. The binding is hideous, and the maps have a dingy, faded appearance. They improve, however, on closer examination, and a child with good eyesight will have no difficulty in deciphering the names, though he will find it hard to get a clear idea of the physical features.

But, among the shilling atlases, we must award the palm to *Philips' Excelsior Atlas*. It has several new features which will commend it to the teacher of Geography. He will find of England three maps: one physical, marking the heights above the sea-level; one political; and one railway map. In reviewing Green's English Geography, we urged the necessity of attending to this branch of the subject. Other novelties are sections of England, Europe, &c., and plans of the environs of London, Birmingham, &c. We should like to see this atlas adopted by every School Board in the country.

The force of cheapness can hardly go farther than *Marcus Ward's Threepenny Atlas for Standard V.* and *Twopenny Atlas for Standard IV.* The former has ten, the latter six pages of maps, which are clear and well-coloured. Of course, a twopenny atlas can no more be expected to last than M. Max O'Rell's five-shilling patent leather pumps.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

- BLACKIE & SON.—Domestic Economy, Parts II. and III.; Geographical Reader, Part I.
 BLACKWOOD & SONS.—Picture Primers; First Historical Reader.
 CASSELL & CO.—Science for All, Part I.
 CHAMBERS.—Geographical Readers, Standards IV. and V.; Chaucer, "The Clerk's Tale."
 CLARENDON PRESS.—Lange's German Composition; Plautus, Trinummus (C. A. Freeman & Rev. A. Stoman).

CURWEN & SONS.—Curwen's "Deutscher Liedergarten"; Curwen's "La Lyre des Ecoles."
 FISHER UNWIN.—Gudrun, Beowulf, and Roland (J. Gibb).
 HOGG (J.).—Robinson Crusoe; Wonderful Animals (V. S. Morwood); Evenings away from Home (A. R. Hope); Hans Andersen's Shoes of Fortune; The Ocean Wave (H. Stewart); Far-famed Tales from the Arabian Nights.
 JARROLD & SONS.—T. R. Clifford's Educational Yellow-Book.
 LONDON SCHOLASTIC TRADING COMPANY.—Freehand Test Papers, First Grade, Second Grade; Practical Geometry Test Papers, First Grade, Second Grade.
 LONGMANS & Co.—Key to Jerram's Miscellaneous Sentences for Translation into French; Macaulay's Warren Hastings (S. Hales); Longmans' Magazine (October).
 MACLEHOSE.—Forsyth's Test Papers in Perspective.
 MACMILLAN & Co.—The "Iphigenia in Tauris" of Euripides, (England); Horace, Odes IV. (Page); Queen's College Calendar 1883-4; The Ancient Empires of the East (Sayce); Cicero pro P. Sestio (Holden); Hudibras, Parts II. and III. (Milnes); The Hieron of Xenophon (Holden).
 MARCUS WARD & Co.—Short History of England (Heford); Twopenny Atlas for Standard IV.; Threepenny Atlas for Standard V.; Vicar of Wakefield (School Edition).
 MOFFATT & PAIGE.—The English Language and Literature (Page); The Favourite Copy Books, Nos. 12-18; Moffatt's History Readers, Books II. and IV.; Moffatt's Earth and the Solar System; Pupil-Teacher's Annual for 1883 (Page).
 MURBY.—Simple Sketch of the History of England.
 NELSON & SONS.—The World at Home—Europe, Standard V.
 NUTT (D.).—French and German Translation at Sight.
 OLIVER & BOYD.—England and Wales, a Geographical Reading-Book for Standard III. (Lawson); Pronouncing Gazetteer of the World; Clyde's Elementary Geography.
 RIVINGTONS.—Greek Syntax (Thompson); Geography of Asia, Africa, and America (Lang & Creighton); Græcula, A First Book of Greek Translation (Heatley); Greek Verse Composition (Sidgwick & Morice).
 RUDDIMAN JOHNSTON.—Chart of Standard Illustrations.
 SIMPKIN & Co.—Aristotle's Ethics (K. D. Coles).
 SONNENSCHN.—Special Merit Readers.
 WARD, LOCK, & Co.—School Board Dictionary.

SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES.

OXFORD.

THE work of the term may be said to have begun on Sept. 27th, with the Examination in lieu of Responsions. For this there were as many as 390 candidates, which shows that people appreciate the advantage of getting over this petty Examination at the very threshold of their University career. It used to confront a man at the end of his first term, just when he ought to have been getting into the swing of his work for Moderations. The old Examination for Responsions is still kept on at the end of the term, but probably it will be abolished before long, and success in the Examination in lieu, held before term begins, will then become a compulsory condition of entering a College. The number of those who have joined the University this time is, we believe, larger than it ever was, and at a few Colleges, such as Keble and New, great numbers had to be rejected. Henceforward there are to be no Schools at Christmas, with the exception of the Pass Final Examinations, of Classical and Mathematical Moderations, and of the Preliminary Examination in Natural Science. This change obliges those who wish for the full four years to read for their Finals, to come up in October, otherwise they will only have three-and-a-half years in which to go through the full curriculum for Honours.

We regret to say that one of the ladies' Colleges, Somerville Hall, is not quite so full as it deserves to be. Lady Margaret Hall being conducted on strict Church principles, can, of course, hold its own; but as long as women are shut out from the University degree, Somerville cannot expect to rival Girtou. It is to be hoped that the Liberals, who really compose a large majority in Convocation, will soon take this question of admitting women to degrees seriously in hand. Our Colleges here cannot compete with those at Cambridge, as long as the present unmeaning restrictions are maintained. The present Vice-Chancellor would do well to make a move in this direction. We are glad to say that a few very good lectures, such as those of the Master of University; of Mr. Pelham, of Exeter; and of Mr. Harcourt, of Christ Church, are thrown open to members of the ladies' Colleges.

Though it hardly concerns the University, we are glad to be able to chronicle the success of another educational experiment lately made in Oxford—the new High Schools for Boys. The number of boys attending is now 108, so that it already rivals Magdalen School. We hope its success will continue, though little further increase in the number of boys can be expected.

The new Savilian Professor of Geometry is not yet appointed, though the post should be filled up by Dec. 17th. Rumour mentioned Professor Cayley for it. We hope we may get him. The memorial fund to the late Professor Rolleston now amounts to £1,200.

The Winchester Fellowship, at New College has been filled up by a Cambridge man, Mr. John Chevallier, B.A., of Trinity College. We believe it is a new idea, going outside the limits of New College for a candidate, but it extends the field very much, which may be a good thing. An Official Fellowship at Brazenose is shortly to be filled up by nomination, and candidates are invited to send in their names on the 22nd. On Thursday, the 25th, the Examination for Fellowships at All Souls' begins. Last year no Fellow was appointed, the field being an unusually bad one. On Nov. 1st a Taylorian teacher of Italian will be appointed, to replace the late Signor de Tivoli, whose kindly presence is much missed by his many friends.

The Intercollegiate Lectures are still in a chaotic state; no one College quite knowing what it wants. The present arrangement is a division of Colleges into two big combinations. All which belong to one combination have perfect free trade in lecturing, in the sense that one College can send its men to the lectures given in another without paying fees. Some further change will be made in the summer. If there are to be any combinations at all, they had better be based on local contiguity, which they are not at present. Ultimately the combination will probably be, not of Colleges, but of Lecturers, without, however, fees being restored. The wisdom of abolishing them was doubted by many. The difficulty of having perfect free trade in the matter, and of allowing men of each College to go to any Lecturer they liked, while the Lecturers would be paid by results, is this, that Education here being so much trammelled as it is by Examinations, men would just flock to the rooms of the Lecturers who also chanced to be Examiners for the time being.

The repose of Convocation is likely to be broken shortly by an animated discussion on Vivisection. The combined strength of the Economists and the Anti-vivisectionists was not enough last term to defeat the voting of £10,000 for a Physiological Laboratory for Professor Burdon Sanderson. Now, however, a petition is being got up, praying the Hebdomadal Council to re-open the question. The petitioners propose to forbid any experiments: (1) without anaesthetics; (2) upon domestic animals.

The prospectus of the Oxford Historical Society has been issued. The Council of it contains many distinguished names. Its purpose is to publish literature illustrative of the History of the University and City of Oxford; and its foundation was suggested the late Mr. J. R. Green. Subscriptions are solicited, one guinea annually, or twelve guineas constituting life-membership. Subscribers will receive a copy of each publication. Among the publications for the first year will be the first part of the Registers of Matriculations and Degrees at Oxford. These registers date back to 1505, and will be most interesting. This Society supplies a recognised want, and deserves the support of every one. Its issues will be of more than merely antiquarian interest. The Committee who receive subscriptions consists of the Rev. C. W. Boase, of Exeter College; C. R. L. Fletcher, All Souls'; F. Madan, B.N.C.; and H. L. Smith, Balliol College.

CAMBRIDGE.

The entry of Freshmen at Cambridge has reached the unexampled number of 873 this year, of whom 180 fall to the share of Trinity: the number last year was 813. Several more or less familiar figures have been removed by death since last term. The Rev. T. R. Birks has died, leaving the Knightsbridge Professorship of Moral Philosophy vacant; the Rev. Thomas Dale, Fellow and Lecturer of Trinity, was well known as a coach, and popular among many friends; while T. H. Corry, a rising botanist, who was drowned in Sligo last August, is keenly missed by a smaller number of men.

A vigorous attempt is now being made in Trinity to diminish the need for private coaching, by providing College Lecturers to do much of the usual work of a coach. Such a scheme has been for some time in operation among the Classical men, and this term it is being extended to the subjects of the Mathematical Tripos also. Additions have been made to the teaching staff with this purpose in view, and we believe that Freshmen have been, in many cases, discouraged from resorting to a coach. This new system, if successful, will be a saving of much money to Undergraduates, and will remove the dissatisfaction sometimes expressed at the large amount of the tutorial fees, which come to £21 per annum, and for which hitherto the return has not been great.

A long list of special lectures for women is announced for the term. It includes lectures on Plato, by Mr. Archer-Hind; on the *Medea*, by Miss Black; Divinity, by Mr. Lias; Political Economy, by Mr. Keynes; Chemistry, by Mr. Main and Miss Eves. The lectures are mostly delivered in the North Hall, Newnham.

Professor Macfarren has announced his intention of lecturing on Mozart's Symphonies during the Lent term.

The publications of the Pitt Press have been numerous and important lately. Among books now in the press, are collected scientific papers by Clerk Maxwell, by Sir William Thomson, and by Professor Stokes; among classical books, are Professor Jebb's "Sophocles," and Professor Mayer's edition of Cicero's "De Natura Deorum"; while on artistic subjects, we have had lately Mr. Percy Gardner's admirable "Types of Greek Coins"; which is soon to be followed by Professor Waldstein's "Essays on the Art of Pheidias."

Two Cambridge men have recently gone to fill Masterships in Bradford College:—Mr. Colson, late Fellow of St. John's College, and Mr. Temperley, late Scholar of Queen's.

Five Fellowships were awarded last month at Trinity, three of which went to Classical men. The new Fellows are:—Mr. C. Ll. Davies, a Marlborough man, who was eighth in the Classical Tripos of 1882,—the subject of his dissertation was the *Protagoras* of Plato; Mr. Wyse, of Canterbury School, fourth in the same tripos, who wrote on the relation between Aristotle's *Politics* and Plato's *Laws*; Mr. Duff, a Scotchman, from Fettes, fifth in the same tripos, who wrote on the *Epigrams* of Martial; Mr. W. M. Sorley, also a Scotchman, of Birkenhead School, who gained his Fellowship for Moral Science, and wrote on certain aspects of the Evolution Theory; and, lastly, Mr. Hermann, of Bath School, Senior Wrangler in 1882, who wrote on a hydrodynamical subject.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE OF SOUTH WALES.—The report of the opening ceremony on the 24th ult. reaches us too late for comment. Of Lord Aberdare's able speech describing the history of the Aberystwith movement, and of Mr. Lewis Morris's plea for women's education, we hope to say something next month.

SCOTLAND.

The examination of candidates in the University of Edinburgh for degrees and certificates in Arts took place on the 16th, 17th, 18th, and 19th of this month, and the classes for the winter session will be opened early in November. The St. George's Hall Classes, and the Professor's classes for ladies, at Shandwick Place, will be opened about the same time. There promises to be a good course of lectures in connexion with the Philosophical Institution, and the winter programme of the Literary Institute seems equally good. The residents of the South-Western suburbs of the city can avail themselves of a course of lectures and classes at the Morningside Athenæum. Mr. Goschen, M.P., will give the opening address at the Philosophical Institution.

The great event of Scottish educational history during the past month has been the opening of the University College in Dundee. The inhabitants of the town showed their appreciation of its importance by decorating various parts of the town, and ringing a joyful peal on the bells of the old steeple. A large gathering of citizens and others interested in the occasion attended the opening ceremonies. After the presentation of the Freedom of the Burgh to the Earls of Camperdown and Dalhousie by the Town Council, the College was formally opened, and the inaugural address delivered by Professor Stuart, of Cambridge. He began by comparing the higher education of Scotland with that of other countries in Europe, and referring to the advantages conferred on the nation by the extension of University privileges to all classes of the people. He pointed out the existing defect in secondary education, which still prevents Scotland from carrying out the noble scheme of John Knox. Then he sketched the origin and object of the University movement in Europe 800 years ago, and the second great step in the progress of University development in our own day, which seeks to supply the needs of material prosperity and the wants of the people, no longer only those of the privileged few. He discoursed at length on technical education in the college and in the workshop, then went on to speak of the liberal education of the masses of the people. He spoke of the great social problem of the age, how to effect a more equal distribution of wealth, and pointed out the prior necessity for the intellectual and moral enlightenment of all, both rich and poor. An appeal to the College authorities to prevent the diversion of another gift to the many, into a monopoly of the few, and a counsel to the young students, reminding them that purity of conduct is as necessary to true freedom as is intellectual culture, concluded the address. The presentation to Miss Baxter of her portrait, and the dedication of it to the College, along with speeches by Lord Camperdown and others, terminated the proceedings in the College.

The Aberdeen University Court has appointed Mr. James Ward,

A.M., Fellow of Queen's College, Cambridge, to be Examiner in Arts for three years. Six gentlemen were appointed Examiners in Medicine for one year, and the appointments of assistants made by the professors for the ensuing year were all approved of.

A former pupil of Fettes College, Mr. J. D. Duff, has been elected a Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Another newly-elected Fellow of the same College is Mr. W. R. Sorley, Examiner in Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh.

The Commissioners under the Educational Endowments (Scotland) Act have been hearing evidence in connexion with the various educational endowments in Edinburgh. There are different proposals concerning the High School and Heriot's Hospital, one being that the latter building shall be placed at the disposal of the former, while another is that the Hospital buildings shall be devoted to the purposes of a Secondary School, supplying education at a very moderate cost.

Some startling disclosures are made regarding the amount of endowment allowed for each pupil in some of the endowed institutions. For instance, in the case of Fettes College, the amount of endowment for each pupil, founder or non-founder, is more than £1,000.

The Dundee High School has received another large gift from the Harris family. Miss Harris, sister of the late ex-Bailie Harris, who, some time ago endowed the High School so liberally, has handed over to the directors a sum of £10,000, to be expended in purchasing buildings contiguous to the school, to be converted into class-rooms for the girls' and junior departments.

ST. ANDREW'S UNIVERSITY.

Friends of the Higher Education for Women will learn with pleasure that the munificent bequest of £30,000 has been left by the late Sir William Tylour Thompson to the University of St. Andrews, for the purpose of founding bursaries there for women as well as men, and also for the assistance of women students who are qualifying themselves for the practice of medicine. The importance of such bequests to the future of University Education for Women can hardly be over-estimated; and St. Andrews is to be congratulated on the substantial aid which this wise and far-sighted benevolence will render to the resources already at its disposal in that direction.

To St. Andrews belongs the honour of having been the first to recognise, in a practical form, the claims of women to the benefits conferred by University Examinations and Degrees; and, though it no longer stands alone in that respect, yet, thanks largely to the energy and liberality of its professorial staff, its position is perhaps unique as regards the perfectly graded system of education provided in this northern centre, passing upwards in one connected course from the earliest initial steps towards the final goal of the St. Andrew's L.L.A. Degree for Women. It has long been matter for regret that, admirable as are many of our High Schools and Colleges for Girls, nothing existed combining, on a generous scale, both residence and education of the highest grade—answering, in fact, to Winchester, Rugby, or Harrow for boys; and providing for girls the advantages which Public School education secures for their brothers who are looking forward to a University career. This deficiency the St. Leonard's School for Girls at St. Andrews now supplies, and bids fair to run a prosperous career. The teaching staff is of the highest order, and the home arrangements, so important in the school life of girls, are admirable in all respects. One thing still remains to fill up the measure of completeness for St. Andrews as an educational centre for women, and that is the opening to others of University classes, on a plan similar to that which has been adopted so successfully in connexion with University College and the London University Examinations. The step has been not only urged upon the St. Andrews University authorities, but we understand has received their favourable consideration. We may hope that Sir W. T. Thompson's bequest will not be without effect in deciding them to adopt a course which can hardly fail to be one of mutual advantage to all concerned.

IRELAND.

The vacancy in the Professorship of Anatomy and Chirurgery at Dublin, caused by Dr. Macalister's removal to Cambridge, has been filled by the appointment of Dr. D. J. Cunningham, hitherto the Professor at the Royal College of Surgeons.

Mr. John Isaac Beare, a distinguished Graduate of Dublin, has been appointed to the Professorship of Greek at the Queen's College, Cork. Professor Redfern, having resigned the chair of Anatomy at

the Queen's College, Belfast, after a tenure of 23 years, has consented to resume his duties at the request of the Lord Lieutenant.

The Reports of the respective Presidents of the Queen's Colleges at Belfast, Cork, and Galway must, for several years to come, possess a peculiar interest for all who are concerned for the well-being of Irish education. They represent the effort to diffuse something more than the mere rudiments of culture in districts remote from the metropolis. Since the institution of the Royal University, they do not form integral parts of any one university, and the full effects of this change are as yet but matters of surmise. The Reports for the Session 1882-83 show some of the consequences, but as a whole, these are less serious than was to have been expected. The fact that two Arts examinations are now necessary before the medical degrees of the Royal University can be attempted, has at once reduced the number of medical students in all colleges: but this is the only faculty that has seriously suffered so far. It is most felt in Galway, where the medical school has during the year fallen from 122 to 70. The President of Belfast notices the injustice of bringing all students of the Royal University to Dublin for examination; he proposes, and has in part carried, that the merely pass-tests may be taken also at local centres. The Council at Belfast, in order to hinder decline in academic training, have resolved to grant a Diploma of Associate in Arts to those who fulfil the necessary conditions of residence and attendance at lectures. At Belfast, also, the President records the admittance of 12 women to the Arts classes: "All the necessary arrangements were made for them in the classrooms, where they sat with other students, and a separate waiting-room was provided for them. This is the first instance in which women have been admitted as students to a University College in Ireland; and the result has been in all respects most satisfactory." In the same Report a powerful plea is advanced for more suitable accommodation for the practical teaching of Chemistry, its great importance to the manufacturing interests of the district being ably illustrated. A similar need is being felt at Cork. The total numbers of students attending at the Colleges are—at Belfast 502, at Cork 348, and at Galway 144.

At the annual meeting of the Roman Catholic Hierarchy at Dublin, on Tuesday, 9th October, the Rev. Gerold Molloy, D.D., presented his report as Rector of the Catholic University. This able document, having since been given to the public, has received much notice; we can only mention a part of its contents. Under the name "Catholic University" is to be included five Catholic Colleges containing University students. The first section of the Report shows that 167 of these students are now studying to take degrees in the Royal University; and these have taken 30 Exhibitions and 8 (out of 12) Scholarships. Of the same two years there are 190 students from the three Queen's Colleges, who have taken only 10 Exhibitions and one Scholarship. We may say that these Catholic Colleges can put into the field the very pick of all the Catholic schools; but this in no wise diminishes their claim to be proud of their record. One other point only we mention; it is an important one. Since the dissolution of the Queen's University, the Queen's Colleges have been left as unattached institutions; and the Rector considers that there is no sufficient guarantee that the students who now fill them, and hold prizes therein, are in fact University students at all. We may explain that 71 students joined at Cork last Session; of these only 13 matriculated in the Royal University, and six came *ad eundem*. In the same Session 126 students joined at Belfast; and of these 84 were matriculated in the Royal University *ad eundem*. The members for Galway are not detailed; only 34 students joined during the Session. This matter has now been raised for the first time, but not, we believe, without reasonable basis.

P. S.—Our paragraph last month upon the Intermediate Results has been so misunderstood that we must return to the point. We had no intention of raising an idle question, such as Boys *versus* girls; but to point out a defect in the boys' schools. The percentages of "passes" among boys for the years 1880-83, inclusive, have been 70.5, 66.8, 57.8, and 56.6—a continuous decline. Why is this? There has indeed been a gradual elevation in the requirements of a "pass." But this, we submit, is no explanation; because the girls, being also subjected thereto, show the improving percentages 66.7, 68.3, 69.6 and 80. It is not a question of the superiority of the girls' schools; we distinctly said as much. It is want of organization in the boys' schools; unprepared children being pushed into the examinations at far too early an age. Dr. Kirkpatrick seems to imply that all the classes of a school are examined. Now the case is thus: a school with a roll of 200 will send forward, perhaps, 80 boys to examination. If 40 merely "pass," it is considered satisfactory. Recollecting how very little a "pass" means, we submit that such results are deplor-

able, and call for improvement. And with this object only, we draw attention to it.

SCHOOLS.

CITY OF LONDON SCHOOL.—Entrance Scholarships:—The Sassoon Entrance Scholarship, open to boys under thirteen, was won by H. L. Aldis, of Queen Mary's School, Walsall, and B. B. Turner, one of our own pupils, who were bracketed. Prizes, &c., gained in the School:—Carpenter Scholarship by E. B. Nicholson; Tite Scholarship by T. C. Hudson; Grocers' Exhibition by R. S. Conway; Sassoon Sanskrit Exhibition by R. S. Conway; Broderers' Exhibition by N. Wedd; Beaufoy Exhibition by C. A. M. Pond; Saddlers' Guild Exhibition by J. H. Swinestead; St. Thomas's Medical Exhibition by E. C. Mahany; Mortimer Exhibition by J. P. d'Albuquerque. Mr. G. S. Farnell, Scholar of Wadham, has gained a First Class in the Final Classical Schools, and Mr. T. G. Davies, Scholar of Jesus, a Third Class. Mr. J. Gollancz has won the Hollier Hebrew Scholarship at University College, London; and Mr. C. Platts, Scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge, has gained the Hollier Greek Scholarship, and also an Exhibition for Mathematics in the Intermediate Examination at the London University. A great effort is being made to reorganize the various School Clubs, and to establish them and the School Magazine upon a permanent footing. The boys have been invited to pay a uniform terminal subscription, and the response already met with is sufficient to justify the hope that next term there will be something like unanimity upon this matter throughout the School.—We regret to announce the death of Mr. Thomas Sharpe, a former Master of the School, which took place on the 11th of August last. Mr. Sharpe became a master here in 1840, and retired with a pension in 1876. Since that date he devoted his leisure to the preparation of candidates for admission to the School. Thus, whether officially or unofficially, his connexion with the School extended over a period of 43 years; and during this time there passed under him a very large number of past and present pupils, who owe much to the accuracy and exactness of his teaching, and to his untiring energy. It is characteristic of him that, a fortnight before his death, when he had manifest need of rest, finding that two or three of his pupils were somewhat too backward to enter the classes prescribed for them, he could with difficulty be dissuaded from giving up the greater part of his vacation to supply their deficiencies.

DENSTONE COLLEGE.—J. F. Stephenson has obtained a Theological Scholarship at Durham, of the value of £60 a year.

DULWICH COLLEGE.—Two changes of the greatest importance have been introduced this term. The Junior School has been thoroughly reorganized, and a Modern Form has been established. At present it has been found necessary to restrict admission mainly to boys who are preparing for Military or Civil Service Examinations; but the number of applicants is so considerable, that a steady development of the modern element in the school system is now to be anticipated. It may be worth while to draw attention to the fact that in future *not less* than four Exhibitions will be awarded each year upon the result of the Midsummer Examination. These Exhibitions are tenable at the Universities for four years, and vary in value from £70 to £50 per annum. The staff has been joined by C. Shipley, M.A., late Scholar of New College, Oxford, who takes charge of the Modern Class. A course of lectures in connexion with the Society for the Extension of University Teaching is now being delivered in the Lecture Theatre of the College, by Professor S. R. Gardiner. The subject is "The Puritan Revolution," and the attendance is highly satisfactory.

ETON.—The number of new boys entered this school-time were 108, making the total number of School 876. C. Lowry, Esq., Scholar of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, has been appointed to the Mastership vacated by the Rev. St. J. Thackeray, who has accepted the living of Maple Durham.

GRANTHAM SCHOOL.—S. Clay has been elected to the Newcome Exhibition at St. John's College, Cambridge, and also to a Sizarship. Mr. W. H. Wood, B.A., late Junior Student of Christ Church, has been appointed to the Mathematical and Science Mastership.

HAILEYBURY COLLEGE.—The Annual Exhibitions were awarded to G. D. Barry, C. E. S. Headlam, C. E. Brownrigg, R. F. Fisher, F. W. Hardy (Modern Side)—Examiner, Professor H. Nettleship. W. L. Ogle was placed in the 2nd Class in the Final Classical Schools, Oxford. E. C. Townsend and H. L. Roberts passed with Honours out of Sandhurst. F. A. Colson has been appointed Senior Classical Master at Bradford. It is with feelings of the deepest regret that we have to record the resignation of the Head-master, Dr. Bradby. What the School owes to his and Mrs. Bradby's untiring exertions and devotion, those only know who have been most intimately connected with them in the work of the place, but to all are visible the

signs of material progress made by the School during the 16 years of Dr. Bradby's rule, and he leaves everything in good working order for his successor. The vacancy caused by Mr. Walford's retirement has been filled by Mr. A. A. Lea, of Rugby, and C.C.C., Oxford.

HARROW.—H. M. Butler has been placed in the 1st Class Final Classical Schools, Oxford; R. F. Hayward has won the Gilchrist Entrance Engineering Scholarship at University College, London.—October 11th was Founder's-day. The preacher was the Very Rev. the Dean of Windsor, an Old Harrovian. The many Old Harrovians who came down were gratified with the sight of the Butler Portrait, just completed by Mr. Herkomer, which was placed in the Vaughan Library. The likeness is both good and pleasing. The head of the School for the year is S. W. Moek (Mr. Watson's). The Rev. W. Law gave the School, on the evening of September 28th, an account of the progress of the Harrow Mission in Latimer Road. The Building Fund, for which £3,500 was asked, has passed that sum, and the rooms are to be begun at once, but a further sum of £1,500 is asked for to complete the plans.

We have heard with great pleasure the news of the appointment of Canon Westcott, Regius Professor of Divinity at Cambridge, to the Canonry of Westminster vacated by the elevation of Dr. Barry to the Episcopate. For several years Dr. Westcott held a Mastership at Harrow. His work as a teacher was chiefly confined to the composition of the Sixth Form and of his numerous pupils. During the latter years of his residence at the School, he was master of the large house formerly held by the Rev. W. Oxenham. Gentle and refined, he was regarded with the affectionate reverence which boys seldom fail to pay to such a character. All wrong-doing seemed to wound him. Falsehood and vicious conduct he treated with a scorn rendered none the less effective by the quietness with which it was expressed. At the same time, his influence has probably been greater over the after-lives of his pupils than it was over their boyhood. While at Harrow Mr. Westcott was made a Chaplain-in-Ordinary to the Queen. He resigned his Mastership on his appointment to a Canonry of Peterborough. He was soon afterwards made the Regius Professor of Divinity at Cambridge, where his influence has been widely felt. Dr. Westcott is one of the greatest, if not the greatest, of our theological scholars. Accurate and discriminating, he is at the same time lucid in explanation and catholic in feeling. His work on *The Gospel of the Resurrection* forms, perhaps, the most satisfactory defence of Christianity which has ever been produced. Staking the truth of the New Testament on the accuracy of its witness as to the Resurrection, Dr. Westcott has examined the historical grounds for accepting the record of the Gospels, and has shown the place which the Resurrection holds in the history of the individual and of the world. Not shrinking from the doctrine of the progress of mankind, he has determined the relation of the belief in the Risen Lord to the needs and development of the race. His latest work on *The Revelation of the Risen Lord* contains an interesting examination of the bearing which each manifestation of Christ after His resurrection has upon the Church at large, and on the individual believer. To no other living scholar does English Christianity owe a larger debt than to the new Canon of Westminster, and his appointment is hailed with pleasure by all parties.

MARLBOROUGH COLLEGE.—The Common Room have this term lost the services of J. Bain, Esq., and E. F. Simpkinson, Esq.; their places have been taken by the Rev. P. E. Raynor and H. F. Tatum, Esq. The science work is being taken by R. G. Durrant, Esq., of Keble College, Oxford, in the absence of G. F. Rodwell, Esq., who is too ill, we are sorry to say, to take his place here. The new buildings are now complete, excepting a few finishing touches, and appear to give general satisfaction. The class-rooms are spacious and agreeable, and the fittings excellent, and the external appearance is modelled on the style of the Old House. Plans have been drawn with a view to an enlargement of the College Chapel, and it is intended shortly to undertake much-needed alterations with this end in view. Football is in full swing, and the annual House Matches are being played. The Old Fellows' Match is fixed for November 1st, and the match versus the Nomads on November 24th. A Senior Hulme Exhibition has been awarded to G. R. Askwith, at Brazenose College, Oxford; and a Fellows' Scholarship at Cooper's Hill to S. P. H. Dyson. E. H. Davis obtained an open nomination to Woolwich, and C. Ll. Davies was a few days since elected to a Fellowship at Trinity College, Cambridge. On September 30th, the annual sermon commemorating the foundation of the College Chapel was preached by the Dean of St. Paul's.

NEWCASTLE HIGH SCHOOL, STAFFORDSHIRE.—The Mayer Exhibition for Science and Mathematics has gone to Elliott. Mr. H. S. Cooper, B.A., Scholar of Christ's College, Cambridge, has been appointed in

Mr. Woodforde's place. He will act as tutor to the School-house. Mr. C. M. Stuart, B.A., of St. John's College, Cambridge, will, after Christmas, take the place of Dr. Purdie in the Science Department. The Musical Society is arranging to give several short concerts on Saturday afternoons this term. The Master and boys have presented Mr. Woodforde with a testimonial on his leaving the staff.

RADLEY COLLEGE.—Four Scholarships will be filled up next June, value £50, £50, £30, £20, respectively. C. E. Bagot has been elected to a Classical Scholarship at Pembroke College, Oxford. Mr. T. F. Hobson, an Old Radloian, late Junior Student of Christ Church, is taking some work here this term. Mons. A. Lafarque is taking a colloquial class in the Modern School in French. A new Drawing School has been added to the buildings. The School is quite full this term, and it is contemplated to house some few boys at the Vicarage next term. The greater part of the *Andria* is to be acted this year on All Saints' Day and the 2nd of November, together with scenes from *Henry IV.* and *Le Médecin malgré lui.*

ROSSALL.—Prizes gained in the School:—Philology and Grammar—Senior, H. S. Jones. Junior, R. Lee. Classical Literature—Senior, not awarded. Junior, J. S. Watson and Napier equal.

RUGBY.—W. D. Sargent has gained a Postmastership at Merton College, Oxford. The illness of Mr. Sargent has kept him out of school for several weeks. His place is being supplied by Mr. Gray. The painting of the interior of the School Chapel, including the pipes of the organ, is now finished; the effect is, on the whole, very good, and will be better when the colours have a little toned down. The new boarding house, which is being built by Mr. Michell, is rapidly approaching completion, and will be a very fine building. It stands on the Hillmorton Road, a little beyond Mr. Elsee's house. Mr. Bloxam has marked the 70th anniversary of his admission to Rugby School by presenting to the Art Museum a fine copy of the first folio of Shakespeare. This is in addition to several other valuable gifts in the course of this year. A course of lectures on the History of England in the Seventeenth Century are being delivered on Thursday evenings by Professor Gardiner.

THE INTERNATIONAL COLLEGE.—C. A. Gordon Clark has passed into Sandhurst. There has been one change in the staff of masters this term. Mr. O. T. Cooke is leaving us, and is succeeded by Mr. A. M. Evanson, of Jesus College, Oxford.

UPPINGHAM.—Nearly the whole of the windows in the schoolroom have now been filled with coloured lights, subscribed for in most cases by the different houses, who are, with one or two exceptions, each represented by a light of their own, with their house-master's coat-of-arms in the centre; the last two lights have, however, been given by W. F. Rawnsley (O.U.), formerly Master here, in memory of his father, the Rev. Drummond Rawnsley. Considerable preparations are already being made with a view to the due celebration of the Tercentenary of the School in June next; several eminent men have already promised to take part in the celebration, and a circular is being sent round with an account of what has already been accomplished in the way of buildings, &c., and with a list of the most pressing requirements of the School. Considerable attention has lately been called to the founding of missions in the East of London and other places by the various Public Schools, and, at the Church Congress at Reading, several Schools were mentioned in this connexion; it seems only fair to state that, as far as we know, Uppingham, under its present Head-master, was the first School to set foot anything of the kind, and that for many years the funds for a curate to engage in mission and other work in North Woolwich, and in other parts of the East of London, have been provided by the School.

WESTMINSTER SCHOOL.—The Mure Scholarship has been awarded to A. M. T. Jackson. E. L. Fox, Esq., B.A., of Balliol College, has joined the staff; and W. T. Tatham, Esq., B.A., of the same College, is taking temporary work this term. On the first day of term, our new Head-master, the Rev. W. G. Rutherford, M.A., of Balliol College, and late Fellow of University College, Oxford, was formally installed by the Dean, at ten o'clock, in school. It need scarcely be said that he enters upon his new career with the heartiest good wishes of all who are or have been connected with Westminster. We regret to have to record the death of the Right Rev. Dr. Short, late Bishop of Adelaide, one of the oldest of Old Westminsters and a former Queen's Scholar. An interesting article on the School appeared in the *Times* some little while ago; the statements therein, however, with regard to the numbers of the School at different times were not quite accurate. The School numbered 300 when Dr. Williamson began in 1829; he passed on 65 to Dr. Liddell; Dr. Liddell 116 to Dr. Scott, at whose retirement the numbers were 221. In 1831 the opening of King's College had a great effect upon the entries at the School, reducing them from 50 to 20.

TRANSLATION PRIZE.

For each month, till further notice, there will be set a passage, generally from a French or German Author, to be translated into English. A PRIZE OF TWO GUINEAS will be offered each month for the best version. Initials or a nom de guerre must be adopted by competitors, but the successful competitor is required to send his real name and address to the Prize Editor for publication. Versions must be forwarded to the "Prize Editor" of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, 96 Farringdon Street, E.C., not later than the 15th of the month. Any translation which is sent with an addressed envelope and six postage stamps, will be returned with corrections. A First Class is entitled to a copy of "Prizes and Proximes," which will be forwarded on application. Those who have already received "Prizes and Proximes" may apply for a copy of "Maria Wuz."

The prize for the best translation of Gautier is awarded to "Lavinia."

"Pensive Gurgler," the last prize-winner, is E. M. Field, Esq., H.M.I.S., Clifton.

La déesse dont le corps porte sur une jambe, et qui s'appuie de son genou replié sur un tertre moussu où se frise un bout de draperie bleue, se présente de dos, les reins cambrés par le mouvement du bras ramassant derrière la tête une opulente torsade de chevenx. La main noyée dans les flots lustrés et bruns, est d'une élégance toute florentine, amenuisée et fuselée comme une main du Primitice; le visage découpe un profil demi-perdu, très-pur, très-délicat, très-jeune, qui mélange la finesse de la Renaissance à la correction de l'antique; le bras droit, mollement abandonné sur la hanche, s'enlace au bras potelé d'un petit Cupidon tout frisé et tont rose, qui, de sa lèvre cerise, rit au miroir et se contorne dans une pose gracieusement maniérée. Un vélarium de couleur safranée se noue aux branches des arbres, dont le feuillage clairsemé, les tiges grêles, laissent filtrer par places l'azur du ciel et l'azur du lointain. Sur la tête d'un Hermès, qui sourit dans sa barbe de marbre, deux colombes voltigent en se becquetant et en palpitant des ailes. Parmi l'herbe git le carquois de l'amour, près d'un chapiteau corinthien, auquel les plantes sauvages semblent vouloir ajouter de nouvelles acanthes. Ce chapiteau, débris d'une colonne tombée, vestige d'un peuple disparu, nous inquite à cette place. A-t-il un sens symbolique, et signifie-t-il déjà que le beau temps de la Grèce est passé, mais que *l'éternel féminin* ne disparaît pas avec le culte des Dieux? En effet, le bois ne ressemble guère à un bosquet cythéréen; les arbres ont poussé à l'aventure sur un sol inégal; les herbes sauvages hérissent le gazon plein de folle avoine et de buglosse, et même un pissenlit arrondit dans un coin sa boule de duvet. L'Hermès a reçu plus d'une cassure, et la mousse verdit le bas de sa gaine. Serait-ce l'antique Vénus déçue de l'Olympe qui revient par la force de l'habitude, faire sa toilette à l'endroit où jadis s'élevait parmi les myrtes et les lauriers-roses son gracieux temple de marbre?

BY "LAVINIA."

Turning her back to the spectator, the goddess stands, the weight of her body thrown upon one leg, as she supports herself, with one knee bent, upon a mossy hillock, where an end of blue drapery lies tossed, her loins curved by the movement of her arm lifted to arrange behind her head a massive coil of hair. Her hand, bathed in its brown and shining waves, has an elegance truly Florentine in character; slender and tapering, it resembles a hand by Primiticcio. The outline of her face, seen in half-profile, is very pure, very delicate, very youthful, uniting the subtlety of the Renaissance with the accuracy of the antique; her right arm, dropped with an indolent grace upon the hip, is entwined in the plump arm of a little Cupid, all curly-haired and rosy, who smiles, with his cherry lip, into the mirror, and twists himself round in a charmingly affected attitude. A saffron-coloured velarium is fastened to the branches of the trees, whose thin foliage and slender stems allow the blue of the distance, the blue of the sky, to penetrate here and there. Above the head of a Hermes, smiling in his marble beard, two doves hover with caressing bills and fluttering wings. In the grass lies the quiver of the God of Love, near a Corinthian capital, to which the wild herbage

seems emulous of adding fresh acanthus leaves. This capital, fragment of a fallen column, vestige of a vanished people, perplexes us by its presence in this spot. Has it a symbolical meaning; and does it signify that the golden prime of Greece is past, but that the eternal, the essential *feminine* spirit does not disappear with the worship of the Gods? In truth, this wood hardly resembles a Cytherean grove; the trees have sprung up at hazard on the uneven ground; the grass, rough with weeds, is full of wild oats and bugloss; even a dandelion displays its ball of down in one corner. The Hermes has received more than one fracture, and the base of his pedestal is stained green by moss. Can this be the Venus of the antique world, who, fallen from Olympus, returns through force of habit to adorn her beauty on the spot where formerly her graceful temple of marble rose among the myrtles and the oleanders?

We class the 342 versions received as follows:—

First Class.—Drayalyma, L. A. M., Fiji, Enid, Devine, John, M. or N., Gentian, Regula Baddun, Scrub, E. H. O., Euterpe, Zonbinau, Charibert.

Second Class.—Knowle, A Born Idiot, L. C., Marie Louise, J. W., L. S., P. P., Wyvern, Whey, Hector, Roteir, Chara Lispida, Diable boiteux, Lionel, Perinder, Noon, E. R. F. D., Aid, King-at-Arms, Zoe, David, Diogenes, H. M. L., Con Amore, Emmo, Byl, Stoker, Agra Patnas, L'Ile-Adam, Harold Skimpole, Phères, Barum, M. L. H., A Novice, Hermione, Sea-mew, W. D. P., Lavinia, Romola, A. M. C. B., Nemo, Poo-poo, Menino, Eule, Goneril, Archie, Peter, Vetter aus Bremen, Ursula Shipton, Che sarà sarà, C. C. A. C. B., Cherbourg, Tan-yr-allt, Never again, Mary I., Helen G., Ingledwood, Fanny Hertz, M. M. J. B., Outardeau, Beta, M. S. L., Trilobite, Hartslip, Passer, Antwerpens Torea, Madge Wildfire, Three-leaved Shamrock, Dry Rot, Job, Louey, Denise, Just in time, M. J. S. S., Henrietta Maria, Cumbrae, Fog Signal, Verity, Patroclus, T. Hews, Antigonus, Lady Mag, Western Rd. Brighton p.m., Sloe.

Third Class.—M. A. B., Micraster, Aroostook, Jill, Theo, Extolive Spool, Orbilius, Agricola, Tatianus, Cigar, Earthworm, Vitalus, Margo, Corvus, Bonny, Sohn einer Kanon, Andromache, Curly-girly, Lily, St. Valentine's day, Mistral, G., Haus Kind, Foist roi, Little Henry G., B. L. T., Jinnie C., J. N. F., Marigold, Bonnie Phœbe, Celtic, Hamako, Kneedeep, F. H., Astarte, F. W. B., D. L. D., Kittycat, A Cornish Cat, Lady Gay, Mäde, Rome, Daphne, Muscovite, Brian Boroihne, Aura, Gilgeous, A. Tees, E. H. E. Y., Rienzi, J. Jnior, Cis, L. E. S., E. S. M., Bored to Death, The Bald One, Spes, Misty Cloud, Au Coin du Feu, Esse, Seventeen, Rekab, Jerks, H. C. M., C. J. T., K. Hope, Kythe Clinton, Touchstone, W. L. M., G. M., Iolanthe, Entété, Rita, E. J. B., Left Hand, Puss-cat, Silverweed, Torfrida, Consuelo, Yesi, Venom, Gemini, Phyllis, Cordelia, Peacock, Hammer, Ajax, Toothache.

Fourth Class.—Sirius, Smoke, Christopher, Britomart, Flaccus, Em. E. Aitch, Erdeley, Bourbon, Taplin, En D. Aitch, Ivedon, Pen, A Water Lily, Eva, Digitalis, Life, Aita, Down, Clio, Beechfield, Thornbury, Rollo, Venus Aphrodite, The Prig, Clifton, 100,000, K. M. E., La Cricquette, Sea Green, S. W., H. M. F., F. A. R., A. A., L. M. Greenland, No Sin, Charlotte, Matouchka, Geduld, Nil Desperandum, A Princess, Merton, Einnim, Taugenick, Dame Elizabeth, Vigor, Duleamara, Hypatia, February, Asor, M. J. C. Ant, The Owlet, Caldicott, Repmats, Strongbow, Sarnia, Clarissa, Quaking Grass, Roy, K. C. C., Devoniensis, Chance-corer, Leonora, Beta, G. E. M., Katinka, Meg Merrilies, Gabrielle, The Coracle, Allant, Lizchen, Vetter Michel, Chica, Gobbo, M. T. H. Y., Propuella.

Fifth Class.—Maire, Anna, Vecu, M. P., High Priest, Damaris, Amélie, Sophonisba, Never say Die, Schattenlos, Doubtful, W. L. P., X?, R. W. Buckley, Henriette, Valentia, Dunedin, East Anglia, H. H. R., Constance, Neo, Hasz, M. F. W., Failure, L. Liticaca, M. F. W., Quirk G. & S., H. A., Recca, E. J. S., Darius, Voyagense, Patretic, Dot, Galiessin, Tête de Linotte, Antumn Leaf, Sola, An Old Maid, Mirzapore, Dame Alice, East Wind, Rowe, Patsy, Smiley Nora, Elizabeth N., J. & P., Didymus, Elpis, Lorelei.

Sixth Class.—M. C. D., Excelsior, Hopeless trys again, N., Moise, Dodo, Dandelion, Vorwärts, Rumpelstiltskin, Pishashee, Elm, Queen Bertha, Neo, Tip, Bertha, Ouida, Iolanthe, Torbay, S. O., Rar, T. A. P., Millicent, Udine, O. O., Sambo, Chock, Rita, Kent, A Grecian, Xt., Ou., A. L. E. O.

The Prize Editor does his best, but he finds it hard to satisfy all the world and his wife. The vast majority of his competitors are most reasonable and long-suffering. Thus, for the two misprints which crept into the extract from Gautier, he deserved and expected abuse,

and was agreeably disappointed in his expectation. On the other hand, a few have dealt out hard measure to him, in making him responsible for all the flaws and failings in the prize versions. 'Tis not in Prize Editors to command success, so he hinted pretty plainly last time. We are all fallible, as Dr. Thompson remarked, even the youngest of us; and last month there occurred in these comments the gross blunder of calling Goethe's Autobiography "Wahrheit und Dichtung," instead of "Dichtung und Wahrheit." On the strength of this blunder, "Quis custodiet" calls on the Editor to abdicate an office which he has proved himself incompetent to fill. "X?" is equally indignant with the last award, which he is sure has raised a storm of indignation, and vents his own in some ironic touches borrowed from Elijah's address to the priests of Baal. Instead of wounding himself and crying aloud, the Editor prefers the quip modest,—“If in the Prizes you find clumsy renderings and palpable misreadings, I feel convinced that you would find the *Proximes* even clumsier and faultier. You wonder why you don't get the prize, and will doubtless think it monstrous that your spirited translation of this month should be gulped in the Fifth Class. You would doubtless have forgotten, if I had not reminded you, the little rift within the late—*sur un sol inégal*, 'under an uncertain sun.'”

"X?" has put the Editor on his mettle, and provoked him once more to descend into the lists with a "fair copy." One or two notes and annotations by way of prelude. The passage is taken from a *feuilleton* of the *Moniteur Universel*, and describes a picture in the *Salon* of 1859, by Baudry, named *La Toilette de Vénus*. *Le Primate* is neither "the Primate," nor "a prima donna," nor "high priestess," nor "our grand first parent," but a Bolognese artist of the sixteenth century. *Les tiges grêles* are not "hail-ravaged trunks," *vélarium* is not hedge-mustard, nor is "playful oats" an equivalent of *folle avoine*. The phrase *qui sourit dans sa barbe de marbre* is an affected variation on the common idiom *rire dans sa barbe*. *L'éternel féminin* is a translation of Goethe's *das ewig weibliche*. "Effeminacy," "womanliness," "female beauty," are all wide of the mark; femininity is too barbarous and cacophonous. *Déjà* most missed or mistranslated in *signific-t-il déjà*. It means, "Does it already mean?" *i.e.*, has it acquired this new symbolical meaning?

BY THE EDITOR.

The goddess is standing with her back turned to us. She rests the weight of her body on one leg, and leans the other knee against a mossy knoll, from which flutters a bit of blue drapery. Her back is curved inwards by the action of her arm coiling up behind her head a luxuriant mass of hair. The hand, half-buried in its brown and glossy ripples, has all the grace of the Florentine school, slim and tapering like a hand of *Primaticcio's*. The clear-out face is in half-profile, pure, delicate, and youthful, combining the subtlety of the Renaissance with the severity of the antique. The right arm hangs idly by her side, linked in the plump arm of an infant Cupid, all roses and curls, whose cherry lips smile back at us from her mirror, as he twists himself and poses in an attitude of charming affectation. A saffron awning is fastened to the branches of the trees, and through their sparse foliage and slender twigs we catch glimpses of the azure sky and the azure distance. Above the head of a Hermes, on whose marble lips there lurks an arch smile, two doves are hovering, with billing beaks and flapping wings. In the grass there lies Love's quiver, beside a Corinthian capital, round which the wild creepers are bending to add fresh acanthus leaves. What business has it here, this fragment of a fallen column, this relic of a vanished race? Can it be symbolical? Is it meant to tell us moderns that the golden age of Greece is passed, though the sex is immortal and survives the worship of the Gods? And, in truth, there is little in the wood to remind us of a Cytherean grove. The soil is rugged, and the trees a casual growth. The lawn is rough with weeds, and choked with alkanet and wild oats. In one corner of the picture a full-blown dandelion globes its head of down. Hermes is all cracked and scarred, and the base of his terminal is green with moss. Can this be Aphrodite, dethroned long ago from Olympus, and now returning by force of habit to make her bower where once, amid myrtles and oleanders, her marble shrine gleamed fair?

Miss Fanny Harrison, the winner of the August prize, writes to us:—"It is indeed very kind of your correspondents to send you references to the Scotch song on which my version of the French Folk-song was modelled. I wonder if any one would complete his kindness by sending me a copy of it, as I have never seen it nor heard of it. The metre of the French suggested an almost similar metre in English. Lowland Scotch seemed the nearest approach I could make to the patois; *le fils du Roy*, of course, made me think of the

Pretender. "Bracken" is the national greenery; there is no nightingale in Scotland, so for him I substituted the mavis. My little Burns was published by Milner, of Halifax; I bought it on 6th February, 1854, when a child. Miss Aitken's *Scottish Song* I never saw. It is a compliment to say that my verses are like a real Scotch song; but it is no compliment to suggest theft or plagiarism."

A Prize of Two Guineas will be given for the best translation of the following passage from *Lucan* (vii. 7-27):—

At nox, felicitis Magno pars ultima vitæ,
Sollicitos vana decepti imagine somnos.
Nam Pompeiani visis sibi sede theatri
Innumeram effigiem Romanæ cernere plebis,
Adtollique suum lætis ad sidera nomen
Vocibus, et plausu cuneos cernere sonantes.
Qualis erat populi facies clamorque faventis,
Olim quum juvenis primique ætate triumphii
Post domitas gentes, quas torrens ambit Iberus,
Et quæcumque fugax Sertorius impulit arma,
Vespere pacato, pura venerabilis æque
Quam currus ornante toga, plaudente senatu,
Sedit adhuc Romanos eques. Seu fine bonorum
Anxia venturis ad tempora læta refugit,
Sive per ambages solitas contraria visis
Vaticinata quies, magni tulit omina planctus:
Seu vetito patrias ultra tibi cernere sedes,
Sic Romam Fortuna dedit. Non rumpite somnos,
Castrorum vigiles; nullus tuba verberet aures.
Crastina dira quies, et imagine mœsta diurna
Undique funestas acies feret, undique bellum.

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CONCLUDING MEETINGS, 1883.

MEMORIAL HALL, FARRINGTON STREET—7.30 P.M.

November 12th.—Class Books.—*History*.—C. COLBECK, M.A.

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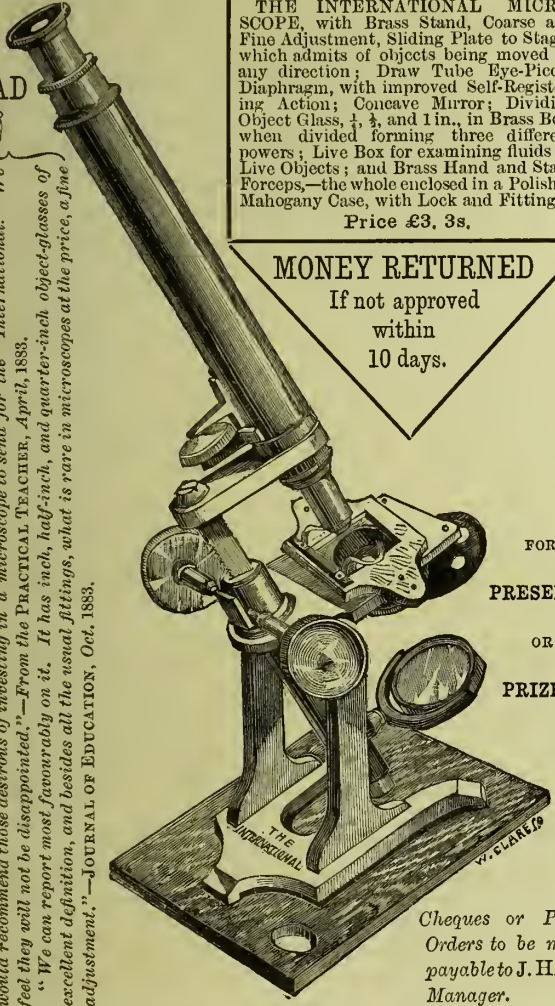
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JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

No. 172.

LONDON, NOVEMBER 1, 1883.

INTELLECTUAL TRAINING.*

By JAMES WARD.

I MUST ask your pardon for venturing to introduce the subject of my remarks to-night by means of a very extravagant supposition,—the supposition, viz., that all our schoolmasters and schoolmistresses, and all their time-tables and regulations, and their apparatus, both didactic and disciplinary, are lying in still but strange disorder among the ruins of Jericho, having been shipwrecked *en route* for a Grand Scholastic Exhibition at Peking by a storm on the new Jordan Canal. From this, present company, so far as concerned, are of course excepted, as they always are; here at all events are spirits who, if need be, will express their disapproval by raps and other means of “thought transference.” The past, then, both the good and the bad of it—if it had any bad—we are to suppose is gone, leaving neither trace nor representative. I ask you to make this extravagant supposition largely out of kindness to you—that your sense of propriety may be less shocked at finding a layman like myself talking about educational problems. I ask you to make this supposition also the better to realise that, in what I am going to say about intellectual training, only theoretical considerations are taken into account, regardless of historical continuity, and the presence or worth of old bottles, or any wine—or vinegar—they may still contain. Bereft of the wisdom and the traditions of our “scholastic head-pieces,” there has been nothing for it but to fall back on first principles and common-sense. Conferences have been and are still being held, to decide what is to be done with the rising generation.

The question asked is—What are we to aim at; what shall we seek to make of the young or to do for them? We may leave the moral and religious aspects of the question out of account, although, as it turns out, substantially the same answer is returned whether the question is narrowed to its intellectual bearing, or taken to refer to life as a whole. One party, by far the largest, having taken for their motto the Baconian *dictum*, “Knowledge is power,” contend that we must store the juvenile mind with all the useful information possible, establish what they call Modern or Real Schools, and see that the scholars give most attention to those branches of knowledge that will stand them in the best stead in after life—to wit, the three “R’s,” Political Geography, Modern Languages, Political Economy, the history of our own times, the laws of health, useful science, and so forth. We may call these the Informationists. An opposite party, whom we may term the Educationists, ask, *not* what knowledge is worth most, but what style of mind is the best. Knowing that the youthful mind is plastic and may be shaped, or rather is living and will grow, they ask what is to be our intellectual type or ideal; and how are we to direct and stimulate the growing mind, so that it shall attain to this likeness at maturity. The Educationist’s theory is that his business is primarily with mind, and not with knowledge merely as such. It is plain, therefore, that his aim will be to develop a maximum of intelligence, sagacity, judgment, inventiveness, and so forth; not knowledge, but the power to test knowledge and to extend it will be his end. “Take care of your pupil’s intelligence, and his knowledge will take care of itself,” is the motto of this extreme.

* Annual Address of the President of the Education Society, delivered in the Memorial Hall, October 15th.

Between these two, the Educationists and the Informationists, come the inevitable middle-party, some of whom, like Mr. H. Spencer—he, not being a schoolmaster, can still lift up his voice,—maintain that the way to secure the best intellectual training is to impart the most useful knowledge, it being utterly contrary to the beautiful economy of Nature that one kind of culture should be needed for the gaining of information and another as a mental gymnastic. Happy shall we be if this very optimistic view prove true. Others, however, remind us that, whether this be so or not, we *must* put instruction before education, for all can acquire some knowledge, and knowledge is indispensable; but only a few have the brains which will justify and repay a thorough intellectual training. Like all ideals, that of the thorough-going Educationist is, they say, impracticable: we must climb down from that height in this work-a-day world. We *must* impart useful information—that is the *sine quâ non*; but of course so as to ensure all the intellectual training we can. Now, perhaps these practical people are right—in accordance with the old adage, we may go safest in the middle; still, the possible stigma of theorist notwithstanding, I propose to-night to do my best to support the case of these thorough-going Educationists. Even if too ideal for present realization, it may yet—if there is no other objection to it—be of some service to us, the service that all ideals are: may encourage us to “pitch our projects high,” for, as G. Herbert quaintly put it,—

“who aimeth at the sky,
Shoots higher much than he that means a tree.”

By way of exhibiting the general aim of my Educationist friends, I will quote from a speech made by one of them in a debate soon after the Jordan catastrophe. The ardour of inexperience is all too evident in the talk of this speculator. Had the schoolmasters been spared to us, they would soon have shewn him up. Replying to one of the Informationists, he says:—

“Unquestionably, knowledge is better than ignorance, as a Chinaman is better than a Bushman, or the instinct of a beaver superior to that of a bat. But what we want is, not to maintain the level to which we have attained, however high; but to continue progressing as we have progressed. A stationary state may suit Celestials, but is not for men, at least not for men of our temperament and climate. It may be hard for biologists to explain how it was that the ancestors of the first beaver steadily improved their place in nature, while all the beavers since have forgotten nothing old and found out nothing new. But we understand *Homo sapiens* better than *Castor fiber*, and here it is easy to show that the *tendency* of your Pædagogik is to stereotype, even if it does nothing worse. But “*je gelehrter, desto verkehrter*,” say the Germans: your scholar, weighted with erudition, looks as wise as an owl and is as stupid. The very ponderousness of his lore hampers him: when others, less encumbered, have a chance of going right, aided by their native wit, he blunders through learning ill applied. But, even at its best, when others’ knowledge is not crammed but digested, the direct result of your method is only to make a walking and talking arithmetic or grammar, or what you will, by means of the printed material you have supplied. Your patients know that twice two are four, and thrice three are nine, but you have done nothing to help them on to know the product of $(a+b)^2$. They are experts, no doubt, up to a

certain point, just as the Chinese weavers were, who could not invent the power-loom, and never dreamt of sewing-machines. What there is to know, they know it; but it is thought rather than knowledge that helps the world on, and your well-informed person is apt to be innocent of all originality and inventiveness: he moves within the range of his tether not less blindly, if less surely, than a creature guided by instinct. In fact, if we call instinct 'unthinking imitation,' we may say that you, practical men as you vaunt yourselves, propose simply to replace heredity where heredity fails, and to make the rising generation the mechanical occupants of their grandfathers' shoes by a process as unreflecting as that by which they acquire the use of their grandmothers' tongue.

"We, theorists as you call us, value knowledge as highly as you. But knowledge is a human product, and, as we are not content in other cases merely to appropriate and live upon what our fathers leave us, neither can we be in this. We want the young, then, not so much to imbibe knowledge like so many parasites, but to enter upon such a training as shall enable them to produce it. We ask therefore, not what things are useful to know, but what men have done the most to extend knowledge, and to dispel error. Of such men were Descartes, Bacon, Newton, Locke, Humboldt, Darwin. You may smile, but we do not think it idle to inquire concerning the mental characteristics and habits of thinkers like these, in the hope of thereby perfecting our educational methods. *Poeta nascitur, non fit*: yes, that is true, and you cannot make a silk purse out of a sow's ear—that also, spite of its inelgance, we frankly allow. But we are not going to attempt the impossible: unless therefore you can show that the working of a great mind has nothing in common with that of a small one, that to see how an excellent artificer plies his craft, will not make the ordinary craftsman more cunning,—your satire is little to the point. Moreover, we do not forget the man of average type; for we call upon psychologists to tell us, if they can, by what steps the thinking mind grows; why one mind should be muddled and another clear; how it comes that one who is learned runs all to leaves, and another, though unlearned, yields valuable fruit; and so on.

"No doubt, but for the calamity that has befallen us, discussions like these would be out of place. We should have our schoolmasters and our school systems, and these, we may suppose, would go on improving like everything else. We don't talk of rebuilding London, but, if it should be burnt down, many plans would deserve consideration that at present would receive none. This then is our position: we have to begin *de novo*, and therefore it is worth while to go into fundamentals. Man has attained his present power as thinker and originator by gradual growth; and, though no continued and systematic attempt has been made to produce men independent and daring in thought—nay, spite of very rigorous measures to repress all such,—their number seems steadily to have increased. But now it is the prerogative of reason to attain quickly and surely, by conscious adaptation to what Nature will only reach blindly and slowly, perhaps not at all. Human intelligence has not always been as good as it is; why should it always remain no better? If the race has developed thus far, as it were, without reflexion, may we not hope, once we have some insight into that development, to direct it scientifically to a nobler consummation than we could once have dared to wish? Let me, in conclusion, support what I say by two quotations from a few copies perished in the Dead Sea, were we not assured that schoolmasters knew it by heart—I mean Locke's 'Conduct of the Understanding.'

"'The business of education, as I have already observed,' says Locke, 'is not, as I think, to make the young perfect in any one of the sciences, but so to open and dispose their minds as may best make them capable of any, when they shall apply themselves to it. It is therefore to give them this freedom that I think they should be made to look into all sorts of knowledge, and exercise their understandings in so wide a variety and stock of knowledge. But I do not propose it as a variety and stock of knowledge, but a variety and freedom of thinking;

as an increase of the powers and activity of the mind, not as an enlargement of its possessions.'

"And this is exactly our position. From first to last, not mental possessions, but mental power and activity are to be our end; economic considerations as to the usefulness of knowledge should never divert us from educational considerations as to its value as training, nor should we ever be uneasy [Had this good man ever heard of examinations?] that our pupil's store of knowledge is less than it might be, if we thereby ensure to him a maximum of mental vigour and resources. Concerning the means to this end, hear Locke again:—

"'We are born with faculties and powers capable almost of anything, such at least as would carry us farther than can easily be imagined: but it is only the exercise of those powers which gives us ability and skill in anything and leads us towards perfection. . . . What incredible and astonishing actions do we find rope-dancers and tumblers bring their bodies to! . . . All these admired motions, beyond the reach and almost conception of unpractised spectators, are nothing but the mere effects of use and industry in men, whose bodies have nothing peculiar in them from those of the amazed lookers-on. As it is in the body, so it is in the mind: practice makes it what it is, and most even of those excellencies which are looked on as natural endowments will be found, when examined into more narrowly, to be the product of exercise, and to be raised to that pitch only by repeated actions. . . . Would you have a man reason well, you must use him to it betimes, exercise his mind in observing the connexion of ideas, and following them in train. . . . For, though we all call ourselves reasonable creatures, because we are born to it, if we please; yet we may truly say, Nature gives us but the seeds of it: we are born to be, if we please, rational creatures, but it is use and exercise only that make us so, and we are, indeed, no farther than industry and application have carried us.'

"What we want to re-establish, then, are, not schools where grammar or any other of the seven mediæval arts or where any of the seventy times seven modern sciences shall be inculcated into the plastic minds of youth, but rather gymnasia, to use the happier German phrase, where these minds may shape and strengthen themselves by exercise. How far we employ letters and how far science, will depend upon their fitness to this end, and upon their educational value. But before ever we enter upon this all-important question, it behoves us to ascertain definitely whether it is Utility that we are to aim at, or Ability, which, however, means a higher utility in the end."

So much from the Educationist, and, as I said, what I propose to-night is simply to play the part of an advocate in favour of such a scheme. First of all, I think it may be shown that the Informationist theory is founded upon a mistake, but a very natural mistake. In providing for the education of the young, society is in one respect like the stork that invited the fox to dinner: the grown man is apt to think that what he feels he needs most is what is best for the young too. Now we might suppose that if men are really so much less intelligent than they might be, or at least might have been, that this defect would affect them most keenly. But, though men have agreed to immortalize the precept of the ancient sage, "Know thyself," it is far from their wont to act on it. Nay, if it does not seem too paradoxical, we may say it is just their familiarity with self that is in the way. As our great philosopher has said: "They dispatch the ordinary business of their callings by rote as they have learnt it; and when, by their want of thought or skill, they are led into mistakes, and their business succeeds accordingly, they impute it to any cross-accident, or default of others, rather than to their own want of understanding; that is what nobody discovers, or complains of, in himself." But their want of definite information they cannot but realise, when they see others prosper by the possession of facts and figures of which they are themselves in ignorance, and so, like simple Mr. Tulliver, they say—"I want my son to be even wi' these fellows as have got the start o' me with having better schooling. Not but what, if the world had been left as God made it, I could ha' seen my way, and held my own wi' the best of 'em." And so it comes that, while what the young minds especially need is training,

what they get is learning. Moreover, if it is learning, not training, that is demanded, it is to those who give evidence of learning rather than to those who are best fitted to train the mind that the young will be entrusted; and if there is a tendency in mere learning to repress originality and independence of thought, then the whole atmosphere and traditions of our schools will tend to foster bookishness and a blind surrender to authority; to bring out pedants and literary fops at the top of a school, and leave those at the bottom a crowd of muddle-headed Dunderheads. Whether this sort of thing ever happened in the past we can now hardly know, there being no schoolmasters to tell us; but it seems a real danger in the future if the Informationists are to have their way.

But, after all, is the Educationist ideal in any sense a possible one? We should not pay much heed to one who, descending on the superiority of flight as a means of locomotion, should urge us to set about evolving wings. The difference, however, is that, whereas man has long been known as a featherless biped, he has never been considered altogether brainless. Now, there is more justification than we might at first suspect for Locke's analogy between the process by which the tumbler acquires command of his limbs and all their physically possible movements, and that process by which a thinker acquires the control of his ideas and the power to follow out their various trains. These trains of ideas are to all intents and purposes an instrument over which the man obtains the mastery by effort and practice, just as his limbs are instruments which the tumbler gradually learns to use. This ideational mechanism, we may say, is put together by association. A naturally calls up B, which has so often followed it; the smell of beans makes "thoughts of bacon rise," at least it did for Southey, who, perhaps, loved that dish; and talking of dishes recalls the spoon, which it has chased so long, &c., &c. What this mechanism is when left to itself we see to some extent in reverie, dreams, or delirium. Again, we see its working when imperfectly controlled in the rambling rigmarole talk of a country bumpkin or of a man in his dotage, where the crowd of ideas that attend the mention of a familiar place or person detain, and perhaps divert, the narrative, so that the original thread, as we call it, is hopelessly lost.

But there are, in all, three ways in which these complex trains of association may be interfered with, and in the same three ways new links of association may be formed. One of these is by the impressions made upon our senses. Thus a vivid flash of lightning may entirely change the course of our thoughts, and may afterwards become associated with what was present in our minds at the moment it occurred; and it was of course by orderly successions of such senses-impressions that our earliest and firmest trains of ideas were formed. Again, the flow of ideas may be interfered with by any discourse, spoken or written, which has any sort of significance for us. In listening to a speaker, or in reading a book, we are really allowing another person to play, as it were, new tunes upon our "ideational mechanism," if we may for a moment compare this to a sort of musical box; and if we are sufficiently attentive, and his tune sufficiently coherent and impressive, its several parts may be so firmly associated in our mind as to form a more or less permanent addition to our *répertoire*.

But now it is important to note that in both these ways we are comparatively passive: we have to be awake and attentive, and no more: the ideas are put in order for us, the tune is played, and we do but follow. The third way in which our ideas may be interfered with, and rearranged, is in thinking out for ourselves, instead of merely following or understanding what another has thought out. Here we make our own tune; that is to say, keep playing and trying backwards and forwards, up and down, till the tune is there. This is much harder work, but not impossible work for any sane human being, as we shall see if we look at it for a moment a little more closely. All thinking, strictly so called, may be represented as a quest or search among the stock of ideas we possess for some idea or group of ideas which we shall know as what we want when

we have found it, by its relation to some idea from which we start; much as we should know that a particular key on a bunch was the one we were in search of by its opening a particular lock. All this we are familiar enough with in solving problems, guessing riddles, and the like. Now the process of search, stripped of all details, consists simply in following out the various trains of ideas that offer themselves till the right one presents itself; in at once abandoning any given train as soon as it is seen to be leading us away from the end of our search; and in steadfastly refusing to entertain the most inviting side-trains that, as we say, would throw us off the track. And this is all the power we have, all the power any one has: the highest thinking and the humblest is nothing at bottom but such discursive selection or intellection, running to and fro, rejecting what does not fit, and attending to what does fit, or promises to fit. And all the effort involved consists in withdrawing attention and so repressing the unsuitable trains, and in concentrating attention so as to render more vivid and distinct those that seem relevant. Whatever be the physical process underlying this effort, it is certain that strength and endurance of this kind can be obtained by exercise, and in no other way; and the power and the patience to sustain such efforts have probably been all the secret there ever was in many of the greatest achievements of human thought. It is undeniable that some men start with more mental strength than others, as they may too with more bodily strength; and that in some the individual ideas are exceptionally vivid, and their movements unusually rapid, just as in some men the flexibility of their limbs and the fineness of their muscles may from the outset exceed the average. But to talk of the inspiration of genius, if by this is meant not that the works of great men excel those of the rest, but that they are produced without effort and by a sort of happy chance—this is assuredly a vain superstition, and plainly contradicted by facts. Faraday, thinking doubtless of himself, said:—

"The world little knows how many of the thoughts and theories which have passed through the mind of a scientific investigator have been crushed in silence and secrecy by his own severe criticism and adverse examination; that in the most successful instances not a tenth of the suggestions, the hopes, the wishes, the preliminary conclusions have been realized."

But the man from whom we learn most in this respect is Kepler: he is for psychologists what Alexis St. Martin was for physicians; his mind was so transparent—or rather he made it so by his writings—that one can see all its workings. Kepler compared himself to Columbus and Magellan. As they describe not only the lands for which they set out, but narrate all their wanderings in getting there, so he sets forth not only the astronomical discoveries for which competent people account him a genius, but also exposes the many erroneous trains of thought he had worked through first—matters which, as Whewell says, other persons conceal from the world. And this he has done so fully as seriously to damage his reputation with those who know more of knowledge as a product than of the processes by which it is ascertained and established.

But Whewell, in his *History of the Inductive Sciences*, shows much more insight in his estimate of Kepler:—

"What is Invention," he asks, "except the talent of rapidly calling before us many possibilities, and selecting the appropriate one? It is true, that when we have rejected all the inadmissible suppositions, they are quickly forgotten by most persons; and few think it necessary to dwell on these discarded hypotheses. . . . as Kepler has done. But all who discover truths must have reasoned upon many errors, to obtain each truth; every accepted doctrine must have been one selected out of many candidates. . . . Kepler certainly was remarkable for the labour which he gave to such self-refutations, and for the candour and copiousness with which he narrated them; his works are in this way extremely curious and amusing, and are a very instructive exhibition of the mental process of discovery. But in this respect, I venture to believe, they exhibit to us the usual process (somewhat caricatured) of inventive minds: they rather exemplify the *rule* of genius than (as has generally been hitherto taught) the *exception*."

But to what end, it may be urged, and, perhaps, with some

impatience, all this reference to genius and discoverers? Simply to bring out the fact, for such it seems to me to be, that far the most important difference between such men and others is a moral and not an intellectual difference. It is not so much that they have more ideas, more of the raw material of thought than other men, as that they have more activity, more energy, more patience in using that material. Those who have walked through Swiss valleys have, I dare say, noticed some clothed with well-cultivated fields, and others, physically their exact counterpart, yet comparative wastes; the difference being solely due to the varying amount of industry and enterprise possessed by their respective inhabitants. So it is in intellectual matters: all men have the material for vastly more thinking than they do, but few will be at the trouble to turn that material to account. Great discoverers, no doubt, have often had not only more industry and more patience in manipulating their ideas, but also more ideas to manipulate—this, however, to a large extent as the very consequence of previous industry. And as with a bigger abacus you can do a bigger sum than you could with a small one, or at least do it more easily, so, *ceteris paribus*, the man with five talents' worth of ideas, whether they be a gift or acquired, can do more than the man with one. But it is a pestilent heresy to suppose there is any difference of kind, under cover of which men may lay the blame on Nature, and, as Locke says, "complain of want of parts when the fault lies in want of a due improvement of them."

And yet in one sense it is true there *is* a difference in kind between the men who habitually use their own wits and those who are content to carry about the products of other people's: there is a difference in kind, but it is an acquired difference. The one has lost by long neglect a power which the other has improved by exercise; as the Indian fakir, whom we may regard as furnishing the antithesis to Locke's tumbler, has lost altogether the ability to move limbs which were once like those with which the tumbler performs such marvels. It is to prevent the atrophy of this power by which a man may marshal and control his mental trains, and to develop it by well-directed exercise, that should be the paramount end of intellectual training. As to the desirability of such training, and the difficulties in the way of it, much may be said; of its possibility there can be no question.

The Informationists seem to assume that it is not desirable, but this is a matter that requires to be discussed. I ventured to say, just now, that their position was a mistake, and a natural mistake, and I do really think that it has been taken up, as a matter of course, as the only obvious one, rather than deliberately adopted after an examination of the alternative. It would hardly be a caricature of this position if we were to formulate it after this fashion:—Division of labour is the characteristic of an advanced society. Not all men have a talent for music or painting, not all have the time for it; let those who have, become composers and artists: it is enough for the rest to appreciate their work when it is done. It would be a bad thing if every man were his own doctor or lawyer; why should every man be so specially trained just to think? Surely it is better to leave this to those who are best fitted for it, and let others be content to make use of the results. In a certain University town where I happened to be a good time ago, I remember hearing a story which showed that this doctrine, whether held by teachers or not, was certainly held by some of the taught; to wit, by those called passmen, who are content with the lowest degree, as distinct from the classmen, who strive for honours. Now, there was a certain private tutor, or coach,—in build, you must note, more like a colossal Jupiter than a man,—who had a great reputation among these sluggish minds, the ground of which was thus expressed by one of them:—"You know, it's just this way: if you go to M—, he'll try to show you the reason to think it this; if you go to N—, he'll prove to you that it may be that; but the big 'un, he always tells you straight what it *is*." And this brings out exactly the difference between education and instruction: whereas, under the educative process, the pupil is pre-eminently active; in being instructed, as distinct from trained, his attitude is com-

paratively passive and receptive. In the one case he does himself what, in the other, is not only done for him, but done for him without his knowledge. To instruct or impart knowledge is an art depending mainly on logic and rhetoric; in giving information, we seek to save the recipient the trouble of thinking, as far as we can. And, to this end, what we have discovered in one order and by one method, we impart in another. The object being to save the reader's or hearer's time and effort, we avoid the roundabout, tentative route of our original exploration, and take the shortest cut to the result. In merely imparting knowledge, we endeavour as well as we can to gauge the calibre of the recipient's mind, and to break up what we have to teach into such morsels as he can take in. And if we have gauged rightly, and the recipient was interested, we have added to his store of knowledge, but not necessarily to his power of acquiring new knowledge for himself and others.

Nay, there is no small danger, if we are sufficiently skilful at this art of mental foraging and cookery, that the said recipient may lose both the power and the inclination to improve his own mind in any other sense than to store it with such information as is brought within the grasp of his present means of ready comprehension. And this, alas! is all that a good many people mean by improving their own minds or the minds of others. Sir J. Lubbock describes a species of ant—one which it would never do to send sluggards to, albeit its name is *Polyergus*. It has been fed and cared for by slave-ants of another species so long, that one of them, which he kept alone, showed no signs of eating in the midst of plenty, and would certainly have been starved to death, had he not put in a slave, which at once fell to, washed and brushed the idler, and filled his mouth with food. Now, I am not sure that there are not some people in the world who bear some resemblance to this ant—diligent readers of science primers and literature manuals, who would see nothing new and learn nothing fresh from all the wealth of Nature and Art, if left to themselves. For, in the application of his knowledge, and in the acquisition of knowledge which is above his present powers of comprehension, a man must use his wits; but in the mere reception of what he can now understand, there is very little more concerned than passive attention and memory. Division of functions and the saving of trouble must be excellent things; for the sake of them we are willing to depend upon our fellow-men to such an extent that, if the social machine were to break down, we should, many of us, be more helpless and more destitute than savages. But, I suppose, no one would contemplate with complacency the prospect of any amount of ready-made thought, however useful or entertaining, obtained at the price of a mind, flaccid and enervated, strong enough to be led, but too weak to move alone. New knowledge, it must be admitted, often sets men thinking, but chiefly among those who were in the habit of thinking before, and who perhaps, as self-taught men, have had to do a good deal of thinking to make that knowledge their own. Over against these must be set those who are fattened for the examination market, or pampered by periodicals and magazines. Not in this fashion can we remain as Milton described us in his day:—"A nation not slow and dull, but of a quick, ingenious, and piercing spirit, acute to invent, subtle and sinewy to discourse, not beneath the reach of any point the highest that human capacity can soar to."

But if it is not only possible, but desirable, to make intellectual training paramount, it will be well to face its difficulties and to consider the question of ways and means.

The greatest difficulty of all will be, not the inertia of the scholars whose minds have to be set in motion, but the mental inertia of the learned men whom we seem so apt to think the fittest to teach them, whose minds will be loathe to forsake the old courses, and, like complex automata, may be thrown hopelessly out of gear if one attempt to work them in new ways. It is not an easy thing to impart to others what one has learnt oneself; but it is, at all events, much harder to practise that maieutic art by which others shall be enabled successfully to impart to us the thought that is quickening but latent in their own minds. According to the Educationist

theory, the knowledge which is the instrument of education, will be a secondary matter, not only for the taught, but also for the teacher: according to the Informationists, it is the first thing for both. The mere knowledge, however genuine, of classics or mathematics, must be held scarcely more a guarantee that its possessor is competent to educate growing minds, than it would be held to be evidence of surgical efficiency that a man had made for himself a stethoscope or a forceps. Having made his tools, the educator must learn to use them, and here a large part of his professional training will consist in thoroughly understanding the material he has to use them on. It is true, of course, in general that there is nothing like leather, and for me leather is logic, leather is psychology. But, apart from such mere theoretical preparation, as to which I will ask for grace to say no more, there is another professional preliminary on which Educationists will lay much stress. So long as the information to be imparted is the main thing, the teacher with a view to his future work will address himself to books and the learned—nay, he will perhaps hardly know that teaching is to be his future work; but, having made himself learned, he may find that, without intending it, he has thereby made himself eligible to teach. But so soon as education becomes the ruling idea, a demand will arise for the practical experience of successful educators, and, as barristers read in chambers, and young doctors walk hospitals, before they try their 'prentice hands on other men's purses or persons; so *mutatis mutandis* with the young schoolmaster and his future pupils. Experienced educators will not shine as doctors in divinity, but will be the lights of their own profession; and by degrees we shall obtain from them a pædagogic literature invaluable in smoothing the way of their successors at starting.

As to the ways and means of actual educational work, once the teacher is equipped for it, little need be said, and there is only time for little. Still I may try to enumerate two or three points very briefly.

First, before a child can think, he must have ideas to think with. But clear and vivid ideas can only be got at first hand. Nature, therefore, must come before books, things before words. This seems to point to an early training in observation and in simple mathematics, and to make one doubt the propriety of crowding out such lessons in order to make the most of the greater retentiveness of early years.

Training the senses, as it is not very happily called, is, if it is anything, so much active intellectual exercise. It is, moreover, the only intellectual training possible to a child before it has acquired some considerable command of language and independent control of its ideas. Further, it is the best and surest way of attaining to this higher development. And nothing can be more absurd than to suppose it is not necessary. In one way, certainly it is not necessary: if sound in sense and limb, even a child left to run the streets acquires a knowledge both of things and their names. But its knowledge in the one case is at least as defective as it is in the other; and the systematic training which is allowed to be needless and useful for the second, is just as needless and useful for the first. By a judicious training in observation, you begin to make a child think when it is five years old. But if the child is left to itself till it is seven or eight, and then put to learn spelling and tables, it is really so smothered under a mass of crude and shapeless ideas loosely strung to a tangle of vague words, that thinking is impossible. There are a few animals in the world that can eat hard for a whole summer, and then, after a good sleep, grow into something lively and handsome; but these are grubs, and not children. If a child is to think to any purpose, he must think as he goes on; as soon as the material he has gathered begins to oppress him, he must begin to think it into shape, or it will tend to smother intellectual life at its dawn, as a bee is drowned in its own honey for want of cells in which to store it. But, on the other hand, nowhere is it more true than here: to him that hath shall be given, and he shall have more abundantly. Nothing makes us so capable of more knowledge as knowledge already assimilated. But to

let the years slip by, when everything is fresh and activity is abounding, without directing and fostering the budding desire to appropriate and comprehend, is the easiest and safest way to make a dullard of even a bright child.

Neglect of facts so obvious may be explained in three ways:—(1), through the general ignorance and distaste for natural science which has prevailed till lately; (2), through the equally general ignorance and contempt for the study of mind which prevails still; (3), through the enormous inertia that pertains to all educational institutions. There are scores of men, who ought to know better, who evidently imagine that comparing the structure of different flowers or studying the physical geography of the surrounding country, is little better than a means of keeping the more stupid boys out of mischief: "the boys," as one schoolmaster says, "who can never hope to sail in the great language-ship and see the world." In music, French, drawing, and natural science, says this writer, the most backward in classics can take refuge! How thankful we should be for small mercies. Such a man, it is quite clear, never dreams that long before his great language-ship is fit for sea, long before the beautiful feats of mental gymnastics—the Latin hexameters and Greek iambics, he admires so unreservedly—are possible at all, exercises of intellect the same in kind with those which afterwards engage us when handling abstracter and subtler subjects, may be begun. Because a man is said to use his senses when he observes, observation is confounded with sensation, which is about as wise as confounding art with paint-brushes. The reason why intellectual training—for that is what this so-called sense-training really is—can begin sooner with sensible objects, is not merely that these are the first material the mind secures, but that the conceptions it forms are so much more distinct when the objects that embody them are before the senses. All life through, we feel that we can realize what we are thinking about, when we realize it literally by being face to face with the facts. But this is much more important for children whose constructive imagination is feeble and uncertain.

Besides this advantage of holding from the first a shaping and formative attitude towards the material furnished by the senses, there is a further one still, and one no less important. Observation cannot be done by proxy, and a child judiciously trained to see or verify for himself, is much more likely to rely upon himself, and know the full meaning of truth, than one trained only through books, who receives more on trust, and is, therefore, more in danger of blind deference to authority, and what follows upon this—excessive dogmatism. In this way, the study of facts corrects one disadvantage of the study of literature.

A second point which seems to me specially deserving of mention in connexion with intellectual education, though it only applies to a later stage, is this,—viz., that the scholar should be told something of the methods by which facts are ascertained and theories tested, should be made acquainted with the history of knowledge and discovery, and of the steps through which a great truth has been reached; instead of being left, as according to the Informationist theory he would be, ignorant of anything but positive results. Many, I dare say, who have been put to learn mathematics from modern text-books must have wondered how any mortal man could have thought out such original theorems in a form so pat. No doubt he didn't; and our amazement is as misplaced as that of the St. Kildan, who, on seeing the aisles and vaults of Glasgow Cathedral, and knowing nothing of scaffold, ladders, centering, and the like, declared it incredible that men could ever have scooped out a cave as fine as that. But such amazement is apt to be discouraging; perhaps the megalithic architecture of the Egyptians would have been sooner imitated if their devices for transporting such massive stones had survived them. Of course, by the Informationist such knowledge will be ticketed as curious but not useful, to be buried in a museum like the "brown bess," or Newcomen's steam-engine. But if knowledge is not merely for useful application or for amusement, the knowledge of the methods by which knowledge is elaborated and verified is of the first im-

portance. To intrude processes of manufacture may be a superfluity or an impertinence in dealing with mere consumers, but they are the last things to hide from those who are themselves to produce.

Only one point more—the last upon which I shall venture. The difference between certainty and probability or conjecture, between truth and opinion, is one which the educator should not fail to make felt. It is not of course desirable that subjects which are still mainly in the hypothetical stage should be taught in schools and to beginners. But what is merely probable or supposable, or matter of opinion, so far exceeds in quantity what is certain, that we cannot go far in any direction without coming upon it. Nor, if matters of probability and opinion could be wholly excluded from the scholar's attention, is it desirable that they should be. To keep him in an atmosphere of real or apparent certainty, when in after-life three-quarters of his intellectual occupation will be to deal with uncertainties, is as foolish as it would be to keep him out of the water till he has learned to swim. It is one of the most serious objections—and, as far as I can see, almost a fatal objection—to mathematical training, that it deals so exclusively with matters of demonstration in which there is no room for doubt, and therefore no exercise in the balancing of probabilities—a study which, as Professor Huxley has said, "knows nothing of observation, nothing of induction, nothing of experiment, nothing of causation." Of course the whole point of this remark bears against the *exclusive* study of mathematics: as furnishing a training in connected thinking and formal exactness, mathematics are invaluable.

To know that you don't know, is also knowledge; and perhaps there is no knowledge a man can possess that will do more to save him from error than this clear perception of his ignorance of the line at which certainty ceases and doubt begins. To know this well is the first step towards suspension of judgment and deliberation. He who has but vague ideas of proof, who knows nothing clearly and distinctly, or takes his knowledge on trust, cannot distinguish the certain from the uncertain, the obscure and doubtful from the self-evident and demonstrative, opinion and prejudice from truth and knowledge. We see here again, then, that no effort should be spared to make the young mind intellectually exacting, and, where certainty is not forthcoming, proportioning its conditional assent to the evidence. But that its judgment shall thus answer to evidence as a ship does to her helm, and to nothing but evidence, long and careful training will be required. To attain this end, as well as on account of the preceding, it is every way desirable, if not necessary, that the teacher should be acquainted with logic. True, men think correctly without logic, but they think more correctly with it. As Mill well says: Where there is a right way and a wrong way, there must be a difference between them, and it must be possible to find out what the difference is; and, when found out and expressed in words, it is a rule for the operation. If any one is inclined to disparage rules, I say to him, Try to learn anything for which there are rules, without knowing the rules, and see how you succeed. And, as part of liberal education, I even think that logic should not be confined to the teacher. The exorbitant pretensions of the earlier logicians and the foolish disputations they encouraged have brought logic into undeserved contempt. No doubt, it requires to be taught with discretion, and not by a logical pedant; but, well taught, it affords training by exercises and problems, as Professor Jevons has shown, quite as valuable as the training afforded by mathematics, and a very desirable supplement to this. But, over and above logical training, a profound love for truth must be quickened and kept vigorous in the student's mind. This is the crown and glory of an intellectual education, and to produce it is the sublimest office the teacher has to discharge. And here, as in so many other things, his example will be more effective than his precepts. There is nothing harder than to be at once enthusiastic and exact, free alike from the frigid uniformity of a calculating-machine and the indiscriminating fervour of a partisan. But between these lies safety.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN AMERICA.

By MISS COOPER,

Head-mistress of the Edgbaston High School for Girls.

(Continued from p. 347.)

"It is estimated that not more than 4 per cent. of the new teachers annually appointed throughout the country have had Normal training. In Massachusetts, where the proportion is comparatively large, more than one-fourth of the teachers employed have attended Normal Schools, and above one-fifth are graduates. These considerations lead to certain obvious conclusions. Graduates of Normal Schools represent but a small proportion of public school teachers, and should be employed where they can most effectually direct and stimulate teachers who have had inferior opportunities for preparation. The ordinary law of supply and demand must be depended on to furnish the majority of teachers. Some system of graded Normal Schools must be adopted, or the greater number of the schools will be left to inexperienced or altogether untrained teachers. Normal institutes and summer Normal Schools offer a ready means for accomplishing this graduation. It is only necessary that they should be organised and conducted upon some rational plan, and that their support should be included as a constant item in estimates of expenses. Teachers or Normal institutes are already authorized by law, and provision made for defraying their expenses in the following States:—Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, and Wisconsin. In the following States, institutes are authorized, but no specific appropriations are made for the purpose:—California, Kentucky, Maryland, Oregon, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia. In the States in which there is no enactment on the subject, institutes are held under the auspices of State and county superintendents or other school officers. The institutes continue from three to six days, under the direction of able instructors.

"The day sessions are occupied in giving instruction in the methods of teaching elementary branches and the details of school management; the evening sessions are generally devoted to conferences and lectures. The summer Normal Schools continue in session from two to six weeks. Teachers are formed into classes. The time is divided between methods of teaching and the branches to be taught.

"The course of instruction and training represented by chairs of pedagogics differs somewhat from that to which the term 'Normal' is applied, which, as we have seen, includes drill in methods of teaching. The scope of the former is indicated by the expression 'philosophy or science of education,' a comprehensive subject, which in our country has heretofore been confined within very narrow limits.

"Such chairs are reported by the Universities of Michigan, Missouri, and Iowa. The presidents of Harvard, Yale, Columbia, and Johns Hopkins have given repeated expression to their views upon the importance of including the subject in the University curriculum, and there is reason to hope that it may ere long be introduced in the institutions which they represent. It cannot be doubted that an endowed chair of pedagogy in a University rich in men and resources would be a powerful influence in the educational affairs of a State. The efforts made from time to time under the auspices of Johns Hopkins and Harvard Universities to afford special instruction to teachers have been noted in my reports. Teachers' classes in early English and in the theory of numbers were maintained at Johns Hopkins during the year. The president and fellows of Harvard University have voted to maintain in the scientific school, for the benefit of male graduates of the State Normal Schools, scholarships of the annual value of 150 dols. each, not exceeding eight in number at any time. These scholarships are to be divided among the Normal Schools as the State Board of Education may from time to time determine, and the appointments are to be made in the first instance for one year, on the recommendation of the principals of the schools. Reappointments are to be made by the scientific faculty. The value of this, and of every other endeavour to bring scientific knowledge and correct methods of scientific study to the attention of the teachers of our common schools cannot be over-estimated. Such knowledge finds its application in all arts and industries, and in all measures for the preservation of health and life; and it offers the only means of dissipating the fears and superstitions, and correcting the foolish practices arising from ignorance of the phenomena and laws of nature. Whatever may be the comparative merits of different courses of study in a scheme of liberal education,

it must be admitted that nothing is more useful in the condition of life for which the majority of our youth are preparing than this 'lore of common things.' It is to be feared that those who conduct our Normal Schools do not fully appreciate the responsibility which rests upon them with reference to this phase of public intelligence. It is in their power to determine the character of our public school instruction, and the interest which is manifested by the liberal appropriations for their work is undoubtedly due, in part, to the conviction in the public mind that common school instruction should at a certain stage diverge from that which is the accepted basis for prolonged study or for professional training, and should therefore be entrusted to teachers specially prepared for the high service. Graduates of Normal Schools ought to have that understanding of our history and institutions which will enable them to impart notions of public law and obligation to the future citizens, and that familiarity with our resources, products, and industries which may be acquired in laboratory practice and among the collections of museums of natural history and technology. It is from a deep conviction of the importance of these institutions that I have endeavoured from time to time to call the attention of those in charge of our Normal Schools to the means of increasing their illustrative material and of keeping constantly informed of new discoveries in science. In 1876 there was prepared under my direction a manual of a limited number of the common native trees of the Northern United States, which was intended to give concise descriptions of these species of trees, together with some account of their uses and their range of growth in different parts of the country; to accompany this were prepared sets of dried botanical specimens of the leaves and flowers, together with sections of the wood of each species. These specimens and the accompanying manual the office proposed to use as loans to those Normal Schools giving assurance of interest and co-operation. It was hoped through this initiative that the teachers throughout the country would become familiar with the information so greatly needed among the people in regard to the planting, cultivation, and uses of trees, and the protection of our forests.

"I have repeatedly urged attention to the explorations, surveys, and similar enterprises conducted by the general government, and I am of opinion that it would be a wise measure to establish weather stations at all permanent Normal Schools, and thus put them in direct correspondence with the National Meteorological Bureau, and to train all Normal pupils in the rudiments of theoretical and practical weather science.

"In pursuance of the ideas here advanced, I have expected that Normal Schools would derive a great benefit from the pedagogical library and museum of this office.

"Here the teacher may learn, as nowhere else in the country, how far appliances have been devised in aid of the instruction in the several branches, and here, too, some idea of the variety and extent of the literature relating to the subject of his profession."

So far, then, as the United States have adopted general views on the subject of the training of teachers, I think they may be summarized as follows:—

1. Training is an essential preliminary to the profession of teaching.
2. There is a scientific basis for educational practice, and no training is complete which does not include the study of scientific principles.
3. The age at which training may begin varies from 17 to 20 years, and the course of directly pedagogical training occupies from one to two years.
4. Theoretical knowledge must precede, or be concurrent with, practical experience.

I hope I have not tired you with all these details. I might easily add to them, for I have omitted even to mention several interesting institutions which I visited; for instance, the Normal School at Washington, and a High School for coloured people at Philadelphia, where I heard the head-mistress give a lesson to the students who were just completing their second year in the training class, both teacher and pupils being coloured. But I will refrain.

And now, in conclusion, may I be allowed to offer a few practical suggestions for forwarding the work of educational training in Birmingham? I should scarcely presume to do so, but I know that the subject is just now very much in the thoughts of some leading educational workers amongst us.

We teachers have had many reasons for gratitude to Mr. George Dixon, and I am especially glad to have this opportunity of expressing my own deep sense of indebtedness to him for his generous aid in this very cause of educational training, that I have so much at heart. Such liberality and public spirit as Mr. Dixon has shown are most encouraging, especially to one who, like myself, is given to indulging in "visions of the wonders that shall be."

The principal object which I believe would be best for us to have in view, and to work for, is the establishment of a chair of Education at Mason College. There are many reasons why this close connexion between liberal and professional training should be encouraged, amongst which I may mention—(1) the provision for training without leaving home, (2) the contact between students with different orders of thought and different aims of life, (3) the opportunity thus afforded to all teachers to share in that general theoretical training which forms the best basis for all grades of teaching.

There might be a diversity of non-professional studies for the student-teachers, but the professional course should include Psychology, Logic, Physiology and Hygiene, the History of Education, and the study of Method and School Management. No student should be admitted under the age of 17, and I am disposed to think that 18 would be a better minimum.

A preliminary examination should be passed, for which such substitutes as the London Matriculation, the Oxford or Cambridge Senior Local, some part of the Oxford Women's, or Cambridge Higher Local Examination, or the certificate of the Oxford and Cambridge School Examination Board might be substituted.

There might be a one year's course, and a more thorough two years' course; and in connexion with the last I should like to see established one or two travelling scholarships, to be awarded on the result of an examination held at the end of the two years' course.

Some study of practical teaching might be done at the College under the direction of the Professor of Education, and this would follow the plan which I have mentioned as adopted at the Bridgwater Normal School.

In addition to this, the students should have facilities in the schools of the town for the study of that part of the work to which they wished especially to devote themselves. They might begin as observers, then become teachers' assistants, and then teachers under the inspection and criticism of the Head of the school to which they were attached.

This practical course ought to extend over a year, and I should like to see it postponed to the second year of training; but, where this proved a difficulty, it might be begun in the second term of theoretical study.

The students, on leaving, should receive a certificate for theoretical work from the College, and for practical work from the school in which they had taught. They might also take other teachers' examinations, as they were found helpful to them in the various branches of work in which they wished to engage.

This is a very hurried sketch, but I shall be glad to answer, to the best of my ability, any question concerning details that you may wish to ask.

Does the scheme seem to you Utopian? To me it appears simple and practical enough, and, even if it be somewhat visionary, it may not be utterly worthless. In these days there is not much fear that we teachers shall prove blind to the present time and its every-day demand for practical and routine work. And one reason I plead for a thoroughly scientific study of the scientific principles which underlie our work is, that I believe that such philosophic study is one great friend to those lofty hopes and noble aspirations which raise the teacher's calling to its highest level.

Mr. Turner's paper on "German Class-Books" is unavoidably held over till next month.

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EDUCATION SOCIETY.

MEETINGS FOR THE MONTH.

Memorial Hall, Farringdon Street, E.C., 7.30 p.m.

Dec. 10th.—“Class Books.” Reading. Miss LAWRENCE.

The Journal of Education,

OCCASIONAL NOTES.

“HAVE you no word to say on the burning question of Overpressure, a question which occupied one section of the Social Science Congress, and which has flooded the columns of the dailies and weeklies during the last month?” Our answer to this and numerous other letters with the same burden is, that from the mass of contradictory evidence, unsupported in most cases by any statistics, we have failed to arrive at any definite conclusion, and can only return a verdict of “not proven.” The doctors are alarmists, the inspectors sceptical, the parents (as typified by Lady Harberton and Mr. Bullen) evenly balanced; and the elementary schoolmasters, who ought to be the best judges, are, like Christian, too anxious to be rid of their own burden to pay much heed to their children. The duel between Sir F. Sandford and Mr. Heller threatens to outlast the Trojan war, and the pity of it is that (to borrow Carlyle's paraphrase), while the kings play the devil, the children must pay the piper. The handful of small dust that would stop all these buzzings is *medical inspection*. We have before us the form of report that is filled up monthly by the Government Inspector for every Belgian school, and returned to the Bureau d'Hygiène. Such a report would give us not only the sanitary condition of the school, but every case of illness or indisposition, and, as far as ascertainable, the cause of it. Will not Mr. Mundella, who is not too proud to take a lesson from foreign schools, introduce next Session a School Medical Inspection Bill?

THE *Standard* must have acted on the proverb that any

stick is good enough to beat a dog with, when it published, on the 6th, the article entitled “The break-down of the new Education Code.” Such a mixture of animus, distorted facts, and absolute mis-statements, is rare, even in party papers, and the recantation that appears on the 12th, “from another correspondent,” is equally rare and creditable to the journal. It is premature to form any opinion on the working of the Code; but to say that “all good judges agree that it is a failure so far,” is a reckless statement that of itself convicts the writer of absolute want of judgment. Enough evidence has reached us to make it clear that, in general, good teachers like the New Code, and that good schools profit pecuniarily by it.

THE one point that the *Standard* critic makes is really a point in favour of the Department. As it has not been contradicted, we may credit his surmise that a large number of Inspectors' reports have been returned for revision. Assuming for the nonce that the Inspectors are infallible, he argues that the machinery has broken down and is only kept going by a *deus ex machina*. The true inference, it seems to us, is, that a genuine effort has been made to substitute individual judgment for mechanical routine, and at the same time to eliminate the personal equation by the supervision and regulation of a central Board. We hold no brief for the Code, which is very far from our ideal; but all the changes are undoubtedly changes in the right direction. We have no sympathy with the Schoolmasters who demanded a more elastic Code, and now complain that it is a nose of wax. They are not only ungrateful, but illogical.

ECHOING Luther's sentiment, Archdeacon Farrar said the other day that, were he not a minister, he would fain be still a schoolmaster. A worthy ambition, but we have our doubts whether the endeavour to combine both professions be equally admirable. However that may be, those bishops are surely inconsistent who will have none but clerical head-masters, and yet refuse to ordain assistants on their masterships. Mr. Fry, the new head-master of Oundle, complains in the *Guardian* of the dilemma in which he found himself at Cheltenham. His chief very rightly refused to allow him to take pastoral work, and his bishop, very wrongly (as we hold), refused to ordain him unless he took a curacy. Such a refusal is still less defensible in the case of those bishops who, like the Bishop of London, are guilty of kicking away the ladder by which they rose. That Mr. Rutherford and Mr. Welldon should have been compelled to go to Canterbury for ordination, seems to us outrageous.

IN an educational map of England, such as that which has been issued by Messrs. Johnston, Bradford, Birmingham, Manchester, and Liverpool might well be marked as our northern quadrilateral; and Mr. Forster, in his speech at the opening of the new speech-room of the Bradford Girls' Grammar School, substantiated the claim of his borough to rank among the four. Bradford was the first

town that availed itself of the Endowed Schools Act, and the Commissioners' Scheme has given the town, instead of one ancient and antiquated foundation, a revived boys' school, and a no less vigorous girls' school. The latter has safely passed through the maladies incident to childhood, and the present extension marks at once the liberality of the townspeople and the popularity of the school.

ON the higher education of women, the most original speaker would find it hard to say anything new, and Mr. Forster's witty retort on the old school of motherly education, that we never hear that the great object of a boys' school is to make good husbands, must not be taken too seriously. But his parenthetical remarks on the future of day schools are well worth attention. Mr. Forster sees that with all their merits (which they do not hide under a bushel) our great public schools are not an example for the education of the whole country. Even in a rich country like England, the number of men who can afford to pay from one to two hundred a year for their sons' schooling is limited. And, apart from the question of cost, Mr. Forster holds that for all classes, except perhaps the very luxurious, it is better that boys, as well as girls, should be under their parents' roof whilst they are getting educated. The other side is well represented by a contributor in another column.

A WITTY contemporary has dubbed Sir John Lubbock the modern school-boy. After reading his speech at the Bristol University College Club, we are inclined to emphasize the latter half of the *sobriquet*. No one, except in irony, would address Sir John as a sluggard, but in going to the ant he has ceased to consider the ways of Public Schools, and his utterances on that occasion were not wise. If he had read the papers contributed to this Journal by Public School masters he would hardly have stated that science is still regarded by them as an unimportant extra; and, with the head-master of Clifton at his elbow, it was rash to assert that four hours a week was the maximum assigned to the subject. As a matter of fact, the maximum at Clifton College is fourteen.

WITH Sir J. Lubbock's speech it is interesting to compare what Prince Giglio, the prize-winner on the classical side, has to say. Here is Lord Coleridge's testimony to the undergraduates at Yale:—

"From the time I left Oxford, I have made it a religion never to let a day pass without reading some Latin and Greek; and I can tell you that, so far as my course may be a successful one, I deliberately assert, maintain, and believe that what little success has been granted me in life has been materially aided by the constant study of the classics, which has been my delight and privilege all my life to persevere in."

The moral, we take it, is not the obvious one of the shield, but rather Praed's:—

"That there are many ways to Rome,
And more than one to Heaven."

UNIVERSAL suffrage limited by an educational test is

now the law of Belgium for municipal elections. The last number of the *Nouvelle Revue* contains an account of the parliamentary commission which preceded this Act, carried in the last session of the Belgian Chambers, and shows how the law is now working. An examination of the 8,357 militiamen enrolled in 1882 showed that 22 per cent. could not sign their names correctly. A further examination of those who had been at school from four to six years revealed an equally astounding amount of ignorance. For instance, to the question, "Who make the laws?" only 19 per cent. gave an approximately correct answer. When asked to name any illustrious Belgian, 67 per cent. named a foreigner. The present qualifying examination consists of simple questions in (1) Practical Morality, (2) the Elements of Cyphering, (3) Standard Weights and Measures, (4) Geography, (5) History of Belgium. The immediate result has been the establishment of schools for electors at Antwerp, Brussels, Ghent, and other large towns. Fancy franchises have found no favour with English politicians, but we see no reason why the next extension of the suffrage should not be qualified by such a test. It ought, at least, to commend itself to the best men of both parties. Even Proudhon (*Propriété c'est le vol* Proudhon) desired to confine the electorate to real political capacity. It is reported that the member whose amendment in this sense on the last Reform Bill was sent back to him by the chairman, has been taking lessons in calligraphy. But we fear that the disfranchisement of the *analfabeti* will never be a popular cry.

"*Poeta nascitur, non fit*, but the dominie *nascitur unfit me judice*." "Teachers purchase their knowledge of the educational rocks and shoals by running foul of them with infinite risk and loss, just as the Irish pilot proved his acquaintance with every rock on the coast by first striking his vessel against one, and then exclaiming, "And there's one of them!" "Not many days ago the reverend Head-master of King Edward's School, Birmingham, told me that the first class he ever undertook he taught quite as well as any he had taught since, and that his own was not a rare case." We have strung together three random utterances of Dr. Hodgson, and will only add that we hope that Mr. Vardy has been misreported. What should we think of an artist who boasted that he had never improved on his first picture, of a physician who told us that his diagnosis had been as perfect at five-and-twenty as it was at fifty? Another testimony to the necessity of training, we lit upon in an unexpected quarter. Paracelsus, after he had resolved to "teach mankind some truth," says:—

"Only then I found
Such teaching was an art requiring care
And qualities peculiar to itself;
That to possess was one thing, to display another."

So wrote a layman some fifty years ago; but we professionals have only just reached the stage of thinking that there may be something in it, and that the experiment is worth trying on a vile body.

THE Pennsylvania Teachers' Association has been discussing Normal Schools, and we gather from the Report some interesting facts and useful hints. There was, it seems, a few months ago, a severe onslaught on these schools in the House of Representatives, the Opposition alleging that there were too many of them, and that they furnish an insufficient supply of teachers, by reason of the graduates drifting into other professions. One of the Principals, Dr. Raub, points out the inconsistency of the two objections, and asks whether the State expects to buy a life lien on the services of an honest teacher for fifty dollars—a lower price than is paid for “a saleable member of a caucus.” The State of Pennsylvania, we may explain, pays this sum to every graduate who signs a contract to teach for two years in the common schools. Dr. Raub wishes that Pennsylvania should follow the example of the more progressive States, and make its Normal Schools entirely State-supported. It will be time enough to discuss this question in England when we have the free school system of America.

SHOULD Normal instruction be entirely professional, or a mixture of professional and academic teaching? Dr. Highbee, the State Superintendent, gives much the same answer as our Inspectors of Training Colleges would. The students, he tells us, at entering, are as ignorant as English pupil-teachers, and their first terms are fully occupied with under-shoring the shaky foundations of knowledge. But, even with students properly grounded, there can be little doubt that the combination of learning, and learning to teach, is the best method. Dr. Highbee's complaint is, that their Normal Schools do not make the combination. “We teach Psychology as we would in a University. What we want is the teaching of Psychology as applied to the teacher's craft.” Our advice would rather be—“Teach Psychology as you would in a University, but be careful, as you teach, to add and emphasize its special application to Education.” What is wanted for this purpose is a text-book, and this want we have reason to believe that Mr. Sully's forthcoming work will supply.

AN anecdote of Dean Stanley reaches us which caps Dean Burgon's story of Dr. Davidson adding the date of the year in the College accounts. Stanley was examining at a public school; the papers were looked over, and nothing remained but to add up the figures representing the results, which were arranged, as usual, horizontally opposite each name. Unfortunately, instead of adding up the rows from right to left, Stanley proceeded, as in an ordinary addition sum, to add up the columns from top to bottom. Hence it followed that each sum represented, not the total marks gained in all the subjects by each boy, but the total marks gained by all the boys in each subject. The story goes on to say that Stanley went in despair to the Head-master and asked him for the names of the half-dozen boys who ought to head the list, as his sums would not come out right.

No child was less the father of the man than Anthony Trollope. The contrast between his joyless, spiritless, sordid boyhood, and his jovial, exuberant, rollicking manhood, is so glaring that the *Spectator* invents a special hypothesis to account for it—a pupa-type of men who lie *perdus* till they are thirty. Any one who has had experience of the home-boarder system as it existed at Harrow some thirty years ago, will find in it a sufficient explanation of the phenomenon. The home-boarder was the social pariah. Masters hated him because he did not pay. He was minished and brought low by constant roll-calls and vexatious hours. Boys took their cue from the Masters, and he was hustled, harried, hounded, by “frolicheroes mischievously gay, lords of the street and terrors of the way.” If indeed he was exceptionally clever or good at cricket, he was absorbed into a boarding-house, but if he was a tradesman's son, or manifestly poor like Trollope, Heaven help him! Besides, though it does not appear from the autobiography, Trollope was a “cocky” boy till the spirit had been knocked out of him. A relation of the present writer remembers him hoisted on a high stool in Butler's hall and forced to declaim, “My name is Trollope, from the Norman land my great-great-grandfather with William came. He slew three wolves, *trois loups*, Trollope, my name.” The declamation was followed by a shower of ancient penny rolls kept in stock for the purpose.

AFTER all, it may be said, there was no great harm done, and the story only proves how small the part that schools and schoolmasters play in the formation of character. Trollope, like Lord Lawrence, survived his five scourgings in one day, and his twelve years of tuition in nothing but the dead languages. The fallacy is almost too obvious to need exposing. Drowned mariners suspend no votive offerings; it is only the survivors who write autobiographies. And even these exceptionally strong swimmers bear the traces of their early buffetings. The warm-heartedness, the downright honesty, and the healthy animalism of Trollope's character attract us in the memoir; but there is a hardness of outline, a want of atmosphere, which mars the picture, and for this defect his school must be held in some part responsible.

ACCORDING to the Hungarian newspapers, a number of petitions for dispensation from studying the Greek language have been recently addressed to the Ministry for Worship and Education in Hungary. It had to be explained to the petitioners that the law passed last year regulating the *gymnasia* did not include Greek among the subjects the study of which may be dispensed with at the discretion of the Minister. Compulsory Greek was first introduced into Hungary by the Austrian absolutists, and is still unpopular, encountering the combined opposition of the educational Conservatives and of the Radical scientists. Great Zeus himself, the omnipotent Premier, had to intervene in its favour during the debate. He admitted that he himself had formerly entertained the

current objections against it, but an enlarged experience of the world had convinced him that it was impossible for Hungary to set itself against the common practice of civilised Europe—which in Hungary practically means Germany.

THE papers have been making merry over a "General Intelligence paper" lately set for an entrance scholarship examination at a public school of some standing (Haileybury, if we are rightly informed), and the *Pall Mall* pronounces it the most delicious piece of fooling it has seen for many a long day. To ask boys of twelve the meaning of *Swedenborgian*, *verve*, and *crusted port*, does seem slightly absurd; but the paper as a whole is not a bad one, considering the conditions it had to satisfy. The first of these was, to baulk the examiners. The second, to detect originality. In these respects the question about the flight of the chaffinch and the blackbird, the motions of the horse and cow, the action of the sun in putting out and of the poker in reviving a fire, are excellent. The amateur critics, who gird at the pedantry of masters and the precocity of boys, seem to imagine that a paper of this sort is intended to be floored, the fact being probably that the top boy did not gain a fifth of the full marks assigned. Whether the system of awarding scholarships to boys of twelve by competitive examinations can be justified, is another matter.

THE slashing review has happily gone out of fashion, but, appearing in an undergraduates' journal and witty as that on Mr. Sayce's Herodotus, we cannot help welcoming "an occasional survival." "The dead were buried, sometimes alive." Such are the remarkable words in which Mr. Sayce describes the sepulture of Persia under the Achæmenians. The practice must always have been difficult, and we readily believe that it was not strictly Zoroastrian; but we are not without suspicion that the editor himself has performed a mixed rite of this kind over the immortal corpse of Herodotus." So the review begins, and there are other jokes as good. A similar Irish bull hastened the end of the unfortunate *Reader*. An obituary notice of Meyerbeer began, "The grave has just closed over the mortal remains of the greatest of our living composers." In noticing the Cambridge review, we would deprecate any inference as to the merits of Mr. Sayce's book. Mr. Sayce is no scholar, in the narrower sense of the word, and does not pretend to be one. We hope next month to discuss his work as an historian and archæologist.

A MARLBOROUGH master, in the *Marlburian*, quotes a letter he has received from Mr. Huxley, correcting a misstatement of the writer about the young of the oyster. "My statements," says the Professor, "are based on my own direct observations. If I can help it, I never write about matters of this kind without taking the trouble to know the facts of my own knowledge." Society naturalists and popular lecturers are admonished in the same letter

to see for themselves, and not to trust even to Mr. Frank Buckland; but it is not for this reason that we quote it. Masters are not so apt as they once were to assume omniscience, but it is rare even now to find them (or any one else) going out of their way to acknowledge their blunders.

THE appeal which we made in our last number has been responded to by more than five hundred of our readers, and we are in consequence enabled to present, as we desired, a list in order of popularity of our living English Men of Letters. Interesting and instructive as such a list must be, we never supposed that it would determine their true rank, or the position that they will hold a century hence. The first five or six are easy to determine, but after that we confess that it must be more or less of a lottery. Lecky and C. Reade, Freeman and H. Taylor, are incommensurable quantities, and in some points we cannot help echoing Mr. Arnold's opinion that numbers are always bad. Only respect for a *clarum et venerabile nomen* can have put Mr. Gladstone 13th. Those who voted for Mr. Stubbs can never have read his works. It is indeed impossible to separate matter and manner, but we think Mr. Arnold would say that style is three-fourths of a man-of-letters. Freeman is a far greater historian than Froude, but Froude must be put higher in our list. Even Herbert Spencer seems to us a doubtful claimant. One more observation we owe to the prize-winner. He notes that, of his decemvirate, seven are Oxford men. "Certainly, with Milton, Bacon, Dryden, Coleridge, Byron, and Wordsworth in the past, Cambridge can afford to let Oxford gain on her a good deal, but that she is gaining in this respect seems undoubted."

BOARDING SCHOOLS AND DAY SCHOOLS.*

AS Boarding Schools may be said, at present, to be practically in possession of the field in England, the attack on them should, perhaps, precede the defence in this discussion. I will begin, therefore, by enumerating briefly the most important matters charged against them.

Looking first to the more general issues raised, we find Boarding Schools condemned by other than mere Educationists, for depriving the parent of his right, or, as it should perhaps rather be said, abetting him in the abdication of his duty. It is not, of course, implied that the parent can be expected personally to communicate to as many children as he may possess, all the instruction they are to receive; but that he is in such sense responsible for the superintendence and direction of their training that, by resigning the whole of it into the hands of others, he inflicts irreparable loss, not on the children only, but also on himself, and tends, by his example, to lower the standard of parental duty in the nation. The relationship of fatherhood ought to mean vastly more than in the average case it does among us. Boarding Schools tend, by making it possible for a man to disclaim, or delegate, with easy conscience, the most onerous, but also the most binding and most elevating of his responsibilities, to perpetuate and spread the evil. They undertake the education of the sons at the expense of the education of the fathers. But if, as surely is the case, the relationship ought to be equally a training for them both, is it not difficult to defend a system under which

* A Paper read to the U. U. Society, Nov. 10th.

the first ten years of a child's life having been spent in the nursery, the next ten are spent at the Boarding School and the University, and, through them all, other men stand *in loco parentis* to the boy whose actual father is alive to occupy the place himself?

It is, of course, no longer fair to speak of Boarding Schools, in the language of the last century, as necessarily barbarous. Gibbon's transition from "the tenderness of parents and the obsequiousness of servants, to the rude familiarity of his equals, the insolent tyranny of his seniors, and the rod of a cruel and capricious pedagogue"; and Locke's "mixed herd of unruly boys learning to wrangle at 'Trap, or rook at Span-farthing," recall to us merely the progress we have made in manners. But still—and this brings us to what may stand for the second head of the indictment—is it not a loss which the holidays, with their somewhat strained and provisional state of domestic relations, do not succeed in making good, that a boy should be deprived, during the years when his nature is most plastic, of the influence of mother and sisters, and domestic surroundings generally, in softening, and civilising, and refining him? Admitting the reality of the advance which has been made, admitting that we are no longer vulgar at school, nor cruel, nor barbarous,—is not our improved type, even to-day, a little hard, a little *garche*, wanting a little in graciousness, and in the finer kinds of tact? Is not some of the cynicism, of which we hear so much complaint, in the stage that succeeds to school life, due, in part, to the one-sided experiences of school? Would not the relations between men and women in our country be more natural (and, perhaps, some graver evils, too, be lessened) if womankind had not been surrounded for us in our boyhood by an unnatural atmosphere of strangeness?

For in the holidays, as I have hinted, it is almost impossible that a boy's home life should be entirely natural. The solutions of continuity are too frequent, and of too long duration. He is at first, to some degree, a visitor; if the holidays are long, he may arrive before the end of them at being, to some degree, a nuisance; there is rarely time to pass into the third, or natural stage, in which he can be dealt with simply on his merits. Nor should we omit from the account his sisters' more than corresponding loss; for in their case no compensation can be pleaded.

Leaving, with such meagre indication of their general bearing, the class of objections connected with the family, I pass to another, of which those who best know Boarding Schools will be readiest to appreciate the force.

The true cure for the evils incident to the collection of boys together in large numbers, is seen to be, hard work and hard play. This means, regulated work and play—a full time-table, and compelled obedience to it. "Some head-masters," Mr. Oscar Browning says, "have even kept cards arranged in pigeon-holes, on which is written what every boy in the school ought to be doing in every one of his waking hours, both in work and play." And this, absurd as it may seem, is only the exaggeration of what I suppose that all head-masters find it useful actually to do. The time-table of a great school is a marvel of constructive ingenuity. That is one aspect of it. But, besides this, it is a code of limitations on the best boy's intellectual liberty. Deplore the fact we may, and prove it the lesser of two evils, or worse in theory than in practice,—still, it is certain that to keep the average boy out of mischief, and minimise his waste of time, we do fetter the freedom of the best,—narrow the number of possible outlets for energy, force some talent into uncongenial grooves, starve other talent of the food most wholesome for it, and crib, cabin, and confine the genius in our crusade against the loafer.

Somebody, perhaps, will say,—“Is not the multiplicity of studies already a burden to the schoolmaster?—and yet you hint that the curriculum is still too narrow! Where and when are we to stop?” But, such a question fails to meet the point.

What the schoolmaster complains of, is the necessity of teaching so many things to every boy; what we desire is, the liberty for every boy to learn what is most fit for him. Besides, mere contraction of the school curriculum is the

least part of the mischief. It is in the boy's want of time to learn for himself things that are not taught him, that the real evil lies; and, perhaps, still more in his becoming accustomed to have every hour of his time mapped out for him; to do all not illegal things he does upon authority; to resign, or rather never to assume, self-government; to consult the clock for knowledge, not only how the moments fly, but how he shall employ them. Even when the system fails to prescribe, it rarely fails to supervise; and this is but prescribing retrospectively. In so far as in all these ways our system is compelled to substitute mechanical for spontaneous action, in so far must we not admit that the training which it gives is not imperfect merely, but injurious?

That Boarding Schools are, or at least that they need be, more immoral than Day Schools, I do not believe, obvious as this appears to some. If opportunities for evil are greater, as they no doubt are, so, too, are opportunities for resisting evil effectively. Day Schools do not crush it, because, as a rule, they are unable to detect it. Boys are not clean-minded merely because they live at home.

I pass from this to the last class of charges I have time to mention—those which regard the masters.

Boarding Schools, it is often urged, tend to make of the teacher not a teacher merely, nor even a teacher chiefly. They impose upon him other duties—the duties of hotel-keeper. His chief income being derived, not from his form, but from his house, and the difference between large and small profits depending much upon the careful management of details; a still larger part of his time being engrossed with the cares, other than financial, which the domestic management of 50 boys involves, and the interest of this part of the work being to many of the best men keener than attaches to the drudgery of work in school,—we have, in the system of Boarding Houses, an elaborately complete machinery for diminishing our teaching power. Either men neglect one or the other of their duties—their duty to their house, or their duty to their form; or else each duty suffers in the attempt to perform both conscientiously; or else, finding a comfortable income accrue to him without much labour, and being, as house-master and owner of a vested interest, fairly secure of his position in the school, the master becomes lazy before he gets too old for his work, and, after he gets too old, refuses to relinquish it. It is probable that every Boarding School has had its own experience of cases in which the possession of a house has at once spoilt a man for teaching, and made it practically impossible to get rid of him. And, though it is true that only a minority of the staff can be at any time house-masters, yet tutorships, and preparations, and other apparatus subsidiary to houses, drain off no small part of the force even of the younger men; making hard study and research impossible, or difficult, and hindering that continuous growth of the teacher's mind which is the best security that his pupils' minds shall also grow.

These are some of the chief charges against Boarding Schools. They are some, but by no means the whole. I have made no allusion, for example, to the argument that Boarding Schools, by attracting the best masters and the best boys, make the highest education unnecessarily expensive for dwellers in towns; or to various conclusions adverse to the system, drawn not only from the Continent, but from Anglo-Saxon experience in Scotland and the United States; or to Herbert Spencer's complaint, that the habituation of boys in early life to a despotic form of government, and an intercourse regulated by brute force, fits them for a lower state of society than that which actually exists; or to the often-reiterated charge, that the imposition upon backs too young to bear them of burdens of responsibility and government makes most boys either prigs, or hypocrites, or tyrants, and, in the case of the small remainder, tends to exhaust their stock of moral earnestness too early. All these I must mention merely, and others leave unmentioned altogether, that a few words may be said on the other side.

First, it seems not irrelevant to remark that, whatever the theoretical or proved superiority of Day Schools, it is impossible that they shall be made available for all English boys. A

supply of sufficiently good education, brought to everybody's door, we cannot even hope for. Many parents must always continue to send their boys away from home, if they are to get them educated at all, till the time comes when we can have equal educational districts, because the land is all built over. Boarding Schools have thus a *raison d'être* not in mediæval history merely.

Secondly, the ideal parent differs so widely from the actual, alike in the conception of what his duties are, and in his ability to perform them when conceived, that the schools may well consider it, provisionally, even more incumbent on them to supply, so far as may be, his deficiencies, than to inaugurate the slow labour of reforming him by declining to continue in existence. It is not doubtful, as a mere question of probability, that, if not the majority, at least a very large minority, of our boys are getting more morally from the imperfect training of their Boarding School, than they would be getting from their parents, or even from their parents *plus* the still more imperfect training of a Day School. Doubtless, it should not be so; but will any one assert it is not? Of course, it is open to us, while believing this, none the less urgently to insist that it should be a main concern of every educator to raise the standard of parental obligation; and I, for one, consider that to concede, as far as possible, the alternative, by establishing good Day Schools wherever they are possible—*i.e.*, in all considerable centres of population—is upon this, as upon many other grounds, desirable.

I have described, in stating the objectors' case, what I regard as the weak points in the type of boy which the Boarding Schools turn out; but it has also another side which the objectors are prone, I think, somewhat to leave out of sight. To many, the great need of the upper class in modern England seems to be, not so much the reinforcement of the domestic sentiment, nor even the quickening of intellect and fostering of originality, much as we do need these, but rather the escape from selfishness, the ability and wont to act in common for ends which are not personal; the substitution for a self-regarding struggle after low, unrealised, or half-realised objects, of organised common effort under right leadership for public ends clearly conceived. So much of our best material rusts in mere disuse; so much of our best impulse dilutes itself in talk and sentiment; so little do powers of action seem to keep pace with those of vision; so fast, in learning to be critical, do we unlearn self-denial,—that at times the one salvation seems to lie for us in a new birth of public spirit. And, if it be so, surely the great schools supply us with an instrument for forming the right *ἦθος* ready to our hand—imperfect, certainly: I do not even say the best which could be thought of,—I say that it exists, and that it does actually produce results which we may plead against much of our shortcoming. Further, I hold that, in denouncing this shortcoming, there is a tendency to some exaggeration. Even the sacrifice of originality has not been made for no return whatever; nor do I believe it so complete, or universal, as is sometimes assumed. For the great majority, who could never be original, our schools, in virtue partly of their limitations, provide a means of influence and training of which we fail, probably, to make all that we might, but which it would be worse than folly to discard, without some better substitute than has been yet devised. Day Schools could not supply it, if only because they are Day Schools—perfect them how you may, or even, which you cannot, render them available for every one.

On particular points of detail I hope we shall hear more from others; I have left myself no time for their discussion. There is much, for instance, to be said about that Sixth Form system, which we have inherited from Arnold. It is a rough instrument of government at best, and at worst breaks down disastrously. But will those who know it well either declare that, on the whole, it fails, or engage to secure, by better means and at less sacrifice, the results it actually accomplishes? Even the exaggerated athleticism of our Boarding Schools, which we agree in owning as the source of many evils, besides being partly curable and not of the essence of the in-

stitution, might, and very likely would, be replaced, under the conditions with which we have to deal, by something far more noxious.

One's own experience weighs in one's own mind more than much theorizing, and it is, perhaps, to combined experience that the appeal must, in the last resort, be made. For myself, I can say that, though no one can be more conscious than seven years of close acquaintance with the system as house-tutor among 70 boys has rendered me of all that can be alleged in its dispraise, yet, that having had also seven years' experience, as boy, of a great Day School, when I try to weigh impartially the good against the evil, I mostly incline to the belief that, adjudged upon this issue of character, and with reference to existing needs and circumstances, the verdict must, on the whole, go to the Boarding School.

It remains to speak briefly of the masters. Here, too, I think the Boarding School system must be admitted to involve a loss; and here, I contend again, that it is by no means merely loss. Doubtless, house work in its various forms does absorb much of the best men's energy; and, in the case of inferior men, introduces an ignoble element of money-making. I should like to ask those acquainted with the working of the hostel system, how far it has succeeded in overcoming this defect. I imagine that it may do much to minimise it, though at what cost otherwise I cannot tell. But, under the house system, it is surely not absurd to think that the increased knowledge of his boys, the greater individual interest in themselves and not in their minds merely, and the closer personal relations with them into which the master is necessarily brought, may add even more to the total effectiveness of his work upon their education in the widest sense, than want of leisure to study deeply for himself, and dissipation of his energy into various channels, can detract from it. Some of the best schoolmasters are men whose strength would never be known were they confined to the class-room, and who would remain great forces wasted but for the sphere with which house work provides them; to say nothing of the probability that, but for the large number of considerable prizes which it is only possible to offer by reason of this system, the profession would never enlist at all some of its most ambitious and successful members. The number of head-masterships is necessarily limited; and of these at present the majority are closed to laymen. So long, at least, as this restriction is continued, there remains a real necessity for Boarding Houses; and, even when it is removed, it is hard to see how the present large supply of able men is to be maintained, if there are no longer any prizes but head-masterships.

I will make no attempt to sum up the case which I have endeavoured, briefly, to present for your discussion.

EDUCATION SOCIETY.

GERMAN CLASS-BOOKS. By F. C. TURNER, B.A.

F. G. FLEAY, M.A., in the Chair.

BEFORE I turn to the subject of my paper, I wish in a few words to explain how it was that I came to write it instead of obtaining an essay from one of the many gentlemen who are capable of treating the subject in a masterly way. When I heard a fortnight ago from Professor Minchin that his paper on Teaching Physics would not be ready for to-day, it was too late to provide a substitute except by undertaking this subject myself. I have, therefore, had very little time to prepare a paper, and must claim your indulgence for the shortcomings which will be evident in it.

I think I cannot do better than follow out generally the lines laid out by Mr. Storr in his paper on French Class-Books, that is to say, not to set forth a *Methodik* of my own, and judge all books by that standard, but to turn to the books at once, and trust that the principles which underlie my criticisms will appear in the course of my remarks.

And, to begin with, I will pass over, with a few words, two large

classes of books: 1st, those known as Courses, of which I may mention Ollendorff's, Ahn's, and Meissner's "Easy Methods of learning German," Boileau's and Nasmith's "Linguists," Plate's "German Studies," and Macmillan's "German Course." The list might be considerably extended. These books are alike in this respect, that they start with a few words, and exercises upon them, and build up the language upon this basis step by step. They differ only slightly among themselves; the sentences in Ollendorff are perhaps more thoroughly worthless and idiotic than any of the others. Ollendorff is clearly not of the opinion of the student in *Faust*, "Doch ein Begriff muss bei dem Worte sein." Nasmith carries out the principle on which these books are composed most systematically; by elaborate calculations, he has found out which are the words in most common use, and, beginning with the commonest, he introduces them in the order determined by the frequency of their occurrence. He differs from the others, too, in giving a complete grammar. Plate's is, of those I have mentioned, the most sensible and the most scholarly, and his second part is the best advanced exercise-book I have met with. But to all these, as a class, there are several decided objections. In the first place, in schools as at present constituted in this country they are impracticable, for they require that the pupil should begin and work steadily through them from end to end, and this, with the time usually given to German in English schools, would take three or four years; but the arrangement of classes and the independence of masters render this continuity unattainable. This, however, is not the only or most important objection: during the whole time that a pupil is working at one of these courses he learns nothing that is for its own sake worth remembering, he meets with nothing that excites his interest, he goes through the task of learning a language without one gleam of sunshine on his path, he is given no opportunity of exercising his intelligence in mastering the difficulties of the grammar or of observing the philological connexion with his own tongue. That such considerations have weight, is clear from the fact that the best teachers have either never adopted these courses, or are now ceasing to use them.

The other class of elementary books which I said I would pass over quickly, are the Conversation Books. Foremost amongst these comes "Der kleine Lehrer," the German version of "Le Petit Précepteur," which Mr. Storr so vigorously attacked this day fortnight. All are not so bad as this, but all have the fatal faults that they are utterly tedious, and that, at least as far as my experience goes, they do not succeed in what they aim at, viz., in teaching the pupil to converse in German. The best of them, to my thinking, is one which I have never seen in this country, entitled "Deutsches Echo."

Since the days when these two classes of books reigned supreme, several elementary books on entirely different methods have appeared, to two of which I wish to call special attention. The first appeared as long ago as 1857, and in that day stood quite alone as an example of scientific method. I refer to Sonnenschein's "German for the English." The other, Mr. Quick's "Essentials of German," is of quite recent date. In the books I have hereto mentioned, I have not taken the trouble to point out any errors of detail, numerous as they are, because I feel convinced that their days are numbered; but, with regard to these two books, I shall point out frankly what I consider to be their chief blemishes, because I regard them as the best elementary books that we have. Mr. Sonnenschein's book is divided into four parts: the first consists of an etymological study of Grimm's Law, and gives extensive lists of words to illustrate each letter-correspondence in German and English; the second part is devoted to word-building, especially to the noun and verb prefixes, whose meanings, often very vague and difficult to formulate, are skilfully and accurately set forth; the third part, to which all this only forms an introduction, contains several poems, first with interlinear, and later with free translations and notes, explanatory and etymological; the fourth part consists of sentences for retranslation. On the whole, there is little room for criticism in the latter part of the book. The selection of poems is good, the notes are clear and suggestive; the chief objection is, that the extracts, or at least the earlier extracts, are all verse, whereas it seems reasonable that we should begin with prose. The verse has this advantage, that it is more easily remembered; but, on the other hand, the necessities of the interlinear translation demand so clumsy and bald a version of the German, that it would, I think, be better to defer the poetry to a later stage. With regard to the retranslation, Mr. Sonnenschein lays himself open to a severe criticism: he gives sentences the translation of which requires a knowledge of the accident; but the book contains no accident of any sort. This error might have been avoided, as Mr. H. C. Bowen has shown in his little French book, where he has made up a number of variant sentences without requiring anything but just those forms of words given in the text: Mr. Prendergast has done the same thing.

As I said, the point in which the book showed absolute novelty was in the successful attempt to utilise the philological law discovered by Rask and Grimm as a teaching instrument. But, like all discoverers, Mr. Sonnenschein has been carried away by his own discovery, and placed these lists so prominently in his book that many people have regarded them as the end rather than the means. It has led him, too, to give false impressions of the meanings of many words. It is almost a truism that, with the exception of the names of material things, a word in one language cannot be exactly translated by a word in another. There are so many associations and nuances that are lost in a translation, and the word that seems fairly equivalent in one place would give a wrong impression in another; but still, in learning a language, we must associate one word in that language with one word in our own, and it is desirable that that word should be the one which is its most frequent equivalent. I give a few examples from Mr. Sonnenschein's book where this is not the case, adding the omitted meaning in brackets:—*Büchse*, box (gun); *Stoff*, stuff (matter); *Würde*, worth (dignity); *Lehre*, lore, learning (doctrine); *Muth*, mood, mind (courage); *tauchen*, duck (dive); *taufen*, dip (baptize); *Zeit*, tide (time); *umgehen*, to go round (evade); *impfen*, to imp, graft (vaccinate). Such blemishes as these, which are due to the author's thorough appreciation of the value of cognate words as a help to the learner, might easily be removed.

Let us now turn to Mr. Quick's book. We found that the book we have just been speaking of was the first attempt at a rational method of learning vocabularies. Mr. Quick deserves a similar credit with regard to the Accident. The principle on which he works is implied in his title—the "Essentials of German"; he has reduced his accident to the minimum which is essential for beginning to read and write German. He has adopted the two declensions of substantives, and has given the simple rule of Euphony which does away with the apparently exceptional declension of words like *Vater*; he has given the verbs more simply than any other book with which I am acquainted, and has chosen the best classification of the irregular verbs. The simplification of the accident is carried a little too far: the conditional mood is altogether omitted, and *werden* as a principal verb appears only in a short note at the end of a chapter. Throughout the verbs he makes the mistake of giving *zu* with the infinitive, and in the classification of the irregular verbs puts *denken* and *wissen* with *brennen*, etc. These are minor faults, which will no doubt be corrected in a further edition. A more serious objection is, that the book contains no exercises for translation from English into German, whereby the unnecessary labour is thrown upon the teacher of making his own exercises.

One other class of elementary books remains which must be noticed—the First Reading-Books. The view has been gaining ground for some years that in teaching modern languages, especially German, which is not with us usually begun at so early an age as French, it is best to place an author or reading-book in the boy's hands quite from the beginning. Professor Buchheim's "Modern Reader," Part I., in the Clarendon Press Series, seems to be an excellent selection, well annotated on the whole, and with a good vocabulary; though I am told the vocabulary is somewhat incomplete, and, in looking through it, I found two words in the text which were missing in the vocabulary. The notes are not quite free from the faulty translation to which I shall have to call attention in speaking of Professor Buchheim's more advanced works, especially his edition of *Egmont*. For example, "*Zwei Geiger* = two violin players." "The Teutonic expressions *Geige*, *Geiger* are not considered so dignified now as the foreign terms *Violine*, *Violinist*." One is tempted to think that Professor Buchheim has never met with the English words "fiddle," "fiddler." "*Die Wälder düfteten immer sehnsüchtiger*,"—The mountains exhaled their fragrance more and more ardently," might be taken as an example of how Heine should not be translated.

Other books of the same class are: Ravensberg's, which is well selected, but without notes, and has an unsatisfactory vocabulary at the end of each passage; Möller's, which has the disadvantage of being arranged to accompany "A Course"; Storme's and *Ermeler's*, neither of which has any striking merits. Mullins and Storr's *Hauff's Märchen* and Müller-Strübing's *Wilhelm Tell* are arranged as first readers with vocabularies giving each word as it occurs, and including everything that the beginner can require. I have not used either of these books nor examined their vocabularies in detail; but the names appended to the first and Mr. Quick's imprimatur on the second are some guarantee of good work. It is not worth while to distinguish any others out of the crowd of editions with vocabularies of Hauff, Andersen, Chamisso and single works of Goethe and Schiller, the names of which may be found in abundance in the catalogues of Messrs. Williams & Norgate and Nutt: bad translations abound in most of them, and some are not without

instances of ignorance of German, as, for example, the editor of *Faust*, who translates *lispeln englisch*, lisp in English.

When we pass on to the annotated editions without vocabularies, the numbers are overwhelming, and I cannot claim to be acquainted with any large number of them. During the last few years especially, series after series of small annotated editions has appeared. But, among them all, there are hardly any to be found that display the same degree of scholarship that would be required of an editor of a Latin or Greek author. In general, one finds notes where there are no difficulties, and difficulties on which there are no notes; false, or at least clumsy, translations; and idioms unexplained. It is difficult to know how to criticize these books without being tedious. I shall confine myself to the best-known editors, and take examples of their notes. I will begin a page of notes from a book in the Pitt Press Series edited by Dr. Wagner, of the Johanneum, at Hamburg, who is well known in this country as an editor of Plautus and Terence. In all Dr. Wagner's editions his most marked characteristic is the assumption of extraordinary stupidity on the part of his readers.

"*Auflachen*, to set up a laugh."

"*Die Fliegen fangen sich in den Spinnweben, die Wespen sich tüpfeln durch*. This expression is proverbial: weak and poor people are much more easily caught in the meshes of the law than rich and powerful malefactors." [This is a good instance of the sort of unnecessary note that Dr. Wagner frequently gives—heavy explanations of things that are perfectly plain.]

"*Vertheidigen, verrüinern*." [On these curious hybrids there is no note such as one would expect, explaining historically how such words came to be formed.]

"*Lodern* is properly used of rising flames. Anger may, of course, be aptly compared to fire." [This ancient metaphor and the next seem, in Dr. Wagner's eyes, to be confined to his own language, and to be unknown in every-day speech.]

"*Vater* is a respectful designation of an old man."

"*Die Gerechtsame*, the privileges." [A necessary note.]

"In Westphalian *sch* is replaced by *s* at the beginning."

"The heavenly gift which distinguishes us from the beasts is, of course, the power of speech."

"*Die Augen in den Schüsseln*, keeping his eyes on the dishes."

When we read notes like these, we can only suppose that a certain number of pages have been ordered and have had to be filled. It is, however, characteristic of this editor to explain the simplest metaphors. In his edition of *Die Jungfrau von Orleans*, I find notes like the following: "Fear is described as pale, as it blanches the cheeks of the timid; *bleich* therefore = *bleich machend*." "*Treu wie Gold*; just as good gold can stand any test, so his good faith will be proof against all temptation." "*Edeln Zorns*, noble anger, is such as only noble-minded men would feel, and which is due to noble motives."

An editor, still more important both on account of the number and popularity of his books, is Professor Buchheim, whose "Modern Reader" I noticed above. I will now examine shortly the most recent of his editions, that of *Egmont* in the Clarendon Press Series. Excellent critical and historical introductions and arguments, prefixed to each act, give the book an appearance of completeness. Professor Buchheim claims, in his preface, that his edition should be judged by the same standard as editions of Greek and Latin classics. We look, therefore, at the notes in the hope of finding accurate scholarship and careful annotations. We certainly do find there much that is valuable; but still there are many notes that fall below the high standard of scholarship which Professor Buchheim sets up for himself. At the very beginning I find an instance, trifling no doubt, but sufficient to point to the conclusion which I have already indicated, that a German Professor editing books in English needs an English collaborator. "The expression *Tage* in conjunction with a possessive pronoun is frequently used in German to denote the whole life of a man."

"*Ihr sollt dafür auch die Zeche doppelt bezahlen*. The idiomatic expression "*dafür auch*" may here be rendered by 'but then,' to be placed at the beginning of the clause." [The word *dafür* here means "on that account."]

"*Ich bin so schon lange hier*. So strengthens here the term *lange*. It might be rendered by 'altogether,' supplying the word *genug* after *lange*." [It seems obvious from the context that *so* here means "as it is."]

"*Rein schwarz geschossen*. The adverb *rein* is here synonymous with *gänzlich, vollständig, completely*." [Any Englishman could have told Professor Buchheim that this phrase could be exactly rendered into English: "He always hits clean in the black."]

"*Das ist auch seines Herrn Art splendid zu sein und es laufen lassen wie es gedeiht*." ["To spend freely when prosperous," is Dr. Buchheim's translation, which implies a sort of prudence and businesslike management of his affairs so utterly out of keeping with Egmont's

character that it is a wonder he did not reconsider the phrase. I am inclined to doubt if it could grammatically bear this meaning; anyhow, it seems much more natural to translate it, "Let things go as best they may."]

These examples, of what seem to me to be errors on Dr. Buchheim's part, are taken from the first scene. One instance must suffice to illustrate my complaint of baldness of translation: the word *unterkriechen* I notice twice in this play. "Es kommt eine Zeit, wo man Gott dankt, wenn man irgendwo unterkriechen kann." "Endlich find' ich ein Paar die noch nicht untergekrochen sind." The metaphor is at least emphatic, and describes vigorously the panic in Brussels; but, in his note on the second passage, Dr. Buchheim is content to translate it "submit," "yield," a version which seems to me not to be even accurate. I have dwelt thus long on this book because I wish to emphasize my opinion that even the best editions of German authors are very far from being satisfactory.

I have looked through several of Macmillan's Foreign Classics and the Cambridge Editions, and can find little in them to praise; the latter appear to have been hurriedly put together to meet the requirements of the Local Examiners. An exception might be made in favour of Mr. Wolstenholme's edition of *Zopf und Schwert*.

One small edition I have met with which I think deserves very high praise—Goethe, *Select Poems*, edited by Professors Sonnenschein and Pogatscher. It is free from useless notes, and shows a taste and judgment which are usually wanting in such books. If space allowed me, I would quote the notes on one of these poems as an example of the sort of annotation which is really wanted in an edition of a German classic.

So far I have not spoken of the selection of books for reading: those selected by the publishers follow the choice, not always judicious, of the Cambridge Local and other Examination Boards. The tendency of people who select books for reading, independently of examiners, seems to be to confine themselves too much to Goethe and Schiller, and a few standard works like Lessing's *Nathan*, Herder's *Cid*, Fouqué and Hauff's *Märchen*, and Uhland's *Poems*. All these things are good in themselves; but I do not think it is sufficiently kept in mind that reading-books should be of two classes—those to be read through rapidly, and those to be studied. In the former class, plays are of great value, especially modern comedies like those of Benedix, and modern novels, if any amusing ones are to be found, Scheffell's *Ekkehard*, Freytag's and Auerbach's novels and Ebers's historical tales; the German translations of Turgenieff are good, but have all the fault of being too long for a term's reading; Auerbach's *Barfüßle* is short and delightful; for the rest, convenience of length drives one back to Hauff, Zschokke, Heyse, and Fouqué. For exact study, one cannot do better than keep to Goethe, Schiller, and Lessing.

The Grammars that have hitherto been in commonest use, Tiarks's, Aue's, and Otto's, all belong rather under the head of "Courses," as they are arranged in progressive lessons with exercises; this is a disadvantage in using them as books of reference. Tiarks's is very inaccurate and incomplete; Otto's is incomplete and badly expressed; Aue's is, on the whole, good. The best grammars, however, that I have met with are Eve's and Whitney's, and these are, I think, equally good. In the syntax, though they use a somewhat different terminology—Mr. Eve follows the Public School Grammars,—they agree very closely in their rules. Professor Whitney has an excellent chapter on derivatives, while Mr. Eve treats in detail the verb prefixes. In the accidence, neither gives quite the simplest arrangement of declensions: Professor Whitney gives rules of gender, and refers the student to the dictionary for exceptions. Mr. Eve, on the other hand, following the Latin Grammar, gives rhymed lists of exceptions to be committed to memory. These seem somewhat out of place in a book which will certainly be chiefly used as a book of reference. For my own part, I do not think that even in the Latin Grammar, where the rhymed lists are far shorter than these, boys think of the genders of nouns by their aid; but I can scarcely conceive myself at any stage of the process running through a list of 60 words, rhymed or not, to see if *Fach* makes its plural in *er*. The first passage in which I remember meeting with this plural at once comes back to me—

"Ist es nicht Staub was diese hohe Wand

Aus hundert Fächern mir verenet?"

Or, if I look at the list of feminine monosyllables of the strong declension, I find associations enough to tell me of the genders or the plurals of any I wish to use. Take one of them, say *Kraft*. In the same passage that I have just quoted, I find—"Im Anfang war die Kraft," "Du Auszug aller tödtlich feinen Kräfte." And, even for exceptional cases like double plurals, some phrase in which we meet with the rarer form remains in our memory. In one of his first lessons a boy learns that Toggenburg "schickt zu seinen Mannen alle." When he reads *Tell*, and that is quite soon enough for so rare a word, he reads, "Wenn

die Lande ruhig bleiben." It is of no use to anybody to know the gender or the plural of a word which he will never use; but, as soon as a word becomes part of his working vocabulary, he will probably be able to remember some phrase or sentence in which it occurs which will tell him the gender or the plural. It would not be difficult, if it were wanted, to select passages for a first reading-book which would contain most of the difficulties of gender and declension.

It remains to say a few words about books for teaching composition. Of these there are practically only two, Heimann's "Materials for German Prose Composition," and the book which Dr. Buchheim has published under the same title. The early part of Dr. Heimann's book is arranged progressively, to illustrate various difficulties of grammar, and the second part consists of extracts selected from various English authors. The notes, on the whole, only give help where it is required, but in a few places the meaning of the English has not been properly understood.

In Dr. Buchheim's book the first part is much shorter, only 13 pages, of which more than half is taken up with notes. The sentences are said to be selected with a view to introduce grammatical difficulties; as I have not worked with the book, I cannot properly judge of it, but I have not been able to see any reason, either from intrinsic value or from difficulties of syntax illustrated by them, for the introduction of many of the sentences. The notes seem excessive, but Prof. Buchheim would no doubt justify this on the ground that the existing dictionaries are so insufficient as to make notes like these necessary. The passages selected for the later parts seem well selected and well annotated.

An excellent little book has recently appeared, which should precede one of these books,—“Wortfolge,” by Dr. F. Stock. This gives excellent rules for the order of words, a subject to which sufficient attention has not usually been paid in the exercise-books. Dr. Stock makes one great mistake, which somewhat detracts from the value of his book, in giving sentences with the words intentionally arranged in wrong order for correction. Dr. Stock should have remembered that correct composition in a language should be instinctive, and therefore the pupil should never see what is wrong. In his rules he is occasionally a little dogmatic, as when he says: “It would now be wrong to write:—*Ich habe das Haus, welches ihre Mutter verkauft hat, gesehen*”; though, of course, it is better to put the participle before the relative clause. This book, however, is one of the few really accurate and scholarly books I have met with among the number I have looked at during the past week.

It is, of course, very easy to seek out the weak points of others, and very difficult to avoid falling into similar errors oneself. I have the good fortune to have written no book; but I am fully aware of the difficulty of keeping clear of mistakes under the conditions under which most of the books now published are produced, when two or three publishers are competing which can be first in the field with an edition of a selected book. Good work is impossible under such circumstances, and the books thus produced fully merit the utter condemnation passed on them by Mr. Storr's correspondent. I have sought to weigh and consider, but I fear I shall appear to wish to contradict and confute; but I trust that even these disjointed notes may help to bring about the result of which Mr. Storr spoke, that a committee should be appointed to draw up a list of books which are not worthless.

Mr. SONNENSCHN said that the strictures passed by the lecturer on his book were, to a great extent, deserved,—the book is a fragment, being really part of a larger book, which was originally planned, and which Mr. Sonnenschein still hopes before long to bring out. As for the objection made by the lecturer that the translations which are given of many words were only etymological, and not as to their correct current meaning, the lecturer ought to have borne in mind that the object of these lists was to bring out into strong relief cognate words, a subject to which, when the first edition appeared upwards of 20 years ago, no attention had been paid. The defects of the book are due to the fact of its having been written by a young teacher; had Mr. Sonnenschein to re-edit the book, he hopes he could make a better piece of work of it.

Professor BUCHHEIM, after deprecating the discussion of individual books, declared that for the present he will only confine himself to defend his annotations to *Egmont*.

1. The first note with reference to the noun *Tage* is perfectly correct. The lecturer himself does not dispute its correctness, and I presume he merely quoted it in order to intimate that a good English writer would have worded it differently. At any rate, the note is not faulty.

2. The lecturer maintains that the expression *dafür* should be rendered by “on that account,” so that the respective clause would read in English: “but on that account you shall also pay double scot.” Would that be elegant or good English? I do not venture to give

any opinion on this subject, but I must remind the lecturer of the fact that Jetter's speech is ironical, as is evident from his additional remark: “*Ihr sollt Eure Geschicklichkeit bezahlen*,” &c.; and I contend that the irony is best brought out by the idiomatic expression, “but then.” At any rate, my note does not contain any error.

3. The lecturer says that, in the clause “*ich bin so schon lange hier*,” it seems obvious that *so* here means “as it is”! This assertion I must emphatically contradict. The adverb *so* denotes “as it is” when it has a kind of “deprecativ” meaning, as it were. If Buyck had been invited to stay longer, and he would have been disposed to leave, because he had already stayed long enough, his answer, *Ich bin so schon lange hier*, would have to be translated, as Mr. Turner suggests, by “I have been here long enough as it is”; just as we should translate *so* by “as it is” in the colloquial phrase, *Machen Sie nicht das Fenster auf, es ist so schon kalt genug*. But there was no question here of Buyck's leaving or staying, and the only idiomatic rendering is: “I have been here altogether long enough, and I am indebted for much politeness.”

4. The lecturer objects to my translation of *rein schwarz geschossen*, by “he hits the bull's-eye,” instead of “he always hits clean in the black.” He seems, however, to have overlooked the fact that I have also given the literal rendering,—(the word “clean,” accidentally omitted, has long been marked for the next issue);—and, if I have given the translation “he hits the bull's-eye,” it is simply because it appeared to myself and others more appropriate than the otherwise correct literal rendering.

5. It would be perfectly wrong to translate, as the lecturer suggests, the phrase, *Es laufen zu lassen, wo es gedeiht*, by “to let things go as best they may.” This rendering would here have no sense at all, as may easily be seen from the context. The translation I have given is in accordance with an explanation which I found in an old collection of “German Sayings and Phrases.” It may be that I shall yet be able to find out the book where I met with the phrase. I am not in the habit of inventing such things and putting them down as definite statements.

6. The translation of the verb *unterkriechen*, which I have given in Act IV., is perfectly correct. In Act III., it is used in the sense of “to find shelter”; whilst, in Act IV., it is employed in the signification of “to submit,” “to yield.” The citizens were not bound to “hide themselves.” They were only forbidden to assemble in the streets. They nevertheless did assemble, and Vansen, having discovered them in *flagrante delicto*, expresses his approval of their disregard of Alva's orders. My translation is, therefore, in strict accordance with the context of the passage in question.

[By the kind permission of the Editor of the *Journal of Education*, I am able to append a few words in reply to the remarks made by Mr. F. H. D. Matthews, in the last number but one of this paper, on some of my publications. Mr. Matthews asserts categorically that my “Modern German Reader” is “not to be recommended,” because “the vocabulary is often defective, and help is often given where not needed, and withheld in real difficulties. I suppose the writer means, by the rather illogical expression “often defective,” that many words are wanting in the vocabulary. Well, as far as I have been able to ascertain, there are about a dozen words wanting, among which are expressions like *Madame, Prinz, nein, beste*, &c. As regards the help given, I contend that it is nowhere too much for a first Reader; and I also contend that every real difficulty has been explained in the third issue of the book. I think that a fair critic might have done justice to the fact, that my Reader is the first attempt to teach the art of construing German both practically and theoretically. The feature of the etymological Vocabulary, and the Tables of Construction, might, I venture to assert, also have deserved a word of commendation. I will not exhaust the patience of the readers of this Journal by a detailed defence of all my translations, but this much I may be allowed to say: a number of eminent English and German philologists and teachers have declared my Reader to be one of the most systematically worked-out construing guides of the kind.

Mr. Matthews further remarks that my series of German Classics in the Clarendon Press, although almost indispensable to the teacher, seem often wholly unfitted for boys. I am truly glad that we have at last arrived at that stage in which commentaries are considered necessary for teachers. About 20 years ago, when I issued my edition of Schiller's “Wallenstein,” a number of teachers in this country ridiculed the idea of commenting a modern Classic. It is to be hoped, therefore, that, in a few years, it will be equally generally admitted that such annotated editions as mine are also perfectly fitted for the pupils. Mr. Matthews also refers in disparaging terms to my edition of Sybel's “Prinz Eugen.” I presume he had not seen the second edition of that book (just issued by F. Norgate) when he wrote his letter, otherwise I venture to think that his opinion on my performance would have been somewhat different.—C. A. B.

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CONCLUDING MEETING, 1883.

MEMORIAL HALL, FARRINGTON STREET—7.30 P.M.

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The Journal of Education.

EDUCATION AND BODY-GROWTH.

By CHARLES ROBERTS, F.R.C.S.

DR. CRICHTON BROWNE, one of the Lunacy Commissioners, in an article on “Education and the Nervous System” in a popular book on health, just published, makes the following observations on the importance to schoolmasters of a knowledge of the physical development of children:—“Education being concerned with the growth of mind, and growth of mind being dependent on growth of brain, and growth of brain on growth of body, it might be thought schoolmasters would have hastened to determine the laws which regulate body-growth, and to show in what degree body-growth may be taken as an index of cerebral development. The most casual glance at a large school must satisfy any one that, on an average, the children are advanced in their studies in proportion to their height. The smallest are engaged on the alphabet, the tallest are working at Euclid and Horace; while between these extremes there are several intermediate standards, in each of which there is a general correspondence between progress in school work and stature. Both position in school work and height are, of course, in proportion to age. Now, if we asked a schoolmaster in what educational standard a boy or a girl of twelve years of age ought to be, he would at once afford us the necessary information; but if we asked of what height they ought to be respectively, he would be unable to answer us. If we asked him, ‘What is the annual rate of growth for boys and girls between ten and fifteen years of age?’ he would look aghast at our senseless curiosity. If we asked him how much a boy of fifteen years of age ought to gain in weight for every inch gained in height, he would probably think we were insulting him, and show us the door. But these questions deal with facts that are at the basis of education, and the absolute ignorance of schoolmasters of these facts shows that education is not yet scientifically studied.” Dr. Browne supports his position by reproducing a series of tables of stature, weight, and chest-girths, published by me a few years ago in my *Manual of Anthropometry*; and, in doing so, he throws another stone at the schoolmasters by reminding his readers that it is to the labours of medical men that they owe this information, and not to those of schoolmasters, who are so largely interested in it, and in a much better position for obtaining it. With the general tenor of Dr. Browne’s remarks I cordially agree, and they are, indeed, just what I have enunciated again and again, and tried my utmost to prove, during the last ten years; but with his reflections on the indifference to the subject shown by schoolmasters, and the greater interest taken in it by medical men, I certainly do not agree. A knowledge of

the body-growth of children is as useful and important from a sanitary as from an educational point of view, and yet, as the only medical man—I might almost say, the only person—in this country who has seriously studied the question from a statistical standpoint, I have received much more assistance and intelligent sympathy from schoolmasters and schoolmistresses than from medical men; and it is in acknowledgment of the debt I owe to them that I have prepared this paper giving the results of their combined labours, hoping that through the columns of the *Journal of Education* it will reach most of the contributors of the original store of facts on which our knowledge of the subject is based.

The tracings on the accompanying chart, showing the average stature, weight, chest-girth, and strength of arm of the general population of this country, were originally drawn by me to illustrate the Final Report of the Anthropometric Committee of the British Association, read at the recent meeting of that body at Southampton, and are based on the measurements of upwards of 53,000 individuals of both sexes and of different ages. The first portion of the Report deals with the physical proportions of adults as modified by race, nurture, occupation, climate, and sanitary surroundings, and is interesting as showing the results of the various agencies which operate for good or evil on the body-growth of children. An adult Englishman of typical proportions, of the age between 23 and 50 years, has a stature of 5 feet 7½ inches, an empty chest-girth of 36½ inches, a weight of 10 stones 10 lbs., a breathing capacity of 245 cubic inches, and is able to draw with the arm, as in drawing a bow, a weight of 77½ lbs. An adult Englishwoman, of the age between 20 and 50 years, has a stature of 5 feet 2¾ inches, a chest-girth (below the breast) of 28½ inches, a weight of 8 stones 10 lbs., a breathing capacity of 160 cubic inches, and is able to draw with the arm a weight of 40 lbs. Thus the physical difference between adult men and women in stature is nearly 5 inches, in weight 2 stones, in breathing capacity 85 cubic inches, and in strength of arm 37½ lbs. in favour of men. With regard to race, the inhabitants of the Lowlands of Scotland and the North-Eastern counties of England, where the Anglian and Scandinavian stocks predominate, are the tallest; next come the Highlanders and the Irish; next, the Midland and South-Eastern parts of England, where the more purely Saxon element prevails; and, lastly, the Welsh and the South-Western districts, where much of the ancient British blood survives. The average difference between the Scotch and the Welsh is 2 inches in stature and 7 lbs. in weight, while the English fall short of the Scotch by 1½ inches in stature and 10 lbs. in weight; the Scotch and Welsh being heavier in proportion to their stature than the English. Although these differences are not great, they ought to be borne in mind when the proportions of children of different nationalities, found in the same schools, are compared together.

It is when we consider the influence of nurture as determined by the social position and occupation of the parents of children, that we see the importance of studying the body-growth in relation to education. The statistics which have been collected show that the average stature of 966 Public School boys of the age of 14-15 years, living under the most favourable conditions of nurture, is 61.29 inches; while that of 102 Industrial School boys of the same age is only 54.66 inches—the difference between the two classes being nearly 7 inches. This remarkable difference in stature is not, however, a permanent one, but is largely due to backwardness of the body-growth of the ill fed, badly nurtured poorer children; for, if we compare adult criminals and the professional classes as the mature representatives of the two classes of children, we find the difference only 4 inches, the remaining deficiency having been made up at later ages and by an extension of the period of growth. Growth ceases in the professional classes at about the age of 21, while in the poorer, ill-fed classes it is prolonged to the 24th or 25th year. The practical lesson to be learnt from these figures is, that notwithstanding the apparent precocity of the children of the criminal classes, boys of the age of 14-15 years are only equal in body-growth to Public School boys of 11-12

years of age, and the mental development is probably in the same backward condition; and that stature rather than age should be the schoolmaster's guide in classifying such boys and girls for educational purposes. I have given an extreme instance of the disproportionate size of children of the same age, to emphasize my argument; but similar gradations are found to exist throughout the various classes of the population, and, though the differences are not so wide, they are constant and uniform at corresponding ages. For the purpose of studying this subject, I have divided the population into five classes, according to occupations, and the nurture and sanitary condition which they indicate: the first class comprises the professional and other well-to-do classes; the second the commercial classes, such as clerks and shop-assistants; the third, agricultural and other out-door labourers; the fourth, artisans living in large towns; and the fifth, the poorest classes following the least healthy sedentary occupations. The mean stature of men of the age 25-30 years in these several classes is 69, 68, 67½, 66½, and 65½ inches respectively, and their children show a corresponding difference of stature—boys of 11-12 years being 55, 54, 53, 52½, and 51½ inches; and girls 55, 53½, 52½, 52, and 51 inches. In all these classes, except the first (and probably in that it is not so good as it ought to be), there is a backwardness of body-growth, and an extended period is occupied in its completion in proportion as the conditions of life are less and less favourable.

With respect to the dependence of mental development on bodily development, all the evidence we possess favours the view that stature is a safer guide than age, within, of course, reasonable limits. The figures just given show that the most intelligent classes of the community are the tallest, and complete their growth soonest. Among adults, Fellows of the Royal Society are more than 2 inches above the average stature of the general population; while criminals and lunatics are 2 inches, and idiots nearly 3 inches, below it. The same thing occurs among children of the age 11-12 years: Public School boys are 2 inches above the average, while Industrial School boys and idiots are 3½ inches below it. I may also mention, although it does not bear directly on this point, that persons who excel in athletic sports and games, although drawn from the general population, exceed the average stature by an inch; and it would appear from the chart that tall men, and those who show a disposition to increase steadily in weight, live longest, and probably, therefore, live the healthiest and happiest lives.

With respect to the body-growth of boys and girls, the chart displays some curious and interesting facts. It is usual to divide the life of man into periods of seven years, but the chart shows that periods of five years would be more appropriate—at least, during the developmental stage. For the first five years the body-growth of children of both sexes is most rapid, and runs nearly parallel, girls being a little shorter of stature and lighter in weight than boys. From five to ten years boys grow more rapidly than girls, the difference being due, apparently, to a check in the growth of girls in both stature and weight at these ages. From ten to fifteen years girls grow more rapidly than boys, and at the ages between 11½ and 14½ years are actually taller, and between 12½ and 15½ are actually heavier than boys of corresponding ages. This difference is obviously due to a check in the growth of boys, as well as an acceleration in the growth of girls incident to the accession of puberty. From fifteen to twenty years, boys again take the lead, and grow rapidly at first (incident to the accession of puberty), and gradually slower, and complete their growth about the twenty-third year. After fifteen years of age, girls grow very slowly, and attain their full stature about the twentieth or twenty-first year. Thus it will be seen that the body-growth of boys and girls is not uniform at all ages, and the curves of the two sexes are not parallel, but diverge at the ages from five to ten, and afterwards intersect each other between ten and sixteen years. The retardation, or slackening, in the growth of girls between five and ten, and the still more decided slackening in that of boys between ten and fifteen, appear to correspond with each other, and are probably due to

physiological causes (which, however, are not very intelligible), or they may be due to the influence of school life and occupations. It is probably a normal halting, preparatory to the rapid growth which sets in just before, and which also accompanies the important physical changes which take place in both sexes at puberty, and which occur earlier in girls than boys. This absence of uniformity in body-growth in the two sexes, and the earlier physical maturity of girls, are important facts for Educationalists, as they militate against a mixed system of education, except at very young ages; the earlier physical development of girls than boys accounts for their greater mental precocity at ages from five to fifteen years. The annual rate of increase in stature during the slower stages of growth (after five years of age) is rather less than 2 inches, while, during the stages of rapid growth, it is from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 inches, in both sexes. If at any time it exceeds the latter rate, it is accompanied by physical and mental languor which is incompatible with the discipline and mental labour of school life.

The Anthropometric chart is useful for practical purposes quite independent of those which I have just referred to. It will enable parents, schoolmasters, schoolmistresses, and medical men to determine the typical proportions of children of both sexes, either in reference to age, or to stature, or other physical qualities. If we wish to know the typical proportions of a boy, say of fifteen years of age, we run our eyes up the perpendicular line of the chart corresponding to that age, and read off the values (on the scale on the left-hand) where the curves intersect it. Thus the typical proportions of such a boy are—stature 61 inches, weight 96 lbs., chest-girth 29 inches, and strength of arm 50 lbs.; and, if the stature of a boy is above or below the average here given, the value of other qualities can be found by simple Rule of Three. If, for instance, the boy's height is 64 inches, his weight should be 101 lbs., because $61 : 96 :: 64 : 101$ lbs. Another way is to divide the weight by the height to obtain the number of lbs. per inch of stature, and multiply this factor by the height; thus $96 \div 61 = 1.58$ and $1.58 \times 64 = 101$ lbs. A ready, but less accurate, way of finding from the chart the relation between the height and the other qualities, is to find the stature on the tracing irrespective of the age of the individual, and read off the weight, strength, &c., on the corresponding perpendicular line of the chart. But, as the weight increases at a greater rate with age than the height, the weight for height will be understated, unless they both correspond with the age.

The Chart as a School Register.—Another, and, in my estimation, by far the most useful application of the chart, is its adoption as a School Register, on which the actual measurements of boys and girls can be recorded half-yearly or yearly. The existing tracings would serve as standards of comparison, and a child's growth, although it may be above or below the standards, ought to have a course fairly parallel with them. Any marked deviations from the average measurements given in the chart, should rouse suspicions as to the physical well-being of a child although he may not complain of illness, and lead to the suspension of his education and his submission to medical examination. It must not be expected that any child's growth will be as uniform as the average of an immense number of observations, and slight irregularities in the curves of single individuals need cause no anxiety. Although the variations in the weights of different children are often very great, the variations in the weight of the same child (except such as normal growth produce) are the most certain indications of deviations from health, and should be most carefully watched, and they can only be watched with certainty by being frequently recorded in figures, or as a tracing on a chart. In constructing the chart which the Editor of the Journal is good enough to publish in illustration of this paper, I have kept constantly in mind its use as a School Register in which other physical characters than those of stature, weight, &c., can be recorded, a blank page being also added for recording a child's mental development and educational progress. The blank page is, I fear, indicative of the imperfect condition of our knowledge of any uniform methods of describing the mental development of children. It is a page

on which schoolmasters, assisted perchance by Dr. Crichton Browne and other psychologists, should endeavour to construct a chart on which the mental qualities of children might be traced with as much certainty and regularity as the physical qualities I have given on the opposite page. The ingenious scheme drawn up to this end by Mr. Lake deserves careful consideration; and I hope the Education Society will continue its inquiries until its merits have been fairly tested. The statistical method I have employed for determining the physical qualities is equally applicable to mental qualities, the real difficulty being, in the latter case, the discovery of some simple and uniform standards of measurement. I have examined a series of examination returns supplied to me by Miss Buss and Mrs. Bryant, of the North London College for Girls, and I find the figures arrange themselves in exactly the same order for the mental as for the physical stature of the girls: if the figures had been percentage values, I should not have been able to distinguish to which quality they referred.

In conclusion, I have to express my regret that the statistics at my disposal have not enabled me to fill in the curves of growth at all ages; but I hope that, having shown the practical value of those which have reached me, some of the old contributors, and many new ones, will assist me to fill up the blanks which still remain.

NOTE.—Duplicate copies of the chart, of full size, for use as a School Register, can be obtained at the office of this Journal, in loose sheets, at 1s. 6d. per dozen; or, bound in volumes of different sizes, to order; single copies, post free, 3d.

CHASTITY IN KNOWLEDGE.

By MARY BOOLE.

WE are sometimes told by psychologists that a finer type of character can be developed in the absence of religious teaching than under any hitherto known system of religion. Some have been led to suppose that such statements are meant to discourage a belief in the goodness of the Creator. No serious student could make such a mistake; but, as not all young teachers have time to make a thorough study of difficult works on psychology, it has seemed to me that it might be useful to put before the younger readers of the *Journal of Education*, in plain terms, what, so far as I have been able to make out, is the practical outcome of the lessons of advanced medical science on the subject of religious teaching.

Three types of students seem to have, in modern times, arrived at a clear perception of a truth which has been dimly perceived in all ages. This truth is, that sexual instincts, and those faculties commonly called religious, emotional, and intuitional, stand to each other in some special relation of polarity and mutual interaction.

Materialists have perceived it; and carelessly jumped to the conclusion that all religious emotion and inspiration are "only" sexual excitement diverted from its proper function.

The religious have perceived it, and seen that it is possible in certain cases to draw the vitality away from the lower pole by stimulating the upper. This unbalancing they have supposed to constitute true purity. A moderate religious writer, for instance, speaking of a widow who spent her time in what I should call irreverent and sensual religious vagaries, says, in a triumphant manner, that some widows did worse; evidently meaning that, though this lady's ideas might in some points be less logical than our own, yet, of course, any sort of religious life is more truly moral than a so-called profligate one. And I think that (with the exception of pure materialists) few would see room for a doubt of the truth of this position.

There are, however, a few who look at the whole matter from the point of view of unbiassed science. And their position, so far as I understand it, is this: "It is of importance that the two poles should act healthily and chastely when they act at all; but, of the two, the upper is of by far the greater consequence, and its aberrations are the greater evil. Not only do certain kinds of excitement of the upper tend to excite the lower; apart

altogether from that consideration, unchastity of the upper pole is in itself more sinful, impure, and injurious to physical, mental, and moral health, than unchastity of the lower. The action of the upper is difficult to follow and trace to its consequences; but we believe that we are provided with a clue in certain facts known to us about the action of the lower. We do not jump to the conclusion that their action runs in parallel lines; but we find that the hypothesis that it does so, explains many of the phenomena of insanity and hysteria otherwise inexplicable; we therefore think that it must have at least some foundation in truth; and we take it for the present as our working hypothesis, keeping ourselves prepared to abandon it as soon as any one can prove to us that some other theory more exactly corresponds to facts."

Now, it is universally admitted that, though a perfectly normal action of the lower pole is advantageous to health, yet haste and greed are in every way injurious; premature exercise before the proper age exhausts vitality; excess at any age weakens the whole nervous system; and, above all, the habit of dwelling in thought on pleasure before it comes, is ruinous.

Two methods of acquiring truth are possible to man; and these are, I think, fitly typified (as the instinct of poets in all ages has been led to typify them) by the two ways in which a man can expend his physical force. One sort of knowledge is technical, and can be acquired *à froid* from the outside, by deliberate study; the other is intuitional or actual, and should be gained only under certain conditions of pleasurable excitement. The former may safely be acquired at any convenient time, in any quantity, and in any accessible way, unless special circumstances seem to point to the contrary (short of such over-absorption as leaves insufficient time for rest and exercise). The latter kind of knowledge is in itself, and always, evil and impure, except at times when it is exceptionally right and sacred; such times being marked by the coincidence of three factors: maturity of the individual as to age; preparedness as to feeling; and suitability of circumstances.

It seems, indeed, that purity is in one sense the equivalent of patience; *i.e.*, a willingness neither to precipitate in act, nor to suggest in words, nor to anticipate in thought, that for which the full time has not come. All haste is essentially unchaste. We need to make parents and teachers pure before they can make children so. We must introduce into the popular mind the idea of elasticity in education, in knowledge, in friendship, in hero-worship, in family ties, especially in religion. Many of the elements of our school and home life tend to destroy purity: the methods of teaching rendered necessary by the prevalent system of competition; the ambition of parents; "odours, lights, wine, society, coffee, rivalry." Many things tend to teach children that love and knowledge (I do not here mean the mere technical knowledge, but that which I have called the Actual or Intuitional) are things to be greedily sought rather than earned by patient waiting and long labour. The wife goes into hysterics if her husband is not in the humour to attend to her; the parents are aggrieved if the child is not "fond" of them; each relative is offended if he or she is not a favourite. True knowledge is spoiled for the child by premature verbal statements of things which should dawn on his soul like a revelation; even the mighty mystery of contact with the Unseen is deflowered by what is called religious teaching. Surely all this tends to make the very idea of checking premature curiosity and greed about that which is to make children parents in their turn, an illogical one.

My own opinion, formed from observation of the development of young people, is, that the difficulty of keeping up faith in God, of which so many complain at the present day, is not, as is often supposed, a consequence of the progress of Science, but, in part at least, a recoil from what is commonly, but most erroneously, called "Theology"; it is, in fact, another form of that incapacity for the enjoyment of love which follows on a sensual and prurient early youth. Scientific Agnosticism seems to me to be a retirement into a condition of cool and busy chastity, pointed out by the instinct of humanity as the true correction of its early errors.

The value of what I have ventured to call the chaste method

of teaching has been found out by many teachers of elementary mathematics, so far as their own subject is concerned. Not a few, I find, prefer that no child should see a multiplication table till he has created one for himself by addition. One of the most delightful experiences of my life was being taught the Rule of Three on this method by a village schoolmaster in France. The late James Hinton, a few years before his death, asked me to give him some lessons in mathematics. He had learned at school up to Quadratic Equations; I therefore began by setting him a simple quadratic; and, when he had puzzled sufficiently over it, and given it up as unsolvable, I set him to find the squares of some selected simple expressions, and thus led him in the dark up to the point at which the method of solution dawned on him. The delight which he poured forth on first perceiving the possibility of attacking by the reverse or reflex method a problem in itself unsolvable by the human intellect, quite startled me. For some weeks afterwards, whenever he met any one who was in trouble or depressed, the remedy he suggested was: "Learn Quadratic Equations." At last it occurred to him that a good many people are able to solve quadratics without being apparently much the happier or better for it, and he began to investigate the anomaly. "Do you mean to tell me," he said to me one day, "that there are people in the world wicked enough to tell a boy *how to do a quadratic equation?*"

Whether the chaste method of teaching mathematics be considered good or bad, its importance for good or evil is obvious enough, from the intense antagonism expressed to it by leading Positivists. As I have great respect for the practical sagacity of these gentlemen, I have given my best attention to the objections made by them. Our method tends, they say, to demoralize the pupil for all his after-life; to make him "rebellious," "indocile"—incapable, in fact, of ever becoming a good Positivist. It was long before the meaning of this dawned on me. I do not find my pupils, as a rule, rebellious or indocile. What I have discovered seems almost too wonderful to be true; but this is indeed what is being said by those who should know best:—As long as we elementary mathematical teachers insist on doing our own humble work in the way which seems to ourselves most scientific, so long no one will succeed in persuading society to accept a doctrinaire system instead of faith in a Person, or to believe that Paul was a higher type of man than Jesus, and Comte a truer Seer than Paul. Few of us, I think, would venture so to magnify our own office! Some of us would be well satisfied with our share in life, if we could be assured that we had so taught the multiplication table to our pupils in their infancy as to put it for ever out of the power of doctrinaires to convince them that any one is a better teacher than Christ.

My father, Thomas Everest, was, so far as I know, the first English preacher of modern times who systematically advocated the application of the "chaste" method to the imparting of religious instruction. He never very fully expressed his views except orally; but, in a sermon published in 1851, he speaks strongly of the incapacity of theologians to judge of Divine Truth, owing to the diseased and abnormal working of their own brains; and pointed out that, when Jesus sent his disciples to preach the Gospel and cast out the devil, he commissioned them, as the means to that end, not to impose on others their ideas of theology, but to heal the sick; so that each man shall become competent to see the truth for himself, so far as the work appointed for him to do renders it desirable that he should see it.

The medical men of the day considered Mr. Everest mad; and theologians said that he was teaching Atheism. But much of what he said in the sermon above alluded to, about the intimate interaction of body and mind, the insanity of most criminals, and the injurious quality of most of what is called Theology, is being said far more forcibly at the present day by Dr. Maudsley, who should at least know what order of thought is sane. As for the other portion of the accusation, my father's pupils have their faults; but their characteristic, so far as I know of them, is, certainly not Atheism.

When any girl, intelligent enough to understand me, con-

sults me as to something said by her pastor, in what I consider too personal a manner, about eternal punishment, falling away from Grace, Regeneration, &c., my answer is something to this effect:—"Where was your modesty, and where was your womanhood, when any man ventured to speak to you on such a subject? If your pastor offered your mother a practical suggestion of some better method than she is acquainted with of carrying out your father's wishes, no doubt she would listen with due attention; but what do you think she would say if he began to discuss with her the nature and probable duration of the tie between them? Many men, unfortunately, very much like discussing personal relationships as long as they can get women to listen to them; it is women's function to keep such conversation in check. What you have to learn is, not to distinguish accurately how much you ought to believe of such statements as you tell me were made by your clergyman; but so to look men in the face that they never dare speak of such things when you are present. A girl who does not early learn the art of thus protecting her own purity and faith, is likely to get, not only her religious opinions, but also her whole mind and life into confusion." This kind of esoteric doctrine I have been in the habit of teaching to my own pupils for a quarter of a century; but I should not have ventured to intrude my views on the readers of the *Journal of Education*, especially as Dr. Maudsley is (if I may venture to claim thought-kinship with so great a man) teaching essentially the same doctrine with far greater clearness and power than my father or I could boast, had it not seemed to me desirable to give to inexperienced teachers a hint as to a method by which it is found practically possible to carry out the instructions of such men as Dr. Maudsley, without seeming to imply by one's reticence that one has no belief in the Fatherhood of God, or in His power to give to those who trust in Him help towards doing the duties which He has imposed on them. No portion of my experience as a teacher has been more terrible than witnessing the suffering, the moral injury, the despair, the ruined health, caused by misapprehension of the true meaning of Dr. Maudsley and other writers on the same side.

A friend to whom I submitted this paper suggests that I am laying myself open to a similar misconception. He says—"Your parallel between physical chastity and the inductive method of learning seems a very helpful analogy; but, in learning, the pupil must constantly look forward to the goal; and the most stimulating teacher is he who paints the future in the brightest colours, not only points the way." A wise father, I reply, will take opportunities, in conversation with his son, to point out the contrast between a happy marriage, and a loveless old age, or a married life full of bickering, disunion, and scandal; and will hint to the boy that good and evil come not out of the ground; that early mental discipline and habits of self-restraint prepare a youth to choose a suitable wife, and to behave wisely to the woman whom he has chosen; that every evil habit or temper in which he indulges is helping to diminish his chance of being sometime a happy husband and father. Let a teacher compare in her mind such a conversation, and that which is sometimes carried on between an ill-conditioned school-boy and a younger companion on the subject of marriage, and she will thus gain a clue which will enable her to find out for herself what is—and also what is not—fit to be said by one human being to another about the future fruit of study, and the bliss of union with God.

[NOTE.—It has been suggested to me that I might, with advantage, have changed the word used to describe the virtue which I desire to inculcate, and call my paper "Temperance in Knowledge." But it seems to me that Temperance and Chastity are essentially different ideas, and that each applies to all the affairs of life. Temperance has relation to quantity, Chastity to suitability of time and circumstances. A man who takes too much alcohol is intemperate. But he who yields to the pernicious habit of taking alcohol between meals, in however small doses, for no better reason than that he happens to feel depressed just at the moment, can hardly be said to be therefore intemperate; but he is guilty of something which the word Unchastity, in its largest sense, seems to me to express exactly.—M. B.]

SCOTTISH UNIVERSITIES.

SCOTCHMEN are often to be heard lamenting their own extreme forbearance. "Look!" they cry, "how our interests are neglected in Imperial Parliament; yet how little do we complain!" It is, perhaps, a part of the "canniness" of this Northern people that they are inclined to make a point upon every occasion by holding themselves up as models of patient endurance. They can then ask for further favours with a better grace. When a Scotchman is heard claiming a monopoly of this same virtue of endurance, one cannot help thinking of that saying of the philosophers which avers that great good fortune is the hardest thing in the world to bear; for, certainly, in the popular interpretation of the term, he is not so very much in need of his Stoicism after all. The most recent of great Scotch measures was brought before Parliament about half a year ago, when the Lord Advocate introduced a Bill to reform Scottish Universities. Although this Bill was afterwards withdrawn, we can by no means think that it has failed. Its reintroduction may be looked for as soon as Parliament assembles; and even within a year it may have become law. This slight delay has done the measure much good; for meanwhile it has been canvassed far and wide, and from the whirling chaff of controversy several bushels of good grain have been sifted. It has been talked of everywhere and by every one. On its account we have the edifying spectacle of learned Principals making coalitions with Provosts and Bailies. St. Andrews has made uproarious protests of vitality. Glasgow has roused itself, and petitioned against the parsimonious grant. Journals have teemed with suggestions; and orators—Highland and Lowland—have evolved simple, though perplexingly numerous, schemes for rendering the measure absolutely perfect. Even the somewhat incoherent ramblings of the General Assembly may not have been altogether in vain. Hardly any one but will now agree that the benefits the Bill proposed were greatly marred by faults begotten of carelessness or hasty judgment. That St. Andrews must be maintained, no one with an understanding of the Scottish temper could ever have doubted. St. Andrews, as has been shown, is doing remarkably good work in one at least of its branches. Some of the faculties, no doubt—Divinity, for instance, and Medicine and Science—are pitifully moribund, and must be lopped without mercy; but the tree, as a whole, is to stand—so Scotland has announced with practical unanimity. For our part, we entirely agree with this feeling, and think it not at all improbable that, reviving its old energy and throwing out new attractions, it may spring up afresh in a way very disconcerting to its would-be destroyers. The second failure of the Bill was in its treatment of the theological faculties. The framers of it had arrived at the somewhat illogical conclusion that the first step towards making their barren fig-tree fruitful must be to dig it up and plant it—upon a rock. In effect, this is what they say:—"We are anxious to promote scientific theological teaching. We shall, therefore, appoint professors of Divinity as we appoint other professors—not because they are ministers of the Kirk of Scotland, but because they are capable, well-qualified men. At the same time, we shall give no pecuniary help whatever to the faculty, and the system of scanty pittance shall endure in this branch alone." It is a very novel idea in therapeutics to restore exhausted vigour by starvation. And here, too, may be the fit place to notice the munificent proposals of the Liberal Government, which offers to increase the annual subsidy from £25,000 to £40,000. When we consider that the present allowance is employed to the uttermost farthing, and that the new Bill intends to buy out a considerable number of professors; to compensate another score or so for infringement of monopoly; for others to provide assistants who will, presumably, feel aggrieved if they receive no salary; and, over and above, to endow an indefinite number of new chairs; truly, one is at a loss to understand how such a very microscopic sop could ever have been judged sufficient to propitiate the hungry Scottish Cerberus. Lastly, vehement protests have been made against the proposal to saddle upon the University of Edinburgh a botanical garden, which is quite as much a place of public recreation as

a didactic instrument; and an expensive observatory, which being built over a railway tunnel is, from the vibration, unsuitable for astronomical research, and, from the constant passing to-and-fro of much iron, absolutely useless as a magnetic station.

On the same day, somewhere about the beginning of last October, there were two sufficiently significant demonstrations of Scottish feeling upon the question of National Education. The applause which greeted Lord Reay as he opened with an appropriate speech a school near Edinburgh, and the ringing cheers with which the now famous inaugural address, delivered by Professor Stuart of Cambridge at the opening of the great New College, was received by the inhabitants of Dundee, are as unmistakable in their meaning as the words of these two speakers. The tenour of these admirable orations was emphatically the same:—"Scotchmen, do not Anglicise yourselves." Lord Reay lauds the Day School system, and Professor Stuart exalts the Universities. It would seem that some body of most truculent and ill-advised red-tapists, in their superabundant enthusiasm for centralisation, are plotting the assimilation of English and Scotch Educational institutions; and, as the opinions of the majority are now-a-days reckoned the best substitute for divine revelation of the truth, Scotland being in the minority must yield. Moreover, so it is hinted, there has grown up or mischievously been engrafted in these institutions themselves an insidious spirit of soubhish imitation; nay more, that not a few conspirators in the Educational Gunpowder Plot are to be found among the professors and leading teachers in Scotland. If this be so, it is truly lamentable, and we can only echo the words of warning which were so ably spoken at Edinburgh and Dundee.

But are these forebodings really well-founded? The second we cannot deal with here, although it is a question of great moment; but a short glance at the leading enactments of the Bill might serve to throw some light upon the intentions of iniquitous officialism. The first great reform we notice is a proposal to ameliorate the evil of over-large classes. New professors are to be appointed where there is judged to be work for them to do, and in some cases competent assistants are to be provided for the present incumbents. Some of our readers may remember a discussion which raged more than a year ago in some of the leading Scottish journals, upon this subject. The result was decidedly hostile to the present system, and suggested reforms on much the same lines as the Bill. It was judged by the best-qualified authorities that where one professor has under his charge from two hundred to six hundred students, his fees mounting up to £4,000 per annum, there is a certainty both that the students' interests are being very seriously neglected, and that a fair opening exists for other labourers in the same field. At present, the lucky professor whose class is compulsory for a degree in Arts or Medicine is in the position of a monopolist of the most mischievous character. He can perform but the barest few of those duties which pertain to a teacher. In most cases he has absolutely no personal intercourse with any of his class, and is compelled to entrust much even of the teaching to underpaid and ill-qualified assistants. Can it be fair that when a student pays his fees, expecting to imbibe instruction from the fountainhead itself of learning, he should be calmly handed over to receive his nourishment from some lately-successful graduate, little more experienced than himself, who takes the position, with its wretched pay, merely that he may train himself in the art of teaching? All this injustice was very clearly brought out in the discussion we refer to. Indeed, so far as we remember, the only opposition to the proposed reform came from the somewhat untrustworthy quarter of vested interests. The Commission is next recommended to revise the curriculum for the Arts degree. Just now, if a Scotch student wishes to take his degree, he can only do so in one way. He must tread the same worn and beaten track his predecessors for the last three centuries have trodden. He cannot specialise; he may not even select: for all the devices and desires of his own heart are held to be treacherous instillations of the Evil One. He must attend so many lectures upon seven

fixed subjects, and upon these he is examined and gets his degree. It is appalling to consider that in Scotland, which is accounted so progressive a country, the same old curriculum has remained unchanged since the beginning,—that no allowances have been made for the changes and developments which time produces in human affairs. Surely, then, *this* reform is most salutary. Neither does it seem to be an attempt at Anglicising; for it aims at removing fetters rather than imposing them. Besides this meditated revision, there is a suggestion to inaugurate a matriculation examination; and this step, too, we cannot but approve of. In the old days, when elementary education was more neglected than now, it was the pride of Scotch Universities that a poor ignorant aspirant might enter upon the course knowing next to nothing, and, by sheer dint of hard devoted work, achieve the highest places of Academic honour. But, now that secondary education has advanced and offers so many facilities for learning, it is surely unwise to impose upon the professors the drudgery of elementary instruction which can be so much better imparted at school. The only other point we shall allude to is one which is so much in accordance with Scotch ideas and systems, that we need do no more than mention it. St. Andrews is at present not one big College, but several little ones. It is proposed to amalgamate these, so that human energy and pecuniary power may not fritter themselves away in by-channels of petty jealousy and separate endeavour, but, by a vigorous large-minded co-operation, restore a sound well-being to the united whole. This, in plain words, is nothing more than putting St. Andrews on the same footing as its neighbours in Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Aberdeen,—it surely is not Anglicising.

Is it possible that, after all, when Professor Stuart was working upon the patriotic feelings of his audience by pictures of the horrors of foreign invasion, he was only taking an unusually emphatic way of complimenting them upon their own excellence? For what could invasion be but misery, when what now exists at home is so beautiful? While the Dundee worthies, wreathed in smiles, with gentle friction of the hands, stood listening to glowing periods about John Knox and the educational benefits conferred by their near neighbours of St. Andrews, were they thinking—did the persuasive speaker intend them to think—"Marry now, if this worthy and learned professor, so bedecked with orders of merit from a foreign University, do tell us we are superior to all things in this world, save Switzerland—Switzerland being, as we believe, about as accessible as the North Pole, and nigh as easily to be imitated—why then, truly, must not we be pretty fellows: let us even give God thanks, and remain as we are"? So might they go on rubbing their hands, while the pawky periods did their work of justifying the ways of the Scotchmen to the Scotch.

But, seriously, we have read this new Bill, and can detect in it no Anglicising tendencies whatever. We are forced to the conclusion that the dreary forebodings we have mentioned are but laughable hallucinations. Indeed, when we cast our eyes upon events which are occurring within our own borders—colleges springing up at Birmingham, and Cardiff, and Liverpool, and Leeds, to say nothing of Victoria University, most prosperous in every endeavour—certainly none of them imitations of Oxford or Cambridge, which Professor Stuart takes as the type of things English,—we confess to grave fears lest we English, who are accused of being invaders, are ourselves with mournful rapidity becoming weak perverts to Scottish systems.

ABERYSTWITH COLLEGE.

TO most Englishmen, Wales is still *Welshland*, the land of the foreigner, known to them only from the tourist's point of view. A sketch of the origin and foundation of Aberystwith College will reveal to many of our readers a new aspect of the country, and show that the Principality has other features of interest besides its watering-places and mountains.

The late Sir Hugh Owen, and other gentlemen interested in the improvement of Education in Wales, succeeded, after sustained exertions, in collecting upwards of £60,000 for the endowment and maintenance of a University College. It is noteworthy that the labouring classes, and particularly the quarrymen and colliers, took a highly honourable part in the subscription, to which no less than 100,000 persons contributed. Some idea of the difficulty of collecting may be gathered from the fact that the travelling and printing expenses of the secretaries amounted to £4,000. The site most suitable for Wales as a whole was Aberystwith, which had railway communication with North, South, and Mid-Wales; and it happened that an hotel at that place, built at a cost of £80,000, was to be had for £10,000. This building was secured, and, the necessary alterations having been made, was opened as the University College of Wales on October 9, 1872. The interest on the endowment not being sufficient to provide for an adequate staff of professors, much care had to be exercised by the Council in its expenditure. The work was begun with a very small staff, to which additions have from time to time been made. Few exhibitions could be given, and little money spent in advertising. When it is added that there are few good schools in Wales, that those schools have very naturally preferred to retain their senior scholars, and that Welshmen are not rich, it will be considered creditable that Aberystwith should have secured an average attendance of over fifty students per year. In this connexion, it may be recalled that Owens College, Manchester, with an endowment of £100,000, had not for some years as many as a hundred day-students. Many great successes could not be expected, but the Honour List for the session 1882-83, given in the last report of the Principal, shows that good work has already been done. It includes a First-class in Law, and one in Natural Science, at Cambridge; a First-class in the Final Classical Schools, and one in Moderations, at Oxford; besides honours gained at the University of London. The Principal adds that most of the students who have been successful at the old Universities would never have proceeded thither had not the Aberystwith College existed.

Two years ago a Departmental Committee was formed to inquire into the state of Education in Wales. After a most painstaking investigation, this Committee recommended that there should be two State-aided Colleges in Wales, one for South Wales—either at Cardiff or Swansea, the other for North Wales; adding that *Aberystwith College, whether retained on its present site or removed elsewhere, must be accepted as the College for North Wales.*

A meeting of delegates from North Wales was held last February at Chester, when it was decided that Aberystwith (being just over the border, and in South Wales) could not be accepted as the site for the North Wales College, and that the principal towns should be invited to prepare statements of their claims, to be submitted to impartial adjudicators. The result was that Bangor was chosen as the most eligible site, and it is stated that an attempt will be made to open the College there in the spring of 1884. The South Wales College has already commenced operations with 120 students, and bids fair to be a considerable success. A spirited attempt is now being made to retain the College at Aberystwith as a College for Central Wales. It appeared wrong to one enthusiastic supporter of that College "to illumine a room by lighting a candle at each end and extinguishing the chandelier in the middle," particularly as there was some light already at the ends, let in by Liverpool and Bristol. The Council of the University College has a balance of over £13,000, and one of its members, Mr. David Davies, M.P., has generously offered an annual subscription of £500 for the next six years. The College will, therefore, in all probability, continue to exist for that period at least; and, if Government carry out the principle of helping those who help themselves, may sooner or later obtain a separate grant. A principal recommendation of Aberystwith is the fact that the large accommodation for visitors in the summer is available, at a very small cost, to students during the session. The present writer has excellent authority for the statement that two decent rooms, fire and

light, board and attendance, can be obtained for the small payment of thirteen shillings a week! It is possible that the College may yet prove a boon to English students of limited means. Its struggle for existence will be watched with interest by the educational world.

CORRESPONDENCE.

OVERWORK IN HIGH SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Your correspondent, "J. A. Bullen," makes a mistake in taking it for granted that, because girls are thoroughly educated in the present day, they are, therefore, overworked. I believe, if full inquiry could be made, it would be found that, at the High Schools, the time spent in study by this generation is less than was actually so spent by their mothers. Greater results are visibly achieved now, and hence the cry that our girls are being overworked, because people cannot be brought to understand that it is as easy to work a person into ill health by "dipping buckets into empty wells," &c., as by a more profitable form of labour. The reason the results are greater now is because the science of imparting knowledge is beginning to be understood, and before this can be done the teacher herself must prove she has such knowledge. Any ignorant lady is, therefore, no longer considered a suitable instructress, provided she has pleasing manners. Neither the number of subjects put down in the curriculum of the Girls' Public Day Schools, nor the hours of work, are at all too much for any girl of average capacity and health, except under two conditions:—

1st. That, instead of receiving a fair education from six or seven years of age, she has been neglected up to thirteen or fourteen, and then suddenly sent to school, to find herself immeasurably behind all her companions of the same age.

2nd. That the parents, having a fixed idea on the subject of piano-forte playing, doom the girl to two or three hours a day of practice in the time that is intended by the school authorities to be spent in recreation. On this subject the world is most unreasonable. If a girl has a distinct genius for music, it is clearly worth while to cultivate it, and some means of carrying on the rest of her education other than that of these High Schools might be sought, so that only a few necessary subjects need be learned. But great talent for music is comparatively rare, both among girls and boys; and, of the latter, those who learn music are found to be able to play on the piano, as much as is necessary for their own amusement in after-life, by half-an-hour's daily practice during the school terms, with extra practice in the holidays. What, therefore, suffices for boys would clearly be sufficient for girls also, and as much as they have time for.

It cannot be too often pointed out that, though many girls who are studying become ill, and may even have to leave off study through ill health, it by no means follows it is the study which causes the illness. As a parallel case, a sick man may be forbidden to eat meat, but this would be no reason to suppose the illness is necessarily caused by his having eaten meat when he was well. Of the more or less sickly girls who attend no school and learn little or nothing, we have no statistics, but I shrewdly suspect, if we had, they would be found fully to equal the others in numbers.

Your correspondent seems to hint that there is some radical difference in the brains of girls, which causes study to injure them when it does not hurt boys. Sir, I wish there were any words strong enough to force the fact upon the world, that it is not the brains which are different, but the surroundings under which the brains are worked; and these surroundings can only be altered by the force of public opinion. Boys' studies are carried on with properly alternated hours of work and play; girls, on the contrary, have very little recognised time for play, and, even then, too often noise is strictly prohibited. Play is considered part of boys' birthright. It is discouraged for girls, to their untold mental and physical detriment. But, even here, the Girls' Day School Company are leading the way. In many of their schools there are small playgrounds, and in some of these real noisy hearty play is allowed, though for rather a limited time compared to boys.

There is one other essential point which I can only touch upon, as it is hardly suited to your columns. Boys have healthy, easy clothing; girls have not. From beginning to end it is injurious. The stays alone, which cause more injury, if possible, when a girl is sitting down and leaning forward, than at any other time, prevent the due oxygenation of the blood by free respiration. This, of itself, not only directly diminishes the power of the brain, but inevitably produces a

lowered condition of the whole system; so that it is far from surprising to find the health of school-girls compares unfavourably with that of school-boys.* All those, therefore, who wish to see the next generation of women fit intellectual companions for men, should endeavour to get the circumstances under which they are educated, altered to such as may be distinctly favourable to health and strength. At present, the tendency is too much to give way to every difficulty which arises from the obstruction caused by old-world ideas of conventionality; for, as usual, the evils to which custom has inured us are less visible than smaller ones which happen to be new.—I am, Sir,

Yours, &c.,
F. W. HARBERTON.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Will you allow me a little space for a few remarks on the letter on the above subject in your last number?

Your correspondent's chief complaint is of the "multiplicity of subjects" now taught in Girls' Schools, and of the superficial manner in which, owing to this "multiplicity," the subjects are taught. Now, I should like—only you, Mr. Editor, would not give me enough space—to put down, side by side, two lists of subjects, one being the curriculum of a modern High School, the other that of a Ladies' School of the old days. The two lists would have in common—Arithmetic, Geography, English Language, Literature, and History, and each would have two foreign languages. Against the Elementary Mathematics of the modern school might be placed, on the old-style list, that mysterious subject called "the use of the Globes." In both lists there would be some Elementary Science; I am inclined to think Astronomy was rather a favourite subject in the old system. Then, at the end of the old-style list would be a tail of subjects quite unrepresented in the modern—Greek and Roman History, General Biography, Heathen Mythology—I think I could bring in a few more "ologies," if I had a "Mangnall's Questions," or a "Guide to Knowledge" by me; at all events, I should have to include a variety of items of knowledge that might be classed under "unorganizable facts," which had somehow to be lodged in girls' memories, which of these two systems is most open to the charge of dealing superficially with a "multiplicity of subjects"?

Perhaps it will be urged that the curriculum I have sketched as that of a High School falls short of the facts. It does so with regard to the upper forms of some of the larger, well-established schools; but it is a fair representation of the curriculum to which the average High School pupil is subjected.

But, suppose it is granted that our modern system is an improvement on the ancient, but still has too many subjects, which should we leave out? The reasoning power, developed by the study of Elementary Mathematics is particularly necessary for girls. The observing faculty needs the cultivation it gets in lessons in Elementary Science. Perhaps the subject that could with least injury be omitted would be the second language, though I think that the loss of the mental training which the study of a synthetic language gives would be a serious one. It appears to me that our present curriculum has only just the subjects that are needed for the development of a girl's intelligence, and, if it be true that there is "abundant evidence" that it is too severe, we shall have simply to admit that the feminine mind is altogether of a weak and inferior order.

There are, no doubt, cases in which an individual girl finds the work rather too much for her. She may be physically weak, or, mentally, unusually slow, or her parents may allow her to work late at night, or to dandle over her work at home, so that, in order to complete it, she has to give up the time that would otherwise be given to recreation. But to prove that the present curriculum is faulty, there must be evidence to show that girls of average health and mental ability, whose parents do their duty in seeing that they get sufficient air and exercise, frequently break down from overwork. I do not think such evidence is forthcoming.

I do not wish to pretend that our present system is at all near perfection. It has its faults, and we schoolmistresses have ours, and we are heartily grateful to friends of women's education who will point out our faults to us. But the complaints must be able to stand a critical examination.

One of the greatest difficulties to be dealt with in a girl's education is the still lingering idea that it must be something to enable her to gratify her own or her parents' vanity by the show it makes, rather than a developing of her powers, so that, whatever her lot in life may

be, she may be an intelligent, self-helpful woman. Hence the hours still spent in piano-strumming by pupils without musical taste. If the friends of higher education for women would enlighten public opinion on this point, our work would be far more helped than by vague attempts to "limit the number of subjects" taught in our schools.

Blackburn, November 19th.

MARIAN GREEN.

BOYS VERSUS GIRLS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Your Irish correspondent says that I have misunderstood him. On the contrary, I think it is perfectly clear that he has misunderstood me. In your October number, he, or she, distinctly stated that "the girls are superior in all grades." I took pains to show that the fancied superiority is a myth, resting entirely on their higher percentage of passes. I showed that this higher percentage is easily explained; in many centres all the boys, trained and untrained, being sent in, whereas, generally speaking, only the best girls are sent in. The Commissioners are largely responsible for this. Forty candidates constitute a Centre, and, rather than let the privilege of a Centre at one's own doors slip through one's fingers, it is usual with small schools to enter every boy in the place. As I already mentioned, I myself have done so, and I know of others. This practice, spread over any considerable area, must have a great effect in lowering the percentage of those who pass. Your correspondent says I write as if all the boys of a school were sent forward. Clearly so. For my point is and was (I am sure I made it plain enough) that, in many cases, all are sent forward. These cases I know personally. His illustration, that a school of 200 will send in 80 and be contented if 40 pass, is either a figment of the imagination, or a very exceptional case. There are few schools of 200 in Ireland, so, perhaps, your correspondent is speaking of one which he knows of personally; but, over the many Centres through the country, the practice of sending in all, or practically all, the boys in school, exists, and that, too, for the best of reasons—necessity.

I showed, further, that of the public money voted by Parliament for Irish Education, the girls this year have secured £1,685, instead of £230, which is the modest portion they would have secured had they been allowed to compete with the boys. The girls have now been protected five years, with this result. Your correspondent says he had no intention of raising such "an idle question" as that of "Girls versus Boys" (by the way, I am not responsible for that heading). It may be idle, but it is possible that boys and their masters, who see so large a sum going every year to the girls, which it was never intended they should get in that way, may not all be of opinion that the question is merely an "idle" one. Certainly, I do not want to take the money from the girls. I am perfectly willing that they should be protected, only I do object to their being protected and, at the same time, declared, on utterly insufficient and one-sided evidence, to be "superior to the boys in all grades."

As the question of the mental capacities of boys and girls, or men and women, is at least still an open one, the Irish Intermediate Examinations seem to offer to the impartial mind an interesting field for observation. It was for this reason that I suggested, and still maintain, that this question is of more than merely local and transient interest, and one in every way suitable for the columns of the *Journal of Education*.

I should add (what I overlooked last time) that a pass for girls is much lower than for boys. A pass in Arithmetic for girls counts as passing in the subject "Mathematics." A boy must pass in Euclid or Algebra as well. A girl may, therefore, pass the Intermediate Examinations in Arithmetic and Music. I suppose a pass could hardly sink much lower.

Lurgan, 6th November, 1883.

Faithfully yours,

W. T. KIRKPATRICK.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Dr. Kirkpatrick labours to prove, not merely that "few girls or none can be raised to that higher standard of merit which gains exhibitions, and which is common enough among boys," but also that the statistics are fallacious which represent the majority of girls as passing the examinations with merit. They are not the majority, he would say, but the exceptions. His theory points to such a remarkable difference between the boy's brain and the girl's (a difference not, I believe, borne out by other witnesses), that I venture to ask, as one who is deeply interested in the question, but whose judgment upon it is still suspended, whether he may not possibly have fallen himself into the error he deprecates, viz., that of failing to regard statistics from all sides? Are there no other facts which would

* There is an excellent little book—"How to be Beautiful and Strong," price 2d.—published by the National Health Society, which should be read by all who have the care of girls.

account for the falling short of exhibition-merit on the part of the girls? Are they prepared in the same manner as the boys, giving the same proportion of time to the same studies? And do they get as much physical recreation? I am led to ask this because the *Times*, of June 25th, in a leading article, records the following fact:—"A recent experiment has been recorded in which the girls of a certain locality were found to beat the boys at their books as long as both sexes remained the same time in class; but the boys, on having their hours diminished by one half, and the time thus gained devoted to active exercise, at once surpassed the girls, the conditions of whose work had remained unchanged" (whether they still remain unchanged, we are not told). In visiting mixed schools, I always make a point of asking, "Do you find any difference between the boys' work and the girls'?"—"Have you generally more boys or more girls at the top of the school?" And the answer is almost invariably, "I don't find any difference." And a similar testimony from an eminent teacher was recorded, if I remember right, in a past number of your *Journal*. Now, if that is the case when the two sexes are taught at the same time and by the same teacher, whilst under separate systems the girls' work falls so far short of the boys', one naturally fancies that the cause of this inferiority must lie outside the children themselves.

If you can assist in throwing any light upon the subject, you will greatly oblige
 Yours truly,
 November 20th, 1883. FRANCESCA.

UNIVERSITY ASSOCIATION OF WOMEN TEACHERS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Will you allow me to give, by means of your paper, some information respecting the University Association of Women Teachers? A general statement of the constitution and aims of the Association was printed as an advertisement in the *Journal of Education* some months ago, but its practical usefulness would be greatly increased if its special character and the wants it is designed to meet were more generally known.

The Association is presided over by Miss Clough, Principal of Newnham College, Cambridge, and its work is carried on by a committee of ladies who have been students at Girton College or Newnham College, Cambridge, or at Somerville Hall, Oxford. Several heads of colleges, professors, lecturers, and others interested in education have consented to become honorary members.

There are now fifty working members, all of whom have studied at Oxford or Cambridge and passed examinations, while a large proportion have taken places in one of the Cambridge triposes. Some hold permanent educational posts, but a large proportion are working or seeking work as teachers in schools or to private pupils in those special subjects to which they have devoted themselves at the University.

It is thought that this organization may prove especially useful to the following classes of persons seeking for teachers:—

- (1) To head-mistresses of public or of large private schools for girls, who sometimes wish to have lessons given in special subjects which cannot conveniently be taken by any member of the regular staff.
- (2) To mistresses of smaller private schools for girls, who can best obtain adequate teaching for their more advanced pupils by combining to form classes under a qualified teacher. For information as to the steps which are being taken towards this object, I would refer to Miss C. L. Douglas, 13, Porchester Terrace, W.
- (3) To parents who desire to give their daughters a home education, and to supplement the instruction of a private governess by forming classes in their own houses among the children of their friends.
- (4) To ladies who have left school, and are able to form classes among themselves for literature or any other kind of study.
- (5) To ladies in London preparing for the University of London degrees, or the Oxford or Cambridge Higher Local, and desiring private tuition at times and places chosen by themselves.
- (6) To ladies who, desiring to improve their education, are not within reach of good oral instruction, and would be glad of help in their studies by means of correspondence.

I shall be happy to give further information respecting the Association to any who may apply to me, and beg to remain,

Yours faithfully,
 ALICE GARDNER, Hon. Sec.

13 Oak Hill, Hampstead, N.W.
 Oct. 22, 1883.

VACATION HOMES FOR TEACHERS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—The suggestion made in a recent *Journal*, regarding rest and instruction for Teachers during the Vacation, has led to some correspondence, and steps have been taken to meet a want which seems to be widely felt. There are many teachers who feel that they need quiet and time for uninterrupted thought and reading, and they ask for leisure and such assistance as would enable them to come to their work without that sense of unpreparedness which oppresses them after a vacation of visits or travel.

I have already entered into negotiations with the authorities of the two Ladies' Halls at Oxford, and, if these can be successfully concluded, it will enable me to make an arrangement by which ladies engaged in teaching will be received for a moderate sum, and provided, as far as is feasible, with opportunities for rest, study, and instruction.

I shall be glad to hear soon from any who think it likely that they would desire to avail themselves of this opportunity: they should say for how long they would wish to remain, and whether they want assistance in any special study.

Yours faithfully,
 Cheltenham Ladies' College,
 November 22nd, 1883. DOROTHEA BEALE.

OVER-PRESSURE OR UNDER-TEACHING?

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—I should imagine from the letter of your correspondent "Dominie," published in your October number, on "Over-pressure or Under-teaching," that he is no friend to National or Denominational Schools. Could not the same ignorance be found with scholars who have left our Board Schools? I am sure it may be. Yes, and more than this—Let the same test be put to those who have left our Grammar and even our Public Schools. Would all be satisfactory? Would there not be miserable failures found in each and every case? Is your correspondent aware that many of the children educated in our National Schools are quite able to compete with those who have been trained in schools with far higher pretensions? Aye—and carry off the palm too! Would any sane person suppose that if a Board School and a Denominational School were established in the same neighbourhood, with the same class of children, with an equal staff of teachers and appliances, that the Board School would be superior to the other simply because it is a Board School? We have in our neighbourhood, as is the case in many others, a school that has been transferred to the Board. They have exactly the same staff as before. Is that school improved by the transfer? We, who are acquainted with it, know that it is not a whit better.

That ignorance does exist among the scholars who have left our State-aided schools, although they may have crept through the standards, I know too well. But the cause is not to be found so much either in the Board, National, or Denominational Schools, as in the system itself. While every child, with brains or without brains, has to be goaded to reach the same level, all must suffer, and the evil will exist so long as the present system of examination continues. We are not educating the children, but simply trying who can earn the highest grant, for £. s. and d. is the god that many of our managers worship. When new teachers are being engaged, how few of the members of the Board care to ascertain whether they are likely to influence their scholars for good! Is not the first and chief question—What percentage did you pass in your last school? Ah! Mr. Editor, the education given in some of our schools five-and-twenty years ago was much superior to the present. I have taught in our National Schools for nearly thirty years, and what was once a pleasure to me is now become irksome for the reason above stated. Before the sweeping change, introduced by Mr. Lowe, became the law of the land, I could far more easily find boys by the dozen, who, after they left me, were a credit to the school where they were educated, than I could find half that number now, although I have a larger number to select from.

Your sense of justice will, I doubt not, cause you to insert this letter.

I am, Sir, yours, &c.,
 November 3rd, 1883. A VILLAGE SCHOOLMASTER.

ART FOR SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

SIR,—Just now, when we are hearing so much of the terrible misery and poverty in the homes of some of our fellow-citizens, where not a ray of sunshine nor a glimpse of beauty can ever gladden the lives of the poor children, should we not try to make at least one part of their lives as bright and beautiful as we can? Why should not the rooms

in elementary schools be decorated and ornamented, made attractive and pleasing, instead of having maps, boards, and desks as their only adornments? This need not be a matter of great expense. Some months ago, in the North London Collegiate School for Girls, at the suggestion of our Head-mistress, Miss Buss, the girls started a society for the decoration of their school. Each form undertook to make and bring articles for the adornment of its room; and now throughout the school we have all sorts of pretty vases, photographs, æsthetic decorations, and embroideries done by the girls. During the summer, of course, ferns and flowers were a great help—they were planted and tended carefully at home till they were large enough to bring. Now, in the winter, we fill our vases with dried leaves, grasses, feathers, and everlasting-flowers. Ears of corn steeped in water grow up and form a pot of green; and carrots and turnips sprout out, if a slice of the top part with the green leaves on it be placed in water, till they look almost like ferns, and it is a daily interest for the children to watch their growth. Some of the girls make quite ingenious baskets with ordinary sticks of firewood, and ornaments of common flower-pots, covered with bits of cork or walnut-shells.

I think grown-up people do not quite realize how much children get from pictures and flowers, and one often hears that the very poor do not care for or appreciate beauty.

In the summer-time, some little girls from Whitechapel came once or twice to spend the day with me. The gentleman who sent them said they were "wild" children, but all chose to sit in the brightest and prettiest room in the house, and seemed thoroughly to enjoy it. They were telling me about their school, and the single fact they one and all thought most important was—"We have the most beautiful picture in our schoolroom; it's about the sea." We know how much pleasure and happiness we get from a sunset, a nosegay, or one of Millet's pictures—why should not these poor little outcasts of our great city have a little of that beauty added to their lives, a little of God's truth sent home to their hearts, for "Beauty is truth, truth beauty"?

A TEACHER.

THE MODERN AND MEDÆVAL LANGUAGES TRIPOS, IN CAMBRIDGE.

The following is the new scheme of examination for the proposed Tripos:—

A. 1. *Unseen* translations from French authors after 1600 A.D.; 2. (a) Translation of passages of English authors into French; (b) *Original composition* in French; 3. *Unseen* translation from German authors after 1700 A.D.; 4. (a) Translation of passages from English authors in German; (b) *Original composition* in German. These four papers, scheduled A, are to be taken by all candidates. The candidate may then choose between sections B, C, and D.

B. French, with Provençal and Italian. 5. Translation from selected French authors. 6. Historical grammar of the Roman languages, with special reference to French and Italian. 7. Selected poems in Old French for translation and explanation, with grammatical and philological questions. 8. A similar paper in Provençal. 9. Passages from selected writers in Italian for translation and explanation. 10. A similar paper in Italian.

C. German, with Anglo-Saxon and Gothic. 5. Translation from selected German authors. 6. Historical grammar of Teutonic languages, with special reference to German, Anglo-Saxon, and Mæso-Gothic. 7. Selected writers in Middle High German, for translation and explanation, with grammatical and philological questions. 8. A similar paper for Old High German. 9. A similar paper on selected writings in Anglo-Saxon verse. 10. A similar paper on Anglo-Saxon Prose, and the Mæso-Gothic version of Ulfilas.

D. English, with Anglo-Saxon and Gothic. 5. Shakespeare. 6. Other selected authors of the 16th and 17th centuries, with grammatical and philological questions. 7. Chaucer. 8. Other selected writers of the 13th and 14th centuries, with similar questions to 6. 9, 10, as in C.

SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES.

OXFORD.

On November 10th it was proposed in Convocation to affix the University Seal to an address of sympathy and congratulation to the Emperor of Germany on the occasion of the four hundredth anniversary of Luther's birth. The proposition was negatived by 133 to 94. This result roused a good deal of feeling, and outside Oxford has probably been taken to be indicative of the strength of the Ritualistic party in Convocation. It was really due, however, to a strong disinclination on the part of many, especially of the extreme

Broad Churchmen, to divide Convocation along religious lines upon an issue which was not strictly University business. The same address is now being signed privately by resident members of Convocation, and has already received the signatures of nearly all heads of Colleges, professors, University officers and readers, and College tutors. It is a pity that the movement did not take this form from the first. The organ of the Roman Catholics, the *Tablet*, recognises the true significance of the division, and allows that such a display of consideration for the convictions of others is distinctly creditable to the Oxford Liberals.

The newest Readership is one in Anthropology. The salary will be £200 a year. Mr. Tylor will probably be the first reader in this interesting science, which, like Terence's philanthropist, *nihil humanum a se alienum putat*. Some people are of opinion that the University might profitably lay out £200 a year on a reader in the Hebrew Language and Literature, who should treat his subject critically, and be free from theological *arrière-pensée*. Mr. J. Bywater, of Exeter, has been appointed to the newly instituted Readership in Greek.

Professor Ruskin is lecturing again this term. His first lecture was on "The Fireside—John Leech and John Tenniel." In it the Professor passed some severe strictures on the new examination schools. The second lecture was on "The Hillside—George Robson and Copley Fielding." On December 4th, Sir F. A. Gore Ouseley will deliver a lecture on Motets, with illustrations, in the Sheldonian Theatre. On November 9th, the Warden of Merton gave an interesting lecture upon Merton College under the Commonwealth and Restored Monarchy. On the 14th, Mr. William Morris gave a lecture to a large audience in the Hall of University College upon Art and Democracy. Much that he said of Art as expressing the joy of man in the labour of his hands, was instructive and beautifully put; though few educated people would follow him in the conviction which he finished his lecture by declaring—the conviction, namely, that the permanent regeneration of Art, and its purification from the taint of plutocratic influences, can only be effected through the realisation of the wild schemes of Mr. Hyndman and his Democratic Federation.

The Indian Institute is to be opened for work in June, 1884, and Professor Monier Williams is about to visit India for a third time, with the aim of procuring the foundation of four Indian Scholarships for natives of India intending to take their degree at this University. It is a most desirable object to achieve. In order to facilitate a university career for natives of India, a statute has been promulgated and approved in Congregation, which will enable natives of India to offer an Oriental language in the place of either the Greek or Latin language at the Examination for Responses, and at the first Public Examination. A native of India is defined as one born in India of parents who were born in India. The Oriental language substituted must be either Sanskrit, or Arabic, or Persian. This reform may perhaps, as Professor M. Williams points out in a circular addressed to residents, herald the establishment of a School (analogous to the Cambridge Indian Languages Tripos) in which Degrees shall be obtained for proficiency in the Classical Languages of India. The Greek and Latin required here, weigh almost as heavily on the science men. It would be an excellent thing if Greek were made optional for them, and a searching examination in the French and German languages and literatures substituted for those who prefer it; only it would have to be made thorough, and not a mere form.

There is a third respect in which Oxford sorely needs to follow the example of Cambridge—namely, in allowing women to proceed to degrees. It is a pity that Oxford should remain the last refuge of that prejudice of half-culture, that mental processes are of one kind in women, and of another kind in men. It is generally assumed that all women who wished to graduate at all, would set themselves to read for the highest honours. There is no reason why they *all* should, especially as no better curriculum for a woman's mind can be conceived than the *Pass Literæ Humaniores* School. The statutes make Greek and Latin optional for this School, and instead of taking up two classical books—of which one must be a portion of a Greek philosophical work, the other a portion of a Greek or Latin historian,—a modern language, either French or German, including composition in the language and a period of its literature, may be offered. In spite, however, of the exclusion of their students from University degrees, the women's Halls in Oxford achieve a certain measure of success. Students of Somerville Hall have during the past year taken the following positions:—A Cambridge teachership of Anglo-Saxon, a First Class in Modern Languages in the Cambridge Higher Local Examination, a Lecturership on French and German Literature for the University Association of Women Teachers in London, a First Class

in Mathematics in the Cambridge Local Examination, the Reid Scholarship at Bedford College, a Science teachership at the Cheltenham College for girls, a teachership of English at Boston, U.S., &c. These results are very satisfactory, but these Halls cannot really be a success until women are admitted to degrees by the University; for a degree must needs help students into positions, and women who have to earn their livelihood by their wits will prefer to go where they can get their intellectual merits more liberally recognised. It is a pity that University Liberals do not make a push for this obvious reform.

CAMBRIDGE.

THE Special Board for Mediæval and Modern Languages have recommended to the Senate that an Honours Examination be established in Modern Languages; that a knowledge of French and German be required of all candidates; and that candidates be further examined either in French, with Provençal and Italian, or in German or English, coupled with Anglo-Saxon and Gothic. This liberal programme will probably appease those who called the simpler scheme of purely modern languages a "Couriers' Tripos"; but, on the other hand, Mr. Postgate has pointed out that neither books, teachers, nor examiners fitted for the work of such a tripos are likely to be forthcoming. Mr. Sweet, than whose opinion none could be more authoritative, writes:—"I know of no scientific specialists in the languages you name, except an occasional wandering German. I do not believe that there is any competent Old French specialist in this country." And, while a high German authority, Professor Julius Zupitza, of Berlin, states that the proposed lecturer's salary—£150—would not attract a competent German; Mr. Postgate adds that the examiner's fee—£20—"will never tempt a foreigner who is farther off than Leicester Square." Candidates will probably be not less difficult to procure than the other appurtenances of this mongrel tripos. A facile linguist or keen philologist will probably be more attracted by the solid honours of the philological part of the Classical Tripos, than by this new and copious examination.

The outgoing Senior Proctor, Mr. Torry, in his customary report, made some sensible remarks on the subject of the M.A. degree, which is now awarded, without an examination, on payment of a fee of £30. Mr. Torry proposes that an examination should be instituted, and that the degree should be awarded only to those who reach the Honours standard in at least one subject. It appears that most Masters of Arts are poll-men, who "have made no intellectual advance since the day when they sold the handbooks which enabled them to pass their special." The M.A. degree carries with it a place in the Senate, and a vote for the Parliamentary representatives of the University; and so the question attains a political significance. For, whether an examination be instituted or not, it seems clear that the heavy fee should be abolished if it debars many men from these two important privileges; and the Liberal party in the University should work energetically for any scheme of this kind which would extend the franchise among the body of younger men.

Dr. Waldstein, of King's College, has been appointed Director of the Fitzwilliam Museum. The late Director, Professor Colvin, who has brought the Museum into most admirable order, has been appointed Keeper of the Prints and Drawings in the British Museum.

The new Professor of Anatomy, Dr. Alexander MacLister, F.R.S., is a tower of strength to our Medical School. He inaugurated his work by a very eloquent address, in vindication of the claims of his science—"the oldest of the sciences, for the first book of which we have any account was on the anatomy of man, and the first author on anatomy was a King." The latter statement is accounted for by the Professor being a learned student of Hieroglyphics!

The subject of the Adams Prize, to be sent in before October 1st, 1885, is—"The Laws governing the Interaction of Cyclones and Anticyclones on the Earth's Surface."

Dr. Ferrers, the Master of Caius, is our new Vice-Chancellor. Mr. Henry Sidgwick, of Trinity College, has been appointed, by a unanimous vote of the electors, to the Knightsbridge Professorship of Moral Philosophy.

"The Birds" was performed on the 27th with brilliant success. Dr. Waldstein, the stage-manager; Dr. Parry, the composer of the music; and Mr. James, of King's, the protagonist (Peisthetairos) were called before the curtain. We hope to give a full report next month.

GIRTON COLLEGE.—The Skinners' Company have offered a scholarship of the value of £50 a year for three years, tenable at Girton College, Cambridge. The scholarship will be awarded at the next entrance examination to be held in March, 1884, on certain conditions, particulars of which may be obtained from the Secretary, Miss Kensington, 22 Gloucester Place, Hyde Park, W.

KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON.—Dr. Wace has been appointed to the office of President, vacant by the promotion of Dr. Barry. There was only one other candidate, Mr. Jayne, the Principal of St. David's College, Lampeter. Dr. Wace retains the ephraim of Lincoln's Inn. He gave up not long ago his connexion with the *Times*, on the staff of which he had been for nearly twenty years.

SCOTLAND.

Sir Stafford Northcote has been chosen as Lord Rector for the University of Edinburgh. Mr. Trevelyan polled 983 votes to his 1,035, while Mr. Blackie received only 236. The Liberals attribute their defeat to the irrepensible ex-professor. There was also a triple candidature in Glasgow, and the contest has resulted in the return of Mr. Fawcett, with 798 votes, against 670 given to the Marquis of Bute, and 319 to the Independent candidate, Mr. Ruskin. Professor Blackie thinks that the election should have nothing whatever to do with politics, and told the students of Glasgow University, in a lecture on "Goethe," that they should have elected the Marquis of Bute in return for his munificence towards the University. Lord Reay refused to stand for St. Andrews University in opposition to Mr. Lowell, who was brought forward on non-political grounds, and won an easy victory over the Conservative candidate, the Right Hon. Edward Gibson, M.P., and protested against his nomination on account of his not being a subject of the Queen. Her Majesty has appointed Mr. J. B. Balfour, M.P., to be a Member of the Committee of Council on Education in Scotland.

The Second Session of the Edinburgh Mathematical Society was opened by Professor Tait, who delivered a lecture on "Listing's Topologie." The lecturer referred to the oddity of the title, and told how puzzled he had been himself to find a title for his subject, which treated of geometrical notions altogether independent of quantity. He showed how, by the aid of this new science of Topology, the number of colours necessary to colour a map, without any two of the colours touching, might be determined. He also gave some curious experiments in the doctrine of Knots, Linkages, and Lockings.

Professor Butcher opened the Session of the Edinburgh University Philomatic Society, with an address on *The Prometheus of Æschylus*. The play he declared to be a protest against contemporary mythology, the deification of force.

This month saw the inauguration of the Celtic Chair in the University of Edinburgh; but it seems that Professor Mackinnon as yet addresses but a small number of students.

Glasgow University has received a munificent gift of £12,500 from a lady, Mrs. John Elder, of Claremont House, for the endowment of a Chair of Naval Architecture. A few years ago, this lady gave £5,000 to the Chair of Civil Engineering in the University.

Professor Hay has been introduced to the students of Aberdeen University as the new Professor of Medical Jurisprudence, in room of Professor Ogston, retired. "Toxicology" was the subject of his inaugural lecture.

Professor D. G. Stokes, Lucasian Professor of Mathematics in the University of Cambridge, delivered the first of a course of lectures in Marischal College, Aberdeen, under the Burnet Lecture Fund. His subject was "The Undulatory Theory of Light."

The total number of students entered on the rolls of the Dundee University College, is, up to this time, 330, of whom 104 attend the day classes, and 226 the evening classes. There are 56 lady students, 43 being day students, and 13 evening students. The Mathematical and Natural Philosophy classes have drawn more students than any other, the evening Mathematical classes being specially well attended. Mr. Armitstead, M.P., has given £2,000 to establish bursaries in connection with the College. The youngest of the Scotch University Colleges is making rapid progress.

IRELAND.

Michaelmas Term at the University of Dublin is always a time of keen interest. It is not alone that the candidates for honour degrees now enter for their "Moderatorships"; but, as the term honour examinations are also prize examinations, it offers the great test of relative merit for undergraduates of every standing. And the present year has been no exception. The lists for Moderatorships have been well filled, notably in Classics, in which an unusual number of Gold Medallists have been named. But the great achievement of the year is in Science: Mr. Thomas R. Lyle having headed the list in both Mathematics and Experimental Science.

The University Studentships in Classics and Mathematics are awarded upon the results of the Moderatorship examinations. An event entirely without precedent has occurred this year. Owing to the rule that answering upon a second honour subject will also be taken into account, it has been possible for two students who are low in the

Classical lists to come to the top for Studentship, their completed totals being precisely equal. It was supposed that both would have been declared Students, the emoluments being equally shared. However, the Board of Senior Fellows resolved to withhold entirely the Classical Studentship, and also the Brooke Prizes, and awarded £150 in lieu to both claimants. This extraordinary decision has created a painful feeling. But, according to latest accounts, the Board has consented to reconsider its decision.

The Senate of the Royal University met on October 25th for the public conferring of degrees by the Chancellor. It is a ceremonial of much importance and dignity. But the interest on the present occasion was rendered especially keen by the fact that the results of the autumn examinations in honours were now read out for the first time. The large hall was crowded with students and their friends. The opening speech of the Chancellor, the Duke of Abercorn, was very hopeful for the future of the institution; and he took the unexpected step of referring by name to certain of the students, of both sexes, who had particularly distinguished themselves. The students upon whom degrees were conferred came from the three Queen's Colleges only; for next year will be the first in which Royal University students proper will come forward for the B.A.

The achievements of some of the students at the late honour examinations have been very remarkable. Several have taken honours in an extraordinary variety of subjects. In the First Arts examination, Mr. William M.F. Orr, of Belfast, took first place in Mathematics upon full marks; also in Experimental Physics, obtaining 584 marks out of 600. The small handful of women-students have also succeeded in taking first place in several cases. Thus, in the Second Arts examination, Miss A. Oldham headed the lists in both Logic and Biology, besides taking Latin honours and being ranked fifth on the Exhibition list. Clearly, if one use of a University be to give a motive for exertions in learning where otherwise there would have been none, the Royal University has claims to be considered a success.

A stated general meeting of the Association of Irish Schoolmistresses was held at the Alexandra College, Dublin, in the last week of October. It was an evening meeting, but the attendance was very good. A report of the work of the Committee was read and discussed. But the main business of the meeting was a discussion upon Mrs. Bryant's paper on the value of examinations, printed in this *Journal*. The Schoolmaster's Association have again done a graceful thing in inviting the members of this Association to join them in their annual Christmas meeting on the 28th instant, at the Gresham Hotel, Dublin.

N.B.—In stating last month that Mr. John I. Beare, of Trinity College, Dublin, had been appointed to the Professorship of Greek in the Queen's College, Cork, we gave circulation to a prevalent, but premature rumour. We understand that the appointment has not yet been formally filled.

SCHOOLS.

ASHBY-DE-LA-ZOUCH.—The Rev. L. W. Lloyd, of Wadham College, Oxford, has been appointed to the head-mastership.

HAILESBURY COLLEGE.—Regrets at the departure of Dr. Bradby, and anxious canvassings of possible successors, have occupied all our thoughts this month. There were twelve candidates, but only five were practically in the running—the Rev. E. H. Hicks, of C. C. C., Oxford; Dr. Kynaston, of Cheltenham; the Rev. F. D. Morice, of Rugby; the Rev. T. L. Papillon, of New College; and the Rev. J. Robertson, of Harrow. Mr. Hicks and Mr. Morice were "placed," but Mr. Robertson was an easy first. Readers of the *Journal* will remember Mr. Robertson's translations, and his wise and witty article on "Trifle Blindness." In force of character and originality, Dr. Bradby will recognise a kindred spirit, and welcome him with the "lucky words" of Lycidas—"For we were nursed upon the self-same hill."

KING'S LYNN GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—On Monday, November 5th, at Sandringham, H.R.H. the Prince of Wales presented the Gold Medal for the year to Francis Earle Suckling, of St. Mary Hall, Oxford.

TONBRIDGE.—The school has lately started a mission in Holy Cross, St. Pancras, a parish in which a good deal of the school property is situated. We have undertaken to provide part of the stipend of a curate for Mr. Moor, the Vicar, and intend to raise the sum required by chapel offertories and voluntary subscriptions.

WELLINGTON COLLEGE.—Open Scholarships. The following are elected Scholars:—1. W. S. Talbot (Rev. J. H. Edgar's, Temple Grove, East Sheen, Surrey); 2. C. C. Marrable (Rev. J. H. Edgar's); 3. G. V. Davidson (Durand Scholar), Wellington College; 4. C. Clay (H. Kemball Cook's, Esq., 23 Montpelier Crescent, Brighton); 5. J. R. de M. Abbott, Wellington College (late the Rev. R. Buston's, Tunbridge Wells, Kent); 6. W. Drysdale, Wellington College (late the Rev. J. W. Spurling's, Crowthorne); *accessit*, J. C. V. Durell (St. Mark's

School, Windsor). Examiner:—The Rev. C. Eddy, late Fellow and Tutor of Queen's College, Oxford.

WINCHESTER.—The new class-rooms have been opened this term, and are occupied by the five highest Divisions. The old class-rooms are mostly devoted to scientific purposes. Mr. Ll. Garbutt has succeeded Mr. Heyes as Science Master. Mr. W. L. Stouhouse has resigned his mastership; and Mr. H. J. Hardy has returned, after an absence of four years. The Premier's visit has been the event of the month. Leathes, the senior prefect, welcomed him in a very happy Latin address. The chief point in Mr. Gladstone's answer was his petition for a holiday.

TRANSLATION PRIZE.

For each month, till further notice, there will be set a passage, generally from a French or German Author, to be translated into English. A PRIZE OF TWO GUINEAS will be offered for the best version. Initials or a nom de guerre must be adopted by competitors, but the successful competitor is required to send his real name and address to the Prize Editor for publication. Versions must be forwarded to the "Prize Editor" of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, 86 Fleet Street, E.C., not later than the 15th of the month. Any translation which is sent with an addressed envelope and six postage stamps, will be returned with corrections. A First Class is entitled to a copy of "Prizes and Proximes," which will be forwarded on application. Those who have already received "Prizes and Proximes" may apply for a copy of "Maria Wuz."

The prize for the best translation of Lucan is awarded to "J. R."

"Lavinia," the winner of last month's prize, is Miss E. F. Poynter, 3 Clarine Place, Dover.

"Lavinia," in the second class, was a different competitor. The names in each class are not arranged, in order of merit.

At nox, felicis Magno pars ultima vitæ,
Sollicitos vana decept imagine somnos.
Nam Pompeiani visus sibi sede theatri
Innumeram effigiem Romanæ cernere plebis,
Adtollique suum lætis ad sidera nomen
Vocibus, et plausu cuneos certare sonantes.
Qualis erat populi facies clamorque aventis,
Olim quum juvenis primique ætate triumphii
Post domitas gentes, quas torrens ambit Iberus,
Et quæcumque fugax Sertorius impulit arma,
Vespere pacato, pura venerabilis æque
Quam currus ornante toga, plaudente senatu,
Sedit adhuc Romanus eques. Seu fine bonorum
Anxia venturis ad tempora læta refugit,
Sive per ambages solitas contraria visis
Vaticinata quies, magni tulit omnia planctus:
Seu vetito patrias ultra tibi cernere sedes,
Sic Romam Fortuna dedit. Ne rumpite somnos,
Castrorum vigiles; nullas tuba verberet aures,
Crastina dira quies, et imagine mœsta diurna
Undique funestas acies feret, undique bellum.

By J. R.

But night, to Magnus last of happy nights,
With hollow semblance fooled his anxious sleep:
Seated in Pompey's theatre he seemed
The phantom-thousands of Rome's folk to see;
While shouts of rapture tossed his name to heaven,
And bench on bench with emulous plaudits rang.
So looked the people, with such cheers of old
Hailed him at dawn of manhood, in his youth's
First triumph, when, victorious o'er the tribes
Hemmed by the rushing Ebro, with what hosts
Sertorius, slippery foeman, launched afield—
The West now quelled—in pure white toga he,

Majestic as in 'broidered chariot-robe,
 Sat 'mid the applauding senators, as yet
 But Knight of Rome. Whether at fortune's ebb,
 Mistrustful of the future, sleep fled back
 To times of gladness, or, with wonted maze,
 By counter-boding vision presage brought
 Of mighty wailing, or—as doomed no more
 To see thy native land, thus far did fate
 With Rome indulge thee. Break not his repose,
 Camp-sentries; let no trumpet scourge the ear:
 To-morrow's slumber, terror-fraught and gloomed
 With day's dark image, shall one scene present
 Of boundless slaughtering hosts and boundless war.

By E. D. A. M.

Night came—the last that o'er Pompeius fell,
 Ere he and Fortune took their long farewell—
 Night came, and with deceiving visions blest
 The soul, that slept not, in his sleeping breast.
 In the wide theatre, his name that bore
 The semblance of Rome's millions rose once more—
 High to the stars, with jubilant acclaim,
 Each rank and tier pealed loud Pompeius' name.
 Such faces erst, such clamour hailed him home,
 In youth and triumph, to the heart of Rome.
 Hailed him the victor of the clans of Spain;
 The hordes where Ebro sweeps into the main;
 Victor of all whom, as he fled afar,
 Sertorius' waning might could urge to war.
 Lord of the West, yet but a knight, he came,
 And heard the Senate's voice extol his name.
 And sate as honoured, mid the stately throng,
 In the white garb that showed the hero young,
 As in the victor's robe that from the car
 Spake forth the pomp and circumstance of war.
 Perchance, in sleep, he knew his good day's done,
 And turned from coming doom to bliss long gone.
 Perchance, as dreams are wont, in doubtful maze,
 Wandered the prescient sense by converse ways.
 Foretold, by visions of success, his doom,
 And the great wail that echoed round his tomb.
 Perchance the fate, that grudged him land and home,
 Gave him, in ruth, a visionary Rome.
 Peace to those slumbers; restful let him lie,
 And hush, ye sentinels, your watchful cry;
 Nor let the trump smite harsh upon his ear,
 To-morrow's sleep shall image nought but Fear,
 And, grim and stern with memories of the day,
 Show but the ranks that War and Death array.

By F. W. B.

That night, when Life and Fortune neared their last,
 A vain dream mocked him in his vexèd sleep.
 Him seemed he sat in Pompey's theatre
 And in a multitudinous vision saw
 The Roman commons,—by exultant throats
 Heard his own name re-echoed to the sky,
 Each rearing gallery emulous in acclaim.
 The sight, the shouts, the nation cheering,—all
 Was as had once been in his manhood's dawn,—
 The date of his first triumph,—when the tribes
 That rushing Ebro hems, and all the arms
 Ronsed by the runagate Sertorius
 Were crushed, and all the West would quieted,
 In robe of honour white as that white robe
 That decked his chariot,—'mid the Senate's chair,
 He sat then, still a simple Roman knight.
 Was't that the vision, in thy fair day's close,
 Half fearful of the future, turned again
 To the bright past? Or, riddling as dreams use,
 And boding contraries, did it portend
 A mighty mourning? Or, thy home being now
 A sight for ever banned, did Fortune still
 Thus bring Rome to thee?

Break not that repose,
 Ye sentries of the camp! nor trumpet-bray
 Molest no ears to-night!—To-morrow brings

The hidcons nightmare of the waking day,
 Fierce foes on all sides, and on all sides war.

By CHARIBERT.

That night the end of days by Fortune blest,
 With empty visions mocked his troubled rest.
 He saw in his own theatre's ample space
 A countless multitude of Roman race,
 Who made the benches echo with the acclaim
 That raised to heaven their favoured hero's name.
 So looked the people, such their joyous shout
 When, yet a youth, he triumphed for the rout
 Of tribes that dwell swift Ebro's banks along,
 And recreant Sertorius' motley throng.
 Nobler he seemed for lack of purple's aid,
 A simple knight in civic garb arrayed,
 While Rome's proud senators his praise confessed
 And hailed him victor o'er the prostrate West.
 Perchance his slumbering thoughts, at Fortune's close,
 Sought refuge in past bliss from coming woes,
 Or Fate in wonted riddles spoke her doom
 And hid in visions bright her bode of gloom;
 Or gods that granted not his fathers' home
 Again to see, in dreams thus showed him Rome.
 Break not his rest, ye guards; hushed be the bray,
 Of dreadful trumpet-note. To-morrow's fray,
 Casting its dismal shadow on the night,
 Shall tell of nought but war, defeat, and flight.

We class the 154 versions received as follows:—

First Class.—Minor, G. E. D., E. D. A. M., J. R., Detur digniori, M. F. C. H., Currente calamo, H. D. Pearson, C. R. H., Vannucchio, Neolog, Iris, Charibert, F. W. B., L. E. U.

Second Class.—Agricola, Fleetwood p.m., Oxymoron, Henriette, Inner Temple, J. C. P., Juvenis, Leod, Weybridge, Hector (1), Little Henry G., X? Latinulus, G. G., Dodo, Mostyn, Asymptotes, Miles, Patch, Incog., E. H. O., E. S. M., F. R. A. H., Tip, Sigma, Transfer, Apologist, G. M. M., Phylax, Colorado, J. N. F., Traeth, Adhuc, J. C. S.

Third Class.—Em C., Ebéniste, C. M. P. Madden, Esse, Dromalane, Trilobite, Harold Skimpole, Lascar, Hector (2), Latratu cantat, W. L. P., θ, Y. E. S., Ahasuerus, Subseaccha, H. Havelock, Tritoma, Pharsalia, Hedera, Heimdalen, M. P. Coghlan, J. H. Hallard, Gigadibs, M. A., Plensicles, æl, Victus, E. N. M., A. N. I. N.

Fourth Class.—E. M. W., M. L. H., Northern King, Ireue, R. H. C., Rab, Cistercian, Down, A. L. S., Lionel, S. G. Reed, G. St. John, Methuselah, H. D., Blackheathen, Ranunculus repens, Edificator, Peto, Latris, Toby Tossput, Ruff, H. B. Wilder, Ultramarine, New-castle, Bumbomachides, Nyassa, οδτις, Scroggins, A. N. T., Tiro, P. m.c.

Fifth Class.—Balliol, Elo, Hebe, Ellen M. C., Dick, Job, Misty Cloud, Tanaquil, David, Snowdou, Red Rag, Agricola, M. P. C., ἐρημος, J. Sheldon, Beekeeper, ἰώ μοι, Windle, Charnicoton, Delta, Paddock, Cardinal, J. P. H. S., Vetter Michel, Asella, Pennywinkle.

Sixth Class.—Hispania, Herga, Ignoramus, A. H. E., K. M. E., L. H., Owl, Jerry, Quies, Leam, Quirk, Benchwarmer, Scudero, Nous, Magnus, Tino, Lumpy, Mus, Scamp.

When we set a passage from Lucan, and gave at the same time a popular puzzle, we expected a small field, though we hoped to attract some choicer wits. A goodly number have entered, and the versions that we publish will show that the running was good. Dr. Baker, Head-master of Merchant Taylors' School, kindly undertook to adjudicate the prize. He writes to us:—"The piece seems to me rather better suited for blank verse than for rhyme. My only hesitation has been between 'J. R.' and 'E. D. A. M.' The latter is very good, but too much expanded. The vigorous and terse language of Lucan is hardly reproduced. Compare the quatrain which represents the first couplet of the original. Again, 'The hordes where Ebro sweeps into the main,' is inaccurate. But the rendering of the last part, from 'Seu sine bonorum' to the end, is excellent. 'F. W. B.' has many happy turns, and his rhythm is good, but he has one mis-translation, and his archaisms (the double negative *no*) are not happy. 'Charibert's' is a smooth, even version, but without any salient merits. 'J. R.'s' version is very close; many of the points are well made, and none missed. On these grounds I award him the prize."

The prize for the best list of the ten greatest living

English Men of Letters, with the greatest work of each, has been assigned by Mr. J. Cotter Morison to "J. U."

By J. U.

Browning	"Dramatic Lyrics."
Tennyson.....	"In Memoriam."
Swinburne	"Atalanta in Calydon."
Newman	"Apologia pro Vitâ suâ."
Ruskin	"Modern Painters."
M. Arnold	"Empedocles on Etna."
W. Morris	"Life and Death of Jason."
J. Morley.....	"Voltaire."
Lecky	"History of Rationalism in Europe."
E. A. Freeman	"History of Norman Conquest."

The total number of lists received was 534. Of this 45 gave lists of authors only, and 12 were disallowed as imperfect or evidently comic. The number of authors mentioned was 192; of these, 69 names occurred only once, and 47 ten times and upwards, as the following list will show.

Name of Author.	No. of times given.	Chief works.
Tennyson	501	In Memoriam (257). Idylls of the King (159).
Ruskin	462	Modern Painters (238). Stones of Venice (125).
Matthew Arnold	453	Literature and Dogma (137). Essays in Criticism (89). Poems (50).
Browning	448	The Ring and the Book (253). Paracelsus (58). Men and Women (37).
Froude	391	History of England.
Swinburne	262	Atalanta in Calydon.
E. A. Freeman	241	History of the Norman Conquest.
Spencer	235	Study of Sociology.
Cardinal Newman	192	Apologia pro Vitâ Suâ.
John Morley	187	Life of Cobden.
William Morris	147	The Earthly Paradise.
Huxley	115	Lay Sermons.
W. E. Gladstone	107	Homer and the Homeric Age.
Lecky	95	History of Rationalism in Europe.
Farrar	78	Life of Christ.
Professor Secley	62	Ecce Homo.
Leslie Stephen	55	English Thought in the 18th Century.
Lewis Morris	53	Epic of Hades.
William Black	50	The Princess of Thule.
Shorthouse	50	John Inglesant.
Blackmore	48	Lorna Doone.
Max Müller	44	Science of Language.
Justin McCarthy	43	History of Our Own Times.
Geo. Macdonald	41	Robert Falconer.
Professor Stubbs	33	Constitutional History.
Charles Reade	31	"'Tis never too late to mend."
Tyndall	28	On Light.
Kinglake	27	Invasion of the Crimea.
Samuel Smiles	22	Self-Help.
J. A. Symonds	21	History of the Renaissance.
Sir Henry Taylor	20	Philip van Artevelt.
Henry Morley	20	English Literature.
G. O. Trevelyan	19	Life of Macaulay.
George Meredith	19	Beauchamp's Career.
Archbp. Trench	18	Notes on the Parables.
Professor B. Jowett	18	Notes on Plato.
Sir Henry Maine	17	Ancient Law.
Wilkie Collins	16	The Woman in White.
Bishop Lightfoot	15	Commentaries.
B. F. Westcott	14	Gospel of the Resurrection.
James Martineau	13	Endeavours after a Christian Life.
Walter Besant	11	All Sorts and Conditions of Men.
Edward Dowden	11	Shakespeare: his mind and art.
W. H. Mallock	11	The New Republic.
Thomas Hardy	10	The Return of the Native.
Sir John Lubbock	10	Pre-Historic Times.
G. A. Sala	10	The Baddington Peerage.

A Prize of Two Guineas will be given for the best translation of the following passage of the Abschiedslied of Theodor Sturm.

Kein Wort, auch nicht das kleinste, kann ich sagen,
Wozu das Herz den vollen Schlag verwehrt;
Die Stunde drängt, gerüstet steht der Wagen,
Es ist die Fahrt der Heimat abgekehrt.

Geht immerhin—denn eure Tat ist euer—
Und widerruft, was einst das Herz gebot;
Und kauft, wenn dieser Preis euch nicht zu teuer,
Dafür euch in der Heimat euer Brot!

Ich aber kann des Landes nicht, des eignen,
In Schmerz verstummte Klagen missverstehn;
Ich kann die stillen Gräber nicht verleugnen,
Wie tief sie jetzt in Unkraut auch vergehn.

Du, deren zarte Augen mich befragen,—
Der dich mir gab, gesegnet sei der Tag!
Lass nur dein Herz an meinem Herzen schlagen,
Und zage nicht! es ist derselbe Schlag.

Es strömt die Luft—die Knaben stehn und lauschen,
Vom Strand herüber dringt ein Mövenschrei;
Das ist die Flut! das ist des Meeres Rauschen;
Ihr kennt es wol; wir waren oft dabei.

Von meinem Arm in dieser letzten Stunde
Blickt einmal noch ins weite Land hinaus,
Und merkt es wol, es steht auf diesem Grunde,
Wo wir auch weilen, unser Vaterhaus.

Wir scheiden jetzt, bis dieser Zeit Beschwerde
Ein andrer Tag, ein besserer, gesüht;
Denn Raum ist auf der heimatlichen Erde
Für Fremde nur, und was den Fremden dient.

Doch ist's das flehendste von den Gebeten:
Ihr mögt dereinst, wenn mir es nicht vergönnt.
Mit festem Fuss auf diese Scholle treten,
Von der sich jetzt mein heißes Auge trennt!—

Und du mein Kind, mein jüngstes, dessen Wiege
Auch noch auf diesem teuren Boden stand,
Hör mich!—denn alles andere ist Lüge—
Kein Mann gedeihet ohne Vaterland!

Kannst du den Sinn, den diese Worte führen,
Mit deiner Kinderseele nicht verstehn,
So soll es wie ein Schauer dich berühren,
Und wie ein Pulsschlag in dein Leben gehn!

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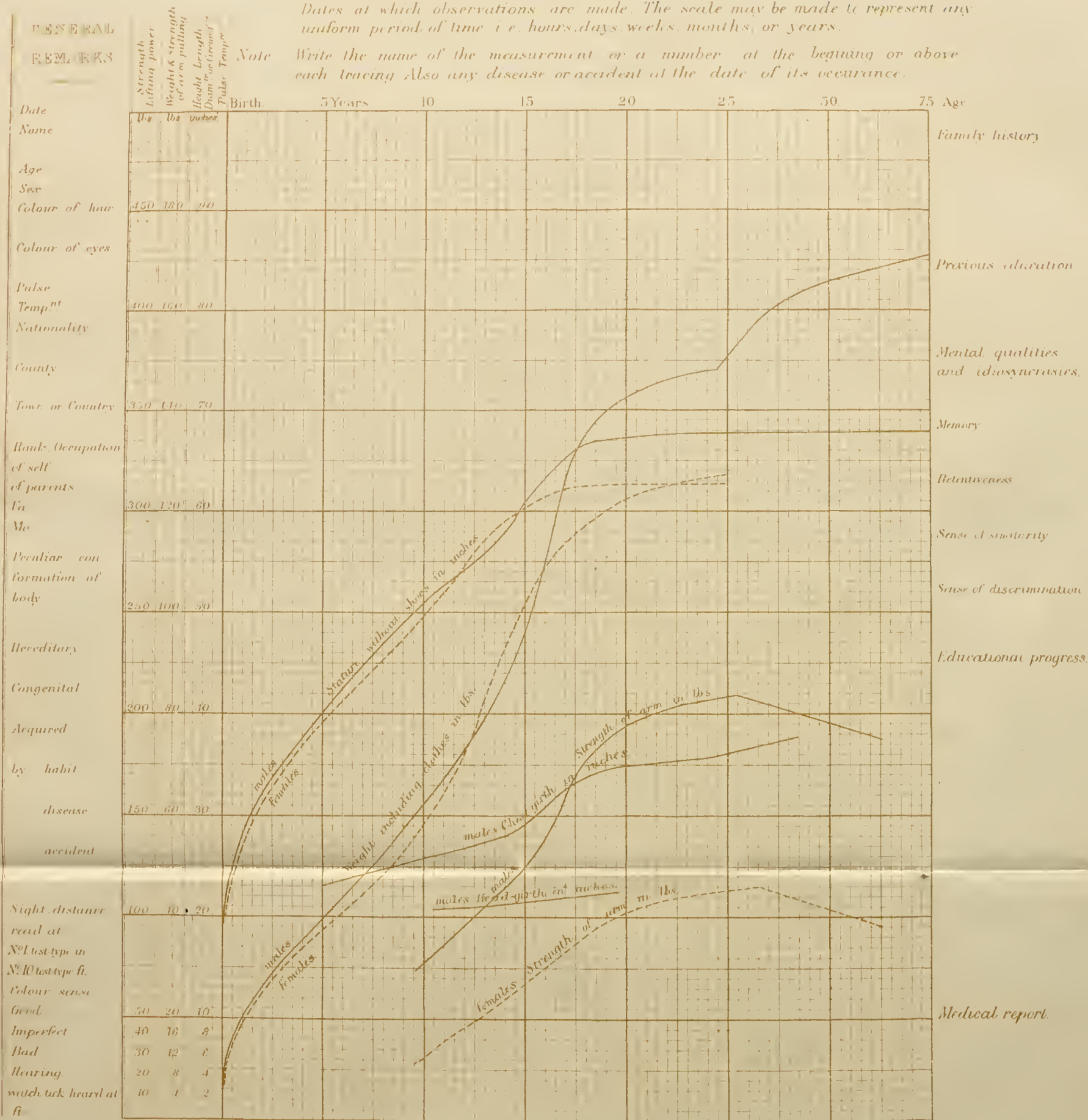
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	<i>above</i>
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Sex	
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Colour of eyes	
Pulse	<i>Previous education.</i>
Temp. ^{nt}	
Nationality	
County	<i>Mental qualities, and idiosyncrasies.</i>
Town or Country	
Rank, Occupation of self	<i>Memory</i>
of parents	<i>Retentiveness</i>
"	

SUPPLEMENT

TO THE

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

No. 173.

LONDON, DECEMBER 1, 1883.

REVIEWS AND MINOR NOTICES.

History of England, 1603-1642. By S. R. GARDINER, LL.D.
In Ten Volumes. Vol. I.-VI. (Longmans, Green, & Co.)

The appearance of a re-issue of Mr. Gardiner's *History* in a popular edition gives us an opportunity of saying something about his work as a whole. No better proof can perhaps be given of the increase amongst us of a discriminating taste for historical study than the demand which has led to the publication of this new and cheaper edition of the ten volumes which have as yet appeared of the *History of England* during the earlier part of the seventeenth century. Mr. Gardiner's work has won its place in public estimation, because it adds much to our knowledge of the causes and nature of the struggle for freedom, and not by any affectations or prettinesses of writing. At the same time he has told his story well. His style is easy and pure, and the very simplicity of his language gives dignity to his descriptions of great scenes. Of late years the store of materials for constructing the history of the seventeenth century has rapidly increased. Fresh Calendars of State papers have been issued in quick succession. Copies have been made of the despatches of Papal agents and of Venetian and Dutch ambassadors which reveal the deepest secrets of political intrigue. Reports of Parliamentary proceedings, and letters and papers of statesmen, have been brought to light in castle and manor-house. In preparing this re-issue of his history, Mr. Gardiner has made full use of all the new materials to which he has been able to gain access. Some of these are still unprinted. From the mass of Roman transcripts in the Record Office, fresh light is thrown on the dealings of James with his Catholic subjects, and on the subject of his advances towards a reunion of the churches. Copies of Gondomar's despatches, which Mr. Cosens has allowed him to use have enabled Mr. Gardiner to give many particulars of the relations between England and Spain, and several curious bits about the English Court, in addition to those which he had already acquired from his own transcripts at Simancas. And it must be remembered, in estimating the character of his work, that a mass of material adds greatly to the difficulty of constructing a narrative. No one, perhaps, who has not had some small experience in such work can fully appreciate the skill which he has shown in the use of his authorities and in the reproduction of his information.

In the arrangement of the matter in these volumes there is much gained and some little lost. The historical retrospect which formed the first chapter of the original edition is now compressed into two or three pages, and the reader is referred to the masterly sketch contained in the *Introduction to the Study of English History*. One or two matters might be amended in the summary which has taken its place. The description, for instance, of the representation of freeholders in the Council of St. Albans should be more explicit, for, as it stands, it is likely to convey a wrong impression. The attitude of the Tudor monarchs towards the New Learning, the Reformation and the Puritan and Separatist movements, forms an appropriate opening to the work, and the struggle of James VI. with the Scotch clergy is better placed before the detailed account of his reign in England than it was in the first edition. By making his chapters shorter, and adding to their number, Mr. Gardiner has brought out his different subjects with

greater distinctness. One serious loss is incurred by transferring the chapter on the Fall of Lord Chief Justice Coke from the end of the second volume, where it stood in all its proper importance, to the beginning of the third volume, which is for the most part occupied with wholly different matters. The stubborn resistance of the great Common Law judge to the attempt of Bacon to uphold the despotic pretensions of the Crown, by the monstrous application of writ from Chancery, and the violent means by which the King brought the judges to a position of dependence, form, as Mr. Gardiner himself has pointed out, the greatest constitutional landmark of the reign, and it is a pity that this crisis loses something of its weight by the new arrangement. In all other cases, however, the changes in the structure of the work seem to be for the better.

In tracing the growth of the divergency between the King and the Commons during the reign of James, Mr. Gardiner has treated the foreign policy of that monarch, and the events on the Continent with which it was connected, with unusual breadth of view and firmness of grasp. Great as were the differences between the Crown and the Commons on the subjects of religion and of the proper sphere of royal action, all such questions were thrown into the background by the intrigues of James with Spain, which form the main subject of the two volumes on "The Spanish Marriage." As we are guided through the series of the King's disgraceful proposals and hesitations, it becomes easy to understand the national distrust of him. Uncertain in his course throughout, he was plunged by the Bohemian insurrection into difficulties from which he could only escape by an honourable decision. The two personages in Europe who had most need to be wise were the King of England and the Elector Palatine, and they were equally unable to read the signs of the times, or to use the right means to gain their ends. A striking passage illustrative of Mr. Gardiner's hold of European history describes (Spanish Marriage, ii. 289) how in 1623 Frederic, penniless wanderer though he then was, had the peace of Germany and his own fortune in his hands, and how he wrecked all through his lack of wisdom. It was the same once and again with James, though his failures arose from other causes. Among the many masterly studies of character contained in these volumes none is more interesting than the description of the selfishness which affected the foreign policy of that King. With aims not unworthy of a great and wise monarch, James was neither great enough nor wise enough to exercise the self-denial necessary for their accomplishment. As Mr. Gardiner's work approaches its climax, it gains fresh interest. "England under the Duke of Buckingham and Charles I.," records the first phase of the great struggle. The connexion between the popular discontent at the rash policy of the minister and the determination of the King to stand alone with him rather than gain the support of the nation by his dismissal, is brought out with great clearness. So long as Buckingham remained at the head of affairs, the Commons would do nothing to help the Crown; and, rather than lose him, Charles chose to lose the help of his people. The King was not without encouragement in thus assuming an autocratic position. The rise of the Arminian party, as it was called, and the influence which it exercised on the Crown, are traced with much care throughout the whole of Mr. Gardiner's work. Against this party the Commons carried on an unceasing struggle. It has been

alleged (*Edin. Rev.*, Oct. 1876) that Mr. Gardiner has given undue prominence to the religious side of this struggle at the expense of its political importance. No separation can indeed be made between the double tendency of the Arminian movement, for it expressed a phase of religious opinion which is inconsistent with political freedom. If Charles had succeeded in establishing for himself the position which was aimed at in the Declaration attached to the Lambeth Articles (*Personal Government*, i. 36), he would have won a victory which would have made it hard to maintain the assertion of constitutional rights. That some of the leaders of the Opposition saw the necessary connexion between the doctrines of the High Church party and the subversion of constitutional government, there can be no question, and this may be gathered without difficulty from Mr. Gardiner's volumes. At the same time, "the pomp of ceremonies," and, "in point of doctrine, many fair approaches towards Rome," were the outward signs which raised the wrath of the Commons and occasioned the attacks made upon the Arminian party. And we think that, in relating the quarrels about doctrines and ceremonies, Mr. Gardiner has acted wisely in not going beyond the text of his authorities.

In his treatment of the leading parties in Church and State, Mr. Gardiner is remarkably fair and moderate. He imputes no evil motives, and comments on the actions and words of his characters with regard to the time in which they lived and the circumstances in which they were placed. In dealing with the period on which he is engaged, enthusiasm would be especially dangerous. Indeed, of late we have had quite enough of fervid historical writing, of grandiloquent phrases and highly wrought descriptions. Without such false adornments as these, the minute and careful criticisms of character contained in these volumes have the interest which naturally belongs to the able treatment of subjects of deep importance. Yet the judicial spirit, which is as rare as it is valuable in such a work as this, should not be obtrusive. And there is a certain coldness in Mr. Gardiner's estimates of character which conveys the idea that he lacks sympathy with the actors in his drama. His utterances sound like those of one exalted above the level of the men whose lives and actions he criticizes with calm and keen discernment. Weighed in the balance of the present day, the means by which the statesmen of the Rebellion sought to gain their end seem rude and mistaken. Yet they fought the good fight with such weapons as they had, and they worked, while it was day, in the light of their own day. Some part, however, of the lack of sympathy which has struck us in Mr. Gardiner's writing must be put down to his evident desire not only to be just, but to appear just. And so much exaggeration, both of praise and blame, has been employed on the characters of the leading men of either side that impartial criticism is well worth some slight coldness of expression. Never before have the ideas and conduct of Wentworth and Pym been so ably drawn out. The description, for instance, of the exact limits of the change in Wentworth's position between the days when "the reforming spirit was strong in him," and the speech at York repudiating the late action of the Commons, and of how that change was one of the spirit rather than of the letter, escaping for that reason the consciousness of Wentworth himself, is a valuable contribution to our knowledge of the time as well as of the man. Full of distrust of a Parliament composed of country squires, looking for support to the people at large, desiring that every man should do something to uphold the system which he believed would save the country, Wentworth certainly presents, as Mr. Gardiner strikingly observes, some curious points of comparison with the Earl of Chatham. Exactly opposite to Wentworth in all his thoughts, Pym revered the Parliament and exalted the Commons, unmindful that sometimes the nation was not in conformity with his ideas. While Strafford saw social abuses on every side, and sought to reform them by practical means, Pym was well content with society as it was, and only desired "to quicken it with a higher moral spirit" and to free it from "the hindrances thrown in its way by a defective organisation." (*Fall of the Monarchy*, ii. 179.)

The clearness of Mr. Gardiner's historical perception is forcibly illustrated by his treatment of the relations in which Irish and Scotch affairs stood to the course of English politics. The struggle between James and the High Presbyterian party before he came to the English throne, his subsequent success in establishing the Royal Supremacy in Scotland, and the cruel injustice which attended the plantation of Ulster, described in the first volume of the series, stand in close connexion with the events which form the subject of the last instalment of the work as yet published. In the "Fall of the Monarchy of Charles I.," it is true that, as the author remarks, a familiar tale is told again. It is, however, told as it has never been told before. The policy of Strafford in attempting to crush the national movement in Scotland by force of arms, and the intrigues of the King with the Irish Catholics, are brought far more clearly than in any other work into their true relations to the position taken up by the Long Parliament.

As his story reaches the memorable scenes of the great struggle, Mr. Gardiner puts forth greater power of description than he has shown in his earlier volumes. His account of the trial of Strafford, of the mental conflict through which the King passed before he assented to the death of his great minister, and of the closing scene of the Earl's life, are told with a simple dignity of language which well befits the subject. Our limits preclude us from attempting any further description of Mr. Gardiner's work. Much that may be said in its praise necessarily remains unsaid. The earlier volumes have long been scarce and eagerly sought for, and it is very possible that many of our readers may not have been able to obtain them. The new edition, of which a large instalment is before us, will enable them to study this History as a whole. And it is only by reading it in its entirety that a fair estimate can be formed of it. We have no fear but that those who do thus study it will agree that it is an admirable example of the fruits of careful labour, critical skill, and scientific treatment, as applied to the most important period of our national life.

Life and Letters of William Ballantyne Hodgson, LL.D., late Professor of Economic Science in the University of Edinburgh.
 Edited by J. M. D. MEIKLEJOHN, M.A., Professor of the Theory, History, and Practice of Education in the University of St. Andrews. (Edinburgh: David Douglas.)

It has now come to be an admitted necessity of good biography that it must aim at producing a vivid psychological study. The author must present a true picture of a human mind and action, and show to his readers not only what his hero thought and did, but in what order he thought and did, and why. Judged by these canons, the memoir of the late Dr. Hodgson is found much wanting. Surely, in the three years which have elapsed since his sad death, in harness, at the Brussels Educational Congress, there has been time sufficient for compiling an entirely satisfactory biography. Such a prominent character in so many different enterprises certainly merited wise and sympathetic treatment, if ever man did; and it is with feelings of disappointment that we read the volume which Professor Meiklejohn has just now given us. For those who had the good fortune to know Dr. Hodgson personally, this book may be of some help in forming a true estimate of his character; but for all others we fear that it will be productive of much error and misunderstanding. The narrative limps throughout: in some places, copious and even confidential; in others, scanty, mysterious, and defective. The selection of letters is to be condemned, both on grounds of irrelevancy and of taste. Those frequently recurring execrations of Lord Beaconsfield which were written in the fever-heat of party contest, are not at all necessary to enlighten us on Dr. Hodgson's political opinions; and mere catalogues of books and itineraries of foreign travel, are surely superfluous.

In many cases, too, a letter—an enigma, rather—is thrust upon us absolutely unexplained. A date, three asterisks, one or two lines of print, then three other asterisks! For instance—

"London. 30th May, 1876. * * * In your testimonial I much admire the expression 'perspective of a school.' * * * To Mr. Fitch."

Sometimes we come across several consecutive pages of such scraps, which at their best are tiresome, and are often a great deal worse—incomprehensible, or even misleading. The somewhat timorous introductory disclaimer, too, of hearty sympathy with the object of the memoir, does not raise the reader's hopes. An unappreciative likeness is sure to be a false one. Throughout the book there is a manifest want of care, almost of interest. Laudatory platitudes take the place of genuine reasonable praise, and we are choked with superlatives at every turn. Dr. Hodgson, we are told, possessed this power, that virtue, in the highest degree. He was a "born journalist," a far-seeing Statesman, an acute economist. Professor Meiklejohn seems to have confounded the relative functions of a biography and a tombstone. Even the endeavour "to build up an intellectual portrait in mosaic" has failed; because the editor seems to have forgotten that a mosaic is not made out of rough road-metal, or any scraps of stone picked up hap-hazard; but is carefully arranged, and shaped, and polished of rich marbles, curiosities, and blending colours, quaint but symmetrical. In the life and letters of such a man as Hodgson, we cannot think that the materials for this are wanting; but rather the artisan qualified to work upon them.

In our November issue of 1880—the year of Dr. Hodgson's death—we published some "Personal Recollections" of him, by Mrs. Hertz. As this article gave an exhaustive study of his character, by an intimate friend (whose name is strangely omitted in the volume), it is unnecessary for us to go over the same ground again.

Education was the subject to which he devoted most time and labour, and we think that it is by his work in this that he will chiefly live. There are many wise and beautiful sayings, many terse criticisms and valuable suggestions, which we should like to quote, did space permit. Above all, he everywhere evinces a great-hearted lovingness for all his fellow-labourers—a fervent desire to ennoble the profession of teacher, which he considered to be higher than all others. He is especially clear in distinguishing between real teachers and mere scholars, and his most caustic utterances are called forth to denounce the practice of appointing to school inspectorships clever young men who have had no experience of teaching. "What," he asks, "should we think of a manufacturing concern in which the foreman had not been a journeyman, or even an apprentice?" He advocates mixed classes. Most eloquent is he in favour of inculcating habits of thrift—elementary economics—upon children, and impresses in many of his letters the necessity of teaching the laws of health to the young. How terribly in earnest he was upon this question, may be seen from the following extract. He has been lecturing on Physiology to a class of girls:—

"I tried to make the lessons not only an addition to valuable and interesting knowledge, but an exercise of observation and of thought, and a stimulus to the feelings of wonder, gratitude, admiration, and even awe, with which every one ought to contemplate the structure of the body. In myself these feelings are so strong as at times to choke my utterance; and my emotion is increased by the sight of so many open-minded and open-hearted girls, of whose future as wives and mothers it is impossible to think without an earnest longing that it may be one's blessed privilege to have done something to make them—and through them others yet unborn—happier, wiser, better. *Alas! that any one should ever feel either teaching or learning to be a drudgery.*"

Dr. Hodgson was also a firm supporter of the higher education of women. In a letter to Mrs. Ellis, he ridicules the popular idea "that a mother should be an idiot in order that she should love her children." He also has strong ideas about the instruction of very young children, and, after a visit to a school of this kind, he makes the following characteristic remark: "I have noticed that infant-school teachers appear to have a childish expression of face and voice, just like the boy who lived so long on mutton that he grew woolly in the face."

Although this memoir has many faults, we cannot but recommend it to the attention of our readers. But it must be

perused carefully, if at all. It abounds in good things. The mosaic is not deficient in gems; but the unworthy is so often carelessly put forward, that we feel afraid lest much which is good may have been kept back—that surface samples have been taken at random, while the deep mine remains unexplored. To all who remember the rich voice, full of encouragement; the bright smile, glowing with wit and mirth; the eyes that kindled and glanced "when swords were clashing and flashing," or whenever injustice dared show its head, no word-picture can ever satisfy, nor, we humbly acknowledge, has a mere review even the right to attempt description.

Cicero pro Sestio. By the Rev. HUBERT A. HOLDEN, M.A., LL.D. (Macmillan & Co. 1883.)

Dr. Holden has applied himself with admirable thoroughness to the work of editing the *Pro Sestio*; and, if the main obstacle to the study of this brilliant and interesting speech has been, as we imagine, the want of a good English commentary, we may safely predict for it a greater popularity in future. In his Introduction, which is a model of clearness, Dr. Holden sketches the men and events of the troubled years 59-57 B.C., leaving on the mind a vivid impression of the period, and in the main a just one; though in the case of his most prominent character, Clodius, he hardly "gives the devil his due," for there is no hint of the brilliant abilities which, with all his faults, the violent tribune certainly possessed. He is depicted too much as a mere Dolfo Spini of Ancient Rome, and nothing more. It seems questionable whether the bills of Clodius, passed in 58 B.C., were "in preparation" for his attack upon Cicero. This is certainly the view of Watson ("Cicero's Letters," p. 19), but Mommsen ("Hist. Rom.," iv., 296) seems to hold the more natural opinion that they were passed after Cicero's departure in March. In § 23 we note a chronological error and an inconsistency with the note on 85, 25 (we quote the smaller paragraphs and Dr. Holden's lines), where it is rightly stated that the burning of Milo's house took place on November 12, and therefore cannot have been the occasion of his action *de vi* against Clodius. And we rather miss some explanation of the cause—probably the attitude of Pompey—which made it possible for the tribunes, on June 1, 58 B.C., to propose Cicero's return without serious resistance from Clodius.

The rather complicated argument of the speech is well summarised at the close of the Introduction, and the more detailed analyses given in the course of the notes are very well done. At the end of the volume are two valuable indexes, which the Preface justly calls "unusually complete": one exclusively grammatical, and likely to be most useful for Latin Prose and the study of construction generally; the other containing all words, phrases, and proper names that are in any way specially noticeable in the text. Good indexes are too rare not to be prized when we have them.

So far we have spoken of the features of the book that are specially the editor's own. For the general notes, Dr. Holden is, as he handsomely admits, mainly indebted to Halm, from whom he does not often differ, though he abbreviates his discussions, adds some original quotations by way of illustration, and has bestowed much pains on supplying full references to modern grammars. We venture to think that Dr. Holden's quotations are often unnecessarily long; e.g., in the notes on 55, 25; 84, 28, and elsewhere. Halm is often content with two lines where Dr. Holden quotes a dozen. We notice a passage where he differs from Halm in one note, and is landed in a confusion by returning to him in the next, viz., "*non offert se istis temeritatibus, ut, cum reipublicae nihil prosit, civi rempublicam privet,*" 61, 24. "*Istis temeritatibus*" is translated "those rash actions of his (Cato's) enemies"; and yet, immediately afterwards, "*ut . . . privet*" is explained as exegetical of "*istis.*" But the "*ut*" clause certainly describes Cato's action, and cannot, on Dr. Holden's view of "*temeritatibus*," refer to "*istis,*" but directly to "*offert.*" The note about Rufus's name (82, 2) contains a misapprehension. A Roman, in Cicero's day, was scarcely ever styled by his gentile name and cognomen—Cæsar was not called Julius Cæsar, but Caius Cæsar or Caius Julius, or

Julius or Cæsar alone. Hence, if Rufus's gentile name was Quintus, as the note states, Quintus Rufus would scarcely have been "the only name by which they knew him." Orelli's explanation is more probable, and at any rate can be reconciled with Roman usage. In general, however, the notes are laudably accurate. The text is dealt with partly in the notes themselves, and partly in a special appendix. With regard to it, Dr. Holden maintains on the whole a masterly inactivity (though Mr. Reid, of whose part in the work we shall speak later, is less disposed to hold his hand). He notices varieties of reading,—we can find, however, no remark on the difficult passage in 107,—without often attempting to reconstitute; and so the cruces of the text, such as those in 50, 72, 78, and 110, remain as the German left them. There are one or two slips which will be corrected in future editions. The reference in the note on 27, 2, to the note on 63, 30, is not relevant. In 73, 28, note, the bill from which Serranus withdrew his name was clearly that of the other tribunes, not of Clodius. The date 49 should be 58, note on 69, 16; 57 B.C. should be 58, in the summary on p. 149. Piso's name was Lucius (as rightly stated in 169), not Publius, as on p. 93. With all deference to the editor's scholarship, we question whether he has any good authority for "cavet alteri periculum" in his note on 15, 3.

The translations are a more important subject. We wish we could say they are at all above the average; but we cannot. Mr. Jeyes has shown, in a book which we reviewed last week, that Cicero can be translated into English which reads like English, and yet remains strictly faithful to the original. Let us take some examples of Dr. Holden's renderings:—"What was the reason that for a state of such resources and an empire of such magnitude" (men would not sacrifice themselves) (1, 1); "that the censorian power of branding a man with ignominy should be done away with" (55, 25); (the regents) "were paraded before all public assemblies,—falsely it is true, but nevertheless so as to intimidate them—as being vouchers for my destruction" (42, 23). These are wooden sentences enough, betraying at the first blush the fact that they are translations, and very feebly representing the eloquent Roman orator. To a possible contention that they are only meant to give practical assistance, and for nothing else, we may reply that, in the first place, a clumsy translation is bad art, which is always and in all places to be avoided; and, secondly, its usefulness is only momentary—whereas that of a good one is educative and permanent. At any rate, Dr. Holden's translations are not his strong point.

We conclude by remarking on Mr. Reid's share in this edition, which consists in the addition of a considerable number of notes under his own initials. He certainly strikes us as more liberal than judicious with his suggestions for textual emendation. What real need is there, for example, to alter "omnem vim" into "omne jus," in 31, 11? Or to supply "debitam" in 132, 20? And is not "escarium," in 72, 23, a somewhat irrelevant guess as well as a wild one? A few of his explanatory notes are to the point, but some are rather desultory. Often he only raises chimæras. A "difficulty which does not seem to have been noticed," and which Mr. Reid has discovered (in 78, 4), has, we should say, hitherto escaped observation, simply because it does not exist. On the whole, we doubt whether Dr. Holden gains by Mr. Reid's additions, but the scholarly thoroughness of his work and its generally high merit cannot fail to secure for it a ready acceptance and lasting popularity.

CHRISTMAS BOOKS.

Prof. Church is as regular a Christmas visitor, and as welcome, as Santa Claus. This year he gives us *Roman Life in the Days of Cicero* (Seeley & Co.). Sextus Roscius, Verres, Cæsar and Pompeius, Brutus and Portia, Antony and Augustus, all the great names that group themselves round the Roman orator, stand out in clear outline,—a series of autotypes, as it were, faithfully copied from the sketches scattered through the works of Cicero. The publishers have done their part well; the ink-photographs of ancient statues are very effective; and, altogether, the volume makes the best prize-book of the season. Two other Christmas books of the same firm—*The City*

in the Sea, and the *Pharaohs and their People*—are noticeable for their most effective illuminated illustrations. Of their contents, we hope to say something another day.

The Illustrated Poetry Book for Young Readers. (T. Fisher Unwin.)—This is a charming little book, very prettily got up; and we can say of it, what it is seldom possible to say of a miscellaneous collection of poetical pieces, that it is new of its kind. The compiler has purposely avoided the beaten tracks, and set before himself the object of gathering into a volume as many as possible of the good things that have been omitted from other collections. It follows that he has had to draw principally upon the living minor poets; also, that the Americans have contributed largely. We don't wish to say that the American poets are better than the English ones, or the moderns than the ancients. But, as we turn over the pages of this little book, we are surprised to find what a large number of spirited ballads and other poems describing action, or telling a story, have been produced by our contemporaries, and comparatively neglected. And we are, moreover, forced to admit that a collection of many poems of this sort makes a much more harmonious volume than an equal number of fragments broken from the greater works of greater masters.

By Sheer Pluck. (Blackie & Son.)—*With Clive in India.* (Blackie & Son.)—*Friends though Divided.* (Griffith & Farran.) By G. A. HENRY.—Mr. Henry's name is a sufficient guarantee that these books will be full of interest to boys. The first tells the adventures in Africa of a young naturalist, who afterwards comes in for a share of the Ashanti War. The second deals with the ten years following Clive's taking military service in India. The third is a tale of the Cavaliers and Roundheads in the Civil War. The books are full of incident, and the interest is never allowed to flag. It is true that their heroes come in for an almost unfair share of hairbreadth 'scapes, but the young readers will not be disposed to quarrel with them on that account. The illustrations are very good; we prefer those of the two books first named, where the figures in action are particularly well drawn.

The Wigwam and the War-path. By ASCOTT R. HOPE, Author of "The Men of the Backwoods," &c. (Blackie & Son.)—Mr. Ascott Hope is so deservedly popular as a teller of stories of adventure that, in order to recommend a new volume from his pen, we need say little more than that it is his. He has chosen, this time, a number of episodes of the struggle between the white settlers of the North American Continent and the Red Man whom they displaced, and made of each a tale complete in itself, and yet so far dependent on the others, that the whole book gives a good general idea of the progress of American history in its earlier chapters. The stories vary greatly in the character of their incidents: one tells of a young Spaniard, who, after being half-roasted alive by Indians, has his life spared at the intercession of friendly squaws to whom he has endeared himself; another treats of the sufferings and the piety of a Puritan mother in bondage to savages; another, of the gallant stand made against the Iroquois, in the early days of Canadian settlement, by the young daughter of the Seigneur de Verchères; another, of the chivalry of an Indian youth who, at the risk of his life, delivered a female prisoner of war from the cruel death to which she was doomed by the superstition of his tribe. But all the stories are told well, in simple spirited language, and with a fulness of detail that makes them instructive as well as interesting.

The Wings of Courage, and The Cloud-Spinner. (Blackie & Son.)—It was a good thought of Mrs. Corkran to translate these two charming stories into English, though we fear that the majority of English parents will be alarmed at the idea of giving to babes and sucklings anything in the way of literature that bears the questionable name of George Sand. We hope, however, that they will so far trust us as not to reject this book without first reading it. They will find in it nothing that can hurt the most innocent mind, and everything that is most delightful to children,—wholesome common-sense blended with tender and graceful sentiment; detail, at once homely and picturesque, of peasant life; wonderful information about the habits of birds; and, above all, an atmosphere of fantastic mysticism such as all grown-up people who possess imagination and memory remember as having surrounded their own childhood, though very few can have it again at will as George Sand could all her life.

The Patriot Martyr, and other Stories of Female Heroism. (Blackie & Son.)—This is very far from being a first-rate book. The writing is common, and the compiler is not as clear as he should be as to what makes a female heroine. Deborah Sampson, the eccentric girl who went through the War of American Independence in the disguise of a man, is not entitled to rank with Joan of Arc, and Helen Walker, and Grace Darling. She had courage certainly, but her courage was misdirected, and her career is not one that girls should be stirred up to imitate.

Heroic Adventure. (T. Fisher Unwin.)—We have here a series of stories of such adventures and hardships as belong to scientific exploration and discovery. The book is excellently written, and deserves to be welcomed by all who appreciate the importance (and the difficulty) of establishing associations early in life between notions of manliness and occupations not connected with war.

The Roman Students. By D. ALCOCK. (T. Fisher Unwin.)—This is a tale of the Renaissance, carefully written, and showing considerable labour in the preparation. It will interest boys and girls who are keen about history, because to such young people anything with a historical setting is acceptable. But it wants dramatic force, and the characters are not very real, nor yet, we think, very historical. The moods of Theodore Benedetto and Raymond Chalcondyles savour more of the nineteenth than the fifteenth century, and their conversations resemble the talk of middle-aged women rather than that of young men.

"Growing-up." By JENNETT HUMPHREYS. (Griffith & Farran.)—"Growing-up" is described on the title-page as "a story for girls that boys may read." It shows very intimate knowledge of child life, and has a rather bewildering exuberance of local colour, and nursery and schoolroom colloquialisms. The story begins in Jamaica, and there is a vivid description in one of the earlier chapters of a hurricane, in which the parents of the two little girls who "grow-up" are killed. The rest of the incidents are more commonplace, but they are all thoroughly realised, and there is humour and pathos in the writing.

"Chums." A Story for Youngsters. By HARLEIGH SEVERNE. (Griffith & Farran.)—One needs to be a youngster not to be slightly bored now and again by this elaborate record of very juvenile school experiences; but youngsters will, we have no doubt, read it with unflinching attention. There are plenty of boys in the book, and plenty of practical jokes, a good moral, and two very nice ladies who keep the school.

The Golden Magnet. By G. MANVILLE FENN. (Blackie & Son.)—There could be no more welcome Christmas present for a boy than Mr. Manville Fenn's South American story, admirably illustrated by Gordon Browne. There is not a dull page in the book, and many will be read with breathless interest. "The Golden Magnet" is, of course, the same one that attracted Raleigh and the heroes of "Westward Ho!"

Middy and Ensign (Griffith & Farran), by the same author, is a tale of the Malay Peninsula. It has even more incident, if possible, but less romance than the "Golden Magnet," but it is sure to be popular with boys.

From Powder Monkey to Admiral, by W. H. G. KINGSTON, (Hodder & Stoughton), originally appeared in the "Boy's Own Paper." This and *Paddy Finn* (Griffith & Farran) we may bracket as *par nobile fratrum*. It is not extravagant to say that Mr. Kingston's death has eclipsed the gaiety of Christmas holidays.

Only a Girl. Adapted from the French by C. A. JONES. (Wells Gardner & Darton.)—A simple story of a Breton peasant-girl, whose life is spent in working for others, and to whom fate denies the happiness she so well deserves. There are numerous illustrations, and the story is nicely told.

Mr. Thayer, whose Life of President Garfield achieved such a marked success, has told with equal skill the more familiar history of *George Washington*. (Hodder & Stoughton.) Few English boys, we fancy, have read Irving, and Mr. Thayer's familiar anecdotal style will be more to their taste. Yet Irving never sank to such shallow commonplace as this comment on Washington's marriage:—"He who is too great to be insensible to womanly charms . . . cannot have an important mission to perform in this world"—St. Paul *par exemple*, the saints of the Catholic Church from Augustine to Newman, the philosophers from Locke to Herbert Spencer.

Kidnapped. By ASCOTT R. HOPE. (Sunday School Union.)—A short tale, but very well told, and sure to be popular.

May to Christmas at Thorne Hill. (Griffith & Farran.)—A story of a family of children in America, whose parents go to Europe, and leave them for some months in the country, in charge of an old nurse. Their games and childish pleasures and troubles are well described, and there are numerous illustrations, some of which are very good.

The Snow Queen. By HANS C. ANDERSEN. Illustrated by T. PYM. (Wells Gardner & Darton.)—A charming Christmas gift for children. The book is very well got up; the drawing is rather too conventional, and occasionally incorrect, but the colouring is very good.

Outline Pictures for Little Painters. (Wells Gardner & Darton.)—The idea is excellent, and the style of work good. Some of the pictures are thoroughly well drawn.

From Do-Nothing Hall to Happy-Day House. Illustrated by H. J. A. MILES. (Wells Gardner & Darton.)—A very pretty little volume. There is much delicacy of feeling about the illustrations, and the outlines of the figures are good.

At Mother's Knee, and So Happy. (Dean & Son.)—These books are

bright and profusely illustrated. We wish the drawing were more correct, and must enter our protest against the unnaturally small feet bestowed on the children.

The Shoes of Fortune, and other Fairy Tales. By HANS C. ANDERSEN. (John Hogg.)—We always turn with pleasure to HANS ANDERSEN'S fairy tales, but this volume does not strike us as altogether happy in its selection, though we find several old favourites here. The biographical sketch is singularly awkward and ungraceful in its language, and seems intended rather to show up Andersen's faults or failings than to interest us in his life.

Norak's Trust. (Griffith & Farran.)—A well-meant little book, prettily got up, and with very clear and good print. We do not quite believe in the hyper-conscientious heroine, who, at nine years old, refuses to use a drop of hot water for her half-frozen brother and sister, because it has been boiled on her uncle's fire, not her own. We need hardly add that this highly moral young person prospers as she deserves.

A Waif of the Sea. By KATE WOOD. (Blackie & Son.)—A story which will interest children, though it is occasionally rather theatrical. The illustrations are good, particularly the first and last, and the book nicely got up.

We welcome a new edition of *Turning-Points in Life*, by the Rev. FREDERICK ARNOLD. (Bentley & Sons.) It is just the book to put into the hands of a boy leaving school, and may prove the turning-point in his life.

Wild Adventures round the Pole (Hodder & Stoughton) is a continuation of the cruise of the *Snowbird*, by Dr. Gordon Stables; and, unlike most continuations, it shows no falling-off in interest. Higher praise we cannot award it. There are perils by pirates, perils by waterspouts, perils in craters, perils on ice-floes, perils from sharks, whales, and sea-serpents; and yet the author scarcely oversteps the bounds of possibility.

Under the title of *Evenings away from Home* (J. Hogg), Ascott Hope has reprinted a number of stories supposed to be told by school-boys. Written "in a more rollicking style than is my later wont," these tales will delight the juvenile mind by their dramatic propriety.

Wonderful Animals, by VERNON S. MORWOOD (J. Hogg), is a popular anecdotal history of the commoner animals, illustrated by plentiful woodcuts. It is written with the object of teaching kindness to animals, and the stories of animal instinct and intelligence are well calculated to further that object. We could have well spared the last chapter with its direct sermonizing, controversial matter, and travesty of Milton.

The same publishers have given us a complete and unabridged edition of *Robinson Crusoe*, with illustrations by Stothard. The print is excellent, and the book ought to have a large sale.

How It all Came Round. By L. T. MEADE. (Hodder & Stoughton.)—A somewhat commonplace story, based on an improbable circumstance. We think that, as Mrs. Harman knew from her husband that she was to be properly provided for, she would scarcely have accepted unqualifiedly the statement, made by an unfriendly stepson, that she was left penniless. If it had occurred to her to pay a visit to Somerset House, she would have saved herself and her daughter years of unnecessary privation. The illustrations are fairly good.

Dolly's own Story. By L. C. SKEY. (Wells Gardner & Darton.)—This will please many little people; and, with few exceptions, the outline illustrations are good. We cannot, however, understand on what principle of optics the glass reflects the doll's face when her back is turned to it.

Hetty Gray. By ROSA MULHOLLAND. (Blackie & Son.)—A book full of disagreeable people, who have a perfect talent for doing everything in a most disagreeable manner. Hetty and her foster-mother, Mrs. Kane, are the only redeeming characters, and Hetty really deserves credit for becoming a decent member of society under the system of continual snubbing and misconception she had to endure. By the way, can it have been this course of treatment that turned her eyes from "brown velvet" to "gray"? The illustrations are good.

Dick's Holidays. (T. Fisher Unwin.)—A capital book for young children, introducing them, by the help of pen and pencil, to common objects of the country.

We are glad to see a new edition of Miss Martineau's *Feats on the Fiord* (Nimmo and Co.), with illustrations.

The Ocean Wave, by HENRY STEWART, (J. Hogg), is a narrative of voyages, discoveries, battles, shipwrecks, and wonders of the deep. Mr. Stewart can tell a story well, and the book is a storehouse of instruction and amusement.

Peas-Blossom, by the Author of "Honour Bright," (Wells Gardner & Darton), is a good, healthy story of two boys, with plenty of Irish fun and humour.

Dr. Jolliffe's Boys (Blackie & Co.) is a story of public school life, with the regulation amount of cricket and football for the good boys, and poaching and ratting for the bad. The catastrophe is a theft of the school subscriptions. Mr. Hough knows what he writes about, and the narrative flows easily, though there is not much originality.

Dr. Macanlay has done well in re-editing for boys a forgotten book of Dr. E. James—the chronicle of Major Long's Exploring Expedition to the Rocky Mountains. *Grey Hawk*, (Hodder & Stoughton), *alias* John Tanner, was for thirty years a captain among the Ojibbeway Indians, and his narrative is full, not only of adventure, but of historical interest.

Nelly Channell, by Miss DOUDNEY, (Hodder & Stoughton), is a religious love-story, and a good one of its kind, though we own to not liking the combination. "God knew what He was about, I suppose, when He brought Adam and Eve together," is a typical sentence. The same publishers send us *Jacob Abbott's Stories*, familiar to us in our youth, in four tasty little volumes.

Memoir of William and Robert Chambers. (W. & R. Chambers. 1883.)—This twelfth edition of one of the best biographies of the day is completed by a supplementary chapter, which chronicles the last years of the elder brother. The full account which it gives of the passing and administration of the Edinburgh City Improvement Act of 1867 has a special interest at the present moment.

Spenser, for Home and School. By LUEY HARRISON. (Bentley & Son.)—We heartily sympathise with Miss Harrison's wish that Spenser should be more widely known to English readers, but we cannot say that she has gone the right way to work to make him known, or that she holds the true faith as to why the "Faerie Queene" is not read. It is not so much because Spenser's great poem is the largest poem in the world, that people are fainthearted about attacking it, but because, long as it is, it is after all only a fragment. The editor of the "Faerie Queene," who aims at popularity, must set the poem before his readers as a whole, and this has been made possible by the wise forethought of Spenser himself. The whole motive and complete plan of the work were so well expounded in the poet's own preface, that any editor who is thoroughly read in the poem ought to find no difficulty in conveying to the mind of the youngest reader such a conception of the general scheme as will make him appreciate the proportion and significance of its parts. But this cannot be done by treating only the first book as narrative, and allowing a series of extracts to represent the remainder. Again, it was a mistake to crowd in so small a volume, besides so much of the "Faerie Queene," the "Shepherde's Calendar," "Colin Clout," and the Sonnets. But, if the idea was to make the book represent *all* Spenser, then it was a still greater mistake to leave out the "Epithalamion."

The Witness of God and Faith. Two Lay Sermons by the late T. H. GREEN. (Longmans. 1883.)—These two sermons, Mr. Arnold Toynbee tells us in his preface (part of an intended introduction, cut short by his sad and sudden death), were delivered in a College lecture-room to Balliol undergraduates. They are an attempt to meet the difficulties of earnest men whose early faith has been shaken or shattered by the study of science and philosophy, or of the laws of historical evidence. They teach that, though much is taken, more remains; that faith in the ideal, love of God, who is ever perfect light and love, and fellowship with the saints, can survive all shocks of criticism, all questions as to historical events. Any discussion of Mr. Green's theology, which was an integral portion of his metaphysics, would lead us beyond our limits and our province. We merely wish to call attention to the book as the confession of faith of the one original philosopher that Oxford has produced in this generation, and as the best refutation of the clericist's position that a non-sectarian education is necessarily irreligious.

An Introduction to Greek Verse Composition, with Exercises. By ARTHUR SIDGWICK and F. D. MORICE. (Rivingtons.)—A school-boys' *Vade mecum*, clearly arranged and exhaustive, containing much matter that the learner will not elsewhere find tabulated in so convenient a compass—e.g., the sections on "crasis," "prodelision," "poetic forms and idioms," "imperatives," "prohibitions," "interrogatives," "negatives," and the "use of the particles"; also a useful vocabulary. The remarks on the metrical use of monosyllables are especially good, and give all the help required to enable the learner to utterly demolish any claim on the part of the English six-foot Iambics (?), quoted in the opening section, to a relationship with the Greek Iambic Trimeter. The passages for translation are new and good, and the hints given judicious, but there are not nearly enough elementary exercises.

Reddenda Minora, or Easy Passages for Unseen Translation.

By C. S. JERRAM. (Clarendon Press. 1883.)

Whether it is advisable to begin unseen translation at so early a

stage as Mr. Jerram contemplates, is questionable. "The exigencies of entrance examinations, with a special view to which these selections have been prepared, are answerable for much that is questionable in teaching." But, whatever we may think of the object, there can be no doubt about the quality of the editor's work. Mr. Jerram's name is a guarantee of sound scholarship, and the sentences are not only written in idiomatic Latin and Greek, but are carefully graduated. For *vis à voce* sight translation, where the master can supply the exact amount of help needed, we can recommend the book without reserve.

The Companion to the Grammars in English, French, German, and Italian. By F. VENOSTA. *The English and French Part of The Companion to the Grammars*. By the Same.

The first of these two publications is a very correct and extensive collection of words and expressions in English, French, German, and Italian, on nearly every topic of ordinary conversation, as well as in nearly all technical subjects which bear more directly on modern life. At the end are given the most common proverbs and proverbial phrases in these four languages.

The second book is simply the English and French part extracted from the first, for the convenience of those students who confine themselves to the study of French only.

Kant's Prolegomena and Metaphysical Foundations of Natural Science. Translated by E. B. BAX. (G. Bell & Sons. 1883.)—This latest volume of "Bohn's Philosophical Library" will be welcome to students of Kant. The *Prolegomena* had been before translated, or rather paraphrased, in Professor Mahaffy's series, but the latter work is for the first time presented in an English dress. Mr. Bax has given a very faithful, and at the same time very fairly readable, version of both works. Not the least valuable portion of the volume is the Biography of Kant and the introductory essay.

The third number of the *English Illustrated Magazine* comes in with a flood of good things, like the third wave of the Greeks. Luther, as is fitting, crests it,—the text by James Sime, on whom, as an interpreter of German literature to England, Carlyle's mantle has fallen; the portrait, a delicate engraving by Knesing, from the famous Cranach. Alfred Parson's illustrations of Grant Allen's "Cockshells," remind us of Ruskin's drawings in "Modern Painters." Best of all, as far as the matter goes, is Theodore Watt's "The New Hero," a study of children in modern literature.

We are glad to see that Mr. Mason, in *Code Standard English Grammar* (G. Bell), has adapted his "First Notions of Grammar" to the requirements of the new Code. If grammar is to be taught to ploughboys, a question which we need not reopen, they had better learn it from a master of the art than from the sciolists who, with few exceptions, have hitherto monopolized the field. We wish there were any chance of seeing Part III. introduced in the fourth forms of our public schools.

Moral Education; an Elementary Manual for the use of Schools, Colleges, and Families. By the Rev. PETER PRESCOTT. (Hodder & Stoughton. 1883.)—The title is misleading. It ought rather to have run, "Moral Anecdotes, with Introductory Comments." The anecdotes are not badly chosen, but they are badly strung together. The author believes that the only scientific basis of morals is to be found in the Bible, and ignores both psychology and sociology. His condemnation of novel-reading comes under genus Honesty, species Truthfulness.

Elements of Morality. By MRS. BRAY. Second edition. (Longmans, Green, & Co. 1883.)—We called attention some months ago to Mrs. Bray's book, and, while warmly recognising its value, we were compelled to point out several inaccuracies in matters of detail. We are now glad to see that a new edition has appeared, in which these have been corrected. It would have been a pity to let so excellent a book be injured by needless blemishes.

Mr. Clifford's annual *Yellow-Book* follows the slow and cumbrous Blue Book like its shadow, but, except as regards the time of its appearing, the comparison is singularly inappropriate. Substance, not shadow, is the characteristic of the book—the very pemmican of elementary education.

Mareus Ward's Edition of the Vicar of Wakefield is well got up, as the works of this firm always are, and well illustrated. For our part, we should prefer for schools the expurgated and somewhat curtailed edition of Mr. Sankey; but this is a matter of taste.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

BELL (GEO.) & SONS.—Elementary Treatise on Conic Sections, Part I. (*Willis*); Code Standard English Grammar, Parts I., II., & III. (*C. P. Mason*); Lectures on Shakspeare (*Coleridge*); The City of Rome (*T. H. Dyer*).

BENTLEY & SON.—Turning Points in Life (*Arnold*); Decisive Battles of the World (*Creasy*).

BLACKIE & SON.—Jeanne D'Arc, The Patriot Martyr, and other narratives; By Sheer Pluck (*G. A. Henty*); Picked Up at Sea, and other Stories (*J. C. Hulcheson*); With Clive in India (*G. A. Henty*); The Wizam and the War-Path (*Ascott Hope*); Hetty Gray, or Nobody's Bairn (*Rosa Mulholland*); Madge's Mistake (*Annie E. Armstrong*); The Wings of Courage (*Mrs. Corkran*); South Kensington Drawing Books—Plants, Books I. to IV.; Cheep and Chatter (*Alice Banks*); A Walf of the Sea (*Kate Wood*); Jack o' Lantern (*Henry Frith*); The Golden Magnet (*G. M. Fenn*); Dr. Jolliffe's Boys (*Lewis Hough*); Common Things and Elementary Science, in the form of Object-Lessons (*Joseph Hassell*); Shakspeare's *Henry VIII.*, with Notes; New Series of Fourpenny Reward Books.

BOGUR (DAVID).—The Science Monthly. No. I.

CASSELL & CO.—Encry in Nature (*W. Lant Carpenter*); The History of Protestantism, Part I. (*Dr. Wylie*); Vignettes from Invisible Life (*John Badcock*); English Poctesses (*Eric S. Robertson*).

CHAMBERS (W. & R.).—Chambers's Standard Algebra, Parts I., II., and III.; Memoir of William and Robert Chambers.

DEAN & SON.—Everyday Children; Bonny Ada, of Spray; The Little Traveller; Notable Exploits; Heroines; So Happy; At the Mother's Knee.

DOUGLAS (DAVID).—Life and Letters of Dr. Hodgson.

FISHER UNWIN.—The Roman Students (*D. Alcock*); Diek's Holidays, and what he did with them; Illustrated Poetry Book for Young Readers; Heroic Adventures; The Way to Fortune; Wise Words and Loving Deeds (*E. Conder Gray*).

GRIFFITH & FARRAN.—The Court and the Cottage (*Emma Marshall*); Middy and Ensign (*G. M. Fenn*); Growing Up (*Jennett Humphreys*); From Cadet to Captain (*Percy Groves*); Norri's Trust (*Mrs. Gellie*); Chums (*Harleigh Severne*); Friends though Divided (*G. A. Henty*); In Time of War (*James F. Cobb*); Punch (*Miss Phillips*); Paddy Finn (*W. H. G. Kingston*); From May to Christmas at Thorne Hill (*Mrs. Sanford*); Holly Berries (*Ida Waugh*); The Fool's Paradise.

HAMILTON, ADAMS, & CO.—Personal and Family Names (*Long*).

HODDER & STOUGHTON.—Moral Education (*Peter Prescott*); Jacob Abbott's Stories—(1) Hubert, (2) Mary Osborne, (3) Juno and Georgie, (4) Juno on a Journey; The Beggars (*J. B. de Liefde*); From Powder-Monkey to Admiral (*W. H. G. Kingston*); George Washington (*W. M. Thayer*); Nelly Channell (*Sarah Doudney*); Wild Adventures Round the Pole (*Gordon Stables*); Sacred Streams (*P. H. Gosse*); Noble, but not the Noblest (*Marie Hall*); Grey Hawk (*Dr. Macaulay*); A Brave Resolve (*J. B. de Liefde*); How it all came round (*L. T. Meade*).

LAURIE (THOMAS).—Chemical Analysis (*Scott-White*).

LOCKWOOD & CO.—Graphic and Analytic Statics (*Graham*).

LONGMANS & CO.—Geographical Reading Book—Introductory.

MACMILLAN & CO.—Heine—Prose Selections (*Colbeck*); Scenes from the *Andria* of Terence (*Cornish*).

NELSON & SONS.—Alda's Leap, and other Stories; The Wars of the Cross; The Babe in the Mill; Heroism in Humble Life; Self-Effort; The Queen Primer, Part I.; The Queen Reader for Girls, Standard I.; The Prince Reader for Boys, Standard I.; The Royal Star Reader for Mixed Schools, Standard I.

NIMMO & CO.—Feats of the Fjord (*Martineau*).

PHILIP (G.) & SON.—Second Grade Text-books—(1) Freehand, (2) Practical Geometry; The Story of Early Exploration; Poetry for Repetition, Standard V.

RELFE BROTHERS.—The Parts of Speech (*Irvine*).

RIVINGTONS.—Growth of the English Colonies (*Sitwell*); Latin Grammar and Junior Scholarship Papers (*Raven*).

SEELEY & CO.—The City in the Sea; The Pharaohs and their People (*E. Berkeley*); Sintram and His Companions; Roman Life in the Days of Cicero (*Prof. Church*).

SMITH, ELDER, & CO.—First Book of Euclid made Easy (*Howard*).

SONNENSCHN.—The Reform of English Spelling (*Crawford*); Manual of Object Lessons (*Rooper*); Needlework for Ladies; Elements of Plane Geometry.

STANFORD.—Geography Reader, Book IV.—Europe.

SUNDAY SCHOOL UNION.—Miss Blake's Times (*Fanny Simon*); Willie Anson; Anthony Rogers (*Mrs. Skinner*); Life's Motto (*W. J. Lacey*); Cousin Dorry (*Mrs. C. M. Clarke*); Denny (*Annie Gray*); The Unwritten Record (*Dr. Maeduff*); Celebrated Dunces (*Tom Brown*); Gerty's Childhood; Uncle James's Sketch-Book; Kidnapped (*Ascott Hope*); Alice Wilmot's Secret (*Mrs. H. B. Paul*); Miss Stepany's Fortune; Young England, Vol. for 1883; Twenty-one Christmas Hymns and Tunes; Sixteen Christmas Pieces (music and words).

WARD, LOCK, & CO.—Amateur Work, Vol. II.; The Child's Instructor.

WELLS GARDNER & CO.—Sunday Reading for the Young; The Snow Queen (*Hans C. Andersen*); Only a Girl (*C. A. Jones*); Outline Pictures for Little Painters; From Do-Nothing Hall to Happy-Day House; Peas-blossom; Dolly's Own Story.

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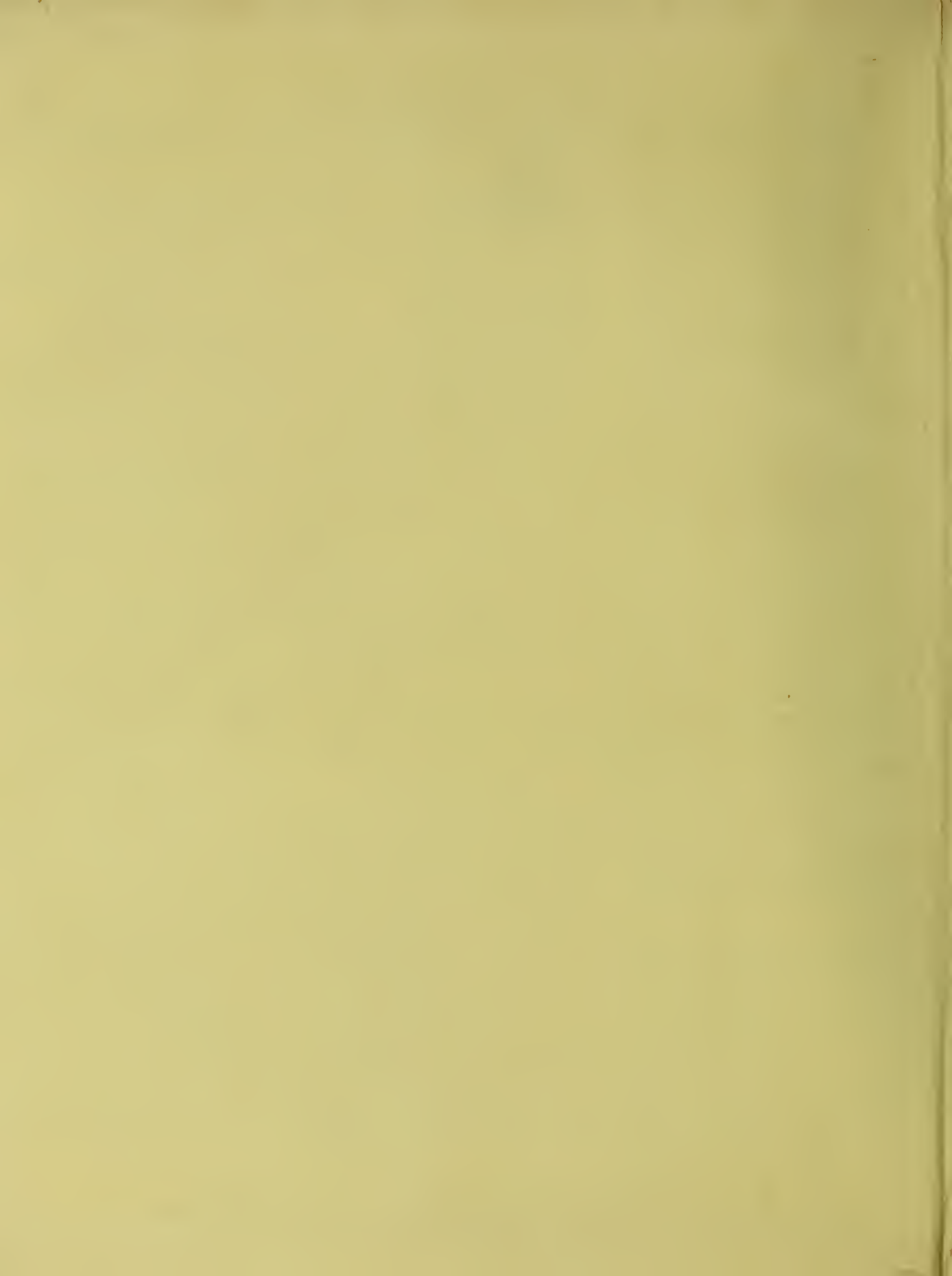
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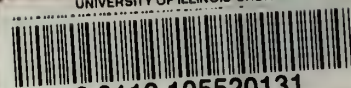
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