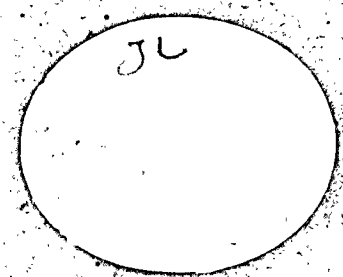


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EDUCATIONAL RECORD

Sep 1888



THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD.

No. IX]

SEPTEMBER, 1888.

[Vol. IV.]

THE EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY OF CHARLES DICKENS. =

Of all forms of literature the novel is the most popular and fascinating. The reason for this is probably not far to seek, for it is here that we find "the story of our lives from year to year," and nothing interests us so much as ourselves. This it is that explains the power and allurements of the novel. Here we find poetry and philosophy, thought and feeling, reflection and action, combined. Life is placed before us not merely as a scene, not merely as a drama, not merely as a mystery, but as all these in one. And so in the pages of the novel the statesman may learn principles, the philosopher discover problems, the poet find themes for song, the artist discern scenes for pictures, and the common man see a problem, a song, and a picture combined; for here is the reflection of himself—the most mysterious problem, the grandest song, and the finest picture in God's universe.

Literature is the reflex of life. The outcome of life is literature. The one is the result of the other, the action between them that of cause and effect. In literature we find the life of such a nation as our's, three distinct forms—able—the ballad, the drama, and the novel—the simplest form, and serves for men living in scenes of history. The second is a more advanced subjective and scenic merges into the objective and complexity. It belongs to the third is the greatest complexity. It belongs to the stage of civilisation. The scenic and dramatic indispensable quickness of movement becomes indispensable into play. The analysis of character is called into play. The novelists we have now reached, and our of all the literary tribes; their

name's legion. What is the position of Dickens amid this countless tribe, and what the power he has exercised upon the social fabric? One has said that "for thirty years he made England laugh and weep." This is very true, and he will probably make England laugh and weep for thirty years longer. His position is a national one; he is a prince of novelists; his work is characterized by much inequality both of style and conception. Between the best and the worst of it there is a considerable sliding-scale of merit. But, looked upon as a whole, it is undoubtedly a splendid body of work, whose influence has been greatly for good on English life and feeling.

Dickens is essentially the novelist of humanity. No greater believer in human nature ever lived, and his subjects are taken from those parts of the social system where human nature is strongest—the lower and middle classes. With "the upper ten" he troubles himself but little; he is scarcely at home with them indeed, nor does he look upon them with a very kindly eye. But within his own range he has the happy faculty—surely indicative of a broad and generous mind—of seeing merit in almost every creature. However thick and rough be the casement of human folly, he can pierce it through and show us the gem of human merit. He has a great eye for characteristic. This is his forte, his strength, and sometimes his weakness also. His humour is so exuberant, his fancy so free and playful, that when he seizes upon a prevailing characteristic he is occasionally led to magnify it out of all due proportion; it is put before us as a caricature. But his characters have the power of elevating us, and giving us greater faith in human nature. It is perhaps the most truly popular novelist of the age. The part of his work was directed toward the exposure of social abuses, and the methods of education. *Nicholas Nickleby* is seen strongly in connection with the Yorkshire schools were said to have any connection with them. They were social plague-spots, and been given as a convenient name for them. Squeers is regarded as the

the lowest type; and in effecting the abolition of such establishments as his, the author, while performing a grand work for humanity, achieved little for the cause of education pure and simple. *David Copperfield* is generally considered the best of Dickens's works. He himself says, "of all my books, I like this the best." The school to which David is consigned by his affectionate (?) step-father, Mr. Murdstone, is presumably an ordinary middle-class school of that period. Its name is Salem House; its master, Mr. Creakle, has the reputation of a tartar.

"He was the sternest and most severe of masters....." "laid about him right and left every day of his life, charging in among the boys like a trooper, and slashing away unmercifully" "..... He had been, a good many years ago, a small hop-dealer in the Borough, and had taken to the schooling business after being bankrupt in hops, and making away with Mrs. Creakle's money. And he knew nothing himself of schooling but the art of slashing..... I know him to have been an incapable brute, who had no more right to be possessed of the great trust he held than to be Lord High Admiral or Commander-in-Chief, in either of which capacities it is probable that he would have done infinitely less mischief."

Such is Mr. Creakle; no pleasant picture, and no very puzzling one. He is simply "an incapable brute." But his brutality cannot be said to have been bred of his profession. He would have been equally a brute had he, as Dickens suggests, been commander-in-chief, in which position he would undoubtedly have gloried in shooting, and flogging his subordinates. Shame is that such a man could ever be allowed to have charge of a school and the training of children. But Dickens's indignation does not seem to be directed so much against the system, or rather want of it, by which this was possible; it is rather a feeling of indignation excited in his mind by the contemplation of this imaginary (or shall we say real?) specimen of a brutal rascal with the name of schoolmaster. The problem of education is still left untouched.

In *Dombey and Son*, a nearer approach is made to it. This book possesses elements which places it in some respects above all the other works of Dickens. Little Paul Dombey is a character equal to poor Nell in *The Old Curiosity Shop* in point of tenderness and surpassing even her in pathos. He is a delicate little plant,

not long for this world, and with the consciousness of the next even now dawning upon him, and ever present with him. He lies down wearily by the seashore, and wonders wistfully what the wild waves are saying, and what country that is whose borders he sees beyond. It is the old problem of the mystery of life which always presents itself to Dickens in his child characters. We need only recall little Paul, and Nell, and Dora the child-wife, and Tiny Tim. Such beings have sacred interest for Dickens, and are inexpressibly pathetic to us all. Paul, in order to prepare for the great future necessarily in store for him as the son of Mr. Dombey, must go to school; and he is sent to Dr. Blimber's establishment for young gentlemen. Now, Dr. Blimber was neither a brute nor a villain. He did not underfeed his pupils, nor did he ill-treat them; quite the contrary. But he was a grammar, an intellectual gorger.

"In fact Dr. Blimber's establishment," says Dickens, "was 'a great hot-house, in which there was a forcing apparatus incessantly at work. All the boys blew before their time. Mental green peas were introduced at Christmas, and intellectual asparagus all the year round. Mathematical gooseberries (very sour ones, too) were common at untimely seasons, and from mere sprouts of bushes, under Dr. Blimber's cultivation. Every description of Greek and Latin vegetable was got off the driest twigs of boys under the frostiest circumstances. Nature was of no consequence at all..... Under the forcing system a young gentleman usually took leave of his spirits in three weeks. He had all the cares of the world on his head in three months. He conceived bitter sentiments against his parents or guardians in four; tried Curtains that blessed refuge in the earth in six; and at the end of the first twelvemonth had arrived at the conclusion, from which he never afterwards departed, that all the fancies of the poets and lessons of the sages were a mere collection of words and grammar, and had no other meaning in the world.'"

No doubt there is caricature here; it is hard to have satire without it. But the caricature is only the shell, inside which there is a kernel of truth, large and substantial enough. Intellectual hothouses do not exist merely in the realms of imagination, and Dr. Blimber is only one of a numerous tribe who yet survive amongst us. Dare we go further and assert that the Blimbers and the hothouses and the forcing system are not confined to "establishments for young gentlemen"; that the taint of their infection

has spread itself even throughout our beautifully organised system of elementary education? Do we never hear now of pressure, of overwork, of forcing, of cramming, of unnatural stimulus in our elementary schools? Are such things strange to us? Alas! we know too well they are not. How precisely teachers and scholars are now ticketed off, how exactly weighed out, and how appropriately screwed into their places! What every elementary teacher in this country is doing at any given minute of any given hour of any given day in the year may or may not be known to the educational powers that be. What the attainments of any one of the thousands of children attending our schools may be precisely known by these. But, notwithstanding all this elaborate machinery, it is respectfully suggested—Is an intellectual dead-levelism, however high and strained and advanced, the best possible talisman of national education? And is such a gauge the best possible test of educational prosperity?

Of all Dickens's books, the one which seems to be most distinctly and pre-eminently the exponent of his mind in regard to education is *Hard Times*. It has been said that Dickens is the novelist of humanity. Human nature is to him a sacred thing, very complex, subtle, mysterious, the divinest element in creation. Its source is in eternity, its destiny beyond the sun. In the working out of life's issues there is much of perplexity, hardship, injustice, and sorrow; but running through the whole is a vein of inexpressible tenderness, pathos, and beauty. Hence life, with all its conflicting elements, its antithesis of joy and sorrow, aspiration and failure, magnanimity and meanness, variety and monotony, hope and despair, is yet invested with a divineness of mission, and permeated with a conscious nobility of purpose. To one with such sentiments as these, the training of the moral nature must always take precedence in any scheme of education. The instruction of the mind and the education of the intellect must have a subordinate place. The culture of the heart is the main thing, and all else must be accessory and subsidiary to it. This is so self-evident, so plainly written upon the face of human nature, so completely demonstrated by the events of life and the experience of history, that for any one to attempt to invert this order of things, to give heart-training no place, or only a secondary place, in education, is more folly and madness. To cram a child with facts, to bottle him full with so-called knowledge, to drill him rigidly in systems

and ologies, to train him to regard the world as a vast machine worked by the multiplication and anna tables—this is not true education, but the opposite. We must give free play to the mind and elasticity to the spirits; we must recognise the power and worth of fancy and the imagination; curiosity, perception, intuition, and reason must receive their due share of attention; and, above all, the moral feelings, the sentiments of the heart, the strugglings and aspirations of the soul must be acknowledged and cared for as precious plants in man's keeping, but not of his planting. Such, in brief, is the teaching deducible from *Hard Times*, at which work let us now give a glance. The keynote is struck in the opening sentence of the book—

"Now what I want is Teach these boys and girls "nothing but Facts. Facts, ~~indeed~~, are wanted in life. Plant "nothing else and root out everything else. You can only form "the minds of reasoning animals upon Facts; nothing else will "ever be of any service to them. This is the principle on which "I bring up my own children. Stick to Facts, sir."

The holder of this beautiful theory is Mr. Gradgrind.

"Thomas Gradgrind, sir. A man of realities. A man of "facts and calculations. A man who proceeds upon the principle "that two and two are four, and nothing over, who is not to be "talked into allowing for anything over. Thomas Gradgrind, "sir,—peremptorily Thomas—Thomas Gradgrind. With a rule "and a pair of scales and a multiplication table always in his "pocket; sir, ready to weigh and measure any parcel of human "nature, and tell you exactly what it comes to. It is a mere ques- "tion of figures, a case of simple arithmetic."

Mr. Gradgrind is one of the shining lights of Coketown, a pre-eminently matter-of-fact place; a manufacturing town where the people work much and have very little play. Mr. Gradgrind is a kind of philanthropist on an arithmetical basis. He owns a school whose teaching is conducted on his own peculiar theory. The master he employs is Mr. McChoakumchild—

"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 piano-forte legs."

He had been stuffed with facts, but he had lacked the care which would have taught him to use and develop his own powers

Carlyle's description of the old-fashioned schoolmaster in *Sartor Resartus* would seem to apply to Mr. McChoakumchild—"My "teachers were hide-bound pedants, without knowledge of man's "nature or of boy's, or of aught save their lexicons and quar- "terly account books. Innumerable dead vocables they cram- "med into us, and called it fostering the growth of mind. "How can an inanimate, mechanical gerund-grinder, the like "of whom will in a subsequent century be manufactured "at Nürnberg out of wood and leather, foster the growth "of anything, much more of mind, which grows not like "a vegetable (by having its roots littered by etymological "compost), but like a spirit, by mysterious contact of spirit; "thought kindling itself at the fire of loving thought? How "shall he give kindling in whose own inward man there is no live "coal, but all is burnt out to a dead grammatical cinder? The "Hinterschlag professors knew syntax enough, and of the human "soul thus much: that it had a faculty called memory, and could "be acted on through the muscular integument by the appliance "of birch rods."

Whatever may be the faults of Mr. Gradgrind's character, he is certainly consistent in the propagation of his own theory. He applies it to the education of his own children, and, as might be expected, the young Gradgrinds have a very lively time of it. "There were five young Gradgrinds, and they were models, every "one. They had been lectured at from their tenderest years; "coursed like little hares. Almost as soon as they could run "alone, they had been made to run to the lecture room. The "first object with which they had an association, or of which they "had a remembrance, was a large blackboard with a dry ogre "chalking ghastly white figures on it. No little Gradgrind "had ever seen a place in the moon; it was up in the moon before "it could speak distinctly. No little Gradgrind had ever learnt "the silly jingle, "Twinkle, twinkle little star; how I wonder "what you are!" No little Gradgrind had ever known wonder "on the subject, each little Gradgrind having at five years old "dissected the Great Bear like a Professor Owen and driven "Charles's Wain like a locomotive engine-driver. No little Grad- "grind had ever associated a cow in a field with that famous cow "with the crumpled horn who tossed the dog, who worried the "cat, who killed the rat, who ate the malt, or with that yet more

"famous cow that swallowed Tom Thumb; it had never heard of those celebrities, and had only been introduced to a cow as a 'graminivorous ruminating quadruped with several stomachs.'"

The real moral of the book lies in the development and effects of Mr. Gradgrind's system of education in the characters of his two children, Tom and Louisa. Space will not permit to enter fully into this, and it can only be briefly indicated. The brother and sister complete their training, and grow up into manhood and womanhood. The former, ground down by his father's system into a mere tool, has lost all the finer feelings of honour and high aspiration, and his only ambition is to break away from the obnoxious restraints of a home which he has long regarded as a mental and physical prison-house. His desire being accomplished, he is let loose in the world, with no guiding principles of truth and goodness. His education proves a curse to him, for he hates the means by which it has been pursued. Embarked on the sea of life, he is like a ship without a rudder. Inevitable temptation proves too much for his character; false pleasures lead him on to ruin; and he sinks from one degree of moral degradation to another, until he becomes a forger and a thief, and has to be sent out of the country a wretched vagabond. Louisa's character is a fine one. She possesses noble impulses, quick ambition, and ardent desires for the good and the beautiful. But all this falls crushed like a shattered limb before the effects of Mr. Gradgrind and his system. He wishes her to marry his friend Mr. Bounderby, a coarse, loud-voiced, low-bred braggart, a rich banker and principal mill-owner of Coketown, old enough to be her father. There is, of course, nothing whatever in common between Beauty and the Beast. He is not even honest or truthful; he is simply a swaggering impostor. Yet the poor deluded fool of a father sees nothing of this. Marriage is to him simply a hard prosaic fact, like all the other facts of life. Affection, love, mutual compatibility of mind, temper, and disposition—all this is the mere phantasy of imagination, which the sooner it is expelled from the region of hard fact the better. So Louisa accepts Mr. Bounderby. Fact proves too much for her. She had vainly hoped there was something else in the world, something to answer to the mysterious throbbings of heart; but she is mistaken. Beaten down and repelled at every point, she is completely conquered. She bids farewell to all the finer feelings of a woman's nature, and crushed the

nobler instincts of her soul under the iron heel of fact. "What does it matter?" becomes the motto of her life, and she marries Mr. Bounderby. The result may be foreseen. In course of time she becomes exposed to the subtle insinuations of a polished villain in the shape of a handsome young rake named Harthouse, who approaches her under the pretence of serving her brother Tom, her great affection for whom is the one redeeming hope and joy of her life. She escapes his snares only to return to her father's house a thoroughly wretched and broken-hearted woman. So this and nothing less suffices to bring the pig-headed father to his senses, and forces him to acknowledge the terrible mistake he has made. A son in moral ruin, a daughter on the brink of it—these are no light matters, but Fact is very hard-headed. Such is Mr. Gradgrind, such his beautiful system, and such its effects. The picture has another side, with which, however, we are now less concerned. Stephen, Rachel, and Sissy are beautiful characters, on which one would love to dwell. They show to us the mighty power and influence of the human heart, the loveliness and grace of the moral affections, even when standing alone in the world, undefended and unsupported by cyclopædias of fact and knowledge.

We need not delay any longer to emphasise the moral of the book just sketched. We now wish simply to sum up the result of Dickens's teaching on this great question of education, which seems to be somewhat as follows:—Respect human nature; look upon your children and pupils as rational beings, with capabilities, perceptions, affections, and sensibilities peculiarly their own. Do not fill the head at the cost of emptying the heart; allow for the imagination, the fancy, and the moral impulses and susceptibilities. Let not education be mechanical and stereotyped, but varied and elastic. And, above all, remember that the truest education is that which best fits for the right conduct of life, which is but the prelude to the great drama of the life beyond.

CORRESPONDENCE.

It is distinctly to be borne in mind that we do not by inserting letters convey any opinion favorable to their contents. No notice whatever will be taken of anonymous letters, nor can we return those that are rejected. Letters should be brief, and written on one side of the paper only.

PAYMENT BY RESULTS.

To

THE EDITOR,

*Educational Record,**Madras.*

DEAR SIR,—I am much obliged to your correspondents "Headmaster" and Mr. W. E. Miller for their replies to my letter on this subject. I am desirous of sifting this matter to the bottom, and therefore venture to trespass once more upon your space with a few remarks.

In reply to "Headmaster," I would state that I am acting the part of an advocate of the scheme of payment by results because that scheme seems to me to be, if not the most satisfactory, at any rate the least unsatisfactory manner of distributing Government aid.

More than four pages of Mr. Miller's letter are taken up with an *argumentum ex auctoritate*, a most untrustworthy support. All schemes are attended by a learned outcry as long as they are in any way novel; the burning of coal was forbidden by law when the people of England first found out the use of this fuel; it was counted a dangerous and unhealthy practice. Even Mr. *Punch*, I see with his cartoon, the "Cry of the Children," has joined in condemning the scheme of payment by results; but I was looking lately at some back volumes of this same Mr. *Punch*, in which the venerable old gentleman made merry over the "novel" scheme of underground railways for London; it was intensely amusing in the present day to see *Punch's* ancient prophecies of evil—pictures representing the underground train rushing by mistake into a back area and the adjoining kitchen, running amuck amongst the gas-pipes, and eventually upsetting its passengers in a main-sewer. Mr. *Punch's* pictures were, of course, a joke, but they represented the serious feelings of the time.

Mr. Miller's authorities, eleven of which are newspapers, are so contradictory in their reasons for disliking the system of payment by results that their discordant cries go far to prove that they are an outcry and no more. One dislikes payment by results because "payment by results means a payment for a minimum of knowledge"; another because "scholars in Code schools are crammed"; another because the scheme is "highly productive of mental worry and physical strain." The *Times* admits that "nobody contends that in the abstract it is the best mode of keeping teachers and pupils on the alert." I agree, moreover, entirely with another authority, whose only objection is that "the intrusion of money considerations into the educational system is to be regretted"; and with another who objects very truly that "Money is the root of a great deal of the evil in the education of this country"; as well as with Archdeacon Farrar, who says that "this system of payment by results may be pushed to an extent which will vitiate our system." The *Birmingham Daily Gazette* is, moreover, perfectly correct when it says "The present mercenary system is little better than a bribe to zeal, and, whether teachers accept it as such or not, they are always open to the charge of pushing on the pupils, not for the pupil's sake, but to secure the payment which is dependent on results." But teachers, Mr. Editor, are men, and as men they unfortunately need these bribes to their zeal. Almighty God Himself, in His knowledge that men will seldom do good for good's sake, holds out the hope of Heaven as a bribe to their zeal, and threatens to cut off the grant (I speak in all reverence) and something worse if they shall fail to pass at His final examination.

It is a strange coincidence that in the very number of the *Educational Record* in which the late Mr. Matthew Arnold is quoted, somewhat prominently, as an authority against payment by results, a full account of Matthew Arnold appears on another page. It is there said of him that "he was not a profound thinker," and that "his criticism was often partial and shallow"; and, specially as an educationist, he is described as "a distinguished amateur," "a free-lance," "a Bohemian," and as the "enfant gâté" of the Educational Department. The fact is that Matthew Arnold, with his splendid powers, had a love of the beautiful and the sentimental so much higher than that of ordinary mortals that his theories savoured too much of his own soul to be applied to ordinary practical affairs.

In a verbal discussion we should have something to say on each one of these authorities in detail.

There is one paragraph of Mr. Miller's letter which is a fine piece of special pleading against the system. The passage runs as follows:—

"When I have been asked, as I often have been, in the course of conversation on this subject of the abolition of payment by results, 'What! would you pay as much money to a bad school as to a good one?' my answer has been, 'Yes, I would pay more if it were necessary, in order to make the bad school a good one. If I had my way no bad school should be allowed to exist for a single day. Careful inquiry by competent persons should ascertain the causes of the badness, and when found these causes should be removed, and every school should be made perfect of its kind.' What can be more illogical than to say to a school, 'You have failed to produce the required results—it may be, most likely is, from want of efficient teachers or good rooms or proper apparatus, all of which cost money and may have been unattainable from your want of money. We will encourage you to do better by depriving you of a portion of that money so essential to your success, and which a school working under better conditions and less requiring the assistance would undoubtedly receive.' Does not such a system seem contrived to condemn poor and inefficient schools to perpetual poverty and inefficiency? Surely only one moment's thought is required to see that such a system is highly injurious to the best interests of the nation."

When I first read this passage I was "almost persuaded," but maturer thought than that of 'one moment' convinced me that its argument was but special pleading after all. Is not a good school the school that should be encouraged and given the means of becoming still more good. If it have proved its efficiency for a certain number of boys, its sphere should be extended, in order that more boys may share in its benefits. The simultaneous withdrawal of a grant from some inefficient institution, and consequent contraction of its sphere would supply the extra capital and the extra boys for the better school. A well-managed and efficient institution is the school that will make most use of a grant, either in extending its usefulness or in making itself so attractive that it will serve as a model of what a school should be. In reply to the question—"Does not the system of depriving a poor and inefficient school of its grant seem contrived to condemn poor and inefficient schools to perpetual poverty and inefficiency?"—I would reply, No, it will probably lead to one of two good results, either to the entire closing of the school in question and the furnishing of room for a better one, or to such strenuous efforts on the part of the managers and teachers to

regain their reputation that they will do more without a grant than they ever did with one. It seems too that the scheme suggested in the paragraph would still be a scheme of payment by results with the important change that schools whose results are satisfactory shall be left as they are, while schools whose results are poor shall receive a grant in order that their results may be better in future. I very much fear, Mr. Editor, that such under such discipline certain money-loving managers would prefer that their pupils should be ignorant, and pour piteous tales of helpless poverty into the Inspector's ears.

I am greatly indebted to Mr. Miller for his letter, as it has taught me much; I wonder if that gentleman, or some other of your readers would think it worth his while to remark in order on each one of the theses which I laid down in my first letter, published in the number for April. I feel that such a course would prevent a good deal of "wide" discussion.

There is one further point on which I should like to offer a remark. "Headmaster" concludes his letter with the declaration that "admirers of the system are certainly rare," and Mr. Miller concludes his with the statement that in all his researches he has "only come across two opinions favourable to payment by results." It seems to me that this is in itself a very strong proof that the scheme is a wonderfully good one; for apparently without any other support than that of its own merits, and in spite of a loud outcry from a number of educationists, it has held its ground for thirty years in Great Britain, has been adopted in India, and is likely to be adopted wherever the English language is spoken.

In conclusion, let me once more impress upon you, Mr. Editor, the fact that I am no advocate of the scheme myself, but only an inquirer; it seems to me, however, that an outcry against the scheme has been raised by the following four classes of people:—

1. Learned and hard-working teachers, who feel that their best efforts are impeded by the hard-and-fast rules of the Code, but who forget that there are men setting up for teachers who are less learned and less hard-working than themselves.
2. Ignorant or lazy teachers, who find that under the rules of the Code their "occupation's gone."

3. Unpractical sentimentalists, who are indignant at "the intrusion of money considerations into the educational question."

4. Newspaper writers and "occasional speakers," who join in the general outcry without any practical knowledge of what they are abusing.

Mr. Miller—I mean no compliments—belongs to the first of these classes, but I am sure that, as a teacher, he well knows that there are numbers of unprincipled and incapable men going about in the guise of teachers to whom the scheme of payment by results is such a shibboleth as no other scheme could well be.

I am aware that Mr. Miller's letter is only half answered, but I do not venture to trespass farther on your space.

I am, dear sir,

Yours faithfully,

GLYN BARLOW, B.A.

September 1888.

[Would any of our readers be so good as to reply *seriatim* to the theses laid down by Mr. Barlow.—Ed. E. R.]

CORPORAL PUNISHMENT.

To

THE EDITOR,

Educational Record,

Madras.

SIR,—The *Madras Mail* of the 5th instant, contains an excellent article on the subject of corporal punishment in schools, which ought to be read by every one engaged in the work of education.

As this means of school discipline is one that I exceedingly dislike, will you kindly allow me a little space to express the result of my experience as a teacher of men and boys, Europeans and Natives, during a period of thirty-five years. I have frequently, in the early part of my career flogged my pupils, and I now exceedingly regret that I did not employ other means to bring them into order, as I feel certain that they were punished more through anger than a real desire for their improvement. A good caning of one of the pupils certainly reduces a noisy class to order

and compels it apparently to be more industrious and attentive to work; it is consequently employed on all occasions by ignorant teachers to keep their pupils in order and compel them to do what is to them a hateful task which they can neither understand nor acquire, and the more ignorant the teacher is of child-nature or methods of education, the more he depends on the strength of his arm to compel obedience.

I know of no crime committed by children in schools deserving of corporal punishment, except wilful disobedience, but there is a vast difference between disobedience and inattention, and yet the latter is as frequently punished as severely as the former.

I consider it exceedingly cruel and ill-advised to flog pupils for not getting up impossible lessons, which they neither understand nor are within their mental powers to acquire, and it displays a great want of tact and temper on the part of a teacher to flog his pupils for restlessness, inattention or sky-larking in class. It is children's nature to be so, and they should not be cruelly punished for it. Petty acts of dishonesty, untruthfulness or neglect of work should never be treated with anger or harshness, much less with "a sound flogging"; and above all, pain of any kind should never be employed with Religious Instruction.

The greatest pleasure of the schoolmaster is to see the mental and moral faculties growing and strengthening from day to day—rising step by step on the Educational ladder to be surrounded by his pupils, either in the school-room or play-ground, enjoying their affection and sympathising with their imperfect efforts to attain success. Nothing can exceed his pleasure in developing their minds and leading them by self-effort to overcome their difficulties—to draw out their ideas by leading questions and to train them to think for themselves. Such are the pleasures of a teacher's life, which he for ever loses by harshness or cruelty.

I have before me a petition by the Executive Committee of the National Union of Elementary Teachers, representing 14,000 elementary school teachers in Great Britain, praying for the abolition of the clause authorizing "Payment by results." This means the abolition of cruel punishment of the dull and incapable—the overworking of feeble faculties and long school hours. It also means that the children's mental faculties shall be allowed to grow

without forcing or unhealthy stimulation, that they shall not be compelled to learn more than they comprehend or intellectually digest.

Yours faithfully,
A. PESTALOZZIAN.

September 1888.

MADRAS SCHOOL OF ARTS.

To
THE EDITOR,
Educational Record,
Madras.

SIR,—I beg of you to allow me space in your columns to make a few remarks regarding an article on the Madras School of Arts which appears in this month's issue of the *Madras Journal of Education*. The Editor of that Journal, contrary to all fairness and to his usual practice, does not print the school report and the Director's review, but allows an anonymous writer to publish a few garbled extracts from the report with his own comments thereon. If critics will avail themselves of sources of information open to all the public and will show a disposition to deal with facts in a fair and impartial spirit, I am not afraid to meet them.

I do not intend to notice his foolish remarks on the school finances from a Limited-Liability-Company point of view, nor do I think his other criticisms worth noticing.

I only wish to point out to you, sir, that it will be quite evident to anyone who has the least acquaintance with the present working of the school—1stly, that this individual who conceals the insignificance of his spiteful personality behind a pretentious "we," has never been inside the school within the last four years; 2ndly, that he has never taken the trouble to make himself acquainted with the rules and regulations of the school. In making this statement I, of course, assume, in all charity, that his veracity is not open to question, and that he does not deliberately publish what he knows to be incorrect.

I am, sir,
Yours faithfully,
E. B. HAVELL,

September 1888.

Supt., School of Arts, Madras.

[We have not seen the Report on the School of Arts, and so are unable to express our views on the subject.—ED. E. R.]

QUERY PAGES.

These pages are specially intended for students, who are requested to send in papers.

We should be much obliged if correspondents who send questions for solution, would give (if possible) the required answers and the source from which the questions are obtained.

No query will be inserted or answered unless accompanied by the real name and address of the sender, not necessarily for publication, but as a guarantee of good faith and for facility of reference.

When a pseudonym is adopted, it should be written at the end of the query, and the real name and address on a separate piece of paper.

Correspondents are requested to write their queries legibly and on one side of the paper only.

Replies will not be sent by post. All communications intended for these pages should be addressed to

THE "QUERY EDITOR,"

Educational Record, Madras.

ENGLISH.

1. *Merrily rose the lark, and shook
The dewdrop from its wing;
But I never marked its morning flight,
I never heard it sing.*

Analyse the third line.

2. Parse the words in italics in the above passage.
3. Make adjectives from *thought, man, faith, speed, day, wood*, and make nouns from *black, human, hardy*.
4. Explain what is meant by "an extension of the predicate," and give an example.

5. *They moved in trucks of shining white,
And, when they reared, the elfish light
Fell off in hoary flakes*

Analyse this passage.

6. Parse the words in italics in the above passage.
7. Give the meaning of each of the following Latin prefixes, and give an example of the use of each:—*a, ad, ob, circum, sub, de, dis*.

8. Explain what is meant by "an adverbial sentence," and give an example.

9. The wind had no more strength than this
That leisurely it blew,
And made each leaf the next to kiss,
That close beside it grew.

Analyse this passage.

10. Parse the words in italics in the above passage.

11. *Ashore, besmear, perform, analyse, subscribe, surmount, evacuate.*

Arrange the prefixes in these words as Latin, English, &c. Give the force of each prefix, and another instance of its use.

12. What is meant by a *noun in apposition*; an *adverb of degree*; a *noun sentence*? Give sentences in illustration of each.

13. A widow bird sat mourning for her love
Upon a wintry bough;
The frozen wind crept on above,
The freezing stream below.—SHELLEY.

Analyse the first two lines.

14. Parse the words in italics in the above passage.

15. In each of the following words—peaceful, brightness, darken, joyous, streamlet, murderer—give the force of the affix. Give also two examples of words similarly formed.

16. Explain how prepositions may be distinguished from adverbs. Give examples of the same word used in one sentence as a preposition, and in another as an adverb.

17. The may-pole is up;
Now give me the cup;
I'll drink to the garlands around it;
But first unto those,
Whose hands did compose
The glory of flowers, that crowned it.—HERRICK.

Give in your own words the meaning of the above passage.

18. Analyse the above passage, and parse the words in italics.

19. Point out the Latin prefixes (giving the force of each) in the lines—

"Vain transitory splendours! could not all
Reprieve the tottering mansion from its fall?
Obscure it sinks, nor shall it more impart
An hour's importance to the poor man's heart."

Point out also the Latin terminations.

20. Give three examples of adjective sentences; and three of adverbial sentences.

21. Romco.—*Lady*, by yonder blessed moon I swear,
That tips with silver all the fruit-tree tops.
Juliet.—Oh, swear not by the moon, the inconstant moon,
That monthly changes in her circled orb,
Lest they that love prove likewise variable.

Give the meaning of this passage in your own words.

22. Analyse the above and parse the words in italics.

23. "Our language abounds with works of imagination not inferior to the noblest that Greece has bequeathed to us, with models of every species of eloquence, with historical compositions which have never yet been surpassed, and with just and lively representations of human life and nature."

Point out in the above passage the words which you recognise by their form as having been derived from the Latin language, and give in each case another example of a word similarly constructed.

24. Explain and give examples of a *noun in apposition*, a *noun sentence*, and a *reflexive pronoun*.

25. Go, lovely rose.
Tell her that wastes her time and me,
That now she knows,
When I resemble her to thee,
How sweet and fair she seems to be.—Waller.

Give the meaning of this passage in your own words.

26. Analyse the whole, and parse the words in italics.

27. Take these words:—*Impose, repose, compose, interpose, depose, expose, propose, superpose*, and use each of them in a separate sentence of your own framing. Point out the exact meaning of each, and say what part of the meaning is common to them all, and how that meaning is affected by the prefix in each case.

28. Name three dramatists, three eminent poets, and three eminent historians who have lived in England. Say when they lived and what they wrote.

"What man can say but the Fiend hath set
Thy sorcery on my path,
My heart with the fear of death to fill,
And turn me against God's very will.
To sink in his burning wrath?"

29. Parse the words in italics.

30. Analyse in detail the following sentences:—

- (a) "Of all men I feared him most."
 (b) "I will not have you follow me."
 (c) "He asked us to stay to dinner."

31. Define the term *case*, and give the possessive singular and plural of *ox, hero, staff, child, goose, and mouse*.

32. Give a general analysis of the following passage, naming the different clauses:—

"My mother! when I learned that thou wast dead,
 Say, wast thou conscious of the tears I shed?
 Hovered thy spirit o'er thy sorrowing son,
 Watch even then life's journey just begun?
 Perhaps thou gav'st me, though *unfelt*, a kiss;
 Perhaps a tear, if souls can weep in bliss."

33. Parse fully the words in italics.

34. Quote rules bearing on the agreement of verbs with their subjects, and give examples.

"*Him* from that posture *did* the *Sexton* rouse,
 Who entered, *humming* carelessly a tune,
 Continuation *haply* of the notes
 That had beguiled the work from which he came,
 With spade and *mattock* o'er his shoulder *hung*;
 To be *deposited*, for future need,
 In their appointed *placo*."

35. Analyse the first five lines of the passage.

36. Parse fully the words in italics.

37. What parts of speech have a connective force as well as conjunctions? In what respect do these differ from conjunctions?

"He begged, *therefore*, for himself and his friends to disclaim *any such* alliance, and he declared he was *the rather* inclined to disavow such a connection, because, from the past conduct of Ministers he was *warranted* to declare and to maintain that such an alliance *would* be something *worse* than an alliance with France and Spain. It would be an alliance with those who pretended to be the friends of Great Britain, but who were in fact and in truth her worst *enemies*."

38. Give the general analysis of the above passage, indicating the connection of clauses.

39. Parse fully the words in italics.

40. State briefly the general nature of the changes which the English language has undergone in the course of its development.—*The Schoolmaster*.

ARITHMETIC.

1. (a) What are the relative advantages of vulgar and decimal fractions? In what cases are vulgar fractions convertible into terminating decimals? Why will $\frac{1}{2}$ give a terminating decimal, while $\frac{1}{3}$ will not? (b) Express as a vulgar fraction the value of each significant figure in .003077.

(a) Vulgar fractions have an advantage over decimal fractions in the fact that by them a fractional value may often be exactly expressed with a small number of figures easily remembered and comprehended, while the decimal form of expression would not only require more figures, but would then only express the value approximately. Another advantage of vulgar fractions is that the operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, can be performed so as to secure results exactly correct. In some cases this cannot conveniently be done by using decimal fractions, for example when a multiplier or divisor is non-terminating.

Decimal fractions have advantage arising from the value of figures being determined by their position as in the case of whole numbers expressed on the decimal system.

The ordinary processes of arithmetic can be applied to fractions which terminate in the decimal form just as they can to whole numbers; and in those which do not terminate a result can often be speedily arrived at which shall be correct to any desired degree of approximation.

Vulgar fractions which are convertible into terminating decimals, are those which when reduced to their lowest terms have no other prime factors in their denominators than 2 and 5.

Thus $\frac{1}{2}$ is a vulgar fraction which can be expressed as a terminating decimal, for its denominator is equal to 5×5 , and if numerator and denominator be multiplied by 2×2 , or 4, we have $\frac{2}{10} = .04$.

But $\frac{1}{3}$ cannot be converted into a terminating decimal for its denominator equals $5 \times 5 \times 3$ and no multiple of this will be equal to a power of 10.

(b) In the decimal .003077, 3 stands for $\frac{3}{1000}$, 7 for $\frac{7}{100000}$ and 7 for $\frac{7}{1000000}$.

2. How much stock must a man have in the Three per cents. so that he may receive a net dividend of £348 after an income tax at 8d. per £ is deducted?

Each £100 of stock will produce £3 gross income.

The income tax on £3 at 8d. in the £1 = 2s.

∴ the net income from £100 of stock = £3 — 2s. = £2 18s.

∴ the stock required to produce £348 net income

$$= \frac{£348 \times 100}{58s.} = \frac{348 \times 10 \times 100}{29} = £12,000. \text{ Ans.}$$

3. If by selling a horse for £51 15s. a dealer gains $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. at what price ought he to sell it to gain 25 per cent?

$$\begin{aligned} 12\frac{1}{2} \text{ per cent.} &= \frac{1}{8} \text{ of cost price} \\ &= \frac{1}{8} \text{ of selling price in 1st case} \\ &= £51 \text{ 15s.} \div 9 = £5 \text{ 15s.} \\ 25 \text{ per cent.} &= \text{double } 12\frac{1}{2} \text{ per cent.} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \text{selling price to gain 25 per cent.} &= £51 \text{ 15s.} + £5 \text{ 15s.} \\ &= £57 \text{ 10s. Ans.} \end{aligned}$$

4. Find the cost of 375·4875 acres at £2 13s. 9d. per acre.
£375·4875 = cost at £1 per acre

$$\begin{aligned} &= £375 \text{ 9 9} = \text{ " " " } \\ \text{Of } £1, 10s. &= \frac{1}{2} \quad \begin{array}{r} 750 \text{ 19 6} = \text{ " } £2 \text{ " } \\ 187 \text{ 14 } 10\frac{1}{2} = \text{ " } 10s. \text{ " } \\ 46 \text{ 18 } 8\frac{1}{2} = \text{ " } 2s. 6d. \text{ " } \\ 23 \text{ 9 } 4\frac{1}{2} = \text{ " } 1s. 3d. \text{ " } \end{array} \\ &\quad \underline{£1,000 \text{ 2 } 5\frac{1}{2}} = \text{ " } £2 \text{ 13s. 9d. per acre} \\ &\quad \underline{£1,000 \text{ 2s. } 5\frac{1}{2}d. \text{ Ans.}} \end{aligned}$$

5. What will be the expense of carpeting a room 24 ft. 6 in. long, 18 ft. wide, with carpet 27 inches wide, at 5s. 6d. a yard?
No. of breadths = $18 \text{ ft.} \div 27 \text{ in.} = 18 \div 2\frac{1}{4} = 72 \div 9 = 8$; ∴ Length of carpet required = $24 \text{ ft. 6 in.} \times 8 = 196 \text{ ft.}$

$$\begin{aligned} &= 65\frac{1}{2} \text{ yds.} \\ \therefore \text{Cost of carpeting} &= 5s. 6d. \times 65\frac{1}{2} = £17 \text{ 17s. 6d.} + 1s. 10d. \\ &= £17 \text{ 19s. 4d. Ans.} \end{aligned}$$

HISTORY.

1. When was the Feudal System brought into England and when did it die out? What benefits, if any, attended its introduction and extinction?

Traces of certain elements of a Feudal character may be found in the system of land tenure which prevailed among the Saxons in England before the Norman Conquest; but what is properly understood as the Feudal System was introduced by William of Normandy, as one chief result of the Conquest of 1066. This system, with its fundamental ideas that all the land of the country belonged to the king, and that those who held the estates were bound to render military service to the king, was calculated to strengthen the position of the sovereign, by providing him

with the means of raising an army with little trouble. But in course of time a different result was practically brought about. By the practice of subinfeudation the knights who held land from the king gathered about them sub-tenants, holding on similar conditions of military service, and so formed bands of retainers at the command of their immediate lords. Thus the power of the barons grew up and became a check upon that of the crown, especially when the latter was in the hands of weak monarchs like John and Henry III. The immediate benefit derived by the people from the introduction of the feudal system lay in the personal protection which the king, and under him, the knights were bound to render to their retainers.

After a time it became common for fines to be paid in lieu of rendering military service, and the feudal system was gradually undermined. During the Wars of the Roses the nobles were reduced in numbers, in wealth, and influence, and feudalism in its essential features was destroyed. It was not, however, till 1660 that the military tenure and other incidents of the system were abolished by law, an Act with that object being passed by the Parliament which confirmed the restoration of Charles II. The special benefit of this Act was to limit the power of the sovereign and protect the landed gentry against unreasonable exactions. The earlier practical abolition of feudalism, brought about by the long-continued Wars of the Roses, had for its first effect the substitution of almost absolute monarchical power for the power the barons had exercised over the people; but a further result of the change was the development of a powerful middle class and the growth of a free peasantry, in place of the villains and retainers of feudal times.

2. What was the aim of the Exclusion Bill of 1679? How was it defeated?

The Exclusion Bill of 1679 originated in the popular dread of a Roman Catholic successor to Charles II. and the general dislike felt by the people towards James, Duke of York, the king's brother, and heir presumptive to the throne. The object of the Bill was to exclude James from the succession. The House of Commons having passed it in 1679 by a considerable majority, Charles, who strongly opposed the measure, dissolved the parliament. In the following year a new parliament was summoned, and after a long prorogation the Commons again passed the Bill. But when it came before the Lords, Charles himself attended the House throughout the debate, and used his personal influence to back up the eloquence of Lord Halifax, the only prominent member of the country party who was opposed to the Bill. The result was its rejection by the peers.

3. What produced war between England and America in 1812? How did the war end?

In 1806 Napoleon issued an order called the Berlin Decree which forbade all intercourse with England, and all use of her manufactures or colonial products. Soon after orders in council were adopted by the English in a spirit of retaliation. These declared the whole French coast in a state of blockade, and claimed the right of search for French goods on vessels belonging to neutral Powers. This claim was the cause of quarrel between America and England, which did not however reach the stage of open hostility till 1812. In 1811 Napoleon removed the restriction on trade from American vessels, and then as the English did not follow his example the Americans passed a non-intercourse Act, to take effect if the obnoxious orders were not recalled. This was done after some months, but the concession came too late, for the Americans had declared war a few days before. In the course of the war naval engagements were lost first by the English and afterwards by the Americans. The latter made an unsuccessful attack upon Canada, but the English also experienced serious reverses, especially in an attack they made upon New Orleans. On the abdication of Napoleon in 1814, the Americans became inclined for peace, and a treaty was signed at Ghent, by which a mutual restoration of conquests was agreed upon, and the settlement of the border line was left in the hands of commissioners of both nations.

4. Name four of our leading statesmen since the beginning of the nineteenth century, and briefly describe the policy pursued by each of them.

Among the many eminent statesmen who have held the highest political office in this country during the present century these four may be mentioned as conspicuous—George Canning, Sir Robert Peel, Viscount Palmerston, and Mr. William Ewart Gladstone.

Canning was a man of remarkable earnestness and ability, but he held the office of Prime Minister for a short time only, in the year 1827, when he succeeded Lord Liverpool. Though he belonged to the Tory Party, his large-hearted sympathy with the oppressed in any part of the world, his efforts to extend liberty to the slave, and to remove the political disabilities of the Roman Catholics, mark him as a forerunner of the modern Liberals. He was also in favour of a reform of the burdensome Corn Laws. His death so soon after attaining the Premiership prevented his seeing the fruit of his earnest endeavours, and was a great loss to the country.

Sir Robert Peel was a member of the Conservative Party; but becoming convinced of the evils connected with 'Protection,' he boldly adopted a policy of Free Trade, and in 1846 carried the measure for abolishing the Corn Laws in opposition to the mass of his Party. Before this his name was associated with the Catholic Emancipation Act, and

with the opposition to the Reform measures of Earl Grey and Lord John Russell.

Lord Palmerston began his political life as a Tory. He afterwards joined the Free Trade Party of Sir Robert Peel. His fame rests chiefly on his conduct as Foreign Minister. His policy was to maintain at all costs British honour and prestige. He was a thorough Englishman, and he was proud to adapt as applicable to the Briton, the boast of the Roman, *Civis Romanus sum*. He was honoured by Liberals and Conservatives alike, for he was pleased to avoid organic reform, and yet he was always on the side of steady progress. He died in 1865.

Mr. Gladstone's career has probably been more remarkable than that of any other statesman of this century. Like others already named, he began as a Tory, and afterwards found his way, with Peel, to Liberalism. He assisted in the Free Trade movement, and as Chancellor of the Exchequer under Lord Palmerston and Lord John Russell extended that movement with wonderful skill and success by abolishing the Customs duties on a host of articles imported from foreign countries. By his efforts the paper duty was abolished, and other restrictions on the spread of knowledge have been removed. As Prime Minister he has promoted and passed several measures for the improvement of our relations with Ireland, others for extending the parliamentary franchise, and re-arranging the boundaries of borough and county divisions. He appears to have adopted for the basis of his policy Freedom, Justice and Trust in the People. His latest great attempt at legislation was to satisfy the aspirations of the people of Ireland for Home Rule; but in this he has so far failed, as public opinion appears not yet ripe for such a change.—*The Practical Teacher*.

MANGNALL'S QUESTIONS.*

By J. W. H.

To those whose earliest memories are associated with the name of Mangnall, who, when they first came into the world and the school-room, found the work which is called after that name already existing in all its maturity of omniscience, it may seem at first audacious, if not sacrilegious, to conceive of Mangnall as once young, once imperfectly informed, once herself liable to be asked questions. To investigate the antecedents of that famous personage, if it does not seem an impertinent, may well appear a hopeless task. To travel back into the remote ago when our grandmothers and grandfathers were yet in their teens, or, indeed, had not yet entered them, is simply a passing into the mists of

* Written in 1863. Reprinted from *The King's College School Magazine*.

antiquity. What facts can be described in those darknesses? One may grope for information, but there can be no satisfactory gathering of certainties in years so distant. This not unnatural supposition is apparently warranted by the circumstances of the case; for if, having dared to entertain the notion that Mangnall had once a beginning, we attempt to discover when that beginning took place, we find ourselves foiled at the outset. The very year of the birth of one whose name is so terribly familiar to us would seem to be unknown.

There is, perhaps, but one work that attempts a biography of the accomplished authoress of the "Historical and Miscellaneous Questions." This is a little volume entitled "Wakefield Worthies," by the Rev. J. H. Lupton, M.A.†, a volume, let it be hoped, of much local acceptance. Some two pages of it are devoted to Miss Mangnall. These compose the only memoir of her, so far as we know, except a brief paragraph in the "Gentleman's Magazine," for May, 1820.

We learn from these sources that the eminent lady lived for many years at Crofton Hall,‡ near Wakefield. A note informs us, on the authority of "Mr. Clarkson," that she was of Irish parentage on both sides; and that her somewhat singular first name (Richmal) was the result of an attempt to combine the christian names of her father and mother, Richard and Mary.§ She died on the 1st of May, 1820, at the said Hall, and lies buried in the churchyard of the parish." These are all the facts relating to her private life that are recorded. Ah! why did not some admirer put to the great lady a Biographical, or, perhaps, Miscellaneous Question about herself, and secure for us some fuller memorial? Why did an over-extreme modesty prevent her from enrolling herself in the "Abstract of British Biography," and there giving us a few personal particulars?

But let us not lament further over our penury of information. In how many cases are the lives of the great wrapt in a like obscurity! And, after all, her great work is her best biography. *Si monumentum requiris, circumspice.*

The world now knows her by her great work only—by that school-room encyclopædia which bears her name; but she produced others.

† Now more widely known as the Sur-Master of St. Paul's Schools, London, and the learned Editor of Dean Colet's Works.

‡ "At Crofton Hill (*sic*), Miss Mangnall (*sic*), many years conductress of the Ladies' Academy, near Wakefield. From her pen, amongst other works intended for the instruction of youth, came the 'Miscellaneous Questions,' which have obtained extensive circulation; together with a volume of poems, entitled 'Leisure Hours,' which will always remain as monuments of the acuteness of her understanding, the extent of her research, and the amiable and attractive nature of her piety."

§ Perhaps the nearest parallel is to be found in the old Romances, when the son of Tristram and Yseult was called Ysaie le Triste.

In the British Museum, and, I doubt not, in many another library, is treasured up a copy of "A Compendium of Geography for the use of Schools, Private Families, and those who study this necessary science, by Richmal Mangnall," with this motto from Langhorne:—

"Realms of the globe, that ever-circling run
And rise alternate to embrace the sun."

We need not say that this work is composed in the author's characteristic method—that it is, in a word, an abundant collection of questions and answers on all countries, from China to Peru. It was published in London in the year 1815. In the notice in the "Gentleman's Magazine," she is reported to have written a volume of poems, called "Leisure Hours." "Of this production of hers," says Mr. Lupton, "I can find no trace." This (if the magazine statement is accurate) is a loss much to be regretted. We feel sure that she must have adhered in poetry, too, to her characteristic method; and a volume of poems written after that manner would have been a curiosity.

It is evident that she was endowed with what may be called a catechetical mind. All knowledge assumed a catechetical shape with her. All the facts of the universe took the form of a question and answer. A statement without an interrogation preceding it was naught. One can well imagine how she showed this turn of her mind from her earliest years. With what rapture she must have studied the Church Catechism, and recognised there the true method! Her great pastime and delight was, we may be sure, the converting of all assertions into her favourite form. The excitement of a question could not ever be dispensed with. No doubt her whole life consisted of interrogations. How fortunate for her that, so far as we can see, it indulged in interrogations that could be answered, at least answered in a way that apparently satisfied her. Hamlet's life, too, was made up of questions; but they were questions difficult or impossible to answer. Miss Mangnall's great felicity was that she was haunted by questions with accessible answers, if but proper industry was shown. "What calamities have befallen the ancient Jews?" "What are the stewards of the Chiltern Hundreds?" "What is the use of common oil?" "What was Samson's end?"—these are questions that admit of some sort of not unsatisfactory solution for the painstaking. And of this description her inquiries for the most part were. We wonder how many questions she uttered in the course of her life? Were her conversation and her correspondence consistently interrogative? The inscription on her tombstone ought to be simply a note of interrogation. Would not such a simple epigraph say infinitely more than could storied urn or animated bust or lines on lines of elegy? But, indeed, what needs Miss Mangnall for her honoured bones?

What a name, what a power, she became in English schoolrooms! She has already reigned in her kingdom longer than that George, in the same year with whom she died, had reigned in his.* And it must be said that her reign is not yet ended.

The first edition of the "Historical and Miscellaneous Questions for the Use of Young People" was published at Stockport in 1800, dedicated to John Kay, Esq., of Manchester. In 1815 appeared a twelfth edition, "corrected and improved." An American edition of 1857 is founded on the eighty-fourth London edition. Many editions have come out in England since 1857.

How extraordinary must be the merits of this work! One can scarcely quote a parallel to Miss Mangnall's authority in the schools except, perhaps, that of Aristotle during the Middle Ages. What Aristotle was to the schoolmen, that Mangnall has been, and it would seem, in many parts of the country, still is to governesses. Nor, if we consider what the influence of Aristotle as the Middle Ages knew him was, are the influences of these two dynasts incomparable. They are neither of them free, perhaps, from a certain taint of finality and absoluteness, which is unfavourable to intelligent progress. It might have been well if Miss Mangnall had omitted, not perhaps all, but a certain proportion of her Answers, and let the Questions go forth alone!

But what frightful heresy are we broaching! We came to pray so to speak, and are we beginning to scoff? O pen, will you not reverence, the great goddess of governesses? Has she not been worshipped for nigh threescore years and ten, and do you write lightly of her?

We wonder how education thrived before the immortal text-book appeared. How did our forefathers and foremothers acquire their ignorance? Perhaps the enquiry should be confined to our foremothers; for there is no denying that Mangnall has been specially the organum of girls' education, and but to a slight degree of that of boys. Boys have generally been advanced from it when yet young and tender, and permitted to spend their ardour upon the pages of the Latin Grammar. But of their happy sisters Mangnall has been the daily educational food for years and years. How many times have they committed to their fair memories the Questions, or much rather the Answers, "containing the most remarkable events from the Christian Era to the close of the eighteenth century," or "relative to the English Constitution," or

* Instances of astonishing longevity might be found amongst schoolbooks, as Cocker's "Arithmetic," to be mentioned presently in the text, Potter's "Grecian Antiquities," a work quite recently superseded, first appeared in 1697. Of course the Methuselah of school literature is the "Eton Latin Grammar."

"the abstract of the most celebrated Grecians," or the list of the Popes, with the dates, which appears in the later editions? Mangnall was their world. Up and down it their gentle feet wandered for every as it seemed. We suspect many a venerable mother in Israel, who is now begirt with tall sons and fair daughters, themselves perhaps matrons, must yet feel a tremor and a chilliness when that well-known name comes across her fancy. The Land of Promise seemed far away to her in those old days. The wilderness stretched itself out before her, for leagues upon leagues. Kings succeeded kings; then there were the Celebrated Heroes, and the Distinguished Men, and the Constellations, and the Gods, and the Common Subjects, and the Explanation of Words. It is much to be feared that the universality of Miss Mangnall's mind was not then appreciated, that her honoured name was mentioned with tears and bitterness, that in the absence of her person thumps and scratches were in occasional paroxysms of agony inflicted upon the volume which represented her. The work has undoubtedly for more than half-a-century been a great part of women's education—a fact most significant and suggestive.

Therefore one may well wonder how feminine instruction went on, Nature and Nature's laws lying hid in night, before Mangnall was. Who were Mangnall's predecessors? What schoolroom dynasty was it she dethroned?

Vixere fortes ante Agamemnona.

That was a period of tremendous changes. Kings were, or had been, falling from their thrones all over Europe. A mighty revolution, generally known by the too limiting name of "the French," taking place. Its shocks reached even the nursery and the schoolroom. In the midst of the tumult arose Mangnall, and a new era dawned. The "Lyrical Ballads" appeared in 1798, the "Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border" in 1802, and Mangnall's "Historical and Miscellaneous Questions," as we have seen, between these two dates.

Of course there had preceded her many ladies who had interested themselves in the education of their sex. Mrs. Chapone had written "Letters on the Improvement of the Mind, addressed to a Young Lady," which reached a fourth edition, as the phrase is, in 1774. But these are of a very general character. They treat of the first Principles of Religion, the Study of the Holy Scriptures, the Regulation of the Heart and Affection, the Government of the Temper, Economy, Politeness and Accomplishments. But two letters are devoted to Geography and Chronology, and the manner and course of reading History. "When you have got through Rollin, if you add 'Vertot's Revolutions Romaines,' a short and very entertaining work," says this guide philosopher, and

friend to her "dearest niece," you may be said to have read as much as is *absolutely necessary* of ancient history," &c., &c. Then the kindly-souled active-minded Hannah More had pronounced her "strictures" on the state of female education in her day. She well protested against the amount of time given up to mere "accomplishments." But she dealt with the general question; she did not furnish text-books.

O maidens of the last century, ere the birth of Mangnall, how were your school hours occupied? Many hours were consecrated, of course, to the harp, or, perchance, to the harpsichord, or some other instrument of an obsolete sort. You learnt, too, how to "tread measures"; you worked "samplers"—oh, subtle, mysterious handiworks! But we would know who—that is, what manual—taught you spelling, if haply you spelt? and geography? and history? Did you "use the globes" in your time? It cannot be thought that you were all of the same type with Mrs. Primrose, the Vicar of Wakefield's wife, of whom it is recorded that, "To do her justice, she was a good-natured, notable woman; and, as for breeding, there were few country ladies who could show more. She could read any English book without much spelling; but for pickling, preserving, and cookery, none could excel her. She prided herself, also, upon being an excellent contriver in housekeeping; although I could never find that we grew richer with all her contrivances."

No doubt Cocker was a name well known in the eighteenth century school-room. Edward Cocker was born in 1631, and died some forty-six years after; but his works did not follow him, at least immediately. His arithmetic went through edition after edition, and was certainly in great prevalence about the year of George the Third's accession. Also his "Accomplished Schoolmaster, containing sure and easy directions for spelling, reading, and writing English according to the most plain and accurate method now extant...the whole being adorned with a number of delightful pictures and many useful instructions and other particulars, whereby any person may speedily attain to a just perfection in the English tongue. The like never yet published by any," enjoyed a long popularity. The eighteenth edition appeared in 1748. This issue—as, perhaps, the preceding ones—has for a frontispiece a picture of the famous man, with these lines beneath it:—

"Ingenius Cocker now to rest is gone;
No art can show thee fully but thine own;
Thy rarest spelling it alone can show;
Thousands of thanks we for thy labours owe."

"Cocker's Morals on the Muses' Spring Garden, adorned with many Sententious Distichs and Poems in Alphabetical Order"—a

collection of sentences to be turned into Latin by grammar-school boys, to be transcribed by the less erudite youth of writing schools—had been let die; as also "Cocker's Urania, or the scholar's Delight"—a work of similar purpose and construction. His *magnum opus* was indubitably his Arithmetic.

Towards the end of the century, "Enfield's Speaker" probably found its way into the domestic school-room. This—as, we suppose, everybody, except the school boy and girl, knows—is a collection of pieces, in verse and prose, good to learn by heart and for recitation. It was brought out, in 1775, by the Rev. William Enfield, a Dissenter, Lecturer on the Belles Lettres, in the Academy at Warrington—an Academy with which Priestly, and Aikin also were connected—and has served for many an Englishman as a kind of introduction to the literature of his country. The "Female Speaker" did not appear till 1811. This was but a feminine echo of the original masculine volume. The editor—the excellent Mrs. Barbauld, so dear to so many a memory for her share in the "Evenings at Home"—tells us that her "collection being intended chiefly for females, she has considered that circumstance, not only in having a more scrupulous regard to delicacy in the pieces inserted, but in directing her choice to subjects more particularly appropriate to the duties, the employments and the dispositions of the softer sex. The pieces in Dr. Enfield's 'Speaker' have been rather avoided, as that excellent collection is well known." This collection—if we may turn to it for a moment—consists of Select Sentences, Moral and Didactic Pieces, Narrative Pieces, Descriptive and Pathetic, Dialogues, Epistles, and under one or other of these six heads, it introduces extracts entitled—Woman, Marriage, Female Accomplishments, Advice to a Lady, Insufficiency of Beauty, the Marriage Tie, Description of the First Pair, To a Friend on his Marriage, Few happy Matches, &c. But "The Female Speaker" does not seem to have prospered. The original work won wide applause, and a most general and permanent circulation.

But we do not propose to attempt making a catalogue of a school girl's library before the time of Mangnall. There was, of course, many another book, besides "Cocker's Arithmetic" and "Enfield's Speaker"—we might speak of "Murray's Grammar"—over which eyes that have long been dim or closed wept when they were all lustre and brightness. They vanished, we suppose, when the great work appeared, as ghosts when the cock crows.

We may just mention that, about the year 1774, the idea was entertained of founding some kind of superior institution for the education of girls. Miss Lucy Aikin, in her "Memoir of Mrs. Barbauld," informs us that, shortly after the Lady's marriage, whilst the prospects

of the young couple were still full of uncertainty, some distinguished persons, amongst whom was Mrs. Montague—at once admirers of the genius of Miss Aikin, and patrons of a more enlarged system of female education than was then prevalent—were induced to propose to her to establish, under their auspices, what might almost have been called a “College for young ladies.” Mrs. Barbauld declined the proposal. She stated—and her words cannot, we are afraid, be pronounced antiquated—“that a kind of literary academy for ladies (for that is what you seem to propose), where they are to be taught, in a regular, systematic manner, the various branches of science, appears to me better calculated to form such characters, as the *Précieuses* or the *Femmes Savantes* of Molière, than good wives or agreeable companions, &c., &c.” Young ladies, according to the Editor of the “Female Speaker” above-mentioned, should gain what “general tincture of knowledge” they want in a quiet and unobserved manner. “Subject to a regulation like that of the ancient Spartans, the theft of knowledge in our sex is only connived at while carefully concealed, and if displayed punished with disgrace.” The “Female Speaker” adds other objections to the scheme of another kind. So the proposal was abandoned.

To return to our great theme, it seems highly probable that the text-books which, at the end of the last century, dealt with the subjects treated of by Miss Mangnall, were of no great merit; so that the “Questions” had not much to fear in the way of rivalry. One great virtue, perhaps, which the book had in the eyes of the mothers and governesses of fifty or sixty years ago, was the number of the subjects it handled—the great extent of ground it covered. It embraced all History, sacred and profane, all Biography, Astronomy, and Common Useful Subjects. Here was a wide area. Here was a compendium of learning. *To know Mangnall was to know everything. To be sure, not one of these subjects could be fully discussed within such narrow limits. In “the Abstract,” for instance, “of a few celebrated characters, from the third century before Christ to the sixth century after Christ, inclusive,” one is told that Callimachus was “an ancient Grecian poet; a few of his hymns only are extant”; Roscius was “a celebrated Roman actor, never yet surpassed”; Lucretius was “a Roman philosopher; he wrote a poem on ‘Natural Philosophy’”; Horace was “a Latin poet; his works are moral and satirical; he was the friend of Virgil”; &c., &c. These cannot be called exhaustive accounts; but then exhaustive accounts were not wanted. If, indeed, young ladies ought, as Mrs. Barbauld declares in the document quoted above, to have only such a general tincture of knowledge as to make them agreeable companions to a man of sense, and to enable them to find rational entertainment

for a solitary hour—if, indeed, this is the standard to set up and be guided by, then the amount of information given by Miss Mangnall might suffice; then the crumbs she dispensed might serve to allay the temperate hunger of her protégées. Her object was protective. It was to save her learners from any horrible blunders rather than to furnish them with any abundant knowledge. Society would be content if, when the poet Horace, for example, was mentioned, young ladies did not believe him to be a fellow countryman, and ask what his surname was, and, if rather clever and widely misinformed, wonder whether it was Walpole. There could be no better handbook than Mangnall, if the above-described standard was to be adopted. It not only satisfied that standard, but it exactly satisfied it, and secured that it should not be exceeded. It educated pupils up to it; it prevented their going beyond it. Though it consisted of questions, it discouraged enquiry. It satisfied instead of stimulating. In short, Mangnall was the very high priestess of that great god Cram.

We suppose another great virtue of this work is what has been referred to so often—its interrogative form. Is it not a great matter that a teacher should have questions ready made? The labour of a little thinking is thus saved. The duties of the profession are made extremely simple. The pupils’ part, too, becomes quite plain. The one has to learn to say so many sentences by heart; the other has to hear the same said by heart. How clear and facile an arrangement! We suppose there have been, and are, teachers who have attempted, who attempt; to explain fully what is said; who do not rest thankfully content with the questions provided to their hands, but are ever ready with questions of their own suggesting. For these, and such as these, any handbook will serve, or no handbook. But, for other teachers, who do not care to take upon themselves the superfluous burden of thinking, cross-examining, and exposition, what an admirable work is that of Miss Mangnall.

Is the sovereignty of the “Questions” decaying? (We have caught the interrogative style.) It would seem to be so in England, at least in the better girls’ schools; in others it is but slightly, if at all, impaired. It was wide and general in the United States not many years since. An edition was brought out there specially adapted for American use by the addition of a chapter on the States Constitution and a list of the Presidents.

Supposing the work is passing out of use, and the mighty shade of Mangnall is now about to join the ghostly company of Murray and Cserker, can we say that the type to which it belongs is passing away? Are more intelligent handbooks succeeding? Or has not the mantle of

Mangnall—or perhaps her cap—fallen on somebody? Is education really and truly ceasing to mean loading and burdening the memory? Are the limits of it indeed expanding?

But we fear our pen is again rushing into heresy. Are we not implying that Miss Mangnall was not, after all, a satisfactory educational factotum? Instead of burning incense before the goddess, are we not actually setting fire to, or at least scorching, her statue? Will you have no respect of persons, O Pen!

The following letter on the above subject from Charlotte Smith has been addressed to the Editor of the *Journal of Education*, London:—

The article on “Mangnall’s Questions,” by J. W. H., published in your July number, may possibly excuse my troubling you with a more correct account of Richmal Mangnall, though, as I am one of her youngest nieces, it is not so full of information as her sister (my mother) could have given had she been alive.

Richmal Mangnall was born in London; her father was a merchant; he died during the anxieties of war, and after his death his property was lost in the difficulty of realising it in America. Richmal was a pupil with her elder sister, in Mrs. Wilson’s school at Crofton Hall, near Wakefield, where for many years the children of the nobility were educated. On the death of her father, Richmal Mangnall was engaged by Mrs. Wilson as a teacher, and some years afterwards Mrs. Wilson retired, and the school was given up to Miss Mangnall, who conducted it most successfully until her death in 1820. The number of pupils was limited to seventy boarders, but the numerous applications would have doubled the number if the establishment could only have admitted them. The necessity in so large a school of teaching by “question and answer” first suggested the compilation of the “Historical Questions” and from a letter of my late brother (“James Coppock, Cleveland Row, London”), written in 1855, the following information is extracted:—

“When Miss Mangnall wrote and completed the ‘Questions,’ she was a teacher in Crofton School. She sent the manuscript, portion by portion, to my father at Stockport, where the book was being printed by Clark, he revising the proofs until finally corrected by Miss Mangnall; and the first intelligence that Mrs. Wilson or anyone else had of such a book being in preparation was the appearance of the book itself. She was the sole, unaided authoress. At that time the cost of publication was a serious responsibility for her to incur. Shortly after the publication she sold the copyright to Longmans & Co. for £105, and from that time until her death all the profit she received from the ‘Questions’ was a small sum of each successive edition presented by

Longmans & Co. in return for remarks and corrections. For her other book on Geography, she made a different arrangement with the publishers—she reserved half the copyright; and on the final settlement after her death with Longmans & Co., Longman told me ‘Mangnall’s Questions’ had been one of the most profitable books they had published.

“By her energy and talent Miss Mangnall acquired a considerable property. She was a most generous, charitable woman, and her nephews and nieces have great reason to be proud of their mother’s sister.”

My brother had the happiness of knowing her personally, and if her “Questions” have produced the agony of mind your critic describes, I am sure many have felt in looking back to the period before the “Questions” appeared, how dry and uninteresting to the young must have been the wading through the books to acquire the information contained in the “Questions,” and beed thankful for the help given to the teacher and pupil.

With regard to the name, her grand-uncle Richard Kay combined his own name and his wife’s in Rich-Mal for his daughter, and thus it became a family name.—*Journal of Education*.

CHURCH OF SCOTLAND MISSION WORK IN INDIA.

THE MISSIONARY COLLEGES.

The Rev. W. A. Liston, Senior Chaplain, (retired Her Majesty’s Ecclesiastical establishment, Madras,) who is well known at Madras, has just published a brochure, entitled “A few facts about our Foreign Missions,” in which he endeavours to cast light on the manner in which a work that people in Scotland subscribe for so largely, is carried on in India, especially in Madras. After referring to the popularity of the Foreign Missions with the Scotch public and to the object of the Missions, which is to preach the Gospel, Mr. Liston enters into an investigation of its present methods of operation, premising that in the process “there may be a few startling disclosures made and some unpalatable strictures offered.” He undertakes this task from “an entirely independent and impartial position; with an information not obtained from Reports, but from personal observation on the spot; with a knowledge acquired not at second hand, but directly, during a course of service extending to 22 years in India.” And these twenty-two years of service and observation have forced him to the “firm conviction that “our methods of carrying on our missionary operations in India”

are not so happy, nor so much in harmony with our Lord's command as our motives are." The chief point to which he directs attention is our educational methods pursued by the Mission at the three Presidency Towns. True, this educational system has the prestige of antiquity in its favor and was adopted by the great Dr. Duff when he first started missionary operations in India, and when it was well adapted to the conditions of the country. But things have since altered; instead of standing foremost, as then, the Church of Scotland in India has to "take the lowest place in the list of those societies who profess to have it as their aim and object to add converts to the Church of Christ," and those on the spot who know its method of operations best "have ceased to look upon them as a missionary enterprise at all, and have come to regard them as purely secular work, though they may be a very efficient branch of the Government Educational Department." Mr. Liston then proceeds as follows:—

The following table of statistics will show at a glance the real position the Church of Scotland now occupies, working side by side with the other missionary Societies in Southern India, or in the Madras Presidency. It is with pain I now produce these statistics, for I fear they may give a rude shock to the enthusiasm of some who have hitherto taken a deep interest in these matters. But I trust the shock will not paralyse their energies, but rather lead them to direct their efforts in the way of reforming abuses, and helping to place our mission on the only true and satisfactory platform on which it can stand, if it expects to be successful as a mission. The statistics, I may mention, refer *only* to Southern India, the Presidency with which I have been connected during the whole course of my service, and the one, therefore, with which I am most familiar and best acquainted. The statistics are taken from the Report of "The Missionary Conference, South India and Ceylon, 1879." The figures, I may add, were supplied by the responsible secretaries of the Societies to which they refer.

NAME OF SOCIETY.	BAPTIZED.	ADHERENTS.	TOTAL.
Church Mission. ...	75,996	19,993	95,982
Society for Propagation of the Gospel. ...	45,968	20,746	66,714
London Mission. ...	18,708	30,652	49,360
Leipsic Lutheran. ...	11,415		11,415
American Madura (Presbyterian). ...	4,505	6,481	10,986
Wesleyan Mission. ...	10,733	118	10,865
Basel Evangelical. ...	6,805	762	7,567
American Arcot Mission (Presbytn.). ...	2,648	3,441	6,089

Now, in contrast with all these other Missions working in Southern India, how many thousands should the Church of Scotland be able to present to have anything like a creditable position on the list? After fifty years of this Higher Educational Campaign against heathenism, what would be a respectable number for the Church of Scotland to possess, compared with the figures given above? I fear it will astonish not a few when they are informed that at the date these statistics were drawn up (1879), they could number only the insignificant total of 419 (four hundred and nineteen) souls, made up as follows:—Baptized, 416; adherents, 3; total, 419. The only consolation, if consolation it can be called, is that the Free Church, who adopt and follow the same methods of missionary operations as ourselves, occupy even a less favourable position on the list than does the Church of Scotland. For, according to the same returns they had—Baptized, 337; Adherents, 2; total 339.

These figures, to my mind, are very startling. If it was not so offensive a word, I would say they are disgraceful. They demand the serious consideration of the Foreign Mission Committee, and they should suggest not only to our own Church but to the Free Church likewise the propriety of reconsidering our respective positions as to our methods of operation; whether we are on the right lines—whether in fact, we are on the rails at all—that will conduct us on a prosperous journey, and issue in true missionary success; whether, if we are on the rails, we are not in danger of being switched off the main line of missionary work and shunted into a siding too closely connected with the Government Educational Department.

No doubt many apologies and excuses may be made in the way of trying to explain these figures. Thus, it may be said we are dealing with a different class of natives, and we have not so many missionaries in the field as the other societies mentioned have. There may be some truth in this, and it might be accepted as a kind of apology for the deplorable contrast, if we saw any symptoms of progress in the work. But, instead of progress, we see only retrogression. We find ourselves "on the down grade" every decade. In 1869 there were 546 native Christians connected with our Church in Southern India. In 1879, as above shown, there were 419. According to last year's returns, in the same district, there was only a total of 343. A few more decades in this downward direction, and natural law will come to the help of the Committee in solving some of their missionary difficulties in the shape of total extinction. We may be left with missionaries in the field, so long as the public of Scotland are willing to subscribe for their maintenance and support, but there will be no native Church and no native converts.

Again it may be put forward as an excuse that our bald Presbyterian service is not so attractive to the Eastern mind as the ornate ritual and

worship of the English Church and the other Societies mentioned, and hence our failure. But if this were the case, *all* Presbyterian Societies would be handicapped in the same way. And to show that this is not the case, I will instance the Arcot-American Presbyterian Mission. In the very centre of the district where this society labours at the headquarters of the society,—at Vellore—we have a High School, at the head of which, till very recently, we had an European lay missionary drawing a large salary, and it will be seen from last years' returns that we have not a single native convert—not a soul—belonging to our Church in that district. But the American Presbyterians, as shown above, have a total of 6,089 souls connected with their Church.

But without seeking for any further apologies or excuses, I think the wisest plan is to realise the fact, face it boldly, and to find out the *cause* of our failure. As for myself, I may say this is the course I have adopted. And though my opinion may not be regarded as of much worth, in the minds of the majority of the Committee, and of the Church in general, still, as it is the opinion of one who has had some *insight* into our methods of working, I venture to give it, and it may be taken for what it is worth.

Mr. Liston's opinion is simply this—that the Mission has been fostering its educational agencies "at the expense of evangelistic work, and while it has been successfully adding numerous graduates to the Madras and other Universities," it has "signally failed to add converts to the Church of Christ," and, for the credit of the Church and the welfare of the Mission, "this process should be reversed as speedily as possible." We will here again freely quote from Mr. Liston's pamphlet:—

I am well aware that the system of higher education for the conversion of the natives was originally established by the greatest of missionaries, Dr. Duff, and in his time, as stated above, it accomplished a great and noble work. But if we imagine we can successfully carry on our mission now in the same way as we did in the days of Duff, or that we can work as prosperously now on the same lines as we did then, we are not only blinded by a system that was successful in the past, but it is a pure anachronism. We must bear in mind that half a century and more has passed since then. India has not been standing still during all that period. In the interval the rule in that country has passed out of the hands of a selfish trading company, that looked more carefully after its subsidies than after its subjects, into the hands of a Constitutional Government, with all the enlightenment and power of public opinion in India and Britain to keep it up to its duty. And no one who is at all acquainted with the circumstances of the case can doubt that the Government is doing its duty successfully, satisfactorily and well for the moral and material progress and prosperity of the community. Thus

the circumstances of the case are completely altered and the system that was successful then is not satisfactory now. If Duff could revisit the land of his labours, I am persuaded he would not recognise it as the same place, and I verily believe he would be the first to change his system to fit in with the changed circumstances, and the changed times. In Duff's day there were not half a dozen schools where the natives could get what we call a liberal education. In his time the control of the education was entirely in the hands of the missionaries. They could prescribe what text-books they pleased to their students, and these books had invariably a Christian tendency. There was no Government Educational Department to step in and control missionary efforts in one direction or another, and as a consequence, we had more direct missionary results to show than we can do now.

In contrast with this, what is the condition of things in the present day? Here again I must confine my observations to Southern India. When our first missionary school was established in Madras, there were only *two* seminaries in existence where an education of the character above indicated could be obtained—one, under Government (*i.e.* the old East India Company) control, and another, under native management. In these circumstances it supplied a want, it was calculated to do good, and being hampered by no restrictions, the missionary could give to the whole of his teaching a Christian tendency. How does the case stand in the present day? I regret I have not the statistics by me to give the exact number of schools now existing in Madras. But the following facts may help to give some approximate idea of their number and tend to show the high pressure that is brought to bear upon the education of our sable fellow-subjects in the East. In broad Scotland, where education has been leavening the mass of the people for centuries, we have hitherto thought ourselves well supplied with four colleges for the whole country. But, in Madras, where the charter of education dates only from 1858, and where it was, for the first time, recognised as a department of Government, in that town alone there are *seven* Colleges. Observe, I am not speaking of High Schools and other seminaries of learning, nor am I speaking of the Madras Presidency in general; but I am speaking of *Colleges* that exist for the purpose of educating for a degree—F. A., M. A., B. A., and the like—and where the standard is said to be as high, if not higher, than it is in Scotland. And I am speaking of the town of Madras alone; and in that city, I repeat, at this moment there are in existence no less than *seven* Colleges. As people in this country will have some difficulty in crediting this fact, I may as well give the names, as follows:—The

Presidency College, the Christian (Free Church) College, Patchcappa's College, the Church of Scotland College, St. Mary's College, the Wesleyan College, and the Doveton College.

Mr. Liston then "seriously and solemnly" asks:—

In the midst of this superfluity and excessive abundance of opportunities for obtaining a College education, is it a Christian duty, is it right, is it honest that we should tax the poor, hard labouring man in this country to pay for giving to the natives of Madras an education he cannot give to his own son? Is it right, or honest, that we should take of the hard-earned wages of the agriculturist, or the mechanic, or the clerk, or even the superabundant means of the more wealthy, to pay for the education of natives who, as far as their wordly circumstances are concerned, are perfectly able, and, in many cases, more than able to pay for themselves? Is it right we should call upon the people of Scotland to subscribe to what are called India Missions, when it is purely educational measures we are adopting? In these days of decreased stipends, when I think of the hard pressing poverty in many of our manse, and the struggle and the difficulty many of our ministers have to make ends meet, I am in a strait which to do—whether to admire their generous self-denial in subscribing to such a purpose, or to blame them for their culpable negligence in not being more careful to see that the money they are the means of collecting is applied to the legitimate purpose for which it was subscribed.

Mr. Liston then proceeds to shew how this educational work is carried on:—

In most cases perhaps the money is asked for under the impression that these colleges of ours are missionary institutions, and that they are entirely under the control of the Church. For all those holding this view, I am drawn to admire their indifferent self-denial, and led to condone their culpability or negligence, in the other direction. But, confining my attention again to Madras, I speak of what I know and testify to what I have seen. As to the first of these—the missionary character of these institutions, if this is not a misnomer, they are certainly practical failures in this relationship. During the whole of my twenty years' service in the Madras Presidency, I am not aware of a single direct convert who has been gained to the cause of Christ, or the Church of Scotland, from all our labours in the institution. As to the second, all the control and influence the Church exercises over these institutions consists simply in choosing the man and paying the major part of his salary. After these two conditions have been fulfilled the teacher practically passes over to the control of

the Government, if he is the recipient of a grant-in-aid. The authorities take good care that *they*, at least, will have their money's worth out of the labours of the man in return for their grant. They demand from him daily a certain number of hours (hour, I think) secular teaching; and he must teach not what his own judgment would lead him to choose or select, so as to bring his work into harmony with the commission he has received from the Church at home, but during these hours he must teach the books prescribed by the University for the particular degree for which the pupil may happen to be studying. In other words, we are in fact doing, partly at the expenses of the hardly extracted offerings of the people of Scotland, what the Government of India would be bound to do at their own charges, or out of taxes of the country, if we did not in this way come to their assistance.

After the certain number of hours teaching exacted by the Government have been fulfilled, it is a matter of indifference to them (the Government) what the teacher does. He may teach the Bible or the Koran, or the Puranas, or any particular subject he may have a fancy for. But as a matter of fact this opportunity is always seized upon by the missionary to hold what he calls his "Bible hour." And with what result? The students attend our colleges to study and pass for a degree, not to read the Bible. And when the "Bible hour" comes on, these Hindoos get up the facts of the Bible very much in the same fashion that Christians, in our school days, got up our Roman Antiquities or our Grecian Mythology. These Hindoos can tell you to a nicety how many concubines Solomon had, they can tell you the exact date of the deluge according to Usher's Chronology, and they have the facts of the Bible at their finger ends; but, to my mind, they are no nearer Christ by this method than are those students who attend what we Indians call "pukka" Government colleges.

That the opinion I have formed as to the purely secular character of our educational institutions is not peculiar to myself, but is the opinion entertained by the majority of Europeans who have resided for any length of time in India, and who are acquainted with the working of the system, may be shown by a short extract from the speech of Sir Charles Turner, the then Chief Justice of Madras, delivered by him some years ago when he presided at the distribution of prizes at the Christian College. Sir Charles was a member of the Council of that College, and may, therefore, be held as speaking with authority, and being well acquainted with its aims and efforts as a missionary institution—and this is what he says:—

"You have heard this called the Christian College, and last year you were informed on what grounds it claimed that title. This College

has always professed to have missionary aims, but the manner in which these aims are achieved may not be known to some of you. No attempt is made in this Institution to induce any boy to change the religion of his fathers. What is sought is to make every boy a thoroughly moral boy. We do recognise that it is impossible to teach morality, as founded on any other basis than duty, and duty to the Divine author of the universe. We teach morality as calculated by duty to God. The boys read the historical books of the Bible; and the example of a Divine life in the Gospels. We believe the very essence of the Christian religion is the free surrender of our free will to the Divine will, and it would be inconsistent with this belief to allow any attempt to be made in this Institution to use the direct influence of the schoolmaster to induce the boys to change their religion."

These remarks, it is true, are spoken of the Free Church College. But our Institution in Madras is worked precisely on the same lines, and I suspect it is the same in our institutions in the other Presidencies, so that the remarks are equally applicable to them. We who have been in India have long known that these are the principles upon which our missionary educational institutions are conducted; and some of us, in our own feeble fashion, have raised our voices against this system, but we have not been heard; we have protested against (as it seemed to us) this misappropriation of funds, and our protest has been rejected with contempt and disdain. And we do not wonder at our treatment in this respect, for were it to become known to the public of Scotland that a considerable portion of the money subscribed for missionary purposes is used to support institutions in which no attempt will be allowed to be made "to use the direct influence of the schoolmaster to induce the boys to change their religion," I expect the pecuniary resources of the Mission would be even less slender than they now are.

I could produce numerous additional arguments to demonstrate the secular character of these institutions, but I believe enough has been said to substantiate the fact. There is no good to be got from dwelling upon what is painful and distasteful, as I am persuaded this matter, must be to many, as it is to myself. But if the outcome of the discussion is, that the common sense of the Church is brought to the conviction that our missionary colleges have proved a failure, and that the men and the money so employed should be set free to engage in proper, legitimate, and genuine missionary work—good will be done. And it is with the greatest pleasure I am now beginning to discover signs and symptoms that the public feeling is gradually drifting in this direction.

Mr Liston concludes by pointing out what is the best thing to be done in the present circumstances. We quote his remarks *in extenso* :—

First of all, then, let us unbind from our eyes the bandage of the traditional policy—the higher education for the conversion of the natives of India—and then let us look straight before us, and what do we see? At Darjeeling in the Punjab (Bengal?), in Africa, we see we are making progress. These are, in a true sense of the word, successful missions, because they are conducted on the true missionary lines. Hence they are rightly the popular missions of the Church. And now, since the bandage has been removed for a moment, we can look with open eyes upon "the traditional policy" itself, and we find it has proved a failure. When we open our eyes we behold, to our astonishment, that for the last twenty years not six converts have been made directly out of all our efforts for the higher education of the natives.

And here I may ask, in a kind of parenthesis.—Is all Duff's work dead? has it proved a failure? I answer, No. Most certainly not. I see his work survive in the Indian Educational Department. There it lives. But I can see no traces whatever of his work, or the spirit of his work, in these mongrel institutions, our secular missionary-Christian Colleges, which we have been fostering and nourishing so long, at such an expense, and with such feeble results to show for all our labour. I claim for the Church of Scotland, through its pioneer Duff, as having been the agent who prepared the soil, and transplanted from this country the twig which has now grown into the gigantic tree—The Indian Government Educational Department, which has spread its branches over the whole peninsula of India, and is now casting the shade of its enlightening, elevating, civilising influence over all the land. Let us see our work surviving there, and leave the higher education in the hands of the Government, the parties on whom it legitimately devolves, I am persuaded that such a work is safer politically, morally, aye, even spiritually in their hands than in the hands of those questionable hybrids, secular-missionary-Christian Colleges.

To return from this digression to the consideration of the measure that should now be adopted. The principal is this—strengthen what is working well, abolish all that has proved a failure. Do not allow the dread of "abandoning a station" to hang over us like a nightmare. If the position is not a profitable one, why not abandon it? If it is, in fact, hindering our true missionary work, what reason is there for retaining it? Darjeeling, the Punjab, Africa—these are working well, and let them be strengthened. Our Colleges are a failure—let them be

abandoned. To my mind the need of the Church at the present moment is not more men for the mission field. We have sufficient in the field already; as many, at least as judicious consideration of the means at our disposal will admit of. What is needed, is that the Committee see that the men we have in the field have proper, legitimate, and genuine mission work apportioned to them. They cannot have this legitimate mission work so long as the best part of their time is taken up with secular teaching. Therefore, as soon as possible, let them be relieved of this work. I do not mean that these Colleges should be closed in a day. It may take years to do this, but this is the direction in which the attention of the committee should be turned. This proposal, I know, will appear preposterous to many—an impossibility without producing a collapse. I entertain a different opinion, and believe it would be a deliverance, and the first step to our missionary efficiency. Hitherto the public of Scotland have not been aware of the utter failure, in a missionary sense, of these institutions, and they have regarded them as essential elements in our missionary operations. Now, it seems to me, the public are beginning to release the one, and to doubt the other, and the more familiar they become with this aspect of the case it will make the possibility of their abolition all the more feasible. It will take time, but I believe it is inevitable. If we ask the public to subscribe to missionary purposes, we are not at liberty to spend the money so received in secular education, and, therefore, honesty calls, for their abolition. If our aim as a mission is to gain converts and to add to the Church of Christ, it is folly to hamper ourselves with an agency that has proved a failure in this respect, and, therefore, policy calls for their abolition. For the same reason hampered as we are for funds economy calls for their abolition. Above all our "marching orders" call for their abolition. And over against these—honesty, policy, economy, the spirit of "our marching orders"—all calling for abolition, what have we to plead for their maintenance? Nothing but the antiquated admonition to have faith and the fruits will be seen in the good time coming. As for myself, I may say I have not only ceased to have faith in these promised results out of this agency, but I seem to myself to have good reason for believing the very contrary.—*Madras Times*.

THE SUMMER MEETING OF UNIVERSITY EXTENSION STUDENTS AT OXFORD.

The experiment of holding in Oxford a summer meeting of University Extension students has proved a real success. The number

of tickets was limited to 900; all these were taken up, and 500 additional applications had to be refused. Rather more than two-thirds of the students were women; among the men about 25 were artisans; while five students came up as University Extension scholars through the generosity of Lord Ripon, Mr. J. G. Talbot, and Mr. Mocatta. Of the women, a great number were engaged in education, and there were present many heads of schools, accompanied often by members of their staff—one lady, for example, taking Somerville Hall, where she entertained all her teachers during the meeting.

One of the members for the University presided on the first evening, when Mr. Arthur Acland delivered an interesting inaugural address. The Headmaster of Rugby took the chair at several meetings and conferences. The Marquis of Ripon took part in the discussions on University Extension and on the best means of making fireside reading more systematic. The venerable Master of Balliol presided on two evenings, prefacing the lectures with a few pithy and sympathetic words.

Each day's work began at 10.30; lectures went on every morning from that hour till one o'clock. On account of the numbers present, it was felt desirable, in spite of the spaciousness of the splendid examination schools which the University kindly lent for the purpose, to have on each morning two sets of three concurrent lectures. As far as possible it was arranged that in each group of three lectures one should deal with an historical subject, and the other two with literature, science, or political economy. The lectures, which were arranged mainly in short courses of three or four, were expressly designed to stimulate and direct subsequent study, several of the courses being illustrated by admirable papers of hints for home-reading drawn up by the lecturers to promote more systematic study of their subject during the winter months.

Professor Thorold Rogers, Mr. Price, and Mr. Llewellyn Smith gave very interesting courses on Political Economy. Mr. Mackinder delivered three lectures on Geography, which were considered so excellent that he was induced to give three more. Mr. Arthur Sidgwick gave graceful interpretations of four Greek masterpieces, choosing the *Odyssey*, the *Electra*, the *Antigone*, and the *Acharnians*. The audiences, which listened to Mr. Moulton's fascinating lectures on *Faust*, were the most crowded, and the splendid South Writing School could scarcely accommodate the numbers. Another very stimulating course was Mr. Hudson Shaw's on Savonarola, Professor Jowett and Sir Robert Morier

being among the audience. Owing to the sudden absence of another lecturer, Mr. Shaw also gave a course on the Tudor Period, which was much appreciated.

The afternoons were left free for geological expeditions, for visits to the colleges under the leadership of Mr. James Parker and other authorities on architecture, for conferences on various educational matters, and for the many pleasant parties which were arranged in college gardens and on the river.

The students assembled each evening in one of the splendid schools. Amongst those who addressed them were the Bishop of Ripon, on Prose Poems (i.e., novels). Dr. Murray, arrayed in the robes of the many Universities which have honoured him, gave an interesting account of the great English Dictionary of which he is the editor. The Warden of Merton—one of the highest living authorities on University history and the head of the oldest English College—interested a large audience by his story of the University of Oxford. Prof. Max Müller was kind enough to lecture to the students on Language; and Mr. Walter Crane (whose address was illustrated with beautiful drawings) on Art. Mr. Poulton also gave, in two lectures, some most interesting results of original observation in entomology, bearing chiefly on the protective mimicry by which insects are defended against their enemies.

The visitors took possession on Sunday of the great University Church. The undergraduates' galleries, which were reserved for University Extension students, were crowded to their extreme capacity by those who had come to hear the Bishop of Ripon preach on the relation of culture to morality.

A concert was given on the last night of the meeting by a large chorus of University Extension students, who had been practising under the excellent direction of Mr. Farmer. The visitors presented two addresses, thanking in one the University authorities, and in the other the secretaries for the arrangement of the meeting, and expressing the hope that the gathering might be repeated next year, and might be supplemented by a longer period of quiet study.

Many teachers felt that the meeting was useful, not only because model lessons were given which would help to lift school teaching into a less arid region, but because they were able to get stimulus and advice from the distinguished lecturers who took part in the gathering. There can be little doubt that this meeting will result in a large increase in the number of centres at which University Extension lectures are

delivered, and that, if a brief term of residence each summer at Oxford or Cambridge is made a permanent part of the University Extension system, it will be possible to provide some of the 25,000 students now attending the courses with new opportunities for the systematic and continuous study which they need.—*Journal of Education*.

THE "ELECTRA" AT CHELTENHAM.

Cheltenham College is the first of our Public Schools that has undertaken the performance of a Greek play in its entirety, and, despite the great difficulties that the *Electra* of Sophocles presents, the general opinion was that the attempt was very successful. The performance took place in the big Classical Schoolroom on the nights of the 28th, 29th, and 30th of June before large and enthusiastic audiences. The regular Greek stage, with its *logeum* and orchestra, had been erected, the scenery representing the palace of Mycenae, beautifully painted by Mr. Nesbitt, the art-master at the College. The special charm of the *Electra*, as acted at Cheltenham, was the series of pictures formed by the groups of actors on the stage, with their bright and handsome dresses standing out against the painted masonry and brilliant curtains of the palace of the Pelopids. The audience were thoroughly satisfied with what they saw, being generally agreed that the parts were known perfectly and the speeches delivered well and with telling effect. Thanks to Mr. Hawtrey, who undertook the difficult part of coaching, the action and gesture throughout were capital, notably the movements of the chorus of maidens, whose leader (Mr. Vans Best) showed in his movements and expression the finish and grace of a real actor. Among the principal characters, Mr. H. Clayton as the proud Queen Clytemnestra admirably portrayed the dignity and indignant scorn of the part. Of Mr. A. S. Owen, who took the long and difficult rôle of Electra, who occupies the stage almost throughout the play, the *Times* says that he rendered his part "as effectively as any boy could represent a woman of that age." The part of Orestes was admirably maintained by Mr. C. Woodhouse, whose calm demeanour was broken suitably at times, by bursts of dramatic emotion. Mr. Hibbert Ware, who took the part of Chrysothemis, and who is only fifteen years old, was perfectly suited to his part, adding to a young and boyish voice the grace of form and action that is felt to be inseparable from Sophocles' real women. Mr. H. Brooke made a capital Pedagogue, and exhibited great histrionic skill in describing the supposed death of Orestes. The craven monarch Aegisthus, though a small part, was splendidly acted by Mr. F. U. Mugliston, who admirably depicted the insolence, savagery,

and pride of the vainglorious king, so swiftly followed by the abject dismay shown by the coward when he realises his awful situation. The scene where Aegisthus encounters the dead face of his wife, and the horror exhibited by him at the sight, was most powerfully represented on the stage; while nothing could have exceeded the blood-curdling sensations felt by the audience while vengeance is being taken on Clytaemnestra behind the scenes. The splendid music sung by the Chorus was specially composed by Dr. A. E. Dyer, the organist at the College. Especially admirable was the final ode, to the martial strains of which the Chorus rapidly marches round the stage. This was enthusiastically encored each night, and among the other most noteworthy features of the music were the orchestral prelude which contained the four principal themes (vengeance, the wail of Electra, the consolation of the Chorus, and the joyful strains of Orestes), and a chorus—which was sung as a quartet by four members of the Chorus. At the close of the performance on the 29th, the Principal presented the composer with a wreath of laurels, quoting certain lines.—*Journal of Education*.

THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD.

No. III.]

MARCH, 1889.

[Vol. V.]

NOTABLE HISTORICAL EVENTS.

- Massacre of the Mamelukes at Cairo by Mehemet Ali.* 1st Mar. 1811.
Return of Napoleon from Elba: he lands at Cannes with 1000 men. 1st Mar. 1815.
M. Thiers French Minister of Foreign affairs. 1st Mar. 1840.
Lord Derby's second Administration. 1st Mar. 1858.
Defeat of the Tae-ping rebels by the Chinese forces, assisted by the English and French, at Shanghai. 1st Mar. 1862.
Death of Francis I of Austria, and accession of Ferdinand I. 2nd Mar. 1835.
Sir Hugh Gough, assumes the command of the British Forces in China. 2nd Mar. 1841.
Death of the Emperor Nicholas of Russia; accession of Alexander II; no change of policy. 2nd Mar. 1855.
Lord Cranborne, Lord Carnarvon and General Peel resign their seats in the Cabinet. 2nd Mar. 1867.
Attempt to assassinate the Queen. 2nd Mar. 1832.
Death of Prince Charles Edward, the young Pretender, at Rome. 3rd Mar. 1788.
Pedro I, Emperor of Brazil, formally renounces all claim to the crown of Portugal. 3rd Mar. 1828.
Arrival of the ex-King and Queen of the French in England. 3rd Mar. 1848.
The Emperor Alexander of Russia issues a decree emancipating the serfs throughout his dominions. 3rd Mar. 1861.

The "Quebec Bill" proposed by Pitt, by which Canada is divided into the Upper and Lower provinces, and receives a representative constitution.	4th Mar. 1791.
Berlin evacuated by the French.	4th Mar. 1813.
War declared against Burmah.	4th Mar. 1824.
Grand funeral procession in Paris in honor of the victims of the revolution.	4th Mar. 1848.
A treaty of peace between England and Persia signed at Paris.	4th Mar. 1857.
Diplomatic relations between Austria and Sardinia broken off.	4th Mar. 1857.
Abraham Lincoln inaugurated 16th President of the United States.	4th Mar. 1861.
Inauguration of Lincoln and Johnson as President and Vice-President of the United States.	4th Mar. 1865.
The New American congress assembled.	4th Mar. 1867.
A fatal affray takes place between the English soldiers and the people of Boston, United States.	5th Mar. 1770.
A French force, under Bussy, lands on the Coromandel coast to aid Tippoo Sahib against the English.	5th Mar. 1783.
Battle of Barossa.	5th Mar. 1811.
The American Congress nominates a committee of enquiry into the means employed by President Buchanan to secure his election, and into the character of his administration.	5th Mar. 1860.
H. H. The Maharajah of Mysore born.	5th Mar. 1863.
President Lincoln proposes a plan of pecuniary assistance for the emancipation of the slaves in such States as should adopt an abolition policy.	6th Mar. 1862.
Siege of Bangalore.	7th Mar. 1791.
Jaffa stormed by the French.	7th Mar. 1799.
Battle of Eraune.	7th Mar. 1814.
Sir Charles Napier appointed Commander-in-Chief in India.	7th Mar. 1849.
Institution of the Albert Medal by Queen Victoria.	7th Mar. 1866.
Suppression of the convents in Prussia.	8th Mar. 1804.
Battle of Bergen-op-Zoom.	8th Mar. 1814.
Abdication of Iturbide, Emperor of Mexico.	8th Mar. 1823.
A commercial treaty concluded with the United States by Japan.	8th Mar. 1854.
Last Indian Budget read.	8th Mar. 1862.

Battle of Laon.	9th & 10th Mar. 1814.
Portugal adopts a new constitution.	9th Mar. 1821.
Peace concluded between France and Mexico at Vera Cruz.	9th Mar. 1839.
Treaty of Lahore, and end of the Sikh war.	9th Mar. 1846.
The Caffre war ends.	9th Mar. 1853.
Revolutionary Tribunal established in France.	10th Mar. 1793.
Insurrection in La Vendée.	10th Mar. 1793.
Attempt of the Chinese to recover Ningpo and Chinhae from the British; they are repulsed with great loss.	10th Mar. 1842.
Battle of Kandahar.	10th Mar. 1842.
Marriage of the Prince of Wales and the Princess Alexandra of Denmark, in St. George's Chapel, Windsor.	10th Mar. 1863.
Great excitement amongst the Hindoos owing to the provincial government of Bengal prohibiting the throwing of dead bodies into the Hooghly, and the burning of the dead within a certain distance of Calcutta.	10th Mar. 1864.
Warren Hastings accused of taking bribes by the Brahmin Nuncomar.	11th Mar. 1776.
Peace concluded between Tippoo Sahib and the British.	11th Mar. 1784.
Sir James Outram died.	11th Mar. 1863.
End of Nepaul war	12th Mar. 1816.
Re-establishment of a Roman Catholic Hierarchy in Holland announced.	12th Mar. 1853.
Treaty of alliance signed at Constantinople between Great Britain, France and Turkey.	12th Mar. 1854.
The English ambassador (Lord Whitworth) publicly insulted by Napoleon Bounaparte.	13th Mar. 1803.
Abdication of Victor Emmanuel I, King of Sardinia, in consequence of a popular insurrection, and accession of his brother, Charles Felix.	13th Mar. 1821.
Czar Alexander II assassinated.	13th Mar. 1881.
An alliance concluded by Prussia with France and Austria.	14th Mar. 1812.
An insurrection breaks out at Berlin against the Government.	14th Mar. 1848.
Abolition of the Sound dues by Denmark.	14th Mar. 1857.
The Swiss Cantons declare their neutrality on the Italian question.	14th Mar. 1859.

<i>Battle of Guildford</i>	15th Mar. 1781.
<i>New Alliance</i> against Napoleon formed by England, Austria, Prussia and Russia.	15th Mar. 1815.
<i>The Conference</i> of the four great powers on the Eastern question, commences at Vienna.	15th Mar. 1855.
<i>A Conference</i> assembles at Paris to settle the Neuchâtel difficulty.	15th Mar. 1857.
<i>Electric light</i> first tried in Bombay.	15th Mar. 1882.
<i>Abolition</i> of Lettres de Cachet in France.	16th Mar. 1790.
<i>Battle of Tagliamento.</i>	16th Mar. 1797.
<i>Austria</i> cedes most of her Belgian possessions to Holland, Feb. '23: the Prince of Orange assumes the title of King of Holland.	16th Mar. 1815.
<i>Birth of the Prince Imperial</i> ; annuity granted to 1000 French political prisoners.	16th Mar. 1856.
<i>Death of the Duchess</i> of Kent.	16th Mar. 1861.
<i>Kolhapore Regency</i> installed.	16th Mar. 1882.
<i>The Italian Parliament</i> enacts that Victor Emanuel shall assume the title of "King of Italy."	17th Mar. 1861.
<i>Abolition</i> of territorial premogeniture in France.	18th Mar. 1791.
<i>Battle of Neerwinden.</i>	18th Mar. 1793.
<i>Permission</i> granted by the Chinese Emperor for a British Commissioner, superintending trade with China, to reside at Canton.	18th Mar. 1837.
<i>Princess Louise</i> born.	18th Mar. 1848.
<i>St. Domingo</i> united to Spain.	18th Mar. 1861.
<i>The Government Reform Bill</i> introduced by Mr. Disraeli, and read a first time.	18th Mar. 1867.
<i>Treaty with Tippu</i> signed.	19th Mar. 1792.
<i>Departure</i> of Louis XVIII from Paris, and restoration of the French Empire.	19th Mar. 1815.
<i>The independence</i> of the South American governments acknowledged by the United States government.	19th Mar. 1822.
<i>Ultimatum</i> of England and France sent to St. Petersburg, Feb. 27, 1854; the Czar did not judge it suitable to give an answer.	19th Mar. 1854.
<i>Trial of the King of Delhi</i> , who is sentenced to transportation.	Jan. 27—19th Mar. 1858.
<i>End of the Maori war</i> (New Zealand); surrender of the natives.	19th Mar. 1861.

<i>The British Museum</i> purchases the collection of Sir W. Hamilton for £ 8,410.	20th Mar. 1772.
<i>Capture of Bangalore.</i>	20th Mar. 1791.
<i>Battle of Tarbes.</i>	20th Mar. 1814.
<i>The independence</i> of Switzerland acknowledged by the Congress of Vienna.	20th Mar. 1815.
<i>The Mexican Congress</i> decrees the expulsion of the Spaniards from Mexico.	20th Mar. 1829.
<i>Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen</i> incorporated with Prussia.	20th Mar. 1850.
<i>Treaty of Madrid</i> , between France and Spain.	21st Mar. 1801.
<i>Battle of Alexandria.</i>	21st Mar. 1801.
<i>Addington</i> , English Prime Minister.	21st Mar. 1801.
<i>Abdication</i> of Louis Charles, King of Bavaria, in favor of Maximilian Joseph II.	21st Mar. 1848.
<i>General fast day</i> throughout England in consequence of the Russian war.	21st Mar. 1855.
<i>Sir John Campbell</i> marches to Lucknow, 11th Feb.; the siege commences 8th Mar.; and the city finally captured.	21st Mar. 1858.
<i>The Zollverein</i> , or customs union of the German states, instituted.	22nd Mar. 1833.
<i>An insurrection</i> breaks out in Venice, under Daniel Manin, against the Austrians, and the Republic proclaimed.	22nd Mar. 1848.
<i>The annexation</i> of Tuscany to Sardinia effected.	22nd Mar. 1860.
<i>The Slave trade</i> is abolished in the dominions of great Britain by 47 Geo. III., c. 36. The act to take effect from May 1.	23rd Mar. 1807.
<i>The French</i> , under Murat, enter Madrid.	23rd Mar. 1808.
<i>Publication of the Rambouillet</i> decree by Napoleon I, which prohibits French vessels from entering the ports of the United States, and orders the seizure of all American vessels arriving in French waters.	23rd Mar. 1810.
<i>Naples occupied</i> by the Austrians, and a provincial government appointed.	23rd Mar. 1821.
<i>Hostilities resumed</i> between Sardinia and Austria. March 20; Battle of Novara.	23rd Mar. 1849.
<i>Battle of Guad-el-Rao.</i>	23rd Mar. 1860.
<i>Sir William Mansfield</i> succeeds Sir Hugh Rose as Commander-in-Chief of the Indian army	23rd Mar. 1865.

- The British Parliament* grant £ 50,000 for the defence of Canada. 23rd Mar. 1865.
- The independence* of the United States acknowledged by Sweden, Feb. 5; by Denmark, Feb. 25; and by Spain. 24th Mar. 1783.
- Scinde annexed* to, to the British Empire in India, March 12; Sir. Charles Napier appointed the Governor. 24th Mar. 1843.
- Surrender of the Sikh army* to the British, March 14; the Punjab annexed to the British dominions in India. 24th Mar. 1849.
- Treaty between France and Sardinia* regarding the annexation of Savoy and Nico to France. 24th Mar. 1860.
- Assassination of the Gotairo*, Regent of the Empire of Japan. 24th Mar. 1860.
- An alliance concluded* between England and Russia against France. Russia acquires considerable territory by the second partition of Poland. 25th Mar. 1793.
- The Treaty of Amiens* concluded. 25th Mar. 1802.
- The treaty of Vienna*. 25th Mar. 1815.
- Baden joins the allies* against Napoleon I. 25th Mar. 1815.
- Expulsion of the Jesuits* from Russia. 25th Mar. 1820.
- Peace concluded* between the British and Tippoo Sahib; the Sahib's two eldest sons retained as hostages. 26th Mar. 1792.
- Duke of Cambridge* born. 26th Mar. 1819.
- Battle of Mohammerah*. 26th Mar. 1857.
- Mutinies in the Bengal army* at Barrackpore, Berhampore and Lucknow. 26th Mar. 1857.
- Pope Pius IX* excommunicates all who have taken part in the rebellion of his provinces. 26th Mar. 1860.
- The Reform Bill* read a second time, without a division. 26th Mar. 1867.
- Battle of Mallavelly* in Coorg. 27th Mar. 1799.
- The Italian Government* orders the amalgamation of Garibaldi's volunteers with the regular army. 27th Mar. 1862.
- Prince Frederick* appointed Regent of Denmark, owing to the insanity of his Father, Christian VII. 28th Mar. 1784.
- Peace concluded* between France and Naples, by the Treaty of Florence. 28th Mar. 1801.
- Appearance of cholera* in France, which rages with great fury for several months. 28th Mar. 1832.
- Declaration of war* by England and France against Russia. 28th Mar. 1854.

- The Porte* demands the Greek Government to prevent its subjects from aiding the Albanian rebels, 19th March; the demand rejected and war declared. 28th Mar. 1854.
- French victories* in Cochin China (six provinces ceded to France). 28th Mar. 1862.
- Queen Victoria* writes an autograph letter to Mr. Peabody, the eminent American Merchant, on his having added to his splendid gift of the preceding year, for the improvement of the dwellings of the poor of London. 28th Mar. 1866.
- Prince Leopold* died. 28th Mar. 1884.
- An alliance* concluded between Poland and Prussia at Warsaw. 29th Mar. 1790.
- Abolition of the slave-trade* in France by Napoleon I. 29th Mar. 1815.
- Salic law* abolished in Spain by Ferdinand VII. 29th Mar. 1830.
- Punjab* annexed. 29th Mar. 1849.
- Seizure of Mr. Ashley Eden*, English Convoy at Bhootan, who is compelled to sign a treaty giving up Assam. 29th Mar. 1864.
- Surrender of Paris* to the allied armies. 30th Mar. 1814.
- The Office of Grand Vizier* abolished in Turkey. 30th Mar. 1838.
- The Census of the United Kingdom* taken, and the population returned at 27,637,761 persons. 30th Mar. 1851.
- Treaty of Paris*, between Russia and Turkey, Great Britain, France and Sardinia. 30th Mar. 1856.
- General Roberts* takes Kotah, India, from the Sepoy rebels. 30th Mar. 1858.
- The Kingdom of Italy* recognized by the British Government. 30th Mar. 1861.
- The Sale of Russian America* to the United States announced in New York. 30th Mar. 1867.
- Russo-Persian treaty* ratified. 30th Mar. 1882.
- The war* between Spain and Portugal (which had commenced in 1762) concluded by the Treaty of Pardo, or St. Ildefonso. 31st Mar. 1773.
- Duke of Portland* English Prime Minister. 31st Mar. 1807.
- Battle of Wawz*. 31st Mar. 1831.
- The property of the ecclesiastics* in Mexico sequestered. 31st Mar. 1856.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY IN 1887-88.

THE report on Public Instruction in the Madras Presidency for 1887-88, which is just out, is one of the most interesting reports that we have come across. It is replete with information, the statistical part being most complete and exhaustive. The introduction of educational maps, showing the condition of collegiate, secondary and primary education, is a novel feature of the report and gives an additional interest to it.

The total number of schools at the close of 1887-88 was 17,355 and the number of scholars 505,558. This shews an increase of 4 per cent. in the number of schools and 3 per cent in that of scholars over the figures of the previous year. The Government of Madras consider this progress not very satisfactory, as the increase noted above, was chiefly confined to indigenous or private schools. But the Education Commission, it must be remembered, laid very great stress on the development of indigenous education; and the improvement in the number of indigenous schools and in their efficiency not only in Madras but throughout India, as is noticeable in the consolidated report of the Government of India, is encouraging. It is not necessary that these schools should be brought within the educational fold. If only an organized system of instruction be introduced, they can be made powerful auxiliaries to public institutions which, whatever may be their excellences, are, more or less, modelled after one pattern. Of boys of school-going age in the Madras Presidency, one in 5, and of girls one in 40 are under instruction. For Bengal, the figures are one in 4 for boys, and over one in 61 for girls, whereas the Bombay figures are over 1 in 3½ for boys and over one in 33 for girls. The most advanced districts in this Presidency are Tinnevely, Malabar, Tanjore, and the most backward Salem, Kurnool, Anantapur, Vizagapatam and Cuddapah. The figures quoted

Hindus ...	1 in 66	in the margin give the proportion of pupils
Native Christians ..	17	to population under each of the great classes.
Muhammadans ..	40	
Europeans ..	8	There was a conspicuous increase under
Russians ..	5	Muhammadans during the year under review.
Others ..	591	

Collegiate and secondary education of boys was in a very satisfactory condition, but the progress made in primary education, owing chiefly to financial restrictions, was very insignificant. Female education was almost stationary and the Director also assigns financial restrictions as the chief cause. Increased attention was paid to physical education and the Director reports that "almost all the important institutions are provided with the necessary Gymnastic apparatus and that instruction is being given systematically according to Maclaren's system by trained instructors." There was a decrease in the number and strength of Normal schools from 57 to 54, and from 1428 to 1278, in pupils. Industrial schools increased from 16 to 18, though pupils studying in them fell from 692 to 640. We have just given some of the main features of the report and taking all things into consideration we have no hesitation in saying that the year 1887-88 has been one of steady progress.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

FORMULAE IN MENSURATION.

Formulae in Mensuration by Rev. Fr. L. McCarthy O. S. F. C., Professor of Mathematics, St. Peter's College, Agra. We have much pleasure in recommending the little book to Mathematical students in general and to students of Engineering in particular. All the most important formulae in mensuration are given in the book. Their arrangement especially commends itself to our notice. The usefulness of the book would have been enhanced if it had been accompanied by a few diagrams. The book is to be had from "The Agent, Educational Record Office, Madras."

CORRESPONDENCE.

It is distinctly to be borne in mind that we do not by inserting letters convey any opinion favorable to their contents. No notice whatever will be taken of anonymous letters, nor can we return those that are rejected. Letters should be brief, and written on one side of the paper only.

ALGEBRAICAL SOLUTIONS.

TO
THE EDITOR,
EDUCATIONAL RECORD.

MADRAS.

Sir,

The following solution of the Algebraic Identity given at the late Matriculation Examination is much shorter than the one you gave. It is quite within the grasp of Matriculation boys, and requires more thought and less of the purely mechanical multiplying and re-arranging than the one you gave in a late issue, which any Middle School boy might do.

Yours truly,

J. COOK.

CENTRAL COLLEGE, BANGALORE.

Prove (A) $4(a^2 + ab + b^2)^3 - (a-b)^2(a+2b)^2(b+2a)^2 = 27a^2b^2(a+b)^2$ (B).

The given Exp. (A) on the left is a homogeneous symmetrical one of six dimensions. It vanishes when we put $a^2=0$, also when we put $b^2=0$. Hence it is divisible by a^2b^2 . Again it vanishes if we put $a^2+b^2=-2ab$, for it becomes $4(-2ab+ab)^2 - (-2ab-2ab) \times \{2(-2ab)+5ab\}^2$, or $-4a^2b^3 - (-4ab) \times a^2b^2$, or zero.

Hence (A) must be of the form $P \times a^2b^2(a^2+b^2+2ab) \dots (C)$. It remains only to find P. Since (A) and (C) are identical, they must be equal for all values of a and b , and $\therefore$ we put $a=b=1$. Substituting these values we get $4(1+1+1)^3 - 0 = P \times 1(1+1+2)$ or $4 \times 3^3 = 4P$; $\therefore P = 3^3 = 27$. Hence (A) $= 27a^2b^2(a+b)^2$.

Q. E. D.

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND SUMMARY.

[FROM VARIOUS SOURCES.]

PROGRESS OF PRINTING IN INDIA.—Some interesting statistics have been compiled by the officials of the Indian Home Department with reference to the number of presses, and the various newspapers, periodicals and books published in India. In the year 1885-86—the year dealt with in the return—there were 1,094 presses worked in India. Of these 294 were in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, 229 in Bengal, 228 in the British territory in Bombay and 20 in the Native States, 200 in Madras, 71 in the Punjab, 26 in Burmah, 16 in the Central Provinces, 5 in Berar, 4 in Assam, and 1 in Coorg. The number of newspapers printed in English during the same year was 127, as against 117 in the previous year, and of newspapers printed in the vernacular, or bilingua 277, as against 259 in 1884-85. The Punjab is not reckoned in calculation, as the returns do not separate the English and the vernacular papers, but give a total of 67 for both. By far the greater number of the vernacular newspapers are published in the Bombay Presidency, which supports no less than 104, the North-West Provinces and Oudh coming next with 72, and Bengal next with 54. In Madras there are only 29, and in Coorg no newspaper either in English or in the vernacular is published. The number of periodicals published in India—excluding the Punjab—was 234, of which 102 were in English and 132 in the vernacular. In the Punjab there were 122 periodicals published during the year. Bombay is again at the head of the list of native periodicals with 38, while in Madras 40 English periodicals were published, and only 21 in the vernacular. The number of books published in the vernacular was much larger than in 1884-85 when it was 6,726. In 1885-86 the number was 7,990, of which Bengal contributed 2,414, Bombay 1,555, the Punjab 1,527, the North-West Provinces and Oudh 1,251, and Madras 718. On the other hand, the number of books printed in English has decreased—734 against 770 in the previous year. Of these Bengal contributed 317, Madras 154, Bombay 168, the Punjab and the North-West Provinces and Oudh 39 each.

THE opinions of Local Governments have been invited by the Supreme Government as to the best method of establishing an alternative standard for the University Entrance Examination.

THE Governor-General in Council is pleased to direct that the Inspector of Schools, Assam, be in future designated "the Director of Public Instruction, Assam."

M. Gasselin, the Consul for France in Bombay, received lately from the Registrar of the Bombay University his remuneration for being an Examiner in Arabic at the last Matriculation Examination. He forwarded the cheque to a contemporary for distribution among the poor of Bombay.

At University College, London, the new Professor of Archaeology has at last been appointed in the person of Mr. R. S. Poole, who, for a number of years, has been Keeper of Coins in the British Museum, and who, as a numismatologist, has a European reputation. Among the eight or nine persons who aspired to fill the place vacated by Sir Charles Newton, was Miss Jane E. Harrison, well-known for her excellent lectures on Classical Archaeology. This is the first time in the history of University College that a woman has stood for a professorship.

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An interesting series of correspondence has recently passed between the Local Government and the authorities of the Calcutta Public Library on the subject of converting the latter into a free public library by the joint aid of the Government and the Municipality. The Government is disposed to favour the proposal, and the objections of the Municipality may be overcome. A committee was appointed to report on the subject.

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It is wonderful that the critical condition of the only tolerable library in the metropolis of India has attracted so little attention from its enlightened gentry and educated press. However, we for one await the end of the matter with no small anxiety. The value of an institution like the Calcutta Public Library, poor as it is at present, to public men who care to properly qualify themselves for their vocation cannot be over estimated. We wonder how in a province where political Associations are so thriving, libraries are so poor. Are the two facts connected with each other?

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For the Calcutta University Examinations there were about six thousand candidates for the Entrance, about two thousand for the First in Arts, and nearly a thousand for the B.A. Examination. Thus there has been an increase in the number of examinees over that of the last year when the Sister University of the North West had not been ushered into the world. Although most of the Upper Indian Schools and Colleges have not sent their students to our University for Examination, we are glad to find their secession has not much affected the Calcutta University.

**

THE TRAINING OF MEDICAL LADIES FOR INDIA.—Mrs. Elizabeth Garrett Anderson M. D.; the famous London Lady Doctor, writes to the *Times* to advocate the proper training of ladies wishing for medical work in India. There are many reasons, she says, for thinking that medical practice in India must be specially difficult, none for thinking it can be specially easy:—"There is absolutely nothing to justify the notion that professional inexperience and the timidity that goes with it are less dangerous when the patients are natives of India than they are here." We should hope not; but we cannot quite see what has prompted the remark except Dr. Garrett Anderson's natural desire to extend the sphere of usefulness of the hospital she has managed so admirably for the last fifteen years in the Marylebone-road. The lease is expiring.

She has already collected £10,000 for a new building, but a further sum of £10,000 is needed and here Dr. Garrett Anderson thinks that India might help her. "If" she writes, "medical women are to do real good in India, they must start with a fair amount of quasi independent experience gained while the advice and assistance of their seniors are still available. We therefore appeal to all who desire that the medical women sent to India should be properly equipped for their responsible work to assist the committee of the New Hospital for Women in their present effort." This is an effort which would seem to concern Lady Dufferin's Fund itself as well as the local branches of it and we should recommend Dr. Garrett Anderson to make a formal appeal to head quarters. For the benefit of private donors we may mention that contributions can be sent to the Secretary, Miss M. Bagster 222, Marylebone-road, London, W.—*Times of India*.

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THE number of students at the Government School of Arts, Calcutta, last year, was 158; an increase of six on the preceding year, and yet the receipts from fees were less. *Indian Engineering* is sorry to hear it, for we have not much faith in the efficacies of cleemosynary education. Teaching that can be had for nothing is lightly valued; seldom put to efficient use. The only addition made to the Art Gallery last year was a set of prize drawings by pupils of the South Kensington School of Art, in their different stages of crudeness. These typical skeletons cost no less than £50.

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For the first entrance examination of the Allahabad University there were 1,414 candidates. For the Intermediate examination 328 candidates presented themselves, and for the B.A. degree 78, the two latter taking place simultaneously with the Entrance.

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A HIGH SCHOOL FOR PARSIS.—We understand that a movement is on foot to start a high school for Parsi girls on a well-organised system. The teaching will be entirely in the hands of ladies, who, in the higher classes, will be mostly Europeans. It is the aim of the proprietor to see that the pupils have been well grounded in their own vernacular, which will be the medium through which it is proposed to teach them English. Mr. Dadabhai Pestonji, who is the principal and proprietor of the school is a gentleman of long experience in educational matters having been previously connected with one of the largest and most successful private schools in Bombay and it is expected that under his management the school will supply a want much felt by the community. The studies will include drawing and needlework.

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THE Viceroy has offered a silver medal to the Government School of Art, Calcutta, for competition among the students. The medal will probably be awarded to the student who, at the end of the year, has made the greatest progress in any of the classes.

EDUCATIONAL ECHOES FROM ENGLAND.

THE Editor of the "Journal of Education" promised us an answer to the objections brought against State regulation of secondary Education by Miss. Shirreff and Mr. Sonnenschein and he has fulfilled his promise in a recent number of that paper. It will be remembered that Mr. Sonnenschein viewed the question from the political standpoint; how are we to ensure that an educationalist—may, rather two educationalists—one for each of the great parties—will be able to commend themselves to constituencies? Would-be-M. P.'s are indeed troubled on a variety of subjects, but they have hitherto been perfectly untroubled by any question as to their educational capacities. In the opinion of the Journal of Education: what is required for a minister of education is not "a knowledge of pedagogy but administrative ability" the former will be supplied by the representative council of teachers. It must be remembered too that the minister of education would hold a far higher office than does the present Vice-President of the Council, and we may therefore expect to see it filled by an eminent statesman whereas the post now is often regarded as a stepping-stone "to higher things." Miss. Shirreff's objections to State-regulated education were supported by a consideration of the state of affairs that at present obtains in Germany, an elaborately organised system embracing alike the universities and the Volksschule and very defective provision for female education, of which by the way the majority of German women seem blissfully unconscious for do they not know "Weltgeschichte"? The answer to Miss. Shirreff's objection may be summed up in the logician's formula, cum hoc, non propter hoc; the "defective girls' schools" are attributed to the "low ideal of womanhood" prevailing in Germany. One may perhaps venture to remark that in this case it is somewhat difficult to distinguish between cause and effect; may it not be as justly argued that the low ideal of womanhood is due to the limited education that the German women receive? The "Journal of Education" recognises the widespread apprehension that state officialism may tend to shape us all after one pattern and to destroy the individual energy and enterprise so dear to the Englishman's heart but considers that the educational council as advocated at the conference of the Teacher's Guild will prove a sufficient safeguard against all such dangers.

Opinions as to the advisability of state regulated education depend to a very great extent on our views concerning state interference in general; one party among us preaches in season and out of season the beauties of a paternal government that shall order

the minutiae of our daily life and save us all trouble of thinking for ourselves, while another party is always ready to cry, "Hands off!" and we have even heard some cynics remark that the Irish obstructionists should be regarded as public benefactors, in as much as they do all in their power to prevent further legislation.

Considerable interest has been taken in the conflict between the London School Board officers and those theatrical managers who had engaged children of school-age to take part in the Xmas pantomimes. It was well understood that the school Board officers were not acting on their own initiative but at the instigation of an association which disapproved of the engagement of child performers at theatres. The children's education was by no means utterly neglected and indeed most careful arrangements for their general well-being seem to have been made by the Crystal Palace Company, but as the result of the appeal to the magistrates, the pantomime has been withdrawn. Letters from both sides have appeared in the columns of the "Times" and the theatrical managers have loudly complained of the injury done to the children by their ill-advised friends. The "Times" itself which always seems to cherish some grudge against the School Board, devoted a "leader" to the quarrel and spoke sympathisingly of the hardly-used managers and children.

Mr. Augustus Harris, the enterprising manager of Drury Lane Theatre, was of course well to the fore, and was very wrathful that everyone did not view the matter in the same light that he did. Mrs. Fawcett ably defended the action of the school Board officers. How can the children profit even by the best education, if they come to their work tired after the previous night's exertions and if they are subject, as they must be to interruptions in the shape of rehearsals, etc.? Nor do their earnings benefit the family and add to the comfort of the home. Mrs. Fawcett cites cases in which the father apparently considered himself justified in living at his ease, since his children were bringing home such nice sums of money, and she aptly alludes to the outcry that was raised by the managers of factories, when the Factory Acts prevented their employing young children. Unhappily there has been a growing tendency to engage child-performers for the pantomimes, but now that the opponents of this practice have found a weapon ready to their hands in the machinery of the School Board, it is to be hoped that children may be exempted from becoming at such an early age bread winners for the family.

Our so-called Commercial Education promises to be a better thing in the future than it has been in the past. About a year ago the London Chamber of Commerce seriously turned its attention to the subject and appointed a strong and representative committee to draw up a scheme for a junior and senior Course of Commercial Education. The Committee comprising such names as Sir John Lubbock, Mr. Quintin Hogg, Professor Huxley, Sir Henry Roscoe, Mr. Mundella and Doctor Percival was composed of men entitled to speak with authority on matters of commerce and of education and their scheme naturally commands respectful attention. One point however provokes comment: the study of the classics has received another blow, for it seems that our commercial boys are no longer to learn Latin. A note affixed to the scheme explains the exclusion of this hitherto indispensable subject from the programme. It seems that a primary draft of the scheme, in which Latin was included among the obligatory subjects, was widely circulated among commercial firms, bankers, schoolmasters and others, and comments and suggestions were invited. The replies received were almost unanimous in their rejection of Latin and the committee express their surprise that the scholastic authorities concurred in the rejection, on the supposition that it was of primary consequence that both French and German should be taught. This explains the exclusion of Latin: neither the Committee—Sir John Lubbock and Doctor Evans in particular made strenuous efforts to retain it—nor schoolmasters are blind to the educational value of the study of a dead language: the insuperable difficulty is time. If a boy must learn both French and German, and critics are pretty nearly agreed on the necessity of this, and he has to enter on his commercial career at the age of 16, there is no time for Latin as well, which moreover the commercial authorities describe as an "unremunerative subject," apparently forgetting the great help it affords in the subsequent study of French, Italian and Spanish. For the rest, the committee have made a selection of the special studies to be pursued, and have arranged for the testing of the results. The junior course, intended for boys of from ten to fifteen, extends over a period of 6 years with an examination at the end of each year, and a final examination at the end of the course, at which successful candidates will obtain junior Commercial Certificates. The Senior Course is for youths over fifteen or sixteen, will extend over 3 or 4 years, and will be followed by an examination: the Higher Commercial Certificate will be a proof of high proficiency in the necessary subjects. The scheme has been approved by the Council of the London Chamber of Commerce and by the Association of the Chambers of Commerce of the United Kingdom, while the council

the College of Preceptors has consented to undertake the examination of candidates. What will Mr. Auberon Herbert say to new examinations! The London Chamber of Commerce is circulating the scheme widely, and trusts that it may be made the basis for alterations in our present system of education.

"Industrial Education" by Sir Philip Magnus, should be carefully read and considered by all who recognize the necessity for great changes in our system of education, if England is still to hold her own against her energetic competitors and to continue to be the "workshop of the world." Sir Philip Magnus does not of course advocate that trades should be taught in schools, but that subjects should be selected which would develop the powers of mind, teach the student to reason, think and observe and also be useful to him in after life. He reminds us that our education and its divorce from the needs of practical life, is in a great measure a survival from the Middle Ages, when science, as now known, existed not. Great was the danger then incurred by those bold spirits, who ventured to deviate from the well-worn track, and the daring man who advocated the study of natural philosophy, or—worse still—busied himself with scientific experiments, was invariably regarded as indebted for his superior knowledge to the Powers of Darkness.

Sir Philip Magnus deals fully with his very complex subject, and considers in detail the training necessary for artisans, foremen and managers respectively. And first, as to our elementary schools. Primary education should aim at training and exercising hand and eye, and, in the opinion of the author, this is best attained by an extension of the kindergarten system. He recognizes the high educational value of drawing, and this together with manual instruction should be made compulsory in all elementary schools, while elementary science which is both difficult and expensive to teach, should be relegated to the higher elementary schools. After such a training the artisan would learn his trade practically in the workshop, and would be better able to avail himself of the great advantages offered by the evening classes of the Science and Art Department.

Foremen and managers of course require a still more liberal instruction, and to help them Sir P. Magnus would make education in our higher elementary and middle-class schools of a more practical nature. Our merchants should be better acquainted with modern language, with the produce and wants of different countries, and their regulations concerning coinage, railways, duties, weights and measures. Sir Philip proposes to divide secondary schools into 3 departments, classics, science; modern languages, and the last two would commence the commercial

education, which would be completed at the commercial schools, which he wishes to see attached to our provincial colleges, subsidised by the state, and under state inspection. Sir P. Magnus declares himself decidedly in favour of the regulation of secondary education by the State so that there need not be the waste consequent on the overlapping of schools, whereas our schools and colleges at present remind us of what is termed "a cross division." Mr. Bosant, in his pathetic little story of Katharine Regina, has a well-drawn character of a German clerk, who ruthlessly exposes the faults in our system of education, and exults in the good time coming for foreigners in general and for Germans in particular. His boasts may savour somewhat too much of self-complacency, but, judging from the outcry that has been lately raised against the severe foreign competition, they must contain a considerable portion of truth, and all who are interested in commerce, and consequently in commercial education, should read and ponder Sir P. Magnus' very practical advice.

One is always glad to hear what Lord Derby has to say on any subject of public interest, and when he lately distributed the prizes to the students at the Harris Institute, Preston, a school of Science and Art in connection with South Kensington, he had an opportunity afforded him of quitting for a time the region of politics, and of expressing his views on education. Following the general drift of the day, Lord Derby urged that greater attention should be paid to technical training, and pointed out that an education which is almost entirely based on the exercise of the memory is not deserving of the name of education, and will prove of but very little use in after life. He referred to the vexed examination question, chiefly in connection with the civil service appointments; some years ago these examinations were instituted by reformers, who dreaded the undue influence of peers and rich men. That danger is past now, but another, not less real has taken its place; if the civil service appointments were not decided by competitive examination, they would run the risk of being drawn into the vortex of party politics. The present system effectually prevents jobbery, and this grand merit will cover a multitude of sins. In Lord Derby's opinion the present examination system however has two great evils, one of which is hardly capable of amendment, while the other is remediable. It is almost impossible to eliminate from an examination the factor of chance, since the full range of a man's knowledge cannot be tested by half-a-dozen examination papers, and consequently sufficient data for an absolutely fair comparison are not at hand. The second evil is that the examination tests, as at present applied, too often leave scope for, or even encourage, cramming: the examiner attempts to discover

what the student recollects, rather than what he understands. This is an age of Commissions, and although Lord Derby confesses that not much comes of them except a blue book, he would yet suggest a thorough inquiry into our examination system so that groundless objections might be silenced and incidental errors brought to light.

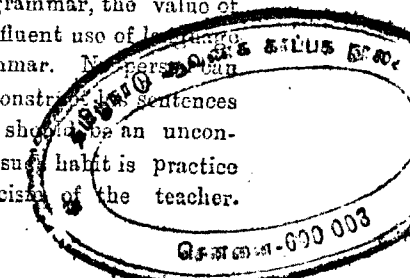
"GRADUATE"
London University.

EDUCATIONAL ECHOES FROM AMERICA.

A successful teacher, and member of the Massachusetts Board of Education, in discussing grammar, as it is in our schools, has advanced the idea that though some work in theoretical English is included in nearly all the courses of study, the teachers have lost faith in it, and few of them teach it *con amore*. Most of the pupils can distinguish the kind of sentences and analyse complex ones,—they can distinguish the parts of speech as ordinarily used, and describe them so far as to tell the number and case of nouns and pronouns, the tense of verbs and the degree of adjectives, but they are very shaky on participles and infinitives. They can explain a simple case of agreement between a verb and subject, and the objective after the preposition and as direct object of the verb. But what more can the ordinary pupil do?

In a few schools scholars can go beyond this, but as a rule, pupils who are taught the grammar of today, have little power to use their knowledge and determine whether sentences are correct or not, being as likely to be wrong as right upon the point, as they depend chiefly upon sound. Few schools give enough time to this part of the work to secure the necessary training. Whether the training itself is worth what it would cost to get it, is an important question,—it is also a question whether it is best to teach technical grammar at all, unless it is carried far enough to obtain this practical end.

In immediate connection with the subject of grammar, the value of "reproduction exercises" comes to the front, as a fluent use of language can never be acquired by the study of rules of grammar. No person can either speak or write well, who must consciously construe sentences in accordance with grammatical rules. Language should be an unconscious habit, and the only means that can develop such a habit is practice guided by correct models and the friendly criticism of the teacher.



Children should be required daily to discuss freely in class, and afterwards reproduce in writing, the substance of their lessons on such subjects as geography and history.

In a multitude of American schools at the present time, interesting reading matter is furnished to pupils for supplementary work, and they are required to reproduce from day to day. This work takes the place of the ordinary drill and tedious reviews usually found necessary to impress facts upon the memory, and furnishes the very best, and certainly the most interesting training in language. Pupils from the fourth grade up are required to write in this way from half a page to two pages of foolscap daily. In this way they form the habit of using language with grammatical accuracy, and form the power of developing, logically, a theme and of expressing themselves with fluency, freedom and ease.

The new fourteenth ward, New York City Industrial School, the gift of Mr. John Jacob Hutor to the children's Aid Society, and a memorial to his wife, has been formally opened. The building is four-stories high, with a frontage of 33 feet, and a depth of 76 feet. Not only the ordinary school studies will be taught there, but the girls will also be taught how to cook and sew. Cheerful grate fires can be used in all the rooms, which are models of comfort and usefulness. During the past year, 1,400 children received moral instruction in the old schools. On the "opening" of the new building, hundreds of men and women inspected it, addresses were made, there was singing by the choir of the Italian school and by the scholars of the fourteenth ward night school.

Dr. Pick of London, by invitation, has just given two lectures on "Memory, and how to improve it," at the Normal College, which were listened to with careful attention. He has also been invited to address the students of Greenwich Seminary of Rhode Island.

In Wisconsin, mechanical institutes are to be held in various cities of the state, under the auspices of the State University, for the purpose of stimulating and instructing the workers in wood, metal, and textile fabrics. To carry out this plan, there are to be employed an institute conductor, an expert in various arts, a good organizer, and a popular lecturer on such topics. In the State University, the agricultural department is becoming very popular. Fifty students are now pursuing that course.

The subject of manual training is constantly taking a deeper hold upon the minds of teachers. One of the principals of a New York City

Grammar school, an educator of ability and experience, acknowledges that if he had needed argument or experience to make him an advocate of manual training, the results obtained in this way from the very youngest pupils, the keen delight taken by them in the doing of their work, their excessive, pains-taking care shown and demanded under disadvantage—which care and engrossed attention could have sprung only from their feeling of delight in their work—the absolute freedom on the part of the teacher, during these exercises, from the necessity of "keeping order,"—all these would have opened his eyes to the value of this change of methods in teaching.

There is a misunderstanding in the minds of many of the non-investigating teachers, in regard to this subject. It is not so much an introduction of new subjects to replace the old, as a change of method in all subjects wherein a child can be permitted to use his activity of hand and eye in the doing of work conveying educational ideas to his brain.

If teachers who have not examined the subject of manual training closely could realize how valuable has been this change from a disciplinary standpoint alone, if they could see that a large percentage of the expenditure of energy by the teacher now required in "keeping order" could be saved, and that their classes would become as eager to receive instruction and do the work required as the teacher is to impart it, the demand for the "new methods" would come from every school in the country.

The work in "free hand" drawing in American schools, especially in the lower grades, is showing surprising results. The readiness with which after a few weeks, the boys of the eighth, seventh and sixth grades rapidly sketch objects set before them, is almost a revelation. The fact that in the younger boys of these grades a greater facility is found than in the older boys of higher grades, indicates a great mistake in previous methods of teaching this subject. In the "work shop," too, this same feature is striking, the work done by the younger boys, as a rule, is better. When in time, we shall receive from the primary departments promotions whose training has been founded upon the study "of form" and "drawing" under the same system of modelling in clay, and drawing directly from the object, what additional agreeable surprises will manifest themselves, we cannot as yet, anticipate.

Between the Catholics and Protestants, in Montreal, Canada, the line is every day becoming more marked and both parties are exercised over the relations existing between the two educational systems. Throughout the province of Quebec there are two independent systems

and these are supported by public taxation which is levied on Catholics and Protestants according to property valuation and is divided on a basis of population between the two. The schools are under the control of the Council of Public Instruction, which is composed of Cardinal Taschereau, nine Bishops, ten Roman Catholic laymen and ten Protestants and no amendment can be presented without having first been approved by the Council of Public Instruction.

Protestants in Montreal, are compelled to support Roman Catholic education, which is largely ecclesiastical, and the point of contention, is, to permit all the money paid by Protestants to be devoted to Protestant education. The courses of study in the different Universities are entirely distinct. The Catholics teaching mainly the classics and philosophy, while the Protestants demand a more liberal curriculum. Efforts are being made to correct these great difficulties, but it is not likely that any radical change will be made although the present condition is inflicting a deep injury upon the professional life of the country.

American school teachers employed by the government of the Argentine Republic do well. The object in view in importing normal teachers from the United States, a few years ago, was to raise up a corps of Argentine teachers. From the normal schools already in operation, each graduation day brings an increasing number of native aspirants for good places, many of whom have political friends to help them. Within a comparatively short time the demand for foreign normal teachers will cease, and only those of superior qualifications can find places. But the grateful Argentine Republic proposes to pension these teachers from the United States after they have taught twenty years, on condition of their becoming Argentine citizens.

The United States has at last decided, that, as a matter of economy alone, it costs less to educate the red more than it does to fight him. There are now a quarter of million of these people self-supporting citizens, and the government is at last educating them. This is the work of the Indian Bureau. A recent report shows that there is, in all 233 schools, with an enrollment of 15,212 pupils, an average attendance of 11,420, and a total annual expenditure for the Indian children amounting to \$1,203,748. The amount given by the government does not fully support these schools, but adds to the private resources of the Societies conducting them. There are eighty-five Indian Bureau day schools, on or near the reservations, twenty-two contract day schools, five industrial training schools, the Hampton School, the Lincoln Institution, and St. Ignatius Mission. There was again of 900 pupils last year over the year preceding.

A Tonic Sol-fa department has been established in Pratt Institute, Brooklyn. A prominent feature of the department will be a normal branch for the preparation of teachers. Many music teachers and school teachers throughout the country are becoming anxious to learn the system for the sake of teaching it. Those persons who are already musical, and only need to learn *the system*, can do so in a few lessons. In that time they can receive one or more of the certificates of the Tonic Sol-fa College of London. The head of the department at Pratt Institute, is a graduate and licentiate of the College of London.

The Tonic Sol-fa system is one of the progressive movements of the age, and stands by the side of the kindergarten and manual training. If taken hold of in a proper spirit by teachers, it will work wonders in the schools in a short time. By means of this system, pupils are interested at once. It seems to come natural to them. They encounter no difficulties. In a recent report from the Children's Aid Society of New York City, which employs eighty-eight teachers in its various schools, we find an effort was made to introduce music by note but was found impracticable till the Tonic Sol-fa system opened the way. Before long, music in American schools will be taught as regularly as arithmetic and geography, for the Tonic Sol-fa system will be used even in remote district schools.

J. W. Williamson, the philanthropist, has completed the details for an industrial school and home for poor boys. He proposes to expend \$5,000,000 in the enterprise. A board of able trustees has been selected to control the institution, as Mr. Williamson's great age will compel him to rely mainly upon others. His plans show how he intends to expend the vast sum of money, and his idea is, to erect a number of large buildings suitable for such an institution, which he proposes to have perfect and complete in every detail. The plans are already in the hands of a superior architect.

While the teachers of New York State are discussing the subject of a system of elementary training schools, it may be a good idea for them to learn something of the system of training schools in Ontario, Canada. Of these, there are three grades; the county model schools, of which there is one in each county; the normal schools, of which there are two in the province; and the collegiate institutes, of which there are five. Each county model school accommodates about thirty teachers in training, and no pupil is admitted until he holds a third-grade non-professional certificate.

In these Ontario model schools, the principal gives all the instruction to the class in principles and methods of teaching, and in school management. The criticisms, which are in writing, are made by the teachers in the various rooms where the lessons are given by the pupils in training. Each pupil is required to give at least thirty lessons during the term. At the end of this time, if the work is satisfactory, professional certificates are granted, which are good for three years and entitle the holders to teach in any of the public schools of the province.

After one year's successful teaching, the pupils are admitted into the normal school, where the term of instruction extends over five months. Here, psychological and educational principles are discussed and their application made to teaching the various branches of study pursued in the public schools, as also the history of education. Thirty lessons must be given, some of them in the lecture room of the normal school building, in the presence of the class and professors, and others under the criticism of the teachers of the department. Five months successful work entitles the pupil to a diploma which is good for life, and permits him to teach in any of the public schools. Candidates for teachers' positions in the high schools, are required to spend ten weeks in one of the collegiate training institutes,—to enter, which, a first-grade non-professional certificate is required.

The practical attitude taken by 350 American teachers who have introduced the system of savings banks into their classes, and the interest which greeted its results, has been instantaneous and widespread by the press, encouraged by parents and scholars, and the public in general where the system has been in practice. As an example of its benefit take one school in Long Island City. With a register of 4050 pupils, 1985 are depositors to date (March 1889) of \$10,794.59, which is in the Long Island City Savings Bank in the respective name of each depositor. The system was commenced in this school, March 16, 1885, and since then ten other public schools of the City have followed the example. Forty other schools in five different States of the Union, have fallen into line. Japan is adopting the savings bank system for her public schools, and so the good work goes on.

BROOKLYN,
U. S. A.

LUDIMAGISTER.

(CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY ENTRANCE
EXAMINATION, 1890.)

NOTES

ON

REGULUS.

BY

C. C. FLANAGAN, M. A.

(ASSISTANT INSPECTOR OF SCHOOLS MADRAS PRESIDENCY)

7. '*Greet him.*' Salute him, welcome him home.
'*Caresses.*' Marks, tokens, of affection.
'*Beneath their notice.*' Who did not deserve any regard, affection, or attention from them.
'*A mere slave.*' A slave and nothing more or better.
8. '*Came out.*' Outside the city walls.
'*Campagna.*' The plain or level country outside Rome, on the coast side, is called so.
9. '*The ambassadors.*' The messengers sent by the Carthaginians and who were themselves Carthaginians.
'*As one repeating a task.*' Like a person simply saying what he had been ordered to say, what he was compelled to say: he was merely obeying his masters as a slave ought to.
'*Conscript fathers.*' The Senators of Rome were called *Patres at Conscripti*, Fathers and those whose names are enrolled together.
'*On the part of.*' On behalf of, or, by order of.
'*To treat.*' To negotiate.
'*With the ambassadors.*' The ambassadors, being Carthaginians and therefore strangers, could not, according to the Roman custom, remain to hear the consultations of the Senators, and so they, after delivering their message, retired, when Regulus, as considering himself a slave and a stranger also, likewise began to retire.
'*Old friends.*' Members of the senate who had known him before he had gone on the Carthaginian expedition.
'*Pressed.*' Urged.
'*Slave as he was.*' Seeing that, or, because he was a slave.

'*At the command &c.*' The Carthaginian ambassadors doubtless hoped that he, in their absence, would favorably plead for peace and the exchange of prisoners they wished for.

10. '*Then he spoke.*' Now that his masters had commanded him to stay for the purpose of speaking, he spoke.

'*Persevere in.*' Continue, not to give it up.

'*The distress.*' The great hardship and trouble she was in on account of the war: the sufferings she was undergoing.

'*As to.*' Regarding.

'*Who were in the hands of.*' Who were prisoners.

'*Whilst he himself, &c.*' He meant that the exchange would not be fair to Rome.

'*Self*' and the plural *selves* are frequently added to the possessive case of pronouns of the first and second persons, and to the objective case of the pronoun of the third person, to make them emphatic.

'*Broken down.*' Worn out, weakened in health and constitution.

'*For services.*' For performance of active duties: for war.

'*Indeed.*' In fact, not only was what he had said already, the case; but further he believed truly, &c.

'*A slow poison.*' A poison the effects of which are not immediately perceptible but take a long time to work the harm intended.

'*He insisted.*' He strongly advised.

11. '*Even to Romans.*' Although they (who listened to him) were Romans and therefore were accustomed to acts of noble sacrifice—such acts were not strange to them, yet, this unique act of noble self-sacrifice filled them with wonder.

'*Plighting against himself.*' Adducing arguments against his being liberated from a cruel, hateful, fatal imprisonment, by exchange of prisoners.

'*Chief priest.*' The Pontifex Maximus.

'*Wrested from him.*' Obtained, got from him by compulsion.

'*Wr.*' Is a crude form signifying the idea of *twisting*, e.g. wrist, writhe, wronthe, wrangle, wrestle, wrong, &c.

'*Extremest tortures.*' The worst, the most cruel punishment.

'*Preparing.*' Being prepared.

'*What are these.*' These are nothing: these tortures are not to be weighed against.

'*To the shame of.*' When compared with.

'*An infamous action.*' A base, ignoble act.

'*The wounds of a guilty mind.*' The upbraidings, the keen reproaches of a guilty conscience.

'*The spirit.*' The noble character.

'*Let the gods take care of the rest.*' I will perform what is clearly my duty, namely, keep my word and promise: the result of doing so is not my concern, that is in the hands of the gods: let them do what pleases them best. I am prepared to bear with fortitude what they ordain.

12. '*Regretted his sacrifice.*' They were very sorry that by acting in accordance with his advice, he (Regulus) would have to be sacrificed, given up to the vengeance of the Carthaginians.

'*That they would detain him.*' That the Senators should use physical force to compel him to stay in Rome and not go back to Carthage: but this they could not do as Regulus was a Roman and therefore free to act as he choose.

'*Nothing could prevail with him.*' Nothing, no argument, or entreaty, either of the Senators, his friends or his relatives, seemed to influence, to move him from his determination.

'*Expected.*' Anticipated as his lot because he did not do what the Carthaginians had wished him to do.

'*As calmly.*' With as great placidity as, &c.

13. '*Whom alone he knew.*' Who were the only gods that he had any knowledge of.

'*Through whom he ignorantly worshipped, &c.*' He was a sincere worshipper and though the only gods he knew were false gods, yet his worship was accepted by the true and only God. (It is clear that the writer, here, has in mind Acts XVII, verse 23, "For as I passed by, and beheld your devotions, I found an altar with this inscription, To the UNKNOWN GOD. 'Whom therefore ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you.' " *Whom Light.....truth.* Whose holiness, purity &c, were being displayed, notwithstanding the darkness and ignorance of his heathen views, in this man's integrity, truthfulness, and manliness.

'*How his trust was fulfilled is not known.*' What was the result of his dependence, trust upon his gods (*Let the gods take care of the rest*, he had said) is not exactly known.

'*After the next victory.*' The war was continued and when another victory was won they gave 2 prisoners over into the keeping of Marcia.

'*To hold as pledges &c.*' As hostages: they were a sort of guarantee for the kind and considerate treatment of her husband by the Carthaginians.

'*One of them.*' One of the two generals in her hands.

'*To have her &c.*' It would seem as if these two generals had been taken prisoners in the last victory, and so the one referred to was able to give her information regarding her husband, and, true or not, he assured

her that he had taken some trouble to look after the welfare of her husband in his imprisonment.

'Put out in'. Exposed to.

'Spikes'. Sharp pointed nails fixed upright on the inside of the barrel or cask.

'Constantly kept awake'. Never being allowed to rest in sleep.

'Crucified'. Hung upon a cross, the arms extended and nailed to the transverse bar.

'To have set about'. The phrase to set about, means to begin, and is incomplete in itself; we say, set about an action or enterprise, clearly it is wrongly used in the text, and, it seems to me that the sentence must be changed thus,—*'Marcia, perhaps believing in these horrors, seems to have set about to avenge them &c., where set about, means, bestirred herself, commenced operations with the object of, &c.*

'These horrors'. These cruelties said to have been practised upon Regulus.

'Severely reprimanded'. Sternly reproved, condemned, censured.

'Their mother's doing'. The act of their mother, Marcia.

14. 'Was but formed by report.....woman.' Was a gross exaggeration of the truth, and emanated from some silly report, or rumour, which had its origin in the morbid imagination of his wife, who, through constantly brooding upon the subject and being of a revengeful disposition, had thus fancied things which were not really true.

'To die in peace'. To die a quiet, natural death.

'Brought on'. Induced.

'Far more probably'. It is much more likely.

'To which he ascribed it'. To which Regulus had attributed the disease he was suffering from.

'Noblest characters of history'. One of the heroes whose names are recorded in history.

'The resolution'. The determination, the fortitude.

'At the risk of'. At the expense of. (Had he saved his life, the war would not have been continued, Carthage would have had time to recover herself and make herself strong and thus she would have been benefitted and Rome injured.)

'Forfeit.....pledged'. Act falsely to the promise he had given.

QUESTIONS ON DEDUCTIVE LOGIC

WITH REFERENCES TO THE ANSWERS.

By a Professor.

N. B.—These questions are intended to assist students in testing their knowledge of Fowler's *Deductive Logic*. The references in the pages are to the sixth edition of that work.

FOWLER'S LOGIC.

(Deductive.)

(Continued from page 91.)

141. How does his nomenclature apply to affirmative syllogisms in the first figure? p. 85.

142. To what forms of the syllogism does Aristotle's nomenclature apply? p. 85.

143. To what considerations are the moods and figures of syllogisms due? p. 85-86.

144. How many possible arrangements of the propositions A, E, I, O are there? p. 86.

145. If the premisses only are considered, how many possible moods are there? p. 86.

146. How many possible figures are there? p. 86-87.

147. When can either extreme in the premisses become the major term? p. 87.

148. What is the Law of Identity? p. 88.

149. How many figures and moods does Mr. Fowler recognize? p. 89-90 (Important).

150. What is the canon of reasoning in the first figure? p. 91.

151. What moods fulfil the conditions of the canon? p. 91.

152. What are Subaltern moods? p. 91.

153. What are the Syllogistic rules? p. 92.

154. Why must the middle term be distributed at least once? p. 92.

155. What is the fallacy of the Undistributed middle? p. 92.

156. If a term is distributed in the conclusion, why must it have been previously distributed in the premisses? p. 92.

157. What is meant by the *illicit process* of the major or the minor premiss? p. 92-93.
158. Why do two negative premisses prove nothing? p. 93.
159. Why must one of the premisses be negative, if the conclusion is negative? p. 93.
160. Why do two particular premisses prove nothing? p. 93.
161. Why must the conclusion be particular, if one premiss is particular? p. 94.
162. Does a particular conclusion necessitate a particular premiss? p. 94-95.
163. What is usually assumed when there is a particular conclusion without a particular premiss? p. 95.
164. When are the rules, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 applicable to the moods? p. 95.
165. When are rules 1 and 2 applicable? p. 95.
166. Why are the sixty-four possible moods reduced to twelve? p. 95-96.
167. What is meant by *Ostensive reduction* and *Reductio per impossibile*? p. 97-98.
168. What is meant by *reductio per impossibile*? p. 98-99.
(Important).
169. How many moods are valid in each figure? p. 100.
170. What are the Mnemonic lines for syllogisms? p. 100.
171. What do the consonants B, C, D, F show in the Mnemonic lines? p. 100.
172. What do the letters *s* and *p* show? p. 100.
173. What do the letters *s* and *p* show when they follow the conclusion e.g., as in *Camestres Disamis, Bramantis, Camenes, Dimaris*? p. 100.
174. What do the letters *m* and *k* show? p. 110.
175. What does the initial B in Baroko and Bokardo show? p. 101.
176. What are the special rules for the four figures? p. 102.
177. What occurs if no account is taken of the conclusion? p. 103.
178. How many possible moods do the syllogistic rules exclude? p. 104.
179. What is meant by the expression "indirect moods." p. 105.

CHAPTER 4.

ON TRAINS OF REASONING. (THE SORITES).

180. What is meant by a *Train of Reasoning*? p. 106.
181. What is meant by a *Pro-Syllogism* and an *Epi-Syllogism*? p. 106.
182. What is meant by the word *Sorites*? p. 106-107.
183. How many syllogisms does a *Sorites* contain when expanded? p. 107.
184. In a *Sorites*, why can only one premiss be particular, and only one premiss negative? p. 107-108.
185. What is meant by the *Regressive* or *Galenian Sorites*? p. 108.
186. What is a *Complex* or *Hypothetical Syllogism*? p. 109.
187. What is a *Complex proposition*? p. 109.
188. What is a *Conjunctive proposition*? p. 109.
189. What is a *Disjunctive proposition*? p. 110.
190. How can conjunctive and disjunctive propositions be reduced to the simple form? p. 110-111.
191. How many conjunctive propositions does the disjunctive proposition contain when analysed? p. 111.
192. What is a *Conjunctive Syllogism*? p. 111.
193. What is the most common form of a conjunctive syllogism, and how many varieties are there of this form? p. 112.
194. If the antecedent of a conjunctive syllogism is affirmed, what must be done with the consequent? p. 112.
195. If the consequent is denied, what must be done with the antecedent? p. 112.
196. Can any conclusion be drawn, if we deny the antecedent, or affirm the consequent? p. 112.
197. What is meant by a *Constructive* conjunctive syllogism and a *Destructive* conjunctive syllogism? p. 112.
198. What is a *Disjunctive Syllogism*? p. 113.
199. How can conclusions be drawn from two disjunctive propositions? p. 113.
200. What opinion does Mr. Mill, maintain regarding a disjunctive proposition? p. 115.

(To be continued.)

EXAMINATION PAPERS.

(From the Madras University Calendar.)

GENERAL ENGLISH, I.

PART I.

I. Paraphrase—

Fair blossoms of a fruitful tree,
 Why do ye fall so fast?
 Your date is not so past,
 But you may stay yet here awhile
 To blush and gently smile,
 And go at last.

What were ye born to be
 An hour or half's delight,
 And so to bid goodnight?
 'Twas pity Nature brought ye forth
 Merely to show your worth,
 And lose you quite.

But you are lovely leaves, where we
 May read how soon things have
 Their end, though ne'er so brave :
 And after they have shown their pride
 Like you, awhile, they glide
 Into the grave.

- II. In regard to the following prefixes and suffixes give (1) the language from which each comes, (2) the meaning or force of each, (3) a word containing the prefix or suffix, and (4) the etymological meaning of the example given:—
 anti, extra, retro, poly; kin, ous, fy, ness.

PART II.

III.

If I am
Traded by ignorant tongues
. let me say
'Tis but the fate of place and the rough brake
That virtue must go through.

- (a) Point out the grammatical relation between the clauses in the above extract.
 (b) Parse fully the italicised words.

IV. Justify or correct the following sentences, stating fully your reason in each case:—

- (1) Early to bed and early to rise,
 Makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise.
 (2) The lecturer stated that light always travelled from the sun to our eyes in straight lines.
 (3) The man whom you thought was a coward, turns out to be the brayest of all.
 (4) And many a holy text around she strews,
 That teach the rustic moralist to die.
 (5) I expected from what he stated to have seen him at the head of the list.
 (6) We should pay respect to them who are older and wiser than ourselves.

PART III.

V. Turn into the direct form—

The merchant begged the young man to pardon him the liberty which he took in asking him how it happened that he always made use of his left hand and never of the right: some accident surely, said he, had happened to it. The young man drew out his right arm from his robe when the merchant saw, to his utter astonishment, that his hand was cut off. He then said to the merchant that he was no doubt much shocked at seeing him eat with his left hand, but he would now see that he could not do otherwise. The merchant asked him if he might inquire how he had had the misfortune to lose his right hand.

VI. With the following independent statements, construct one complex sentence, taking care to supply the proper connectives, and to attach each subordinate clause to that member of the principal clause to which it relates:—

- (1) The Company's officers manifested a strong predilection for every thing Mussalman.
 (2) The Company's officers manifested this predilection from the first.

- (3) The Company's officers retained the Persian language in the law courts.
- (4) Justice was now dispensed in a language foreign to the parties and the witnesses.
- (5) Justice was also dispensed in a language foreign to the Judge.
- (6) The anomaly and the incongruity was thereby greatly increased.

VII. Give the exact meaning of the italicised words in the following sentences:—

- (1) My father told me I *might* go to school.
You *might* have done me a service but you would not.
- (2) My brother said he *should* give me the money.
You *should* have done as you were told.
- (3) Before breakfast he *would* generally take a walk.
He *would* not help me, though I besought him greatly.
- (4) This *goes for* nothing with me.
It will *go hard with* him when his case comes before the High Court.
- (5) He *ran down* the man's character.
The lease of the house has *run out*.
- (6) I can *put up with* his importunence no longer.
His father was very much *put out* at what he did.

PART IV.

- VIII. (a) Write in the first person a short note to a friend, asking him to lend you a book to help you in preparing for an examination.
 - (b) Write in the third person an order to a tradesman for an article; stating that you have forwarded the money for it, and specifying the mode in which it is to be sent to you.
- IX. (a) State the grammatical construction of the infinitives in—

- (1) Your error is much *to be regretted*.
 - (2) He said there were duties *to perform*, so that it was difficult for them *to attend* to the matter.
 - (3) *To think of* your doubting whether young men ought *to go* to college *to study* medicine!
- (b) He promises us much but gives us little.
Write this in two ways using the passive for the active.
- (c) Come along with me now.
Write it in the negative interrogative form.

X. Write down—

- (1) The feminines of *slaven*, *hero*, *fox*.
- (2) The comparatives and superlatives of *ill*, *nigh*, *gay*.
- (3) The plurals of *mischief*, *miasma*, *soliloquy*, *alkali*,
lady-in-waiting, *Major-General*
- (4) The past tense and past participle of *swell*, *slay*,
stride, *spin*.

GENERAL ENGLISH, II.

I. Paraphrase in concise prose—

- (a) "My heart aches
'Tis not through envy of thy happy lot,
But being too happy in thy happiness,
That thou, light-winged Dryad of the trees,
In some melodious plot
Of beechen green and shadows numberless,
Singest of Summer in full-throated ease."
- (b) "Then welcome each rebuff
That turns earth's smoothness rough,
Each sting that bide nor sit nor stand but go!
Be our joys three parts pain!
Strive, and hold cheap the strain;
Learn, nor account the pang; dare, never grudge
the throe!"

II. Analyse—

"On a rock, whose haughty brow

Frowns o'er old Conway's foaming flood,
 Robed in the sable garb of woe
 With haggard eyes the Poet stood;
 (Loose his beard and hoary hair
 Stream'd like a meteor to the troubled air)
 And with a master's hand and prophet's fire
 Struck the deep sorrows of his lyre."

- III. (a) Define the expressions—Noun of Multitude and Collective Noun.
 (b) Give a simple rule for determining the number of the verb following such nouns, with an example in each case.
 (c) Correct or justify "The jury was charged by the judge," and "The jury were kept without food."
 (d) Give an instance of (1) a double comparative form (2) a word containing traces of two superlative suffixes.
- IV. (a) Classify verbs as to conjugation, and explain fully the formation of the past tense in the different conjugations.
 (b) Discuss the assertion that "it is sometimes necessary to know the history of a verb before its conjugation can be decided."
 (c) Give the past tense and passive participle of each of the following verbs, and state the conjugation to which each belongs:—Do, feed, shoot, buy, dream, lead, hit, move, smell, tear.
 (d) What is the present tendency of English as regards the conjugation of verbs?
- V. (a) Explain the absolute construction of the participle. What is the absolute case? Give examples.
 (b) What case was used absolutely in Anglo-Saxon? What by Shakespeare and by Milton?
 (c) Write one sentence containing a direct and an indirect object of a verb.
 (d) Define and give an example of a cognate objective.

- (e) "Some intransitive verbs by means of a—become transitive, and may be used passively". Complete this sentence and give examples.

VI. (a) What are synonyms?

- (b) Discuss the following statement:—"True synonyms in English, or in any language are extremely rare, but at certain stages of a language they are numerous."

- (c) Distinguish between the following pairs of words, illustrating your meaning by examples of their use:—

Genuine	Invent	Whiten	Shepherd	Illegible
Authentic	Discover	Blanch	Pastor	Unreadable

VII. Define and give instances of (1) Simile; (2) Metaphor; (3) Epigram; (4) Irony; (5) Onomatopoeia, or harmony of sound and sense.

VIII. (a) Define Rhyme. Do Chaucer's

"At Trompington not far from Cantebrigge
 There goeth a stream and over that a bridge,
 "The holy blissful martyr for to seke,
 Who them hath holpen when that they were seke."

satisfy the required conditions?

- (b) Define alliteration and give a specimen.

- (c) Scan and name the metres of—

- (1) "We wander'd to the Pine Forest,
 That skirts the ocean's foam;
 The lightest wind was in its nest,
 The tempest in its home."
- (2) "Full many a gem of purest ray serene,
 The dark unfathom'd caves of ocean bear:
 Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
 And waste its sweetness on the desert air."
- (3) "A last remains of sunset dimly burned
 O'er the far forests, like a torch-flame turned

By the wind back upon its bearer's hand
In a long flare of crimson ; as a brand,
The woods beneath lay black. A single eye
From all Verona cared for the soft sky."

- IX. (a) Expand the following in narrative form:—
Lorrain regiment—column—twelve in front—
charged—Coote's regiment kept in line—ordered
reserve fire—Lorrain came on at run—Coote's fired
at 50 yards—Lorrain received in front and flanks—
many fell—not stopped—bayonets crossed—Coote's
line in front of column borne down—rest overlapped
flanks—men both sides mingled—every man for
self—ground covered dead wounded—Lorrain broke
disordered—fled towards camp—Coote before pur-
suit restored order—

- (b) Condense the following (by the use of adjectives for
adjective clauses, participles for clauses with
finite verbs, &c.):—

The party marched along ; they took no care ; they led
the horses which they used in battle and sang as
they marched ; for they did not in the slightest
degree suspect that the people of the North were
lying in ambush near ; these were the enemies whom
they most dreaded, and they believed that they were
separated by mountains and kept apart by wastes
across which there were no paths.

- X. Write a letter to a friend describing a thunder-storm.

THOMAS JEFFERSON AND THE STUDY OF ENGLISH.

BY PROF. EDWARD A. ALLEN, COLUMBIA, MISSOURI.

Dr. Samuel Johnson, Carlyle's hero of letters, published in 1755 his Dictionary of the English Language. There followed two important and far-reaching results : (1), the death-blow given to patronage by his famous letter to the Earl of Chesterfield ; (2) the interest his great work awakened in the critical study of the English language. Notable among the works that appeared thereafter is Horne Tooke's *Diversions of Purley* brought out in 1786. Though now antiquated and almost forgotten, few books have quickened so many minds to a love for the languages, and especially to the study of the mother-tongue. It attracted considerable attention in America on account of the author's political sentiments. When it became known in this country that he had been imprisoned because of his advertising for a subscription for the widows and orphans of the Americans, " murdered by the king's troops at Lexington and at Concord," he was regarded as a martyr to the cause of liberty, and his book had an extensive sale. It bore fruit in Noah Webster, who, says Dr. Goodrich, " commencing with the *Diversions of Purley*, as the starting point of his researches, was led by the character of his mind to widen continually the field of his inquiries," and his Dictionary, in 1828, was the result. It bore fruit in the mind of Thomas Jefferson, whose influence on American education in the direction of a methodical study of English it is the purpose of this article to set forth.

In a letter, written from Monticello, October 30, 1798, to Herbert Croft, LL. B., London, Mr. Jefferson says :

" I was led to set a due value on the study of the Northern languages, and especially of our Anglo-Saxon, while I was a student of the law, by being obliged to recur to that source for explanation of a multitude of law terms. A preface to Fortescue on Monarchies, written by Fortescue Aland, and afterwards premised to his volume of Reports, develops the advantages to be derived to the English student generally and particularly the student of law, from an acquaintance with the Anglo-Saxon."

In the report of the commissioners, appointed by the legislature of Virginia to prepare a plan for the establishment of a university, dated August 4, 1818, Mr. Jefferson, after speaking of the advantages to be derived from the study of German, continues :

"But in this point of view, the Anglo-Saxon is of peculiar value. We have placed it among the modern languages, because it is in fact that which we speak, in the earliest form in which we have knowledge of it. It has been undergoing, with time, those gradual changes which all languages, ancient and modern, have experienced, and even now needs only to be printed in the modern character and orthography to be intelligible, in a considerable degree, to an English reader. It has this value, too, above the Greek and Latin, that while it gives the radix of the mass of our language, they explain its innovations only. Obvious proofs of this have been presented to the modern reader in the disquisitions of Horne Tooke; and Fortesque Aland has well explained the great instruction that may be derived from it to a full understanding of ancient common law, on which as a stock our whole system of law is engrafted. It will form the link in the chain of an historical review of our language through all its successive changes to the present day, will constitute the foundation of that critical instruction in it which ought to be found in a seminary of general learning, and thus amply reward the few weeks of attention which would alone be requisite for its attainment; a language already fraught with all the eminent science of our parent country, the future vehicle of whatever we may ourselves achieve, and destined to occupy so much space on the globe, claims distinguished attention in American education."

A certain part of this report that was criticised by a writer* in the *North American Review*, for January, 1820, is made clearer by a letter from Mr. Jefferson to John Adams, dated from Monticello August 15, 1820:

"I have lately had an opportunity of reading a critique on this institution (University of Virginia) in your *North American Review*, of January last, having been not without anxiety to see what this able work would say of us; and I was relieved in finding in it such coincidence of opinion, and even where criticisms were indulged, I found they would have been obviated had the developments of our plan been fuller. But these were restrained by the character of the paper reviewed, being merely a report of outlines, not a detailed treatise, and addressed to a legislative body, not to a learned academy. For example, as an induce-

* Since this article was written I have received from the Bureau of Education a copy of Circular No. 2 (Contributions to American Educational History) on "Thomas Jefferson and the University of Virginia," by Dr. H. B. Adams, of the John Hopkins. From this admirable monograph I learn that the reviewer was Edward Everett, at that time professor in Harvard College. Mr. Everett, as quoted by Dr. Adams, introduces the subject of Anglo-Saxon thus: "We rejoice, too at the kindly remembrance in which our almost forgotten ancestor, the Anglo-Saxon is borne. An acquaintance with it unquestionably belongs to a thorough education in the English tongue."

ment to introduce Anglo-Saxon into our plan, it was said that it would reward amply the few weeks of attention which alone would be requisite for its attainment, leaving term and degree under an indefinite expression because I knew that not much time is necessary to attain it to an useful degree, sufficient to give such instruction in the etymologies of our language as may satisfy ordinary students, while more time would be requisite for those who should propose to attain a critical knowledge of it."

In December 1824, Mr. Webster visited Monticello in company with George Ticknor and wife. Mr. Webster says in his correspondence: "When we were with him his favorite subjects were Greek and Anglo-Saxon, historical recollections of the times and events of the Revolution, and of his residence in France from 1783 to 1789."

In a post-script to "An Essay towards Facilitating Instruction in the Anglo-Saxon, etc., for the Use of the University of Virginia, dated January 1825, the year before his death, Mr. Jefferson adds:

"In the year 1818, by authority of the legislature of Virginia a plan for the establishment of an University was prepared and proposed to them. In that plan the Anglo-Saxon language was comprehended as a part of the circle of instruction to be given to the students; and the preceding pages were then committed to writing for the use of the University. I pretend not to be an Anglo-Saxon scholar. From an early period of my studies, indeed, I have been sensible of the importance of making it a part of the regular education of our youth; and at different times, as leisure permitted, I applied myself to the study of it, with some degree of attention. But my life has been too busy in the pursuits of another character to have made much proficiency in this.

The leading idea which very soon impressed itself on my mind, and which has continued to prevail through the whole of my observations on the language, was that it was nothing more than the old English of a period of some ages earlier than that of Piers Ploughman; and under this view my cultivation of it has continued. * * *

But if, as I believe, we may consider it as merely an antiquated form of our present language, * * * its acquisition will richly repay us by the intimate insight it will give us into the genuine structure, powers and meanings of the language we now read and speak. We shall then read Shakespeare and Milton with a superior degree of intelligence and delight, heightened by the new and delicate shades of meaning developed to us by a knowledge of the original sense of the same words."

The reader will not find it difficult to gather from these extracts what were Mr. Jefferson's views in regard to the method of higher instruction in the English language and literature.

Mr. Lowell, in speaking of Lessing's religious opinions, says that the world has just moved up to where Lessing was a hundred years ago. So it may be said of Thomas Jefferson, who, of Americans, must surely stand foremost among those that have "looked into the seeds of time," that he saw clearly at the opening of this century what other men are just beginning to see at its close.

The Modern Language Association of America was organized in 1883. There lie before me Vols. I. and II. of the Proceedings and Transactions of the Third and Fourth Annual Conventions, held in Boston, December 29-30, 1885. From them I gather some of the opinions there expressed relating to instruction in the mother-tongue. There is reason to hope, from this and other signs, that the views of Mr. Jefferson will everywhere prevail in our country before the close of the century.

From the report of committee on the present condition of instruction in the modern languages in American colleges:

"The critical study of English has made a rapid advance since the foundation of this Association. This is especially noticeable in our Southern colleges. Excellent advanced courses in Anglo-Saxon are now offered in many colleges in the South. For a decade, it is safe to say, this study in the North was confined to but a few leading institutions, among which Harvard, Lafayette and Cornell deserve mention."—Professor Hewett, of Cornell University.

"Let English mean, as it should and as it is bound to mean more and more, the historical, scientific study of the language, Beowulf and Chaucer," etc.—Professor Brandt, of Hamilton College.

"For such a state of things the narrowness of the English course is responsible, and the remedy lies in enlargement and thoroughness. The pupil would then have the time, under the guidance of judicious instruction, to make himself substantially conversant with First English Philology in Caedmon, Beowulf and Alfred; to study its characteristics and structure; to mark its transition through the middle English of Layamon and Langlande to Chaucer and Spenser; to mark the great historical periods of modern English from the Elizabethan to the Victorian; to study it in its relation to other Teutonic tongues—in fine, to take up for the first or more minutely a thousand questions on which the college student should be informed and in virtual ignorance of which he is, at present, compelled to graduate."—Professor Hunt, of Princeton.

"I believe it is taken for granted that every person that teaches arithmetic in our schools has some knowledge of geometry and algebra. In the same way, one would think, we ought to demand of every teacher of English that he be in some measure acquainted with the sources and development of our language,—no matter how elementary the teaching actually required. * * * It is impossible to teach elementary English well, unless the instruction be based on an historical study of the language."—Dr. Gummere, of the Swain Free School, New Bedford, Mass.

"On one point, at least, I have no doubts; viz., that every teacher of our literature should have made careful study of Anglo-Saxon and Early English. There are in modern speech hundreds of linguistic survivals which the trained eye sees through at a glance, but which are a perpetual stumbling-block to the empiric."—Professor Hart, of the University of Cincinnati.

"If it is possible, however, I should advise the college teacher to begin his study of the language with its oldest form, the so-called Anglo-Saxon, or Old English. * * * This historical method in the study of English is decidedly the most fruitful, and the best suited to secure a knowledge of the origin and history of the language, which knowledge is as desirable for college students as that of any language in the curriculum, to say the least of it. I have been teaching this method,—and preaching it too on suitable occasions,—now for many years, and it seems to me the only method by which philological training in English can be satisfactorily secured, and by which English can hold its own as a discipline by the side of the classical and the other modern languages."—Professor Garnett, of the University of Virginia.

In *Modern Language Notes* for November, 1886, I find an interesting letter from Dr. H. H. Furness, of Philadelphia, who is known wherever Shakespeare is read in the original, addressed to the president of the Board of Education, on the subject of English in the High School. From it I make the following extract:

"Within the last quarter of a century there has been awakened a great and healthy and growing interest in the early structure and history of our own language, and experience has shown that we can therein find all the requirements for teaching grammar that are afforded by Latin, and in addition, while we are studying it, are we not acquiring at the same time a knowledge of the bone and sinew of our own strong, sturdy English? a knowledge that will help us throughout life to express our thoughts in honest, homespun, vigorous phrases? There is no

doubt; at this hour there is a great awakening to the resources of our own language. * * * In this general awakening to the resources of English, in which our colleges here at home are sharing, I do earnestly wish, as I said at first, to have our High School lead the way among other schools of similar grade throughout the country. The time is ripe for such a forward step, and if we do not take it, other institutions will, and in the end we shall come lagging in behind, and in the meantime the boys now under our control will miss the advantages which they might claim as their due from us who are as watchmen set on a hill guarding their best interests."

From the Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1876:

"No class of persons need to know Anglo-Saxon so much as our teachers of English grammar. Teachers in our common schools and much more in our high schools and academies, might use it in every lesson in grammar or language; and they are always in danger of being asked questions they cannot answer without knowing it. * * *

* * * Ingenious teachers reason about them with infinite subtlety and no end, and demonstrate how they must be,—both ways; when a single look at an Anglo-Saxon sentence settles the matter. No teacher can safely decide such questions without knowing the old forms. No normal school ought to send out graduates from its grammar department wholly ignorant of Anglo-Saxon."—Professor March, of Lafayette College.

"The study of English cannot be pursued with success upon the basis of the modern forms of the language, as is evidenced by the unsatisfactory results reached by the best school-master grammarians. To the study of the literature of the age of Elizabeth, the goodliest heritage of every educated Englishman and Anglo-American, a respectable knowledge of the previous language and literature from the age of Alfred must be brought, before it can be pursued with anything more than half success; and the earnest student who shrinks from no labor that is necessary for the realization of the highest standard of excellence, and who would grow up to the fullest appreciation and enjoyment of which he is capable of the great master-pieces of English literature, must seek out the Ancient Mother."—Professor Corson, of Cornell.

The lamented poet, Sidney Lanier, said in a lecture in the Shakespeare course of 1878-9 at Johns Hopkins:

"No person can be said to have a fairly philosophical idea either of the English language or of English poetry who is unacquainted with the beautiful literature of our Anglo-Saxon ancestors. I marvel day by

day at the state into which the study of English has fallen, both in England and America. We pursue Latin, Greek, French, German, and all other tongues, dead or living, except English. How many are there among us that know the true glory of the Anglo-Saxon tongue? You will find ten thousand men in the United States who can read Homer's poems to one who can read Beowulf; and yet one is an epic of a people on the other side of the world, while Beowulf is our own English epic. You will find ten thousand men in the United States who have some idea of the first five hundred years of classic poetry to one who has any idea of the first five hundred years of English poetry; for while Chaucer seems very old to our century, there was an English poetry that was as old to Chaucer as Chaucer's poetry is to us; and this poetry I complain, is, to all intents and purposes, unknown to the English people. In our schools provision is made to study every language except Old English; and yet without Old English no man can clearly grasp the genius of modern English."

Mr. Jefferson spoke of the advantages to be gained from even a few weeks' study of Anglo-Saxon. Professor W. W. Skeat, of Cambridge University, and author of *An Etymological Dictionary of the English Language*, goes even farther:

"A real insight into English grammar can more easily be obtained by a week's study of Vernon's Anglo-Saxon Grammar, or some similar book, than by years spent in reading treatises which ignore the older forms of the language. Many students lose much solid advantage, and a sure basis on which to rest their grammatical knowledge, through an ill-judged anxiety to avoid the much dreaded 'Anglo-Saxon,' the awe of which soon disappears, and is exchanged for interest, when once it is patiently encountered. Old English is the right key to the understanding of modern English, and those who will not use this key will never open the lock with all their fumbling."

It is the present fashion among the boasters of the New Education—whatever that is—to cry down all the grammars and the writers of them. Both certainly deserve all the "aspersions cast upon the parts of speech," but it is doubtful whether those that indulge their vague dissatisfaction know the real ground of their complaint. Dr. R. Morris, Lecturer on the English language and literature in King's College, London, gives the explanation:

"The unsatisfactory state of most of our English grammars is perhaps due to the limited knowledge of their writers, and their unwillingness to avail themselves of the help afforded by the remains of

our early literature. English grammar, without a reference to the older forms, must appear altogether anomalous, inconsistent, and unintelligible."

From these extracts from authors and teachers who have earned the right to speak and be heard, it will be seen that the historical method advocated by Mr. Jefferson is in a fair way to prevail.

His belief in the unbroken continuity of our tongue, from first English to the present, is confirmed by the concurrent opinion of some of the foremost English scholars in England and America, as is evident even to the casual observer from the gradual substitution of *Old English* for *Anglo-Saxon* everywhere growing in favour.

The printing of Anglo-Saxon texts in the modern type, which he so persistently urged, has long since been adopted. Students of English have facilities now that were not dreamed of in Jefferson's day.

While some of Mr. Jefferson's notions relating to Anglo-Saxon grammar are wide of the mark it is very easy to see how he was misled. There are passages in the oldest English writing requiring but a slight change of form to bring them into likeness to the modern. Take a few lines, at random, from Caedmon:

* * * thes wida grund
sted deop and dim
[* * * this wide ground stood deep and dim.]
Thaet mo is sorga maest
thaet Adam seol, the waes of eorþan geworht,
mine stronglican stol behealdan.
[That (to) mo is (of) sorrows most
that Adam shall, that was of earth wrought,
mine stronglike stool hold.]

The streams of Mr. Jefferson's influence in America, with respect to the mother-tongue, have been mainly two: one, flowing southward through the University of Virginia, the other following northward through Lafayette College. As this college was chartered in 1826, about the time that the ex-president's educational plans were attracting attention throughout the country, it is not unlikely, as Dr. March thinks, that the prominence given in Lafayette College to the study of English in its earlier forms is due to Jefferson's influence.

Ten years after Jefferson's death, a chair of English was established at Randolph-Macon College, Virginia, and "Prof. Edward Dromgool Sims was authorized to spend several years in the universities of Europe, making a speciality of the Anglo-Saxon and Gothic languages, and perfecting his acquirements in other languages, classical and modern."

On June 19, 1836, at the annual meeting of the Board, the report of the Faculty to the Board read: "We have had under review the whole course of study and are prepared to recommend several changes which have for their object the introduction of Anglo-Saxon as a basis for the proper study of the English literature and language."—Sketch of Randolph-Macon in Circular No. 2, p. 245.

In view of all this, may we not accord Thomas Jefferson another title, and regard him as the apostle, not only of civil and religious liberty, but also of the English speech in America?

NOTE.—The present writer would add one caution: no advocate of the historical method—so far as he knows—pleads that Anglo-Saxon should form the *whole* instruction of the college course in English, but that it should at least furnish the foundation of rock for a study which grows from more to more, and, if once entered upon with delight, ends only with life itself. Teachers of language, especially of English, will find a strong paper, emphasizing the doctrine here set forth by Edward A. Freeman, of Oxford, on "Language and Literature," in *Contemporary Review* for October, 1886, and reprinted in *Eclectic* for December of the same year. (*The Academy*, U. S. A.)

185700

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THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD.

No. VI.]

JUNE, 1889.

Vol. V.]

NOTABLE HISTORICAL EVENTS.

<i>Battle of Drumclog</i>	1st June, 1679.
<i>East India Company dissolved</i>	1st June, 1874.
<i>Prince Louis Napoleon killed, South Africa</i>	1st June, 1879.
<i>New Civil Procedure Code enforced</i>	1st June, 1882.
<i>No Popery (Gordon) riots</i>	2nd June, 1780.
<i>Hyder Ali overthrown</i>	2nd June, 1782.
<i>Newgate destroyed by fire</i>	2nd June, 1790.
<i>Defence of Warren Hastings</i>	2nd June, 1791.
<i>Admiral Dundas died</i>	2nd June, 1861.
<i>Mutiny at Benares suppressed</i>	3rd June, 1857.
<i>Prince George Frederic of Wales born</i>	3rd June, 1865.
<i>Baron Rothschild died</i>	3rd June, 1879.
<i>British Institution founded.</i>	4th June, 1805.
<i>General Lord Wolsley born</i>	4th June, 1833.
<i>Major Cotton takes Pegu</i>	4th June, 1852.
<i>Mutiny suppressed at Benares by General Neill</i>	4th June, 1857.
<i>Battle of Magenta</i>	4th June, 1859.
<i>Mutiny at Jhansie</i>	5th June, 1857.
<i>Mutiny at Cawnpore</i>	5th June, 1857.
<i>Conflagration at Constantinople</i>	5th June, 1870.
<i>Rattazzi died</i>	5th June, 1873.
<i>Mutiny at Allahabad</i>	6th June, 1857.
<i>Count Cavour died</i>	6th June, 1861.
<i>Royal Exchange, London, founded</i>	7th June, 1566.
<i>M. J. Banks died</i>	7th June, 1820.
<i>Reform Bill passed</i>	7th June, 1832.

செப்பனெடுவர் பெயர்
செப்பனெடுவதற்காக எடுத்த
கொளியெடுப்பு நாள்
செ 1956
செ 1996
சரிபார்க்கும் ஆறாய்ச்சி
மு. பா. எ. உதவியாளர்
கையொப்பம் கையொப்பம்

<i>Death of Mahomet</i>	8th June, 632.
<i>Millais born</i>	8th June, 1829.
<i>Jhansi Massacre</i>	8th June, 1857.
<i>Douglas Jerrold died</i>	8th June, 1857.
<i>Charles Dickens died</i>	9th June, 1870.
<i>Alexandra Palace, London, burnt</i>	9th June, 1873.
<i>Sultan of Zanzibar in England</i>	9th June, 1875.
<i>Crystal Palace opened</i>	10th June, 1854.
<i>Bithoor Massacre</i>	10th June, 1857.
<i>Mutiny of 1st Oudh Infantry</i>	10th June, 1857.
<i>George I died</i>	11th June, 1727.
<i>W. C. Bryant died</i>	11th June, 1878.
<i>Dr. Arnold died</i>	12th June, 1842.
<i>Massacre at Cawnpore</i>	12th June, 1857.
<i>Money Market Panic</i>	12th June, 1866.
<i>Earl Rivers executed</i>	13th June, 1483.
<i>1st Cavalry, Hyderabad Contingent mutinied</i>	13th June, 1857.
<i>Gwalior taken by rebels</i>	13th June, 1858.
<i>Battle of Cuddalore</i>	13th June, 1773.
<i>Louis, King of Bavaria, died</i>	13th June, 1886.
<i>Battle of Naseby</i>	14th June, 1645.
<i>Sir Harry Vane beheaded</i>	14th June, 1662.
<i>Battle of Marengo</i>	14th June, 1800.
<i>Windsor's Patent for gaslight</i>	14th June, 1840.
<i>Gwalior Massacre</i>	14th June, 1857.
<i>Ex-King of Oudh arrested</i>	14th June, 1857.
<i>Deceased Wife's Sister's Bill rejected</i>	14th June, 1882.
<i>Magna Charta sealed</i>	15th June, 1215.
<i>Thomas Campbell died</i>	15th June, 1844.
<i>First Hospital Sunday, London</i>	15th June, 1873.
<i>Bengal made Chief Presidency</i>	16th June, 1773.
<i>India Bill passed</i>	16th June, 1773.
<i>Battle of Quatre Bras</i>	16th June, 1815.
<i>Capture of Woosung</i>	16th June, 1842.
<i>Dr. Norman McLeod died</i>	16th June, 1872.
<i>Joseph Addison died</i>	17th June, 1719.
<i>Battle of Ajmere</i>	17th June, 1818.
<i>Lord Canning died</i>	17th June, 1862.
<i>Battle of Waterloo</i>	18th June, 1815.
<i>Magna Charta signed</i>	19th June, 1215.

<i>Rev. C. H. Surgeon born</i>	19th June, 1834.
<i>Scindia re-instated</i>	19th June, 1858.
<i>Maximilian shot</i>	19th June, 1867.
<i>Accession of Queen Victoria</i>	20th June, 1837.
<i>Battle of Vittoria</i>	21st June, 1813.
<i>Proclamation of Queen Victoria</i>	21st June, 1837.
<i>New St. Thomas's Hospital opened</i>	21st June, 1871.
<i>Celebration of Queen's Jubilee</i>	21st June, 1887.
<i>Division of Mysore</i>	22nd June, 1799.
<i>Peace proclaimed with France</i>	22nd June, 1815.
<i>Great fire in Tooley Street</i>	22nd June, 1861.
<i>J. Hampden died</i>	23rd June, 1643.
<i>Battle of Plassey</i>	23rd June, 1757.
<i>Mark Akenside, Poet, died</i>	23rd June, 1770.
<i>Delhi taken</i>	23rd June, 1857.
<i>Fight at Peiho</i>	25th June, 1859.
<i>Order of the Star of India instituted</i>	25th June, 1861.
<i>R. Ferguson (Physician) died</i>	25th June, 1865.
<i>Queen of Spain abdicated</i>	25th June, 1870.
<i>King George IV. died</i>	26th June, 1830.
<i>S. Crompton, machinist, died</i>	26th June, 1827.
<i>Navigation Acts repealed</i>	26th June, 1849.
<i>Khedive opposed by the Sultan</i>	26th June, 1879.
<i>Maharajah Runjeet Singh died</i>	27th June, 1839.
<i>Cawnpore Massacre</i>	27th June, 1857.
<i>Earl of Clarendon died</i>	27th June, 1870.
<i>Lord Lawrence died</i>	27th June, 1879.
<i>Coronation of Queen Victoria</i>	28th June, 1838.
<i>France annexed Tahiti</i>	29th June, 1880.
<i>Greenwich Hospital founded</i>	30th June, 1696.
<i>Parker, mutineer, hanged</i>	30th June, 1797.
<i>Peace proclaimed with Burmah</i>	30th June, 1853.

THE HIGHER EDUCATION OF EUROPEANS IN INDIA.

(Read before the Calcutta European Teachers' Association.)

The chief object of this society is to discuss topics that will be of practical benefit to its members in their daily work—such topics as the maintaining of discipline, the teaching of Geography, &c. There is however another object, almost a duty devolving upon us as an association, viz., to help parents and others interested in education to form a sound opinion on the important educational questions of the day. Educational reform is left too much in the hands of theorists; teachers are too much inclined to receive and act upon plans made for them by others: whereas they ought to be present when plans are being made: they ought to be leaders rather than quiescent followers. I have ventured therefore, to bring before you a subject about which we should express a definite opinion, in order that, when the time arrives for a scheme being proposed whereby the higher education for Europeans in India may be placed on a proper footing, we shall be able to trace back the growth of public opinion to the discussion and suggestions of the European teachers' association.

By higher education I mean the liberal education which a University is supposed to supply: the education suited to students that are no longer boys. It will be admitted "writes Professor Seeley" that teaching boys is very different from teaching men. If we enquire in what the difference consists, we find that the boy requires to be constantly supplied with motives for working while the man brings these with him. On the other hand the man needs above all things learned and profound instruction which is less necessary for the half-formed mind of the boy. It is by no means necessary that the masters of schools should be deeply learned. If they have tact, firmness, and a lively way of teaching, with competent knowledge, they will do all that can be done in a school. Moderate learning will be sufficient to command the respect and stimulate the mind of boys.

The qualifications most important to a lecturer are quite different. The liveliness and attractiveness which interest boys are not required in teaching young men. Manner is here less important and matter much more. The lecturer deals with a riper stage of intellect. In order to be a useful guide to young men at their most impressionable age, he must be before all things a man of power and learning. In short the success of

a schoolmaster depends mainly upon his force of character: the success of a college lecturer mainly upon his force and ripeness of intellect.

"A liberal education," says Professor Sedgwick, "has for its object to impart the highest culture, to lead you thus to the most full, vigorous, and harmonious exercise according to the best ideal attainable of their active, cognitive and aesthetic faculties. A natural education is evidently that which gives the rudiments of the component parts of culture in whatever order is found the best; which familiarises a boy with the same facts that it will afterwards be important for him to know: makes him imbibe the same ideas that are afterwards to form the furniture of his mind." Where I use the phrase Higher Education I mean the liberal, natural education described above, from which strictly speaking commercial and professional education should be kept distinct.

Sir Alfred Croft in his Review of Education in India has devoted sixteen out of 350 pages to the consideration of European and Eurasian education in India. From these pages I have taken the following facts and quotations:—

Shortly after the mutiny Lord Canning wrote as follows. "If measures for educating these children are not promptly and vigorously encouraged and aided by Government we shall soon find ourselves embarrassed in all large towns and stations with a floating population of Indianised English, loosely brought up and exhibiting most of the worst qualities of both races. The Eurasian class have an especial claim upon us. The presence of the British Govt. has called them into being: they serve the Govt. in many respects more efficiently than the natives can as yet serve it and more cheaply and conveniently than Europeans can do."

Sir Alfred Croft's remarks on this minute should be noted. "The condition of this class has not in the meantime improved by comparison with their neighbours. When Lord Canning wrote, the Universities of India had just been established; and however true it may at that time have been that Eurasians could serve the Govt. more efficiently than natives, the spread of University education has had the effect of at any rate reducing that difference. For those occupations in which intelligence and education are the chief requisites, Eurasians can no longer put forward any exceptional claim." Which paraphrased reads thus:—

Higher education has been provided for the Hindu and Mohomedan by Govt. and by Missionary bodies and by private native enterprise and in consequence of this provision the natives now

hold the positions that specially require intelligence and education. The Eurasians have not had higher education provided for them either by Government or by Missionary bodies and in consequence as a class they have not in the meantime improved by comparison with their neighbours?

In 1879 Lord Lytton sketched in outline a scheme for elementary schools for children in the plains, for boarding schools in the hills, for industrial schools, etc. The whole question was then referred to a committee of which Archdeacon Baly was a leading member. In 1881 the Govt. of India declared the policy which it proposed to follow in supporting European education. The Governor-General in Council spoke warmly regarding the lamentable state of affairs revealed by statistics. "It has been rightly said that one very special reason why Govt. cannot afford to ignore the growing up in India of an uninstructed population is that in the case of the European, his capacity for self-maintenance depends entirely upon the education he receives. He cannot support himself in this country by working as a day labourer or by adopting the avocation of a native peasant. An uneducated European almost necessarily becomes an idle and profitless and often a dangerous member of the community. The Govt. cannot in rendering its aid confine itself to subsidising and directing merely the primary education of Europeans, but must contrary to the practice at home assist also the schools designed for the middle and even to some extent those for the higher education of this class of its subjects." In 1883 a Draft Code was issued but its actual introduction was postponed for two years. Mr. Nash was soon able to report that the code had done and would do good in schools of all classes though there was some danger of its eventually putting too much pressure upon both teachers and scholars.

We all I am sure endorse Mr. Nash's statement. The code has done good. Elementary education is now fairly established and fairly satisfactory, as good indeed as can be looked for short of a school Board system similar to the English plan. What with Church and Mission schools, schools founded by Philanthropists and private adventure schools, the reproach of former times has been removed. The want of a system is to some extent remedied by Govt. Inspection and the University Entrance Examination—Were it within the scope of my subject to suggest improvements, I would venture to point out one or two obvious defects: e.g. the unprofessional status of elementary teachers as a class; the number of schools declining to be under Government inspection; and the want of an intelligent public spirit and of "sweet reasonableness" among the

parents generally. But our subject begins where elementary school work ends and my argument is that there is no adequate provision for the higher education of Europeans in India. The Government Colleges and Missionary colleges are excellently well equipped both as to staff and apparatus; but these colleges and their methods of teaching are for native students. It is true that Europeans do attend these colleges because they have no alternative; but the plan is most undesirable and the fact that students do attend native colleges does not prove under the circumstances that provision has been made for Europeans. It may be said that by affiliation a school may open a college department and thus make ample provision for Europeans. Adventure schools are in their way good but adventure Colleges are intolerable. It is very easy to substitute the name "College" for school or "Academy" and Principal for Headmaster; it is not so easy, it is next to impossible to convert, *per saltum*, the staff of an elementary school into a college of professors. And even granting the possibility of such a change in the case of one or two of the senior teachers, is it likely that the quality of the education offered to young men in these so called colleges will be anything like what professor Seeley has explained liberal education to be? I fear not. However able and willing the professors may be, their attention is divided between school and college work and they are forced because of the limited staff to lecture on too many subjects. When I arrived in India I was introduced to the Principal of a College who was Professor of Theology, English literature, Logic, Classics, History and Philosophy. I stood in awe of this prodigy wondering like Goldsmith's Irish peasants how one small head could carry all he knew—until I discovered the secret of the trick: *viz* that one may profess without sincerity. My learned friend had discovered that parents read prospectuses but do not take the trouble to verify what is therein professed. I have also seen a prospectus wherein the principal of a college professed to teach 12 to 14 subjects or classes. Is not this reducing the whole thing to a farce? Is it not degrading to the university to have its system associated with such quackery? But listen to what Professor Seeley says regarding the scope of a lecturer's work. The lecturer needs a subject carefully limited so that he may hope to master it thoroughly. For example if you make a man lecture on Classics, you spoil him for the purposes of original production. The subject is too wide. If he is required to lecture one term on a Dialogue of Plato, the next on an oration of Cicero and the next on Theocritus he will lecture at best, in a second rate manner on each. And if he hold such a lectureship for ten years he will not be at the end of it, much more learned than when he began. On the other hand, if an able man lecture on Aristotle for ten years, his lectures will soon

becoming first rate and he himself will hardly fail to become an accomplished Aristotilian" What would professor Seely say to the case of a man lecturing on a dozen subjects per week! He would probably say that there were exceptions to every rule and refer to the notorious scholastic quack who professed single handed to teach Latin, Greek, French, German, Portuguese, Russian, Italian, Hebrew, Arabic, and any other European or Oriental Language. Speaking seriously as far as I can see the work done in Colleges that are strictly European is the work of a Fifth form and cannot be called higher education. This statement may be misunderstood, for it seems to bind me to one of two alternative inferences—either European boys do not pass the F.A. examination from European colleges, or the F.A. examination is on a level with an English fifth form. Now the boys do pass the examination and the examination is in many respects superior to any school class. What I wish to be inferred from the statement is this—that in a great number of so called colleges for Europeans the qualities necessary for a professional staff are conspicuous by their absence, and in consequence the quality of the teaching is decidedly below a College standard. That boys pass the F.A. standard only proves that the F. A. examination may be passed by a system anything but conducive to a liberal education. If our European and Eurasian young men are to have the benefits of a University education and if the reproach implied in the quotations I made from the Review of Education in India is to be removed, there must be in all the large centres, Colleges not merely in name but in reality suited both in curriculum and in their methods of teaching to the wants of the students. For the sake of clearness I will place the argument of this paper before you in the form of three questions:—

- 1st. Is there a demand for higher education?
- 2nd. If so, is there at present adequate provision made for it?
- 3rd. If not, what is the best way of supplying it?

1st. Is there a demand for it?

On the one hand do the surroundings of a man's life in India require that in his youth he should have the avenues opened up which lead to "the great storehouses of foregone humanities:" this last time is a quotation from Principal Shairp's address to the students of St. Andrews University and I cannot refrain from quoting the opening paragraphs *in extenso*.

If a University like this exists for any purpose, I suppose it is to promote mental culture, that is the cultivation not merely of certain technical and professional faculties, but, over and above these, of the whole man. There is such a thing as mental culture and enlargement and it

is one main end of Universities to foster the desire and further the attainment of it. The man I must still hold, is more than his trade: The spirit that is in each man craves other nourishment than the bread he wins. The professional man who over and above his daily duties and business relations has learned to feel that he has other relations wider and more permanent with all his fellow beings in all ages, that he is a debtor for all he has and is connected with a wider circle of things than that he outwardly comes in contact with, that he is in lieu of all the great and good who have lived before him, is not on that account a worse workman, and certainly a higher and better man. It is not then a mere dream, but a very real aim which they propose who urge us to seek a fuller, more harmonious development of our humanity, greater freedom from narrowness and prejudice, more width of thought, more expansive sympathies, feelings more catholic and humane, a high and unselfish ideal of life, these are the qualities which university training, if it had its perfect work, might be expected to generate and foster. And it does so by bringing young minds, while they are still plaster into contact with whatever is best in the past history of the race with the great deeds, the high thoughts, the beautiful creations which the best men of former times have bequeathed to us.

You need no words from me to make you agree that from this point of view there is a demand for Higher Education. But from the other point of view is the demand as clear? Is there a sufficient number of young men willing to go through the University course to entitle us to say there is a demand for a distinct European College? I think there is or rather would be, were a proper European College started in the various centres. Of course such a College would be for professional as well as strictly liberal education.

2nd. Is there at present adequate provision made for European higher education? It is idle to argue that there is from the mere fact that European students at present attend Native and Missionary Colleges—such Colleges in every respect are unsuitable. I go the length of saying that the curriculum is unsuitable. Better far were the curriculum for Europeans modelled on the plan of the London University, for then young men would be enabled to finish their education, if necessary, in England without any difficulty. I have tried to show that the majority of Colleges attached to schools are not providing the required education, and thus answering the second question negatively, we come to the 3rd question. What is the best way of supplying the want? I venture to propose two alternative plans.

1st. Leaving things as they are at present, let all the schools in one district that have College Departments amalgamate as to their Col-

leges and form a *United College*. By this means the teaching power would be fully utilized. Take Calcutta for instance. There are, say, six Colleges for Europeans with an aggregate number of 40 students. Let us suppose that all the six Professors of English Literature give their lectures from 10 to 12; we thus have the curious case of six men lecturing for six boys apiece on identically the same subject and within a quarter of an hour's drive of each other! Is it quixotic to suggest that one professor be appointed to lecture to the whole of the 40 students and that the other five be freed for other work? Suppose the average number of professors to be 3 or even 2, then we have from 12 to 18 men engaged in teaching 40 F. A. students;—while the B. A. students have to go to Missionary or Government Colleges because their own have not a staff sufficient for the B. A. Classes. By having a United College there would be an abundant supply even for the M. A.—Second alternative—What I have just proposed starts from the College authorities. My second proposal requires the parents and those interested to make the initial movement. Let the parents organize a Proprietary College for European students. It was in this way the old Parental Academy began its good work in the days when elementary education was in a backward state. Government would in all probability subsidise such a College and might even take a share in its management and India would have State Colleges for Europeans as she has for other nationalities. The united effort however must come from the people. It is a case of those being helped who first try to help themselves. The people must make the effort in continuation and herein lies the difficulty. Disintegrating influences are at work on all hands. Religious indifference on one side and religious tyranny on the other. Much as I value Protestantism and respect the forefathers who fought and died for the cause, I cannot withhold my tribute of praise from the Roman Catholic Missionaries who have made their success as educationists a household word—I cannot but admire the steady march of their disciplined battalions of these phalanxes either bristling with the weapons of efficiency and preparedness or as their Roman ancestors used their famous phalanx over showing a fresh and constantly renewed front—For earnestness and adaptability they are deservedly praised and though I have been reared in one of the strictest sects of the Protestant religion, I would rather see the European Collegiate Education of the Country ruled systematically by the rigid tyranny of the Roman Catholic than the rigid tyranny of Protestantism. Sectarianism should divide it out of all semblance of organism.

EDUCATIONAL ECHOES FROM ENGLAND.

It is now 18 years since the National Union of Elementary Teachers held its second conference in Birmingham. It was then the day of small things: the members assembled in an ordinary room and attracted but very little attention from the outside world. But the whirligig of time has brought about many changes, and this year the 700 delegates representing 332 branches of their N. U. E. T. were welcomed to Birmingham by a deputation representing the City, the School Board, the clergy, the working men, etc., etc., and opened their proceedings in the Town Hall. The Mayor made reference to the exertions of Birmingham on behalf of the Education Act of 1870, and it accorded well with the fitness of things that Mr. Chamberlain, M. P., who helped greatly to forward that Act, and who is so intimately connected with Birmingham should address the Conference.

Naturally the members bestowed a good deal of their time and attention on the revised Code which evidently does not commend itself to them. The President-Elect, Mr. R. Wild confessed that they had cherished too sanguine expectations of the result of the Royal Commission, which had shown itself fully conscious of the evils attendant on 'payment by results,' and had striven to minimise those evils although the majority had not followed Dr. Dale in directly condemning the present system. But the recommendations of the Commissioners had not been embodied in their entirety in the Code and the first perusal of it caused feelings of blank dismay. Payment by results was not done away with, the merit grant was still present in an aggravated form, the changes in regard to evening schools were inadequate. The President did not deny that many welcome reforms had been introduced, but he and the National Union in general dwelt on the defects rather than the merits of the Code. Formal resolutions were adopted expressing regret that the merit grant was retained in a disguised but intensified form and that perfect liberty of classification was not conceded, while a resolution which condemned the continuance of payment by results was carried amid a remarkable display of enthusiasm.

There was great diversity of opinion among the members of the National Union as to free education: it was acknowledged that the rules for securing regular attendance have proved an utter failure but while this was attributed by one speaker to the exaction of school fees, another speaker declared that the nearer free schools were approached, the worse was the attendance.

Mr. Chamberlain who made himself the month-piece of the National Union to the country at large, dealt with the question of payment by results and with free education. His excellent remarks on the former subject cleared the air, gave distinct shape and form to the teachers' complaints, and it is to be hoped that his practical advice to them may bring forth good fruit. Mr. Chamberlain went to the very root of the matter when he took exception to the name, "payment by results." This description of the system was utterly misleading, for no one would deny that education should be paid for by the State according to the results actually achieved; the question was what results were to be aimed at and how they were to be ascertained. The present system tended inevitably to stereotyped education, and there was a general consensus of opinion that children trained in the elementary schools were deficient in general intelligence and soon forgot what information they had acquired. Teachers might take it for granted that the present system was imperfect and condemned. To raise further objections to it would be flogging a dead horse. Members of the Union should utilize their practical experience in finding an alternative system which would commend itself to the country. It was absolutely essential that Parliament should have some security that the large grants were properly expended, and how to obtain this security while leaving the teachers all necessary freedom of action was the problem which demanded solution.

Mr. Chamberlain's remarks on free education provoked very varied expressions of agreement and dissent. His own views on the subject are well known and he stated them clearly and forcibly. Much of the teacher's valuable time is taken up by the collection of school-pence and the sum, however small, is often a heavy burden on the parents' scanty resources. Another question referred to by Mr. Chamberlain was the establishment of a superannuation fund for the national teachers. He regards the Civil Service pensions as a system of compulsory thrift enforced by the State and would like to see the national teachers included in the ranks of the Civil Servants and entitled to superannuation upon the same terms. The executive has already drawn up a scheme based on the supposition that a Government subsidy of £50,000 should be made annually to the fund and a deduction of 1 per cent made from all Government grants to schools. The Secretary declared that it was impossible to draw up a satisfactory scheme without Government aid, as not more than one-fourth of the teachers received salaries which could enable them to provide pensions for themselves, and that there was little hope of any good result unless the public were prepared to recognise the school teachers as Civil Servants. Another grievance felt by the teachers is their insecurity of tenure; they claim

the right of appeal from the school managers to the Education Department in case of dismissal on insufficient grounds, and Mr. Chamberlain supports them in this demand. Hitherto the Education Department has always refused to interfere in any dispute between school managers and teachers.

The National Union of Elementary Teachers has changed its title and by an overwhelming majority adopted a resolution to the effect that the body should in future be styled the "National Union of Teachers." This is another step forward towards the recognition of education as a whole. Of course the new Code has had to run the gauntlet of criticism all round, and all Societies and Associations interested in education have been much engaged in examining the changes introduced. In the House of Lords, Lord Norton made a fierce onslaught against the Code, which still recognised the principle of a *variable* State aid of education. A distribution of grants to each school depended on elaborate conditions contained in ever-changing minutes of the Department. The present grants were calculated to amount on an average to £1 a head. Let that be the average capitation, on the condition that reported defects of working must be corrected as soon as possible. In reply, Lord Cranbrook pointed out that the greater part of the income of a school would in the future depend on the merit grant, which was to be assigned not on the percentage of passes but on the general condition and efficiency of the school. The lowest grant was 121 and could not be withdrawn without 12 months notice, so that the school would have at least a twelve month in which to correct any reported deficiencies and to put itself in a position to retain the grant. In his opinion the increased merit grant did away with the evils of the so-called 'payment by results.'

The National Education Association passes some very unflattering comments on the Code; the additions to be made to the school staff are trivial; certificates are granted on too easy terms to 'acting' teachers, who will still continue to keep trained teachers out of the field; and the evening schools are still subjected to unnecessary restrictions.

Some of the managers of voluntary schools seem to be apprehensive that the new requirements may press heavily upon them; additional staff and subjects and increased space are demanded, while the grant as a whole may not be augmented.

Lately there passed away from among us a man well known to all students of classical literature. Dr. Kennedy, Regius Professor of Greek at Cambridge but better known as former Headmaster of Shrewsbury, distinguished himself even during his school days by his classical

attainments, and at Cambridge, where Praed, Bulwer and Tennyson were among his contemporaries, he carried off the highest honours. After being nine years classical lecturer at his College, he was appointed assistant master at Harrow and in 1836 became Headmaster of Shrewsbury. During the 30 years of his Headmastership, honours rained thick and fast upon Shrewsbury. That school, the smallest of our public schools and a poor foundation, sent up year after year to the universities, pupils who carried all before them. The public Schools Commissioners recorded 51 Oxford and Cambridge fellowships won by Shrewsbury men between 1840 and 1860 while a foot-note adds "College scholarships have not been carefully recorded." Dr. Kennedy himself had an enthusiastic belief in the value of the old classical literature, and kindled a like enthusiasm in his pupils. He was a warm friend of the higher education of women and it was in a great measure due to him that they were at length admitted to the Tripos examinations of his university. The "Public School Latin Grammar" and "Latin Primer," are too widely known to need any description, but Dr. Kennedy wrote many other works besides these. He edited Vergil for the use of schools, translated "The Birds," "Ædipus Rex" and "Agamemnon," and wrote a collection of Greek, Latin and English poetry published under the title of "Between whiles."

The Home Reading Circles Union initiated under the auspices of the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Duke of Argyll, Professor Bryce, Sir W. Hart Dyke, Mr. Robert Browning and Archdeacon Farrar has for its object to stimulate home-reading and to ensure its being carried on in a continuous, systematic manner. Courses of reading for different Classes of readers will be drawn up; local circles will be formed for the discussion of subjects that have been read; lectures will be delivered at summer assemblies and social gatherings will be held. The work is to be associated with the university extension movement, and the scheme will doubtless prove a great boon to many solitary students who live at some distance from the centres of intellectual life and whose aimless reading needs some direction before it can prove of any service to them. The University extension movement does not seem to be making as much way in Scotland as in the sister kingdom. Industrial centres such, as Hawick, Peebles, Galashiels and Melrose, have not made any arrangements for courses of lectures and even in such cities as Edinburgh and Glasgow the reports are not brilliant. The Extension lectures were especially intended to bring the higher culture within the reach of the working classes, but professional men and tradesmen rather than artisans have availed themselves of the opportunity. Following the precedent of the successful meeting at Oxford last year, there is to be a University

summer gathering at Edinburgh this year. Lectures and tutorial classes will take up the mornings while the afternoons will be devoted to excursions and the evenings to conversaziones and concerts.

St. Andrew's University hopes to attract shortly women who are in search of the means of higher education. Classes are to be held in the subjects now taught in the University, and, in addition, the languages and literatures of France and Germany. The University degrees however are not yet thrown open to them and until this is the case, the provision for the higher education is sure to be insufficient.

GRADUATE,
London University.

EDUCATIONAL ECHOES FROM AMERICA.

For some unaccountable reason, the paper on this subject has not been received. Regret is therefore expressed.

EDUCATIONAL NEWS & SUMMARY.

THE King of the Belgians has promised a subscription of £500 towards the creation of the Stephenson addition to the Science College at Durham.

THE Director of Public Instruction, Bengal, has issued a circular that in classes below the 4th, students of more than 14 years of age will not be admitted into Government schools.

IT is interesting to learn that since the founding of the Madras University, 69 female candidates have passed the Matriculation Examination, and 7 the First in Arts Examination.

FEMALE medical education is progressing satisfactorily at the Agra Medical College, to judge by the results of the recent examinations there.

HIS Highness the Maharajah of Vizianagram has subscribed Rs. 25,000 towards the Association for the cultivation of Science in Calcutta.

MR. James Sterndale Bennett, M. A., the son of the late Sir J. Sterndale Bennett, the musical composer, has been appointed Headmaster of Derby School.

THE young Maharaja of Kolhapur has left for Dharwar to study at the Rajkumar College there.

THE Spanish Government intends to improve and extend education in the Philippines.

IT is proposed to subordinate the Normal Schools of the Punjab to the Principal of the Lahore Training College.

UPWARDS of 2,000,000 of the youths of India are today receiving a liberal English education.

THE girls school, or convent at Goa, conducted by Portuguese nuns from Europe, is progressing satisfactorily, and it has just been resolved by Government that a sum of Rs. 5,300, collected in Macao in 1871 for creating a college for girls in Goa, and which sum has been lying with Government for the last eighteen years, together with the accrued interest thereon, be handed over to the directors of the Santa Casa de Misericordia (Asylum of Mercy), who have the supervision and direction

of the girls' high school, established under the auspices of the Archbishop Patriarch about three years ago.

THE BOMBAY UNIVERSITY—A meeting of the Faculty of Arts was held recently at the University for the purpose of electing a Dean in the Faculty of Arts for the ensuing year. There were two candidates, the Hon. Mr. P. M. Mehta, whose election was proposed by Mr. E. C. K. Ollivant and seconded by Mr. K. M. Kabrajee, and Mr. James Jardine, M. A., Barrister-at-law, proposed by the Hon. F. L. Latham and seconded by the Hon. Mr. Justice Scott. The Hon. Mr. Pheroza Mehta was the successful candidate and was elected Dean in the Faculty of Arts for the ensuing year. A meeting of the Faculty of Law was also held at for the purpose of electing a Dean in the Faculty of Law, Mr. H. M. Starling proposed the election of the Hon. Mr. F. L. Latham. He was seconded by Mr. R. Branson. Being unopposed, the Hon. Mr. Latham was formally elected. The meeting then dissolved.

THE Queen says the work of organising in the United Kingdom a branch of the National Association for supplying Female Medical Aid to the Women of India is making satisfactory progress. Several donations and promises of further annual subscriptions have been received. General Sir Donald Stewart, Lady Burdett Coutts, Lady Edward Cavendish, Sir William Mackenzie, M. D., Sir J. Whittaker Ellis, M. P., and Mr. Keswick (of Jardine, Skinner, and Co., Calcutta), are among those who have lately joined the general Committee.

A NEW TELUGU POETICAL WORK.—A correspondent writes:—"Brahmatol Pandit Venkataratnam Pantulu Garu, Professor of Telugu Literature in the Madras Presidency College, has recently enriched the Telugu literature by a new poem composed by him on the great sanctity of Bilwaranya Kshetra. The poem is called Bilwaswariyanu. It contains many beautiful verses and some of them are for the first time introduced into the language (sic.) It is a Nirwachana Kavya or a purely poetical composition. Its style is pure, its language is free from erratic thoughts and exaggerations and it is full of Dhvani or hidden meanings. The episodes are full of moral lessons. Many Pandits and Telugu scholars have seen the work, and expressed their high appreciation of its merits.

PROFESSOR Max Müller returned the toast of Literature at the recent Royal Academy Banquet, and said:—"What have I done to stand here as the representative of literature? My chief claim would seem to be

that I have published a very old book—it may be the oldest book in the whole literature of the world—the Veda, the sacred book of India. But, alas! though it is the oldest book, it is, I believe, the book which has had the smallest number of readers, while the number of those who profess to understand it, is smaller still."

* *

COLVIN COLLEGE for the education of the youth of the Oudh aristocracy will soon be an accomplished fact. Rana Sir Shanker Buksh has contributed Rs. 25,000 and the Raja of Bhinga, Rs. 20,000. The Government has provided a valuable site for the buildings, and has sanctioned a contribution of Rs. 50,000 towards them and, as a nucleus of endowment, nearly a lac of rupees from the Canning College endowment.

* *

MR. MUNDELLA, M. P., at a recent meeting of the representative managers of the London Board Schools, said that he would introduce into his Bill for Preventing Cruelty to Children a provision to protect teachers and guardians against penalties for administering reasonable punishment. He approved of some of the proposals of the new Code, but held that payment by results must eventually be abolished.

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HER HIGHNESS the Nawab Shahjehan Begum of Bhopal has compiled a Dictionary in Urdu, English, Persian, Arabic, Sanskrit and Turkish, which she has called "Khazinat-ullugat" or Treasury of languages. This Her Highness is now prepared to distribute, at her own cost, to all important institutions throughout India. This is probably the first time that an Indian Princess has come before the public as an authoress.

* *

It having been brought to the notice of the recent General Educational Conference of the Punjab that some of the Students in Schools misrepresented their ages in order to claim the Government Scholarships, it was decided by a majority that any student found guilty of such wilful misrepresentation is to be expelled from his school, and that any teacher found guilty of abetting the offence shall be dismissed.

* *

CANDIDATES for commissions and crammers are said to be much troubled at present owing to the strict way in which the Examiners at Burlington House carry out the suggestion which H. R. H. the Duke of Cambridge made some time ago that greater attention should be paid to handwriting and spelling by the gallant youths who would devote themselves to a military career.

* *

It has been notified by the Director of Public Instruction in Bengal that a question having been raised as to the desirability of introducing a rule regulating the age at which boys may be admitted to zillah and collegiate schools, nobody who has attained the age of 14 years should be admitted to any class in a Government High school below the fourth, without the special sanction of the Inspector or the Principal as the case may be. The permission would ordinarily be given, as a matter of course, to boys who come with middle vernacular scholarships.

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THE mother of an old Rugbeian, who wishes to be anonymous, has emulated the generosity of Mr. Baring to Harrow, and announced her intention of bequeathing a similar sum of £ 10,000 to Rugby.

* *

An examination of candidates for appointment as Deputy Collectors will be held in Calcutta in January or February 1890, on dates to be notified hereafter. The following classes of candidates will be admissible to the examination (a)—Persons who have passed the B. A. Examination of the Calcutta University or who can produce satisfactory evidence of having received an education up to an analogous standard, provided that they are not more than 25 years of age on the 1st January, 1890. The limit of age will not be enforced in the case of candidates, who are already gazetted officers of Government, and who satisfy the other conditions of eligibility; (b) persons, whose names are included in the Secretariat list of candidates registered for appointment as Deputy Magistrates and Deputy Collectors, provided that they are not more than 30 years of age on the 1st January, 1890. No person will be deemed qualified who does not satisfy the following conditions:—

I.—That he has no disease, constitutional affection, or bodily infirmity, unfitting him, or likely to unfit him for the Subordinate Executive Service.

II.—That he is of good moral character.

III.—That he belongs to a respectable family.

IV.—That he produces a certificate of ability to ride, signed by a District Officer. Applications for permission to appear at the examination must be sent not later than the 1st December next to the Under-Secretary in the Appointment Department. Each application must be accompanied by a fee of Rs. 10. and by satisfactory proof that the candidate fulfils the conditions specified above. The certificate of health may, however, be submitted later.

* *

A BOY-EDITOR.—America is the land of prodigies and wonders, and it is, therefore, not surprising to find that the great Western Republic boasts of an editor who is barely twelve years old. A monthly publi-

cation has recently made its appearance in New York which is named the *Sunny Hour* and is published "by a boy for boys and girls." The Proprietor, Editor, Manager, advertising solicitor, chief contributor, proof-reader and publisher of this Journal is a lad named Tello d'Apéry who is not more than twelve years old. He is the son of a lady who is a well-known contributor to American magazines and newspapers, and this fact probably accounts for the boy-editor's precocious aptitude for journalistic work. The *Sunny Hour* is pronounced a capital publication of its kind and the labourer is apparently worthy of his hire.

A PARAGRAPH in a recent home paper states that the "Imperial Library of St. Petersburg can boast of twenty miles of shelves, and contains a million and a half of books, exclusive of manuscripts." The number of books is, we fancy, not quite correctly given, for in the beginning of 1887 the library contained 1,045,000 volumes and 34,000 manuscripts, and it can hardly be supposed that during the last two years over 450,000 volumes have been added to it. Great as is this library, it is not, however, the largest in the world, for the Imperial Library at Paris contains over 2,078,000 volumes and 86,000 manuscripts. These books, if placed side by side, would extend for 18 miles. The library at the British Museum contains over 1,120,000 volumes in a number of shelves whose total length aggregates 32 miles. There are also over 41,000 manuscripts at the British Museum. Among the other large libraries in the world are the following:—Berlin with about 740,000 volumes and 15,000 manuscripts; Munich 810,000 volumes and 24,000 manuscripts; Vienna 420,000 volumes and 21,000 manuscripts; Dresden, 500,000 volumes and 4,000 manuscripts; the Vatican at Rome, 340,000 volumes and 32,000 manuscripts; Copenhagen 410,000 volumes; Gottingen, 400,000; Oxford, 300,000; Brussels, 210,000; St. Genevieve at Paris, 250,000; Washington, 230,000; Boston, 202,000; and Astor, New York, 160,000 volumes. In 1880 there were 4,738 libraries in Europe and the United States containing over 10,000 books each, and they possessed between them 33,855,000 volumes, for Europe 31,592,000, and the United States 2,263,000 volumes. This is at the rate of 10 volumes per 100 inhabitants in Europe, and 4 in the United States, or 9 volumes per 100 inhabitants in Europe and the United States together.

The *Bombay Gazette*.—When His Excellency Lord Roay took counsel with the Bombay Chamber of Commerce recently, he intimated that it was the intention of Government to considerably modify the rules under which grants of public money have hitherto been made to educa-

tional societies for the purpose of building schools and colleges "I may say," he stated, "that in regard to building contributions we shall not be as lavish in the future as in the past, and in Bombay City the site will form part of the building grant. I think that in some instances palatial buildings have been erected; but if any one in the future wishes to indulge in the luxury of having such buildings they will not be erected with Government money." The first effects of this new policy have already become apparent in a series of resolutions.

The following letter which explains itself will be read with interest by those who advocate physical exercise:—

Republique Francaise.

Exposition Universelle de 1889.

Congress for Studying the Aims and Advantages of Athletic Education.
Paris, January, 1889.

Sir,—During the Exhibition of 1889, a Congress will be held in Paris for studying the aims and advantages of athletic sports and games and their physical, moral, and social effects on education. We greatly hope that you will be able to attend the Congress, and give us on this most important question such information as your experience in educational matters will suggest. At all events, we hope you will be kind enough to write and send us an answer to the following questions.

With anticipated thanks, we remain Sir,
Very faithfully yours,

Jules Simon, Ex-Prime Minister, Member of the Senate and of the French Academy.

Dr. Brouardel, Member of the Medical Academy.

M. Morel, Director of Secondary Instruction.

H. de Villeneuve.

Pierre de Coubertin.

1. What are the games played in your school or University? (If local games, please to give the chief rules.)
2. How many hours do the boys play a day?—a week?
3. What about riding—gymnastics—fencing—military drill—rowing—bicycling?
4. Are the boys allowed to form sporting associations?
5. Have they a Debating Society and of what kind?
6. Do you believe in athletic games improving companionship?—morality?—temper?—work?
7. What are the subscriptions, extra fees, paid for the games and sports?

Note.—Detailed accounts, books, pamphlets, school papers will be received with gratitude.

All information to be sent to M. Pierre de Coubertin, 20, Rue Oudinot, Paris.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY ENTRANCE EXAMINATION, 1890.

The usual notes on the subjects prescribed for the Examination will be continued in our next number.

EXAMINATION PAPERS.

FROM THE "MADRAS UNIVERSITY CALENDAR".

ENGLISH.

PART I.

I. Paraphrase:—

The streams which "kissed the living banks,"
 Ran smooth and winding, deep and clear,
 Now edged by graceful willow-ranks,
 Now tufted palms approached so near.
 That every long leaf mirrored lay,
 On waves that crept and stole away
 With murmurs musical and low;
 While many a lily at the brink,
 Pressed down her lips of gold to drink,
 And drinking lovelier seemed to blow.

II Correct the following, making no unnecessary changes:—

- (1.) He asked them whence they came from, and they replied him from Italy.
- (2.) Being driven by a stormy weather towards land, two of the men landed ashore, while another two remained on the boat.
- (3.) I asked him what I can do, and he said to be more industrious.
- (4.) I will not go until a year in the least.
- (5.) The city of Madras, having an occupation nearly of twenty-seven square miles, makes up of thirty-six distinct villages, and with the purpose of the Municipal administration divided into eight Municipal divisions.
- (6.) He threw his eye upon him in scorn, and requested whether he could distinguish black with white.
- (7.) You shall seldom or ever meet upon an ungrateful person, who, if you look backward and trace him up to his original, you shall find that he was born so: and, if you could look forward enough, it is a thousand for one but you shall find him also die so.

III. (a). Distinguish the meanings of the following synonyms:—

- (1) Notorious, famous. (2) Sensible, sensitive. (3) Custom, habit.

- (b). Give the precise meanings of the italicized word or words in the following:—

Tell him to come.

Tell me everything.

I cannot tell what is the matter with him.

Too hard study will tell upon your health, and that will tell against you in the examination.

- (c). In the following sentences make the changes indicated, and such others *only* as are absolutely necessary:—

"It is so difficult that I cannot understand it."

Replace *so*, (1) by *too*, (2) by *very* and (3) by *such*.

"I have not seen him since 1870."

Replace *since* by *ago*.

PART II.

- IV. (a).—Analyse the following, giving the character of each subordinate sentence. "I have often wished, that as in our constitution there are several persons whose business it is to watch over our laws, our liberties, and our commerce, certain men might be set apart as superintendents of our language, to hinder any words of foreign coinage from passing among us, when those of our own stamp are altogether as valuable."

- (b).—Write the above so as to have only two subordinate sentences.

- V. (a).—Give the two plural forms for *die*, *genius*, *penny*, and construct short sentences which will clearly illustrate the difference in the meaning of the forms.

- (b).—Give the masculine forms corresponding to *sow*, *doe*, *hind*, *lady-in-waiting*, *lass*, *madam*.

- VI. (a).—Express the following by means of appropriate collective nouns.—*two partridges*, *twenty boys*, *one hundred and forty four buttons*.

- (b).—Distinguish between:—

(1).—He looked over my paper.

He overlooked my paper.

(2).—He brought me two cup-fulls of marbles.

He brought me two cup-full of marbles.

(3).—James said that John should do so.

James said that John would do so.

- VII. "I told you before all about it."

- (a).—The above may be interpreted in three different ways. What are these?

- (b).—If you were to read the above sentence aloud, point out where you would place the pause or emphasis so as to express the meaning in each case.

PART III.

- VIII. (a).—Mark the accented syllable in each of the following words, and give one synonym for each:—
enigma, hazardous, imaginary, anonymous, ramification, preposterous, prognosticate, tumultuous.

- (b).—Assign different meanings according to accent, to the following:—
august, gallant, refuse, incense.

- IX. (a).—Give the comparative and superlative, of *nigh, holy, melancholy, grey, red, far, fair, fore.*

- (b).—Parse fully each word in the following:—
*Fain would the cat fish eat,
But she is loth to wet her feet.*

- X. (a).—Illustrate by short sentences the use of each of the following as (1) a noun, (2) an adjective, and (3) a verb:—
mean, rank, tender, sound.

- (b).—Illustrate by sentences the idiomatic use of the phrases:—
take in, take off, take to, take over; set to, set in, set up, set over.

- XI. Write an essay (not exceeding two pages of your paper) on "*Cruelty to Animals.*"

PHYSICS.

- I. Define Specific Gravity. Briefly describe how you would find the Specific Gravity of (1) nutmeg and (2) milk.

Arrange the following in the order of their specific gravity: *iron, water, air, mercury, alcohol, gold, salt-water and hydrogen.*

- II. Describe the action of a common air pump. On what properties of gases does its action depend?

- III. How is work estimated? How is it affected by velocity?

A cannon ball discharged with a velocity of 1,500 feet per second will pierce through 25 planks of teak, through how many similar planks will a similar ball pierce when discharged with a velocity of 1,800 feet per second?

- IV. What is Specific Heat? Define latent heat of water and of steam. Name three effects that heat produces. What is a freezing mixture.

- V. Distinguish between Conduction, Convection and Radiation. By which of these means does the sun's light reach the earth? Distinguish between Reflection and Refraction.

- VI. What is Electricity? How many kinds are there? Name and distinguish between them.

- What is Electric Induction? What effect have points in Electricity? Describe the construction of a Leyden jar.

- VII. Describe the construction of one cell of Grove's Battery. How is the current from a Battery different from that from an Electric machine?

Name four effects produced by the electric current.

CHEMISTRY.

- VII. Explain the terms:—Efflorescent, deliquescent, silicate, galena, blende, fire-damp.

- IX. Describe two experiments proving that an earthy-looking substance may contain a bright metal.

- X. Explain the principle upon which Davy's Safety Lamp is constructed.

- XI. (a) How is Chlorine obtained?
(b) What are its chief properties?

- XII. Mention some of the chief practical uses of Lead and Mercury.

- XIII. What two metals are there in a four-anna piece? By what experiment can you prove their presence?

- XIV. What is the difference between Nitrogen Monoxide and Nitrogen Tetroxide?

Give the Chemical symbol and combining weight of the following:—Carbon—Iron—Sodium—Phosphorus—Tin—Lead—Silver—Calcium.

INDIAN HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

- I. (a) What circumstances led to the mission of Mr. Metcalfe to Lahore? What were its results?
 (b) What led to the Mutiny at Madras? When did it take place? How did it end?
 (c) Give the changes in the Company's charter in 1813.
- II. What causes led to the Nepal War? Give the name, date and conditions of the concluding treaty.
- III. (a) Briefly describe the origin of the Pindaris. What steps were taken to extirpate them?
 (b) What causes led to the war with Holkar in 1818? How did it end?
- IV. (a) What circumstances led to the Treaty of Puna? Give its date and conditions.
 (b) Why and when did the English annex Nagpur?
- I. What was the origin of the First Burmese War? Give the name, date and terms of the concluding treaty.
- II. What reforms did Lord William Bentinck introduce? What changes were made in the Company's charter during his rule? Why and when were Coorg and Maisur annexed?
- III. What were the causes of the First Afghan War? How did the first campaign terminate? What led to a renewal of hostilities?
- IV. What circumstances led to the annexation of Sind and to the war in Gwalior? How did the latter terminate? What General concluded this war and who was then Governor-General?
- I. Name (a) the chief capes in the South of Europe (b) the chief islands of the Baltic, (c) the principal openings on the West of Europe, (d) the chief rivers running into the German Ocean (e) the straits between Corsica and Sardinia; (f) the two peninsulas in the South of Italy, (g) the highest peak in the Apennines, (h) a lake in Austria.
- II. Give three limited monarchies, one absolute monarchy and two republics in Europe. Which are the five great powers?

- III. Describe the mountain system of England and name the rivers on the West slope.
- IV. What are the four leading seaports of England? Draw a diagram illustrative of their position.
- V. Name (a) the largest town in Wales, (b) the most central town in England, (c) the principal seats of the silk manufacture, (d) the four University towns, (e) the chief naval stations, (f) the town with the loftiest spire in Britain, (g) the four public schools, (h) the Archbishop's capital of England.

ARITHMETIC.

I. How many more Rupees are there in 832 fanams than there are in £ 5-12s. 10½d. ? (1 Rupee = 1s. 9½d.).

II. Simplify :—

$$\frac{\frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{12}}{\frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{6} - \frac{1}{12} + \frac{1}{24}} \text{ of } \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{7}}}}} \text{ of } 4.5$$

III. A certain number is multiplied by itself, and from the product 9 is subtracted; the remainder obtained is divided by 17, and to the quotient 20 is added. If the ultimate result be 100, find what decimal the original number is of 129½.

IV. Three men possess among themselves Rs. 4,875. One man has all two-anna pieces, another has all four-anna pieces, and the third has all eight-anna pieces. If the first man has 2½ coins more than the 2nd, and the 2nd 3 coins more than the third, find how many coins they have in all.

V. Three men possess, in all, 27 coins amounting in value to £30-25. One of them possesses ten sovereign coins; the other two moidores and guineas respectively. Find how many of the 27 coins are guineas.

VI. A and B can do a piece of work in 4 days; B and C can do it in 5½ days. In what time can A, B, and C do it, given that B can do in half a day what takes A three-eighths of a day to do.

VII. Going at the rate of $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles in $2\frac{1}{4}$ hrs., I take 14 hrs. to reach my destination; how many miles must I walk in $3\frac{1}{2}$ hrs. to reach it in 4 hrs. sooner? (To be worked as a sum in Double Rule of Three.)

VIII. Find, by Practice, the cost of paving a road 17 miles: 7 furlongs: 36 poles: $2\frac{3}{4}$ yds. long at the rate of Rs. 5,789-10-8 per mile.

IX. The papering of the walls of a room costs Rs. 189 at the rate of 3as. $7\frac{1}{2}$ pie per square foot; the cost of carpeting the floor thereof is Rs. 150 at the rate of 8 annas a square foot. Find the height of the room, given that its length and breadth are in the ratio of 4 to 3.

X. Let out at 5 per cent. per annum Simple interest, what sum will amount to Rs. 800 in 12 years?

SOME UNSATISFACTORY FEATURES IN WOMEN'S COLLEGES.

It is impossible to read that portion of a recent article on the Progress of Women (*Universal Review*) which deals with "Higher Education" without being struck by the tone of a "warfare accomplished" running through it. If it were merely a note of triumph there would be no occasion for comment, for the promoters of women's higher education have, indeed, much cause for self-gratulation. As the result of their efforts it is now possible for women to partake of that university education accounted the best in England, and to pass several years in college-life devoting their entire energies to study. No one who has experienced the advantages of such an education and life will undervalue these privileges, and it is hardly surprising if those to whose patient efforts and disinterested zeal they are due, are now disposed to rest contented. For not only have they gained these concessions for women, but they have also witnessed a complete change in the attitude of the British public. The old dread that a college career would lead to unwomanliness and unfitness for private life, has been driven out by the dissemination in society of girl (by courtesy) graduates—a race, on the whole, modest and not eccentric—or lingers only as an antiquated form of Philistinism. Criticism has been disarmed, and preconceived ideas falsified by results. Students have, it is true, been lately proved vulnerable from another side of attack, that of manners and deportment, but to the educational enthusiast this will be fruit for congratulation rather than lamentation. For, while it does indeed prove conclusively that the

universities do not teach these boarding-school extras to women any more than to men, it is also evidence of the far reach of the women's colleges; it shows that students are drawn as well from the lower sections of society, in which elegance and social ease are little regarded and never expected (except in individuals who have been to college) as from those in which they are matters of careful home training.

It is then, I repeat, little matter for wonder that the leaders in the "Higher Education" movement should pause with self-congratulations, and should now confine their attention to the consolidation of the position gained. But, since those early days when the pioneer colleges of Girton and Newnham took their first steps along the paths of learning, there has grown up a whole generation of students able to testify by experience both to the merits and defects of college education and life. It is as one of these that I venture to offer a new criticism of the much criticised colleges for women, speaking, not indeed "as one having authority" in educational matters, but as a student and not a mere on-looker. In this capacity I would urge that there are two grave defects in these colleges, defects, moreover, which do not need for their remedy any further concessions from the universities, but which may be taken in hand by the several college authorities.

The first of these is the want of openings for women of the genuine student type, for those who are directly interested in their subjects and do not work at them merely for the sake of mental training or with a view to examination honours. The growth of this type is a good deal fostered by the university course, which is just advanced enough to indicate how much lies beyond; but, the course once completed and the final examination passed, women's colleges have nothing more to offer. Outside the universities there is scant encouragement and less remuneration for abstruse study, "by either sex pursued, and from time immemorial men of a studious turn have taken refuge at Oxford and Cambridge. In their Alma Mater her sons have always found, not only the subtle help of companionship and sympathy, but also a definite recognition and position joined to a more substantial encouragement. There are fellowships—posts affording the happy combination of leisure for study together with a sphere for a moderate practical activity, and justifying their holders to the outside world by so much a year. Such opportunities and justification for work which is no longer for an examination, are—with, I believe, one exception in a studentship at Newnham—wholly wanting to women. They have, with this one exception, nothing in any way corresponding to fellowships, for the lectureships held by women in their

respective colleges involve much work and little leisure, and answer rather to the posts of teachers in schools.

There is little need to dwell upon the advantages that some such openings would afford to individual women, for all who have observed the course of women's education and work during the last ten years will admit on the one hand, that they have shown evidence of a capacity for highly advanced study, and on the other, that it is most rare to find employments in which they can make use of even such work as they have done at college. Students seeking a livelihood turn now to the High-school as their great resource, and in this there is little teaching of advanced subjects, and seldom time for private work. It remains only for those rare women with purses long enough and minds strong enough to dispense with remuneration and encouragement alike, to pursue their solitary studious ways. Nor is it necessary at this time to comment on the extreme proneness of women to the examination danger when, as now, their education and opportunities for study terminate with an examination. It is clear that what must be the end is easily made the aim. But what is not so obvious, save to those who, like the present writer, have lived in a women's college, is the extreme narrowness of the interests resulting from this practical restriction of college society to teachers and pupils. One must have three or four years' experience of college life to realise how monotonous and trivial are the ordinary topics of conversation, and how few the occasions on which students have any ear "save for the tinkling late set to small measures." There are doubtless several causes for this narrowness, some perhaps unavoidable; but at least a partial remedy would be found in the presence of older women, with more leisure and almost inevitably more spare energy and wider interests.

The consideration of this social narrowness brings me to the second defect I have in view, the reform of which would also let in a fresh current of energy and interest. This may be briefly stated as the want of a more local and representative government and is in a measure connected with the first, for obviously the residents best adapted to help in the government of their respective colleges would be those feminine "fellows" yet to be. Reform, however, need not wait for them, and much might be done at once in this direction if its desirability were but recognised. Now, apart from the opportunities for study, the great gain of college life for women may be expressed as the political training—in the widest and best sense of "political"—which it affords. At college for the first time, in the majority of cases, does a woman recognise herself as a member of a community with place and responsibility in it, and for the first

time finds her public spirit appealed to as a motive for action. That this membership is both real and appreciated, appears from the eager pride with which new comers accept the first small public office to which they are elected. A "fresh-woman" is an inch taller when she is secretary of a club, and the very "carriers of chairs and providers of caudles", for a debate or a concert have a cheerful consciousness of public service. The importance of this training is undeniable when we consider how little there is in a woman's home-life leading to that sense of citizenship so constantly called forth in the more active life of a man. It is important that a woman who returns from college to ordinary domestic duties should take with her the sense of public responsibility, that these duties may be seen and carried out in a larger spirit; while, now that more direct public action is becoming possible to women, it is of double importance that they should be trained to feel the responsibilities entailed.

Yet, while the need for such a training is increasing, there seems to be a retrogressive movement at work within the colleges, which more and more impairs its efficacy. Owing to the increasing importance of the larger girls' schools, and the numerous scholarships awarded on an examination for which school-work is the best preparation, together with the growing competition for work after leaving college, there is a strong tendency for girls to come up straight from school at the minimum age admitted. Consequently, the proportion of older and more thoughtful students becomes every year smaller. And *pari passu* there is growing up naturally enough, a habit of treating students as school-girls; rules and regulations multiply with the apparent need for them—a need which they foster in their turn, and the downward process seems interminable. Under present conditions, the feeling of responsibility and citizenship is promoted only through the comparatively trivial institutions begun and conducted by the students themselves. For in the actual government of the college, students have no voice; their part resolves itself into obedience to the authorities much as it did at school, a part which it is needless to say, in this democratic age, does not appeal much to the imagination or rouse the sense of responsibility. When, as is sometimes the case, the ultimate authority is vested in a committee, which holds its meetings at a distance from the college whose affairs it regulates, and is mainly composed of members unknown to the students, it is especially difficult for these latter to identify their own interests with those of the governing body.

I should like to suggest a double reform, both in the composition of the governing body and in the matters which it keeps under its own con-

trol. In the first respect, I suggest that present students should be permitted to elect a member, if not from among themselves, yet from among the resident lecturers, through whom this identification of interests might take place; in the second respect, that, while questions of finance and general policy be reserved for the college committee alone, the students should be allowed—through a representative body of residents, whether students or lecturers—to have a more decided voice in the regulation of the minor matters of internal government. This body might be consulting only, or might be permitted to decide these matters subject to the veto of the mistress, or even to over-ride her veto by a very large majority. However limited its power, short of its being an absolute farce, the existence of such a body would assuredly have the educative effect which is the great argument for universal suffrage, and, though it might very probably lead to the abolition of sundry small regulations, would certainly preclude the necessity for them. Still more certainly it would lead to a cheerful observance of all remaining rules, even such as are now obeyed “grudgingly and of necessity,” just as the stringent laws as to noise, laid down by the students for themselves, are observed as *pro bono publico* though often bearing hard on individuals. It may be said that, having admitted the increasing youthfulness of students, it is absurd to argue that they should be allowed a voice in their own government. But the points that I want to make are these:—(1) That students now come to college at an age when, if the conditions of their school-life are continued, they will remain school-girls, though probably rebellious ones, but which under more favourable conditions is the period of transition into womanhood; and (2) that the conditions of college life should tend so to effect this transition that students coming as school-girls may be sent out women, trained through citizenship in a small community to a sense of their citizenship in the state, and of their consequent duties and responsibilities. Journal of education.

M. E. LOWNDES.

MY ASSISTANT MASTERS.

By ASCOTT R. HOPE.

SOME time ago I was allowed a few columns of this organ to give an account of certain difficulties a schoolmaster may have with his boys; now, I would fain make my moan over the troubles I have had through assistant masters, a more troublesome race, in my experience, and I think some *emeriti* of the profession, at least, will sympathise with me. I

know less of the present state of things, when the teacher seems to be casting his humble slough and appearing fresh in his true character as an honourable minister of civilisation. These reminiscences, be it understood, date back to the consulship of Palmerston, before the scholastic market became glutted with a supply of university men, good, bad, and indifferent. In those days, we obscure *archididascali* who presided over second or third rate country grammar-schools, had to draw our officers largely from what may be called the non commissioned ranks of the educational army, a very Falstaff's regiment of incapables, most of whom had enlisted from despair of success in other occupations, and few such conscripts could hope to carry a headmaster's birch in his knapsack. Good men were to be found among them here and there, teachers born rather than made; but what could be expected of the motley mass to whom teaching was not so much a profession as an irksome resource for bare livelihood? It was natural that these unqualified and ill-paid hirelings should take little interest in their work, and that one found it hard to treat them as trustworthy colleagues, to whom one's juvenile sheep, themselves not over hungry for instruction, neither looked up to nor were fed by their lean and flashy attainments. Yet schools like mine, in its struggling days, had nothing for it but to pick and choose among this floating population of ushers, who came and went almost as often as flighty maid-servants, helped on from place to place by the testimonials which unconscientious or too good-natured employers were often glad to give by way of getting rid of them. Myself not ignorant of the agony of writing those dimissory recommendations so as to reconcile truth and charity, I had learned to be greatly distrustful of the testimonials of others in like case. I made a point also of never employing “scholastic agents.” Imagine, then, how often my holidays were soured by the task of engaging a new assistant, hoping less to find a pearl than fearing once more the chance of an empty shell. Is there one of my professional brethren of that era who can lay his hand on his heart and avow that he was never tempted to wink at the incompetence of his staff, willing rather to bear with known shortcomings than fly to others that might prove more intolerable?

Then the trouble of managing my didactic team when caught and harnessed! I have sometimes said in my haste that a poet is an emblem of eupeptic good nature and common sense compared to that truly irritable *genus* with whom I have had so much to do, while, like Mr. Browning's personage, I never knew but one poet in my life, and he never got the length of printing even at his own expense. I hope I give no offence in asserting that a certain touch of opinionativeness of self-

assertion, of bumpiousness even, has in my experience frequently alloyed the temperament that goes to make success as a teacher. Your modest and retiring man fails to impress himself on the elastic mind of youth. Parson Adams, we remember, thought a schoolmaster the greatest character in the world, and himself the greatest of all schoolmasters. Like that worthy, I trust that I am a foe to the silly passion of vanity, for his sermon on which he was so confident of obtaining admiration. It may be, however, that for this weakness some of us preachers against it have what has been aptly called "the keeneye of an accomplice." At all events, in dealings with those subordinates of mine, it has been my lot to feel how ready schoolmasters and not always the worst of schoolmasters, are to rub painfully against one another's angles, more so for instance, I think, than senior and junior officers of the army and navy, who, perhaps, find it easier to keep step in their professional exercises. The instructor of youth, bound to play the great man in a small way, bears like the Turk, no brother near his desk—even though it be but a satrap-throne. It takes a well-conditioned or well-trained nature to counteract the unwholesome effect of being so much a Gulliver among Lilliputians, an erudite comparison which, of course, one owes to Charles Lamb's essay on schoolmasters, where he so well handles the fault at which I hint.

One of my best masters, regarded simply as a gerundgrinding machine, was also one of the most ignorant and conceited fellows that ever failed to pass the London University matriculation. Though, after repeated attempts, he had given up this ordeal as a bad test of his powers, he was by no means unqualified for the work I required of him. In early youth, somehow or other, there had been hammered into him a certain mastery of the elements of Latin grammar, the rules of arithmetic, and the like; and such knowledge he had a remarkable knack of driving, in turn, into the hard heads of his pupils with the same thoroughness. It shows what a good teacher he was—using the word still in a narrow sense—that when I examined his boys, nearly every one of them would now and then be found making the same mistake, for which of course their master's ignorance, or his crib, was to blame. He took great interest in his work also, which I believe came mainly from the opportunity it gave him of posing as a pinchbeck Socrates before the indiscriminating audience of his class. Strange to say, the boys apparently did not find him out, but rather took the man at his own valuation, looking up to him, and even liking him, for he was a good-natured fellow at bottom so long as his uneasy vanity were duly propitiated by the incense of perfunctory reverence.

He made, then, an excellent drill sergeant for rudimentary learning, but as a colleague he was less desirable. I could not abide his airs of pretentious wisdom and strained gentility, the struts and smirks with which he thought to carry off his real emptiness. Then he was so touchy about his self-conscious dignity. I have known vain men whose conceit took a more amiable form, wrapping them like a blanket against all the troubles of life. There was one such lieutenant of mine who could hardly buy a postage stamp without being persuaded that the postmaster had picked out a superior representation of the Queen's head for his benefit, and went thus through the world happily convinced that all men were as well disposed towards him as he himself. But the character at present under consideration had in his self-satisfaction a somewhat ragged mantle that freely let in cold blasts from the judgment of his neighbours. His good opinion of his own merits stood in need of constant corroboration, perhaps through some gracious doubt, some glimmering of true wisdom, some "far-off touch of greatness to know well he was not great." So, while full of affectation as a peacock and obstinate as a mule, he was tormented by a jealous suspicion which kept him always on the *qui vive* to resent imaginary offences against that hungry vanity of his. It was set with a hair trigger that went off at the slightest touch. Naturally he was always quarrelling with his colleagues, and I had to be continually labouring to keep the peace among them, as well as to soothe his ruffled susceptibilities on my own account. As often as he sought a private interview with me, I used to pray for the patience of Job, knowing well to what sorcs I should have to supply a poultice.

If I had not valued the man for some points in him, I should never have taken so much trouble; as it was, I let him "submit his resignation," as he loftily phrased it, at least a dozen times, and still coaxed him back into temporary contentment, till at last he came to presume on my forbearance. We separated on a little matter—a question of vestments rather than doctrine. He had a way of aping the country gentleman in his attire, not successfully. I ventured delicately to remonstrate with him about a velvet jacket and certain sporting-like neckties which, if he but knew it, were most *criard* adornments of his somewhat flabby and slouching figure. My gentleman fired up at this, retorted by a *tu quoque* criticism on my won style of dress, and sent in his resignation winged by certain words of underbred insolence. I think he was sorry, on reflection, that this time it was accepted. I sought to part friends with him, but he remained resentfully implacable, and took leave of me by a letter in which I was reviled as unworthy of the character of a clergyman, much less of a gentleman, a phrase which, I dare say, tickled him rather by its sound than by any definite idea of its meaning. The boys pre-

sented him with a testimonial, and, I have little doubt, voted me a-tyrant. Thus he went his way, not without good wishes on my part, as well as fears for his future. I have since heard that he became a dissenting minister, and met with some acceptance in this vocation.

On the other hand, I have had assistants who erred from excess of modesty. Such a one was an ex-pupil whom, partly for his own sake, to give him an opportunity of further instruction, partly on account of economy, and partly as an experiment, I kept on in the house to teach the junior form and look after my boarders. I never made a greater mistake. The poor fellow was an epitome of all the invertebrate virtues, but only too conscious of his want of back-bone. He could not say *Bo* to a goose, much less to a boy. With this softness of character, he was severely handicapped by the fact of having been the schoolfellow of many of these boys over whom he must now play, in a sort, the part of ruler, while he never got over his awe of me as his old master. The boys, who led him a woeful life of it with their pranks, nicknamed him Mr. Toots; and, indeed, he had a ludicrous resemblance to that personage, which alone would have been enough to destroy his authority among them. How often have I seen him hanging about to catch me alone, that he might make some timid complaint or seek some needless counsel. "He used to be always coming to me with the construing of simple sentences in the *Delectus*, as to which he distrusted his own judgment. "I tried hard to encourage this modest youth, but it seemed easier to prop up a pillow-case so that it might stand alone; and I found rather extra labour for myself than assistance in the services of such an unmasterful master."

Mr. Toots' scholastic career lasted just six weeks. I shall never forget the last scene of it. I had procured a well-known bishop to give away the prizes, and, for the more ceremonious performance of this function, had erected a platform in the large schoolroom, whereon sat enthroned his eloquent lordship, with myself and the governors of the school on his right hand, and on his left the assistant masters. They, however, finding themselves too prominent in this situation, had one by one slipped down to mingle with their boys, all but Mr. Toots, who though ill ease, had not the courage to make a move. There he sat alone in his glory, wearing for the first time in his life a long-tailed coat and high collars that half hid his smooth pink cheeks. What was his confusion when the bishop, after duly soft-soaping me, turned round with—"and to his able and excellent staff of assistant masters!" Here he found no one but the blushing Mr. Toots to represent the staff, on whose head the orator proceeded to pour a torrent of smooth eloquence, under which the

awkward youth was petrified in open-mouthed consternation, his face red as a peony, hardly daring to breathe, shrunk up on his chair, and I feared he would fall off from sheer bewilderment. The boys afterwards declared that his hair stood on end while the bishop was haranguing him at such close quarters. He certainly looked most miserable till the speech was finished, when the applause came, mingled with a roar of laughter at his most evident plight of dismay.

It doesn't do always, however, to trust to a modest demeanour, for I have had an assistant who looked as if butter wouldn't melt in his mouth, and who so flattered and deferred to me at first that I conceived a high opinion of his judgment; but, by-and-bye, when his claws grew, he turned out one of the most cantankerous men I ever was troubled with. After the experience of Mr. Toots, I made a mistake of another kind in engaging a master as much too old as he was too young. This gentleman was already a grey-haired paterfamilias, well-to-do also, who late in life had the fancy of being ordained. He was represented to me as taking a great interest in education, and willing to serve for next to no salary on consideration of my giving him a title to orders. Such a gift-horse I did not care to look closely in the mouth; but, when too late, I found how ill he went in harness. He had, indeed, a certain zeal for his new work, though not according to knowledge; he was a well-meaning man in his way, but unpunctual, irascible, obstinate, and full of fads, with which he insisted on experimenting at the cost of my school. How was I to rebuke a man old enough to be my father, who showed a disposition from the first to snub me instead of submitting his inexperience to my authority? Our relations were always delicate, and soon became strained. From remonstrances it grew to disputes, the ladies of the two families, also, not hitting it off with each other; then at every hitch my unmanageable assistant used to fire up and refer me to his solicitor. At length things came to a sad pass in which he is said to have told a naughty boy, "If I were on speaking terms with the headmaster, sir, I would have you caned!" He did not stick at abusing me to the boys, and all over the town, where he met with considerable acceptance in society, and was able to pose, at my expense, as a martyr of noble-minded educational enthusiasm. The worst of it was that, the bishop having granted him a title on his mastership, I could not get rid of him at will, defended by the regis of that episcopal protector. For two years I had to stagger along with such a burdensome old man of the sea on my shoulders; and, when at last I was able to cast him off, I resolved never again to take an assistant master for the sake of cheapness.

This was an Irishman. I have an odd reminiscence of a Scotch dominie, who had somehow drifted into our southern latitudes. An M.A. of Aberdeen, and a man of years and experience; he came with excellent testimonials, and seemed well up to his work; yet from the first I had a vague idea that there must be something wrong about him. If he were so good as represented, how did he come to have changed his situation so often? and why should he accept mine at a salary hardly tempting to a younger and less qualified man? Such were the questions I asked myself, and kept a doubtful eye on his début, as one watches a new horse warranted sound and free from vice, of which yet one has got so good a bargain as to be suspicious of some fault.

Our northerner, however, went quietly along like a well-trained steed, showing no sign of bolting or rearing or shirking his work. His paces, indeed, were not showy, which pleased me just as well. He seemed the very man I wanted for the younger boys—quiet, sensible, orderly, and patient, an assistant of all work, and not above the petty details of his duty. The worst of him was his uncommunicativeness. You never caught him opening his lips except in the way of business. He made no friends, not even among his colleagues, but, school once over, retired to his humble lodgings and there spent his time in studies or occupations of his own. He gave us the impression of a fossil usher of the old school, rusted over with an impervious coating of Caledonian reserve. Many attempts were made in vain to draw him out. My wife and I had him to dinner, clad in an ancient suit of black, "courtly once and conscientious still," that had no doubt appertained to his early ambition, as what the French translator termed *un prêtre assassiné*. Like so many of his kind, he had tried and failed to wag his head in a Scotch pulpit. He accepted our hospitality in the same painful spirit of duty as he brought to his class, eating and drinking such things as were offered him and not speaking unless when spoken to. We were as far off as, before from knowing the man. Then I took him a walk one Saturday afternoon. Still I could not strike a gleam of interest out of him, till just as we came back to the town all at once I saw his dull eye light up behind those thick spectacles which seemed part of the man himself. I had happened to touch on a theological work lately published to advance novel theories as to the book of Daniel. "Man! the fellow knows nae mair about it than any auld wife that never saw the Scriptures in the original!" he exclaimed with sudden vehemence, relapsing into the strong Scotch accent which in his ordinary conversation had been toned down by years of southern sojourn. "Bishops and scholars and doctors of divinity, a' at sea, a' in the dark! a' blind to the prophecies, and none will open his eyes when the truth is shown him clear as daylight!"

It all came out with a rush. My wooden assistant, whom I had supposed wholly destitute of imagination was living in a world of the loftiest visions hidden from all other eyes. To him alone out of a world of men, as he believed, had been revealed a key of those mysterious prophecies over which so many biblical scholars have addled their brains in all ages.

Fairly carried off my feet by the sudden irruption of this lava-flood pent up beneath such a cold exterior, I hardly knew what to say; and I fear my civil expressions of interest misled the man into taking me as on the high road to conviction. He hustled me forthwith into his attic rooms, and there eagerly spread out before me certain long strips of linen, on which, with the queerest emblems and devices, he had symbolically mapped out the whole course of history, past, present, and future, as made clear in the light of his discovery. His hand trembled and his voice had a strange thrill in it as he hurried me along the outlines of that scheme of his. It was a wild jumble of horns and beasts, thrones and kingdoms, dates and dreams, even at the time almost incomprehensible to an amazed sceptic like myself; but the upshot of it came to this, that Louis Napoleon was destined to restore the Jews to Palestine, as prelude to the end of the world. Now, that potentate had just been driven into exile, which I could not help mentioning as a hitch in the course of events thus foretold; but my expounder of prophecy gave no importance to this objection. Of course, he said, the Emperor would be restored, since his theory so required.

"I have often written to him, but the Emperor never answers me," he said; and his dull unconsciousness to all such rebuffs was infinitely pathetic. He went on to tell me of his hopes and plans, showing a faith that struck me dumb with admiring sadness. For years, it appeared, he had been saving out of his slender salary, and had now almost got together enough to buy a magic-lantern and slides, by the aid of which he trusted to bring the "scheme" down to the meanest capacity. With this convincing apparatus he meant to travel the country, and made no doubt of being able to convert the whole nation when once the matter was put clearly before it. In the meantime, his main trouble was that those English landladies of his could not properly concoct the porridge on which he would fain live, causing him to spend with bakers and butchers money that would else have been devoted to that one absorbing interest.

What could one say to him? I had not the heart to laugh at this honest enthusiast, nor even to disturb him in his *gratissimus error*. I had a secret envy of the man for whom such a magnificent delusion was meat, drink, and clothing against all the ills of life. To spend one's days in

useful, patient labour, and to have an abiding dream like this for pastime—were it not better than any measure of worldly honour or prosperity? I could only back out of the controversy to which he confidently invited me; and I also thought well to throw out a strong hint that the subject of prophecy was not in our school course. I shall never forget the downcast look with which the poor man showed me to the door. All the light had gone out of his eyes, once more glassily lifeless as his spectacles. He had thought to find a convert, and perhaps for the thousandth time had been disappointed when his disciple became transformed again into a scholastic employer.

After that, you may be sure, I had a sharper eye than ever upon his work. It was to be feared that as Mr. Dick could not keep the head of Charles I, out of his interminable memorial, so sooner or later this interpreter of prophecy would seek to impress his peculiar views upon the young minds given him to inoculate with sound doctrines in history and geography. Sure enough, before long, one of the small boys opened himself to my wife on certain uncanny tales of beasts and horns with which Mr. — had been alarming his pupils susceptible imagination. He took to lecturing in the town-hall also, and brought down our local pastors upon me. The end of it was that I had to get rid of him, with sincere regret. I have never heard of him since, but I often wonder what has become of the man, and how, after Napoleon's death in exile, he managed to piece out that sad rent to the scheme of prophecy. I make little doubt he found means of explaining away to himself even such a fatal *hiatus* in his hieroglyphic manuscripts which, I fancy, have not yet attained to magic lantern publication.

As the school flourished in my hands, I was able to improve my staff both in quantity and in quality. Mary and I thought it a bold step in advance when we first went to the expense of engaging a wrangler. We heard of a gentleman who had taken a high place in the classical as well as in the mathematical tripos, and, after due correspondence, we came to terms without thinking it necessary in such a case to insist on a personal interview or even a photograph of our illustrious candidate. Imagine our mortification when he turned out to be a dwarf, suffering from chronic ill-health, and with a shrill, squeaky voice that set the boys on the grin as soon as they heard it. With his hat on, for he was almost bald, he had a singularly juvenile appearance; the day of his arrival, indeed, he was taken for a new boy and subjected to familiar indignities in the playground. Then he was a misanthrope, who shunned the company of other men, but actually hated boys, and had no idea of teaching beyond flying into a passion with his class when the comprehension of

Virgil and Euclid did not come as natural to them as to himself. Withal, he was pleased rather to look down on me because my university career has not been so distinguished as his own. There could be no doubt of his cleverness after a sort; he never said a foolish thing—unless on the frequent occasions when he lost his temper—and never did a wise one. As he was utterly incapable of preserving discipline, too shortsighted even to perceive when the boys were playing the fool right before his nose, you may guess what a help he was to me as second master. I hardly durst turn my back on the school room so long as I must leave such a viceroy in charge.

Space fails me to tell of all the disappointments, I had in masters who at first promised fairly. There was the muscular Christian assistant, scarcely weaned from the ways of a very rough public school, whom I imported to raise our athletic tone, but who ultrazonously and illegally took to beating the boys with such Spartan gusto as to bring down angry parents upon me. There was that "gentle Johnian" who played the dandy and fell in love with his pupils' sisters to a scandalous extent. There was the accomplished foreigner, familiar with the language and perhaps with the criminal procedure of almost every country in Europe, who turned out to be an arrant knave, wanted by the police. There was the literary usher I had to dismiss for drunkenness, who has since contributed to a popular religious magazine a story of school life in which if I mistake not, I appear as villain of the piece. There was the elegant Parisian who mistook my wife's kindly interest for a warmer sentiment—but that reminiscence were best committed to faithful silence.

It may seem that I dwell too much on the black sheep among my assistants. I ought not to forget the many good men for whose services I have been most thankful at the time, *fortemque Gyan, fortemque Cloanthum*.—But alas! it is the evil such men do that lives chiefly in one's memory. I will conclude, however, by mentioning one of my most successful experiments in teaching power. Once, a junior master being ill, Mary volunteered to take his class, and this innovation, after a little bewilderment on both sides, so justified itself as to put us on engaging a good governess for the youngest boys. Of course I did not make such an important choice without counsel of my wife, always the most trustworthy of my assistants; and we finally went up to town and engaged a young lady, whom between ourselves we used to call *Gruyère*. To explain this little private joke of ours, you must be let know that before concluding the arrangement we appointed an interview with her at a well-known restaurant swept away by recent metropolitan improvements. Mary and I had agreed artfully to draw her out during lunch, and had fixed upon a code of signals by which at the end of the meal we should

communicate to each other the opinion we had formed of our candidate. If we liked her very much we were to order Gruyère cheese ; if fairly well, Stilton ; if we thought she might possibly do, Cheddar ; while no cheese was to mean decided disapproval. We both ordered Gruyère. Then she said she would take the same cheese ; and we accepted it as a good augury.

Miss "Gruyère" remained with us for years, and, once a certain prejudice on the boys' part had been got over, became such a useful wheel in our machinery, that I would suggest the example to my fellow dominies. The best scholars have not always the sympathy and patience indispensable for a good teacher, especially of small boys, and I believe that women less often fail in these qualities. I am advocating ; but, on the whole, I think its results would be favourable both morally and intellectually. The very presence of a lady must let in daylight on the old coarseness and brutality of English schools. These characteristics, indeed are fast going out of date, and I myself have played my small part in the reformation. There is nothing now in the discipline of good schools from which a lady need shrink. On the whole, the change from Busby and Boyer is for the best. Yet, in my hesitating mood, I sometimes wonder whether future generations of Englishmen will turn out as good French-fighting and world-subduing animals as those who were so unmercifully hacked at Rugby or tunded at Winchester. It is a source of weakness in me to be a Conservative at heart, while a Liberal on principle ; thus, in all the improvement by which I raised a decayed country grammar school to a fair standing, my mind seldom failed to be clouded by a doubt which perhaps enfeebled my authority, and brought about for me more trouble than most headmasters have from their assistants. (*Journal of Education*)

FAMILIAR TALK BY A HIGH SCHOOL TEACHER OF ENGLISH, MEANT TO BE OVERHEARD BY GRAMMAR SCHOOL TEACHERS.

In consequence of the enormous expansion of written examinations as an instrument of supervision, and of written work generally as a handy tool of almost universal application in the hands of the teacher, certain evils have got lodgement in the schools that peculiarly concern those of us who are teachers of English, but yet concern us all in no slight manner, since in all departments our pupils express themselves, either orally or in writing, in English, and by their neatness or slovenliness of language, their clearness or obscurity of sentence management, their goodness or badness of penmanship, their skill or awkwardness of thought-ordering as expressed in paragraphing, their ability or inability

to use punctuation as a means of facilitating the reading of their work, their command or lack of command of spelling, may immensely interfere or lessen our drudgery, may set the cynics at work upon making such books as "English as she is spoke," or may win golden opinions for our school from all sorts of people. For the public will inevitably refrain from examining our graduates in Latin and the sciences, but will surely examine them in English ; and a blundering, feeble use of the mother tongue will come to light, will, always be deemed a disgrace that reflects upon teachers, who will be held guilty of not knowing how to speak and write themselves, since they could not teach these fundamentals to their pupils. We are all concerned with our pupils' English.

Now I find that my pupils' English is very unsatisfactory when they come from the grammar school. I refer to the elements and rudiments of good writing as pupils ought to come furnished with beyond all dispute, viz : penmanship, spelling, punctuation, use of capital letters, and a fundamental sentence-sense which should secure an invariably correct syntax for short and simple sentences. It is irrelevant to my expression of discontent with my pupils' English to say that these pupils come from families lacking in culture. They come from the schools. The families lack geography and arithmetic as well as language. So far as concerns knowledge,—and geography and arithmetic are especially concerned with knowledge,—the schools do not come under my censure at this moment. And so far as language is concerned with a knowledge of what ought to be done, I find no fault. I think the pupils that come to the high schools generally know what were good to be done. But they do not do it. But the use of one's native language is a habit. It does not depend on knowledge acquired and possessed, but on knowledge transmuted into unconscious and automatic habit. Here, I submit, the schools fail.

If a pupil possesses the rules of good writing only as knowledge, the application of these rules to concrete cases of writing requires constant thought, and is difficult. It is so difficult that if another considerable difficulty is at the same time imposed upon him, namely, the task of evolving from a not very fully commanded fund of knowledge of another subject, the proper answers to questions set him as in an examination, he is driven to some economy or other of effort from sheer inability to carry the whole load. He will economize where he can with impunity, or with the most impunity, or where he will be least censured for dereliction. If such conditions as I have described are often repeated, the pupil forms the habit of concentrating his effort where it will most tell upon results. If he gets marks and promotions while neglecting his English, he has all motives that can weigh with

him for neglecting his language, and he practices this neglect till the habit of negligent expression is formed, and then he is lost. It is now too late to recover the opportunity. Hard studies press in the high school, and for the breaking up of an inveterate habit there is no chance.

It seems to me undeniable that our juniors come with habits of expression established, and that too of bad expression. I venture moreover to attribute these bad habits of expression to wrong methods of teaching, and to assert with confidence that the present evil case can be righted by correcting the methods of teaching in the earliest years.

An adult person, writing clearly and correctly without conscious effort, may be held responsible for writing down his thoughts, his processes of reasoning. A beginner in writing must be treated with utmost tenderness. A written examination should not be thought of till much later than, I believe, it is usually brought into use. I wish it were possible to announce at what point of the school course a pupil may be regarded as possessing the power of written expression as an instrument which will bear hard usage, and only grow better by use. This time is apt to be anticipated. A written exercise has so many

inconveniences that the temptations are to use it too soon and too frequently and with too much depending on it in the way of credits and promotion. I doubt if written examinations proper should be used at all before the high school.

If the baby is set upon its little legs before the bones are hardened, the bones will bend and then harden, and the consequence is a permanent deformity. I know a physician whose hobby is that the present generation is losing its strength of jaw because it eats food too soft; and he accordingly makes a jaw-breaking cracker which he thinks we should consume in large quantities. He does not recommend his crackers, however, for teething infants.

To particularize a little:

Only the maturest pupils should be set to writing to express their thought as in an examination, where the object is to show the accuracy, clearness and extent with which the thought is possessed. This is to require the skilled use of an instrument which is not bought ready made like a carpenter's plane, but grows, like the teeth and the muscles; but, unlike the teeth and the muscles, is not a physical organ that can be tested by visible results, but is elusive, and may be, by undiscerning observers, surmised to exist in full development when it is as yet only in a rudimentary state.

The first essays at writing have to do with the formation of the letters; that is, the child learns how to write,—penmanship. The child is not long in learning to recognize the script letters, and to make them with

his pencil in his crude, awkward fashion. But to make them, with some regularity and elegance, with uniformity of size and slope, requires much time. For this slow development of skill we usually fail to allow sufficient opportunity. But the child will not improve much in his handwriting if he is set to using his little rudimentary power in writing sentences which he has to compose, and which he makes barely legible. He ought to be kept a good while in the pure penmanship stage of development before he is promoted to the thought-expressing stage. Just as soon as he is put to expressing his thoughts in writing, the penmanship, pure and simple, sinks into the background, and is liable to remain thereafter permanently in the stage of arrested development in which it stood when a new purpose in writing other than to write well was adopted.

Not until a fairly good penmanship is acquired should the use of capitals and punctuation-marks be taught. And all this should be taught so slowly and with such careful supervision of the pupils' work, that an error should not be often repeated, and should certainly not be suffered to become habitual. That gross carelessness in writing should become habitual in a school, is not merely a *prima facie* argument against the school methods; it is an absolute condemnation of them. It is a failure that cannot be apologized for.

It seems to me right to expect of the grammar schools good results in penmanship, spelling, punctuation, use of capitals, and in the syntax of simple sentences. A silly custom prevails of apologizing for poor spellers. Poor spelling makes a person ridiculous. The consciousness that one cannot spell accurately, makes one, even in mature life, timid about ever writing anything except letters to one's closest intimates. This timidity is a perpetual check to usefulness and freedom.

That a pupil should graduate from a great school system still a poor speller and that his teachers should apologize for him in the usual well-known way of making light of spelling as a trifling matter, argues a feeble, sentimental discipline in the schools. Bad spelling can be rooted out of a school by vigorous measures; or rather can be kept out and prevented from getting in by the right kind of discipline. When it has become habitual and has to be extirpated, then the task is difficult.

The other day I read to a class a little story in poetic form by Southey, and let them tell the story in writing. To relieve them from anxiety about the spelling of the proper names I wrote all these names on the blackboard and called the attention of the class to them. And still one or two pupils spelled some of them wrong. This was of course

not a defect of knowledge. It was the result of habitual unconsciousness of the form of words,—of a lazy disregard of the great, momentous fact of the English language that words in that language have a spelling. Again, I recently gave a pupil the task to write an abstract of a *Spectator*, she having the text of the essay before her. She spelled the word *enemy* wrong, having first carefully studied the paragraph, the sentence in which it occurred. She simply spelled with a blind disregard of sequences, never having felt in her school life any consequences of bad spelling which she could not afford to disregard. In what ancient state was it that they used to take the boys out periodically to the boundaries and flog them there, that they might, as adult citizens, always know where the boundaries were.

That a pupil spells badly is not due to lack of knowledge of the right spelling, so much as to a general slackness of perception; and this feebleness of perception is primarily owing to inadequate training in school. Every child would exclaim against a picture of a horse with horns; not every child would exclaim against a picture of a horse with eleven feet though many would; still fewer would object to a picture of acorns growing in connection with chestnut foliage; and but few adults need Mr. Rider Haggard's curious dislocations of the moon and her changes. Everybody has observed certain phenomena with more or less success, and uses his successful observations in daily life in describing correctly and in criticizing those who report or invent vaguely and absurdly. Now every child reads English with his eyes and sees the spelling of words in print, whether he notices horses' hoofs, the leaves and fruit of trees, the phases of the moon, or not. He sees, and yet does not see, sometimes. He sees his printed words so feebly and vaguely perhaps, that what he has seen gets confused with what he hears, and he tries to spell what he hears according to some idea he has formed of the value of the letters. I should say that the pedagogic procedures proper in early school years to secure the formation of habits of observation with regard to the forms of words were neither obscure nor difficult of application. The sentimentalism of to-day is, I know, averse to the encouragement of these procedures. But the English language is not going to be spelled otherwise than it is now spelled; and the absurdity of bad spelling of common words will not diminish. Heroic treatment is the only resource. We are apt to speak of incorrigible bad spellers; and I believe the pedagogic custom is to acquiesce in the bad spelling of certain pupils as a decree of the fates which it is of no use to lament, much as it may be deplored. But your most incorrigible bad speller overturns these fates of your

imagination the moment he has a motive for doing so. Let him find that his chance of getting on in the world depends on reforming his spelling, and he will reform it. That is, serious considerations weigh with him, when no school considerations ever had weighed with him. The school considerations were not serious. They were make-believe. It was playing school. The motives were light. The critics who laugh so consumedly over the blunders of school-taught youth in their use of their own language, hint that the teachers themselves know no better; that the teachers teach the best they know, and that the pupils learn all they were taught. One would think there was motive enough for teachers to rouse themselves and to try to send out pupils whose performance should redound to the credit of the schools.

Besides penmanship, punctuation, use of capitals, spelling, I think that the grammar schools should also train their pupils in the syntax of simple sentences, or should so establish in their pupils' mental habits the *sentence-sense*, that it would be practically impossible for a grammar-school graduate to write as a sentence, that is in the form of a sentence, what was really not a sentence at all. The great truth of all language is that the unit of speech is the *sentence*, and that groups of words must have an inner organic structure in order to correspond with the processes of thought, while we older persons may know it scientifically, must be instilled in the unconscious minds of learners as habit. A pupil should have discourse on the psychology of the sentence till very late in his school course; but he should come from the grammar school incapable of writing anything but sentences as expressions of his thought. He should moreover be trained to content himself with short, simple sentences. By no means do I mean that a pupil should be required to give all his oral answers or even all his written expressions in formally complete sentences. It often happens that a subject or predicate may be borrowed from the context so obviously that to write everything or to say every thing becomes a bit of pedantry,—a procedure that I believe is recommended by some zealous teachers, but which, I submit, interferes with naturalness and so lames the effect of the most pains-taking instruction. The rule should be, never to leave any element unexpressed to the least sacrifice of perfect clearness and ease of reading. Make yourself, my dear learner, perfectly clear in the conventional intelligible forms of speech; and remember that your eccentricities of language amuse a carping world, and except from your mother, will nowhere meet with indulgence.

It seems to me quite possible that pupils in our grammar schools write too much.

When these pupils come to the high school they have too much fluency for their correctness. Very plainly, they have been accustomed to write often and rapidly, under no sufficient sense of responsibility for the quality of their work. Even in our own higher classes I find pupils who seem genuinely astonished and grieved that I should be so particular about little things in their writing. I am not nearly so particular as a compositor or proof-reader would be, or a magazine editor. The editor has his dreadful waste-basket. To keep out of that, a *debutante* contributor will strain every nerve. I have only the terrors of my marking and I am expected to overlook small things. As if in using one's native language there were any small things; or rather, as if the so-called small things were not here large things.

Pupils should write during the formative period,—even though the formative period lasts all the way through the high and normal school course,—only so much as can be examined by the teacher. It would naturally seem superfluous to say this, were it not that the practice prevails very widely, under the sanction of high authority, of letting whole classes write and then examining the work of a few individuals.

This practice I most emphatically reprobate. I do not see how any aided improvement can be expected, where improvement seems to me clearly to be needed, that is, in the earlier years of English teaching, unless this evil practice be altogether abolished. And yet I would not here, any more than elsewhere, lay down a hard and fast rule. A teacher may often see the way clear to let pupils correct each other's work, and so, as it were, delegate his function as corrector of errors, not only without impairing, but even with the result to enhance, the efficiency of his supervision. But I have heard announced, what I will not shrink from calling the monstrous and immoral doctrine, that a teacher of large classes may have many pupils write in the expectation that their work is to be examined, when he himself does not intend it, and may return to them their papers as if he had read them when he has not done so. The maxim we learn to write by writing,—needs to be supplemented with the addition that would make it,—by writing ill one only learns to write ill, unless the badness is weeded out and only, goodness left as the model for the next exercise. No teacher can read numerous papers daily and do them justice, it will be said. But I reply, the papers can be made very short, and their frequency can be diminished. This is the way out of the dilemma. When pupils write very well, their work can be read rapidly. Pupils who can be implicitly trusted to write well may be exempted from more or less of the writing that those who need the discipline may have to be held to more regularly.

(The academy)

