Always active. While in school, keeping himself and his pupils constantly employed. Out of school, employing his time in such a manner as to prove a blessing to himself and others. In small schools there is every temptation to be indolent, but a conscientious teacher will (if the small number of his scholars cannot keep him constantly engaged) employ himself in gaining information which will be exclusively for the benefit of those under his charge.

Not only makes good rules but keeps them. Always conquers difficulties-dishonest boys and girls included. Bears with the children's obtuseness, and is patient in teaching. All teachers need perseverance, some, however, more than others, on account of the more discouragements he has to contend against. tiness of the furnishing of the school house, the smallness of the number of children who attend, the negligence and indifference of the parents to the interests of education, and the discontentment of others all tend to discourage them, but a good teacher will surmount these difficulties, and do ALL that he ought to do.

Knowledge equal to, and beyond, what his pupils need to know. A thorough understanding of the branches he is required to teach. Better for him not to attempt to teach any subject which he only partially knows than to fill the young mind with confused ideas which he himself is unable to clear away. Also, should be a diligent and studious reader of good and sound works. Scarcely any person can put vast reading to such a useful purpose as a good practical teacher. Almost every day he can illustrate and explain many things which he would be quite unable to do were he not an exten-

Able to communicate his own knowledge to his pupils, so that they shall clearly understand him. Ability to keep up the attention of the scholars and make them love their studies. promote ambition in such away as not to produce jealousy or hatred amongst themselves. Loves ORDER and keeps it. Though he had all the other qualifications, yet if he were not "apt to teach" he would be unsuccessful as a teacher.

One who has repented of his sins, given his heart to the Saviour, believed upon him and now loves and serves God. A moral teacher is better than a vicious one, a christian better than either. It is universally allowed that the character and disposition of the man almost entirely depend upon the influence exercised by the parents and teacher upon the child. How potent for good, then, must be the influence of the christian teacher upon the pupils of his school; His holy example will never be forgotten by them, and who knows but that it may be the means of leading many of them, either in their youth or in after years, to give their hearts to the Saviour who wept, and bled, and died for all?

J. S. ROSS.

Wallace, Oct. 22, 1866.

V. Lapers on the English Language.

1. INTRICACIES OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

The construction of the English language must appear most formidable to a foreigner. One of them, looking at a picture of a number of vessels, said, "See what a flock of ships!" He was told that a flock of ships was called a fleet, and that a fleet of sheep was called a flock. And it was added, for his guidance in mastering the intricacies of our language, that "a flock of girls is called a bevy, that a bevy of wolves is called a pack, and a pack of thieves is called a gang, and a gang of angels is called a host, and a host of porpoises is called a shoal, and a shoal of buffaloes is called a herd, and a herd of children is called a troop, and a troop of partridges is called a covey, and a covey of beauties is called a galaxy, and a galaxy of ruffians is called a horde, and a horde of rubbish is called a heap, and a heap of oxen is called a drove, and a drove of blackguards is called a mob, and a mob of whales is called a school, and a school of worshippers is called a congregation, and a congregation of engineers is called a corps, and a corps of robbers is called a band, and a band of locusts is called a swarm, and a swarm of people is called a crowd."—The Canadian Churchman.

2. ON THE ORIGIN, AND ANALYSIS OF WORDS.

The following exposition of the crude form of teaching etymology is extracted from a paper upon this subject read at a recent meeting of the British Teachers' Association, by Mr. J C. Curtis, B. A.

Those who are familiar with practical education need not be told that there is no subject in which the untrained and partially educated teacher more signally fails than in etymology. His attempt to analyze words and to explain their meanings is generally unsatisfactory, and too often is a signal failure; and this is due, in part, to It is very important that teachers should be careful in distinguishtory, and too often is a signal failure; and this is due, in part, to the fact that our language contains a large number of words derived ing between "related words" and "derived words,"—that is befrom classical sources. These words do not at once suggest their tween words that come from the same source, and those which are

signification to those unfamiliar with Latin and Greek. Had our language descended to us from the Anglo Saxon without any material additions from the Latin, Greek, and French, the task of explaining words would have been greatly lightened, for many of them would have been compounds, and the children, knowing the meaning of the component parts, would have readily grasped the meaning of the whole word. Thus we should have had staff-craft (A. S. stæfcræft), letter-craft for grammar; book-craft (bóc-cræft) for literature; rime-craft (rim-cræft), number-craft for arithmetic; flite-craft (flit-cræft), contention-craft for logic; leech-craft (læce-cræft) for the art of medicine; ship-craft (scip-cræft) for the art of navigation; earth-tilth (corthe-tilth) for agriculture; oath-lian (ath-loga) for perjury; book-house (boc-hus) for library; borough-speech (burhspræc) for urbanity; death wic (death-wic) for sepulchre.

Marsh reminds us that in abandoning some of the Saxon forms we have experienced a loss both in the beauty and force of our language. One group of very significant words began with the prefix for,—such as forbled, faint from bleeding; fordo, to ruin; forwined, dwindled away; forfoughten, tired with fighting; forpined, wasted away; forwept, weary with weeping. So the loss sustained was great when we exchanged wanhope for despair, and wantrust for

jealousy or suspicion.

In our language we still preserve some compounds, such as thunderstorm, thundercloud, earthquake, handicraft, &c.; and as the separate elements are significant, they are among the most expressive words in our language. And there would have been no difficulty in constructing compound terms for scientific technicalities, such as bone-craft for osteology, and shell-craft for conchology. The German nomenclature is formed on this principle, and the words, therefore, present no difficulty; but as ours are usually taken from the Greek, it is necessary for us (would we know their exact etymological signification) to study to some extent Greek forms.

Our Latin derivatives come to us either directly from the Latin, or indirectly through the French. The latter, in many cases, have undergone considerable change, arising either from euphonic preferences or phonetic decay. The French preferred the ch to the sharp guttural c (for c was always hard in Latin): and thus we have L. caro, F. chair; L. camera, F. chambre, E. chamber; L. cantus, F. chant, E. chant; L. capella, F. chapelle, E. chapel; L. caritas, F. chartie, E. charity; L. carren, F. charme, E. charm; L. castigare, (O. F. chastier), F. chatier, E. chastise . L. caballus, F. cheval; L. catena, F. chaine, E. chain; L. capitulum, F. chapitre, E. chapter.

Again, the addition of the labial b is found after liquid labial m: as L. numerare, F. nombre, E. number; L. camera, F. chambre, E. chamber; L. humilis, F. and E. humble; L. tremulare, F. trembler, E. tremble; L. simulare, F. sembler, E. (re)semble.

The tendency to contract words, which we have already referred to as quite natural, has operated largely in changing or modifying the forms of words. Thus L. precari becomes F. prier (preari), E. pray; L. duplicare, F. doupler (dupliare), E. double; L. maritare, F. marier (mariare), E. marry; L. securus, F. sur (seurus), E. sure; L. regalis, F. royal (realis), E. royal.

Another change was produced by the inability or the indisposition of the Celtic tribes to pronounce an initial s before a consonant; thus L. stabilare became O. F. establir, and M. F. établir, to establish; L. status, O. F. estat, M. F. état. In these and similar cases the English word was introduced before the French had reached its last

Very many words in our language are derived immediately from the Latin; and these, as before remarked, present difficulty both in explaining the origin and the meaning. It appears to me that this difficulty would be much diminished if a more judicious method of deduction and analysis were employed. Both authors of grammars and teachers seem to assume, though quite unwarrantbly, that our derivatives have been built up from the nominative case of the substantive and the adjective, and from the first person of the present tense of the verb. Sometimes the nominative and the genitive cases are given, without any reason assigned, as "grex, gregis, a flock." Sometimes a column is given of representatives, as, "sedeo, I sit, sessum, sat, sed, sid, sess, sieg," but no explanation is attempted in regard to their representatives. Now the crude-form method of teaching etymology is interesting and philosophical, and may, particularly with older pupils, cultivate valuable habits of comparison-

By a crude form is meant the base of all the forms actually employed,—the naked word directed of all that is accidental. The nominative case is a word, and something more. In its full and olden form it always has a letter s at the end, which is no part of the true word, but is employed to show the relation that exists between that word and the other part of the sentence. So the o of the first person of the present indicative represents the pronoun I, and the ere