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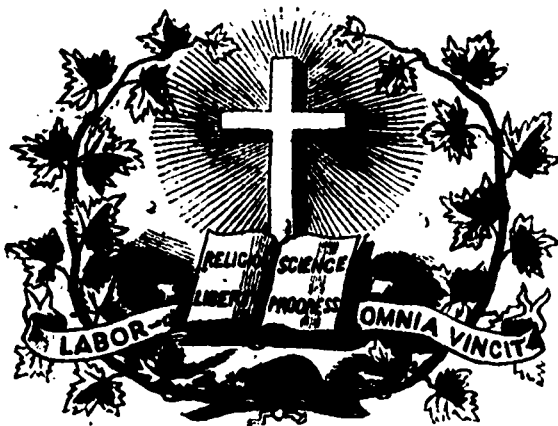
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THE

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Those who do not recognise my quotation will think I have found an English Coriolanus; but these are the words of the republican Milton.

Now in some cases this strong but ignorant body feels its own ignorance, and is content to be led by the hand—possibly even by the nose. It grumbles indeed at the lawyers; but they make fun of it, and get in into such a pickle that at last it excites the compassion even of the heads of the profession themselves, and men like Lord Selborne and Lord Cairns turn law reformers. It grumbles at the doctors, but it swallows their physic and pays their fees. But it adopts a very different tone with the clergyman and the schoolmaster. Here public opinion asserts its rights, and is not to be hoodwinked by any of your professional hocus pocus. There is no man so means as not to think himself the equal of the parson in theology and of the schoolmaster in education. "Every Englishman has a right to his opinion." Of course he has. He has also a right to shut his eyes when he is crossing Cheapside; and if his opinion happens to be erroneous, his right in the one case is just as valuable as in the other.

All teachers have had to do with a kind of public opinion in their pupils; and they will have found that the one thing which the public, young or old, steadily and doggedly refuses to do, is *to think*. One finds this sometimes with beginners in geometry. They are ready to adopt any statement you like, if they fancy they can defend themselves with it and escape thinking. You may get them to say that all angles are equal, or that two straight lines always enclose a space—anything, everything, rather than think what they are saying. Grown public opinion is perhaps not quite so receptive as this. But it has various ingenious ways for escaping thought, the handiest being to catch up some stock phrase, and without considering its limitations, or even its exact meaning, to bring it in on all occasions as an axiom from which there can be no appeal. Many hundred years ago some one, actuated no doubt by the purest philanthropy (for he evidently wished to prevent the writing of bad poetry), invented one of these phrases, which seems capable of doing any amount of duty—the poet is born, not made. Upon this public opinion

On the Training of Young Teachers.

BY REV. H. H. QUICK, M. A., Professor to the College.

(Delivered at the College of Preceptors, 17 Feb., 1876.)

It would seem as if this "best of all possible worlds" was fast becoming better or worse (I won't determine which) by the steadily increasing strength of public opinion. Yes; the sceptre has passed into the hands of Mrs. Grundy; and our first inquiry in all cases should be, "What will be *her Majesty's* views on the subject?" Now, of public opinion regarded as force, I have a very high estimation; but of public opinion regarded as light, I am sorry to say I have quite the opposite.

Although I believe it was announced that this lecture would be open to the public, I take for granted that the public has prudently kept away, and that I have a strictly professional audience. Professionals always incline to a depreciatory view of public opinion. They are wont to look upon "the public" as a blind Samson, a good fellow enough so long as he will go on grinding their mill for them, but extremely objectionable directly he takes to pulling the house about their ears. So to my professional audience I may say what I like of "the people," and even quote a certain poet, who calls it "a herd confused, a miscellaneous rabble," who decide simply "as one leads the other."

"The intelligent among them and the wise
Are few."

has harped like a dotard ever since, without caring to know exactly what it meant. It is, in fact, truth or nonsense, according to the way we explain it. Horace long ago said all that was to be said, when he told us that for good poetry two things were needed—native talent and literary training. Native talent may, indeed, produce some genuine poetry (such, *e. g.*, as the songs of Burns) without literary training; but most of our best poetry—Milton's, *e. g.*, and Tennyson's—has needed long toil at the art of versification. If, then, this proverb means that the writer in metre cannot be a poet without native genius, the words are perhaps obscure, but sensible. If, on the other hand they are taken to mean that in poetry natural talent is everything, literary training nothing, the words are simple nonsense.

But the public, having found this phrase so very useful, is naturally anxious to enlarge its area. So we now have the parrot cry, "The teacher, like the poet, is born, not made." And this axiom is quoted directly any attempt is made to procure training for teachers. But I would venture to suggest that the cases of the poet and the teacher are not in all respects parallel. The proverb, "The poet is born, not made," may really be useful in discouraging people from writing badly in metre. There is not the least necessity for their writing in metre at all. But the practical value of the saying, "The teacher, like the poet, is born, not made," is hardly so obvious. In point of fact, a very great number of persons must teach; and I do not know what the public expects to gain by saying to these persons, "The teacher is born, not made. If you are a born teacher, you will teach well; if you are not, you will teach badly. Don't trouble yourself about training, it will make no difference to you." The effect is, of course, that training is neglected; for young teachers who fear the trouble, and still more the expense, of training, are not likely, to seek qualifications which every one seems to think useless, or at least unnecessary for a certain number of persons to write in metre, the public would say, "Let these persons make the most of such aptitudes as they have. Let them get a practical acquaintance with different kinds of metre. Let them study the best models. Let them practise metrical composition by exercises not intended for the public eye, and let them submit these exercises to judicious critics, and profit by their remarks." This, I suppose, would be the advice given to persons fated to write in metre. No one would think of saying to them: Everything depends on nature: if you are a born poet, you can't write badly; if you are not, you can't write well. Never mind learning your art; it will make no difference to you." And yet folly like this is often contained, or at least implied, in what the public says about the art of teaching.

I hope I shall not seem to have wasted your time, and to have been thrusting at a man of straw. I have so frequently heard this need of training disputed, even in high quarters, that I know this delusion to be no man of straw, but a foeman worthy of all the steel we can manage to put into him.

There is another foe, a sort of twin giant to the last, who also stops the way to improvement. It is often said that, if we train teachers, there will be a great danger of making them theoretical; and theoretical with the British public means unpractical. There is a piquancy about paradox that always commends itself to public opinion. The public is the genuine believer, who delights to believe because the thing is impossible. And so this same public opinion is inclined to maintain that a man is, on the whole, the less likely to do a thing well from his having learnt all about it. This peculiar

antithesis between knowing and doing was not invented in this country, though it seems most at home here. We know the old story of the two architects at Athens. They were rival candidates for employment, and the Athenian populace had to appoint one or the other to build a temple. The first architect made a great speech, in which he proved that he knew all about architecture, and gave reasons why one particular kind of building was best for the site; then he went into details, and described the proposed edifice. His speech made a great impression, and the audience were anxious to know how his rival would cap such eloquence. But the rival was equal to the occasion. When his turn came, he rose and delivered a very short speech in these words: "What the last speaker has said, I will do," and he was immediately appointed architect by acclamation. He had proved himself a shrewd man, no doubt; but he might, after all, have been very ignorant of architecture, and the Athenians may have blundered in their choice, as they did in the antithesis implied in it.

Perhaps this assumed antithesis between knowledge and practical ability is best stated by Iago, in his account of "a great arithmetician, one Michael Cassio, a Florentine." This preferred rival of his was a theorist: he

" never set a squadron in the field,
Nor the division of a battle knows
More than a spinster; unless the bookish theorick
Wherein the fogged Consuls can propose
As masterly as he; mere prattle without practice,
Is all his soldiership."

But Othello was, perhaps not less discerning than Iago in this matter. Iago himself had no turn for theory. He had seen service, had probably shown personal bravery, and had acquired the art of performing by rule of thumb all the ordinary duties of a soldier. But the humdrum soldier—blunt, honest fellow, as Othello thought him—was not held worthy of a high command. He *might* have mastered the theory of his craft, and had neglected it. Cassio had shown that his heart was in his soldiering; he had made the most of such opportunities as he had had, and he had acquired a capacity for improving which put him altogether above the Iagos. The highest qualities of the commander—foresight, coolness in peril, fertility of resource in emergencies—were not indeed to be acquired from the study of books; but, on the other hand, they were not in any way to be injured by the study of books. And, whatever the Iagos may say, the "bookish theorick" is every year proving more and more valuable. Moltke poring over his books, and maps, and papers, is more than a match for the most dashing *beau sabreur* in the French army. This truth is at length forcing itself even on us in the War Department; and, in spite of the Iagos, we have made the study of theory imperative, and insist on our officers acquiring the bookish theorick at colleges such as Greenwich and Sandhurst.

That the practical men should be annoyed by this attention to theory, is but natural. Knowledge of this kind is apt to puff up, and youngsters sometimes, "make the lesson," as the French say, in an unbecoming and irritating fashion to experienced persons. Hence the hard name hurled at theory, and the common cry, "This may be all very well in theory, but it won't do in practice." Let us consider this a moment. What is theory? Theory is, properly speaking, truth in its general or abstract form; and if a thing is right in theory, it must be right in practice also.

This may seem a bold assertion. Let me explain myself. "A little knowledge is a dangerous thing." Yes, if we are led to presume on it. We can imagine a

little light being a dangerous thing. We will suppose some pedestrians benighted in the Alps. So long as it is quite dark they keep where they are, and are safe; but directly they get a gleam of light they are tempted to move, and having only a little light they incur very great danger of breaking their necks. And yet light in itself cannot be called dangerous, whether little or great. And no more can knowledge. Knowledge is dangerous only when it lead us to presume and fancy we know what we do not. You will understand me best by an example. A young man studies the theory of farming. He then tries to carry it out in a new neighbourhood; and, relying on theory, he sets at defiance the traditional practice of the other farmers in those parts. They prophesy that no good will come of these new-fangled ideas, and very often they prove right. Why is this? Is the theory wrong? Not at all. The young man seems to fail from his knowledge: he really fails from his ignorance. If he knew all the conditions of the problem before him, he would work out right results; but he does not. In applying his principles he neglects some peculiarities of the soil or climate, and the error puts everything wrong. The humdrum farmer, relying only on use and wont, is quite sure to succeed to a certain extent, not nearly as well as he might if he really knew the theory of his business, but quite enough to enable him to laugh at theoretic learning. And we all have a natural satisfaction in laughing at those who without experience assume that they know our business better than we do ourselves. As I said, everybody thinks he can teach the school-master, and we find it a great strain on our politeness to listen patiently, when we are told by parents and other lay persons how we ought to manage our boys. On the other hand, if we endeavour to give our boys any insight into business matters, the business men laugh us to scorn. I shall never forget the contempt an English merchant once expressed to me when I told him that in a commercial school at Leipzig the boys were shown samples of produce. But the contempt is misplaced on both sides. We school-masters might learn much from outsiders, and the Germans have proved the advantage of learning the theory of business at school. Let us make up our minds then, once for all, that there is no real antithesis whatever between theory and practice, and that the same thing cannot be both true and false. This once settled, we must admit that in applying theory the greatest care is needed to enable us to calculate all the forces. Otherwise our calculations will mislead us, like those of a mathematician whose dynamical problem would be all right if he had not forgotten friction. Let us welcome knowledge, even a little knowledge, of what we are undertaking to do, and be sure that knowledge cannot do us any harm if we are sensible and modest in the application of it.

I cannot to-night attempt to give any notion of the ideal training of the teacher. I have a much more simple object in view. I wish to give a few hints to young teachers, and to those who have young teachers under them, as to what may be done in our present circumstances.

Do the opposite of what is done, says Rousseau, and you will be pretty sure to be right. And really, when one thinks how the art of teaching is acquired by most of us, we feel inclined to agree with Rousseau. A celebrated oculist was once complimented by a brother professional on his wonderful skill in operating. "Yes," he said, "I can do it now, but I spoilt a hat-full of eyes in learning." And this is the way with us teachers. Some of us get to know our business at last, but how

many pupils do we injure by our stupid bungling when we begin? And, unfortunately, teaching is a thing in which practice by no means necessarily or invariably makes perfect. We will suppose a teacher begins in the usual English method. We will suppose he or she (of course I am thinking of teachers of both sexes) has the two indispensables, competent knowledge of the subjects and intense interest in the work. Well, he finds himself all of a sudden with a number, often a large number, of pupils before him, and he has to teach these pupils certain subjects. Not a hint is given him how to go to work. Nobody has time or inclination to attend to him, and tell him where he blunders, or what he should aim at. The pupils are generally the youngest of the most stupid in the school. He soon finds that they do not learn one quarter of what he thinks they ought to learn, and he has no means of ascertaining how far he himself is to blame for this. And then comes the one fatal mistake in most of our school teaching. *He is overworked.* Probably the amount of work thrown upon him would tax all the powers of an experienced master who knew exactly how to set about things, and had acquired facility and speed by long practice, to say nothing of devices which all old teachers resort to for economizing labour. And this amount the beginner, who goes to work most conscientiously and does everything slowly both from want of skill and excess of care, is compelled to deliver as his daily tale of bricks, as though he had straw. Harassed in this way, the young teacher is compelled to think more of the quantity than of the quality of the work he accomplishes. He then reconciles himself by degrees to the wretched performances of his pupils, and supposes that the standard with which he set out was quite Utopian. In a very little while he is, in a sense, a trained teacher—trained to scramble through his work anyhow, and content himself with routine hearing of lessons—trained to accept failure as a law of nature—trained to abandon all the hopes and interests with which he started, and to laugh at them as theoretical. It is because I know that this is the result of your present plan of no-training, that I am so eager to see proper training instituted.

The very first thing that I would urge is that young teachers should have ample time for their preparation and teaching. As you know, the German teacher has to spend a "learning year" without salary, during which year he looks about him in a good school and only does a small amount of teaching, and that under supervision. We cannot expect our young teachers to do this at present; but I think for the first year or two they should be considered learners, and should neither be worked nor paid as if they knew their business. They should never have a class handed over to them, but they should teach under some experienced master, and *he* should be responsible for the result. The learning-teacher, as I may call him (though, in fact, all teachers who are good for anything are learning-teachers all their lives)—the learning-teacher *par excellence* should have ample time for preparing his lessons; he should often give them in the presence of *his* teacher, and should himself see teaching in all parts of the school. The advantages of seeing teaching are indeed very great. By seeing different teachers at work we in the end get some notion of uncommon excellencies to aim at, and of common failings to avoid. We also get sympathy with the taught. Some of you will remember the lad's answer to the question. Why, when Philip parted from the eunuch of Ethiopia, the eunuch went on his way rejoicing? The boy said it was because Philip had done teaching him. Now I never realised the

full force of this answer till I took to visiting schools and staying through the hour's lesson in the same class-room. The teacher has his time fully occupied, and his attention on the stretch all the time, but no one else has; and the hour seems to go very slowly indeed when nothing is spoken of but the government of cases or the eccentricities of irregular verbs. If it were only to get some notion of the stupefying effects of dulness, I would strongly recommend all teachers to attend the lessons of other teachers. We might learn to "see ourselves as others see us," and so become ashamed of impatience and want of self-restraint; and we might even get to feel compassion instead of unmitigated contempt for the unfortunate Jones *minimus*, when, for the third time of asking and the thirtieth time of telling, he evinces a deep-rooted ignorance of the meaning of *in* before the accusative.

In the first place, then, the learning-teacher must on no account be hurried and over-worked, or even hard-worked, for he must have ample time to observe, to think, and to take notes of his thoughts and observations. Next, he must see a variety of teaching. Thirdly, he must teach carefully prepared lessons, and that under supervision.

Perhaps I shall find many agree with me so far, who nevertheless become suspicious directly I come to the *bookish* theorick. Some people have an odd prejudice against book. They will admit the value of advice from people of experience, provided only that it does not come to them in print. But, for my part, I must say that print seems to me on the whole a very convenient method of communication. But, it may be said, an art cannot be learnt by reading a book about it. Certainly not; but some very useful facts about the art may be thus learnt, nevertheless. Nobody ever learnt to swim or to skate or to row by reading; but very useful hints on these subjects have been given in books, and there is a treatise on skating, in particular, which is carefully studied by members of the skating club, and, to address myself first of all to the practical people, I maintain that a great number of very useful hints may be given to teachers by good books on teaching, and I am utterly perplexed by the ordinary teacher's ignorance of such books as we have. May I give an instance or two of the hints which may be picked up from books? Eight years ago I read a good many books on education with a view to some essays which I afterwards published. In a very old book, the *Ludus literarius* of Brinsley, published in 1612 (that is, in the lifetime of Shakespeare), I found a description of a kind of match in school, two boys being appointed as leaders, and these choosing sides. The plan was taken from the Jesuits, but the details seemed to be Brinsley's. Whose ever they were, the notion of these matches was a very good one, and I soon introduced them in teaching. Spelling seemed a very suitable subject for them, and I have mentioned it as such in a volume published in 1868. Why should this hint be considered excellent when it comes to us as an American Spelling Bee, but useless *bookish* theorick when one unearths it in Brinsley? This troublesome and often dull subject of spelling may be made easy, and even amusing, by this and a few other expedients, all of which may be learnt from books. At a recent examination of teachers at this College, I asked the candidates to name and criticise all the methods they knew of teaching spelling; but with two or three exceptions they knew no method but dictation, which is not a method of *teaching* at all. In an American book, Northend's "Teacher and Parent," I have found a variety of plans for teaching spelling, which reminds one of the little book called "A Hundred Ways of Cooking an

Apple." A plan mentioned by Mr. R. Robinson, in his "Manuel of Method," of making children write at the end of their copy-book a line of any word they had mis-spelt, and then say, these from time to time, I once adopted with such good effect, that when I told a class to write any twenty words they were sure of, they wrote just the words they had formerly mis-spelt. Another hint I had which proved a comfort to me. Some twenty-five boys were in the habit of giving in exercises. On counting them, I perhaps found there were two or three missing. It then cost me some trouble to go through the list, and see who were the defaulters; but when I had had a hint to make each boy put a number as well as his name, I arranged the exercises without difficulty and saw at a glance whose were wanting. Again, take saying poetry by heart: many teachers know of only one way of testing; there are half-a-dozen at the least. The teacher may have it said a verse at a time, putting on boys in any order, or a line at a time, or may run round with a word at a time, marking those who fail; or he may read the piece, and pause here and there, calling on some one to take it up at that word; or he may give out paper and pencils, and make all the boys who can, write in column the rhyming words, or the first word of every verse, or the next word of every verse, or the next word when he pauses in reading. I could, of course, easily multiply my instances. Here is a very ingenious device which I learnt from a book,—I am sorry to say I forget from what book. When we set children copies, they, in the first line, copy our writing; but in the second and all subsequent lines they copy their own. This is obviated by making them begin at the bottom line of the page and write upwards.

There are, in fact, numberless ways of doing things, some good, some bad, and some indifferent, and it is of great advantage to a teacher to know a variety of ways. He will then be able to choose the best; and, besides this, there is a great gain in changing one's method sometimes. Monotony is the bane of school life, and a simple change often wakes everybody up, and throws life and interest into what was fast becoming mere *grind*.

A whole crowd of hints rush into my mind which might easily be given to young teachers in a printed book: the importance of marking one's book when one prepares a lesson; the advantage of keeping a list of good questions as one goes over the subject, so that one may be able to set a good examination paper on it at the end; the value of keeping one's own examination papers as a record of one's efforts in teaching,—these, and others like them, might easily be impressed on young teachers with the assistance of the printer, and I fancy such hints would commend themselves to practical men. To offer myself as the *corpus vile* on which experiment has been made, I may say that my whole life as a teacher has been affected by two hints I received at the outset. One was, "The teacher's power depends on his eye; see all you can." The other was, "Don't say a word more than you can help." Now I have not acted rigidly on these rules—not on the last at all events; but they have had great influence on my conduct as a master; and these hints might have been given me in print.

About theory, we must be on our guard. So long as our author confines himself to practical hints, we know where we are, and can form some notion of the value of what he offers us. But when we come to theory, the case is very different. The young teacher finds a number of hard words used without explanation, and he does not know whether they contain important truths, or

are, in fact, mere shams and disguised common-places. Now I am constrained to admit that many books on education which make a great show, are made up entirely of these disguised common-places; so that it is not to be wondered at if many young teachers have attempted to study educational works, and have been as unsuccessful as though they had tried to eat sawdust. All I would say is, do not be discouraged if the first books you attempt to read prove dull. You may have hit upon a worthless book; you may too (and this is often the case) have hit on a book not by any means bad in itself, but unsuitable for you at present. I suppose it has happened to all of us—all but the very young, at all events—to open a book which once seemed meaningless, and to find that a change had taken place, and that it had become full of meaning for us. It is, therefore, very difficult to recommend books, and one should always make the reservation, "Try such and such books, and read them *if they interest you*;" for in all learning, there is much sense in Voltaire's rule, "Every way is good, except the tiresome."

But the great gain to be derived from studying good books on the theory of education is this: such study gives us an insight into the capabilities of our calling, and into the chief problems connected with it. And, by knowing what may be done and what might be found out, we get an infinite field of interests thrown open to us, and so escape from the feeling of monotony and the bondage to dull routine which is the common disease of the schoolroom.

One of the great lessons of life—a lesson so important that we are wise only so far as we have learned it—is that things are not what they seem, and that we must look, not to what is seen, but to what is not seen. And this great truth has a special application in the school-room. We all know what our work seems to us, what our pupils seem to us, when we are jaded with hours after hour of toil and worry. But if we give ourselves, as we are in duty bound, proper seasons of thought and study, we rise to a higher level, and see things very differently. In the schoolroom we have perhaps got to think of boys as the drill sergeant thinks of his recruits. The only difference he can find in them is, that some pick up the goose step much faster than others; and the only difference we can see in our pupils is, that some don't talk and know their grammar, and that others do talk and don't learn. But when we think of the things not seen, we find we have to do with much more complex beings than we supposed. The title "many-sided" is kept as a special honour for the great Goethe, and yet it might in a sense be applied to the ordinary schoolboy. The boy is a son, and on this side he has a whole world of feelings and affections connected with his home. Then, again, he is (at least I myself am inclined to believe it) a *thinking* being, who will not, indeed, think just at the time and on the subjects you desire, but who nevertheless speculates habitually about the problems of his daily life, and the characters of his superiors and associates. Then, again, he is the schoolboy proper, with his tendency to shirk his work and throw heart and soul into his play, with his proneness to bullying, deceit, and false shame, and to coarseness in thought and language. Again, he has a spiritual nature which impels him to seek improvement, and frame many an earnest prayer and good resolution. All these different and apparently conflicting characters are combined in the boy who seems to you a mere repeater of Latin grammar. If we are to be worthy of our calling then, we must look to the things that are not seen; and in doing this good books will help us.

There are a great number of interesting problems connected with education, and every teacher should be an inquirer and investigator. Books are useful here in pointing out the problems before us. To take an instance. Mr. Eve, in his excellent paper on the training of the teacher, (1) has remarked that young teachers think of accuracy, and neglect stimulus. Here is a very difficult and important problem: How are we to keep to the same ground long enough to secure accuracy, and at the time keep our pupils interested, as they are interested, by novelty?

This and many more problems are not to be settled off-hand; but books can put them before the teacher, and then leave him to investigate himself.

In conclusion, I would urge the same point I began with: avoid the descent into routine which must follow from overwork. Let the young teacher have time to make an intelligent study of his profession; let him keep his eyes and his mind open, and believe in the possibilities of his calling. School teaching certainly may be dull and monotonous; it may also afford infinite variety and life-long discovery. And this vast difference depends very much on the road in which the young teacher is started. If the young teacher is left to find the way for himself if we do nothing for him and require everything from him, he will almost inevitably settle down into the mere mechanical worker, whose real life with all its interests and pleasures has no connection with his calling. But if we give him our guidance, and still more our sympathy, when he comes fresh to his work with a belief in its possibilities, we may develop in him a spirit of enthusiasm powerful enough to resist for his whole life the stifling atmosphere of the schoolroom.—*The Educational Times*.

Hygiene.

This is a matter the importance of which is now only being comprehended, and a sufficient knowledge of it scarcely exists in the best informed authorities, to say nothing of the general public.

THE HOUSE WE LIVE IN.

This will deal with the house in which we have to live, and the various points to be attended to in its construction, and in the selection of a site. To take the latter first, it should be so situated that there is an outfall for the waste water and sewage; and it should also be exposed fairly to the sun. The necessity for the first is obvious; a word about the latter may not be out of place. The effect of cutting off the light are seen in the blanched condition of vegetables deprived of light, or even more still in the debilitated appearance of those parts of a plant which are removed from the light. What is more to the point is the effect of sunlight upon the human frame. This has been most illustratively seen in the effects upon the health of residents in different portions of the same barracks. The largest portion of ill-health was always found in those sections which were furthest removed from light and sunshine. The companies were changed back and forward, but the illness always stuck to the dark and shaded barracks. The effect of the glancing sunlight is well seen in the convalescent who seems positively to absorb strength and spirit by being bathed in the invigorating light.

(1) *Monthly Journal of Education*, Sept. 1875.

The next matter of importance in the selection of a site is with regard to the nature of the soil. This is important from several points of view. Firstly it has been abundantly demonstrated that "dampness of soil is an important cause of phthisis to the population living on the soil," and the improvement produced by draining the subsoil in lessening the amount of consumption is marked. Where the soil is too damp this must be met, as far as possible, by careful drainage of the house and curtilage. On sand or gravel a house stands dry and warm, provided this subsoil drainage be efficient. On clay soils it is more difficult to avoid dampness. Another point to be attended to is that of the actual warmth of different soils. Some absorb heat much more readily than others, and are drier and, consequently, warmer to the feet. Soils give up their heat much more rapidly than they absorb it, and so cool at night very markedly. Sand, with some lime, forms the soil which absorbs heat most perfectly, then sand alone, and lastly clay—the heavier the colder. Thus, in the cold countries clay soils induce catarrhs, rheumatism, phthisis, etc., and sandy soils are much to be preferred. In hot countries sands are too warm for health and comfort unless covered with grass.

Of all the horrible insanitary arrangements devised for the direct induction of disease and ill-health the most diabolical are rubbish foundations. "Rubbish shot here" is the herald of disease and death. It is a flagrant violation of all sanitation. The rubbish consists in every case, more or less, of decaying organic matter, animal and vegetable. This decomposes, and in doing so either evolves directly active poisons, or forms a capital nidus for their settling down. The houses are notoriously unhealthy, for when they are built upon rubbish the engendering of disease is converted from a probability to a certainty. Not only is it most unwise to actually bring poison-bearing rubbish to form foundations for houses, but every old drain, cesspool, and pit should be carefully cleared away. In the midst of stately piles of buildings certain houses have been known to be infested with typhoid fever, as it were smitten with pestilence, where old unremoved cesspools remaining and poisoning the inmates have been discovered, and their removal has been followed by the cessation of the local plague. It is of vital importance that the foundation of the house be free from poisonous material.

Having seen that the site is not infected with the material for a future host of doctors' and undertakers' bills, it is important to attend to the removal of the refuse and waste from the house, and to protect it from damp. Drains should not, if possible, traverse a house, and when this is unavoidable, glazed earthenware pipes, laid in concrete or cement, carefully sealed up at the joints, and then covered by cement, should be used; and protected at the walls by relieving arches, to secure them from the effect of settlement. Ventilation of them should be provided at their entrance and exit, and access pipes should admit of ready entrance to them. They should also be periodically flushed, so as to secure them against accumulation in their interior.

To protect the house against damp it is necessary that a damp-proof course be laid over the whole of the foundation. This should consist of hard-glazed earthenware tiles, or slate laid in cement. In addition to this a dry area around the main wall is highly desirable. This is furnished by having an outer wall around the main wall, leaving a space betwixt them. Having so secured the foundation, the outer walls may be protected against the damp produced by driving rain either by covering them with slate, or a waterproof composition. Much of

the damp absorbing power of walls depends upon the nature of the materials used in their erection, and soft porous materials are most objectionable. The same may be said of floors, which should always be of wood, if possible, and well ventilated underneath. In many places flags are used instead, but they are much colder, and absorb damp more easily. But the most abominable of all floors is that made of bricks. The housewife notices that after washing them they quickly dry, and perhaps rejoices in her heart thereat. If so it is an ill-placed contentment, for the bricks absorb the water and remain cold and damp: causing much ill-health and disease.

The walls of the houses should be substantial, and stout enough to protect the dweller against external damp; in which respect houses being built in towns and suburbs are lamentably defective. The roof should be well united, and the rain should be collected into sufficient and well-jointed spouting, and carefully carried off either into cisterns or drains. If the former they should be efficiently drained, so as to secure the removal of the surplus water. Defective spouts and the saturation of walls with rain-water are efficient factors in the production of disease; and a damp house is inimical to health.

The spouting should converge to one or more down-pipes which run from the roof into the drains. These down-pipes serve also another useful purpose. They serve to ventilate the drains and carry the sewer gas away from the house, and out into the air; so relieving the house from the danger of sewer-gas escaping from the water-closets, etc., and poisoning the house.

THE AIR SUPPLY.

The next point to consider about the house is its air supply. This is a point of no secondary importance. A free supply of air is necessary to the wants of the system, and that air must possess several requisites: it must be pure and free from hurtful constituents, and be furnished in good quantity.

Air is a mechanical composition of nitrogen and oxygen, the oxygen being about 21 per cent, by volume, and in addition to this 3 parts per thousand of carbonic acid gas. Water in the form of vapor, and traces of ammonia, may almost be regarded as normal constituents of the atmosphere. The oxygen is the essential element, the nitrogen being merely a diluent. Oxygen in an active condition is termed ozone. The consumption of this ozone by the respiration of animated creatures and the combustion of fires and flames, renders the air of towns much less invigorating than that of the open country or the ocean. Rebreathed air in close ill-ventilated rooms leads to a sense of lethargy and depression, not unfrequently combined with headache, as consequences of the imperfect removal of the carbonic acid, etc., and the absence of active oxygen. "The quantity of oxygen is sensibly diminished in the air of towns." The amount of carbonic acid varies under different circumstances, but not very markedly in the open air, where it never reaches one per cent.

Air to be pure must contain a normal proportion of its constituents: it ceases to be so when some are present in excess or are deficient. It becomes impure by the addition of foreign matters, either solid and merely suspended in the air, or gaseous and diffused through it. The suspended matters borne by the air by which we are chiefly disturbed are the products of imperfect combustion, or smuts. They are the nuisance of every large town, especially in dark, dull weather. They blow in through the finest crevices, and settle every-

where. In certain states of the weather, the products of imperfect combustion form fogs, which are smoke clouds. The presence of these smuts in a condition of the finest subdivision is then readily demonstrated by the expectoration; the expectorated mucus is dark and inky from the particles arrested and detained by the mucous lining of the air tubes, and drawn in by the respiration. Through the fog the noon-day sun appears through a piece of smoked glass; it is really seen through a smoke-laden atmosphere. But in addition there are vegetable seeds, spore and germs; low forms of animal life, of puscells and epithelia, especially in the air of hospital wards; particles of fabrics, cotton and wool; and at times mineral matter, as sand, forming in certain regions sand clouds, the deadly simoon which the Arabs dread. Contagious particles, though too minute to be recognizable by the most powerful microscope, or detected by the subtlest analysis, are borne in the air, and their presence demonstrated by their effects. The odor of plants is due to minute particles of solid matter which are wafted off the plant, and bear the characteristics of each. The rose has its odor, and so have the violet and the woodbine, they are distinct and recognizable; but they have never been seen by the microscope, any more than has scarlatinal poison; no chemistry can determine their composition, which is as unknown as that of poison of typhoid fever.

Malarial or marsh poison cannot with certainty be referred to the class of suspended agents, possibly it belongs to the gaseous division. Organic matter has been found in the dew of malarial districts. But there exists no doubt as to the existence of malarial poison, and much is known about it, though its presence has never been demonstrated by any other means than its results. Probably fever-poisons are not gaseous but solid. We will refer to them again in their own section.

The gaseous impurities of air arise variously from the body itself, from the earth, and from manufactories. The carbonic acid which is given off by the respiration is a common cause of air-contamination. Its excess in the body is always accompanied by a deficiency of oxygen, and the effects of each are with difficulty separated. In "the back-hole of Calcutta" and the well-known case of the "Londonderry," these two were combined, and the mortality in each case was fearful; in the first 123 died out of a total of 146, in the latter out of a total of 150 no less than 70 perished. The amount of oxygen may be reduced from 23 per cent. to 20, in close ill-ventilated places; and such diminution is not only deleterious and dangerous if carried too far, but if only existing to a lesser degree, it is baneful and injurious to the health; causing great loss of vital force and leaving the person predisposed to disease.

Emanations from the earth of an injurious character generally take their origin in decaying organic matter, and form zymotic poisons, to be considered hereafter; but sometimes gases are exhaled as the choke-damp of mines, sulphureted hydrogen and carbonic acid. Earth itself is a good disinfectant, and organic matter efficiently buried rarely causes any troublesome consequences.

Air is extensively contaminated by manufactories and chemical works, and in more limited areas by fumes in certain trades, as we have seen before.

VENTILATION.

In this division will be considered the question of the amount of air required; and then the subject of ventilation; closing with the means of ventilation so

intimately associated with the warming of buildings.

The amount of air which each person requires is that amount which shall not allow of an accumulation of carbonic acid beyond a certain point. This gas exists normally in the air, but below 4 parts per thousand; an atmosphere containing 1 per cent. is odious and instinctively avoided. In an atmosphere where 1200 cubic foot of fresh air was furnished to each person per hour, the proportion of carbonic acid rose to .855 per 1000 volumes; with a supply of 1700 feet of air each man per hour it reached .769 per 1000 volumes; where only 765 cubic feet per hour each was furnished, the carbonic acid attained to 12 per cent.; this last was obviously very unwholesome. Probably 1200 cubic feet of air per hour is the least which is compatible with health. But this calculation excludes carefully any lights or fires, which consume the oxygen of a room very rapidly, and load it with carbonic acid; the effects of which will be considered shortly. The sick require more air than the healthy, and in hospitals even 3500 cubic feet per hour per head has not been proved sufficient to prevent the peculiar offensive odor.

Now it is obvious that the mere cubic space afforded to each person will not in itself meet the question. The rate at which the air is renewed is a most important factor. If there is 200 cubic feet of space for each person, it is obvious that the air must be renewed 10 times per hour in order to afford each person 2000 cubic feet of air in that time. If the space for each person is 400 feet, the air need only be renewed 5 times per hour. The rate with which air passes into and through a room involves the question of draughts. In order to keep a small room efficiently ventilated, the movement of air must be so rapid as to cause a draught, and draughts are common exciting causes of illness. Large rooms are better than small ones, because the air has not to be so frequently renewed, and draughts are thus avoided; the number of persons being alike in each case. When the rate of change of air in a room exceeds 3 or 4 times per hour it becomes disagreeable, and warmed air is requisite.

Natural Ventilation.—This is achieved by the readiness with which gases diffuse themselves through the atmosphere by winds, and the circulation of air currents. Currents are largely produced by changes of temperature; as seen in the sea breeze of the morning and the land breeze at night, the air coming off the heated plain in the evening, and returning again when the land has been cooled by night. Artificial currents exist betwixt the heated room and the cold air outside; the hot air escaping out, and the cold air coming in. The rushing of the heated air up the chimney causes a draught to the fire, and consequently ventilation of the room. It is obvious that there must be a draught where the external air enters a room and crosses it to the fireplace, and persons in that air-current are very apt to take cold. Currents are also produced by having points of entrance and exit, as open windows, especially when these face each other. This is called "cross-ventilation," and is largely employed where practicable, as in a large wards and single houses. When the configuration of the room will not permit of this, the air-currents pass from the windows to the door or fireplace, or from the door to the fireplace directly. The efficient ventilation of a room is so commonly productive of cold draughts, that various contrivances have been devised to obviate these unpleasant consequences. Ventilators have been put in the roof or ceiling, from the known tendency of heated air to escape upwards, and form the usual and common means of securing a change of the air in apartments. These ventilators often form shafts passing through the

upper stories and emerging at the roof. These ventilators are good when they are efficient; but it is not always easy to know when the ventilation through them is active.

The plan of having a strip of paper, or rag, so hung as to be visible, and by its fluttering telling of an air-current, and by its motionless condition informing us when the air-current is arrested, is one which might be more generally adopted. The incoming current of air is and should be always directed upward towards the ceiling, so that the cold draught may not strike the inmates. There are many plans in vogue for the production of this end. One is to have either a glass louvre inserted instead of the top centre pane, or to have the pane cut into strips, which may be separated or approximated by a cord. Another plan is to have the panes doubled, the incoming air being warmed in the space betwixt the panes, the course of the current being also thereby broken. A third plan is to have a wire screen at the top of the window, which takes the place of the window when it is drawn down. But no plan will ever be so effective with single windows as are those where the windows are double. This is a luxury to which English people are averse, and yet the double windows deaden sound, as well as permit of an ample space where the air can be warmed and its current broken betwixt the windows. A pane can be divided into slips in the outer window at the bottom, and a louvre put in instead of a pane at the top of the inner window, and then the rate of entrance can be thoroughly regulated, and a perfect ventilation be established without draughts of cold air. The effect of double windows is well seen in foreign hospitals, and for the sake of this improved ventilation and the deadening of sound they should be introduced into banks, business houses, and hospitals—the last especially—as well as into private houses; and their introduction would be conducive to health and comfort.

An excellent plan of ventilation is to have the interspace betwixt the ceiling of one floor and the flooring of the story above, itself well ventilated; and to allow the air carried out of a room by a ventilation in the ceiling to pass into this interspace, and from thence out into the open air. At other times the ventilator can be carried through a shaft to the roof, and then the shaft can be surmounted by a cowl. The cowl at the top of air-flues and chimneys is a plan for utilizing the aspirating power of the wind. A proper cowl rotates and turns its back to the wind and the rain, and in order that it may do so, it should be well balanced and rotate easily.

Artificial Ventilation and Warming.—It is almost impossible to consider the two subjects separately, as fire is used for both purposes—indeed cannot very easily be used for one without involving the other. The combustion of the fire draws a current of air towards it in addition to the action of the shaft or chimney, and by their combined action a good change of air is maintained. The open fire of England indeed is much more efficient as a ventilating than as a warming agent, and is almost the reverse of the stove of the Continent, with its heat-giving surface of glazed tile. The chimney acts as a ventilating shaft, even when the fire is not burning, though the ventilation is not unobjectionable when the air-current comes down the chimney.

In an ordinary fireplace the waste of the heat is enormous, and the statement that the actual waste of coals is greatest in private houses is well founded. No less than seven-eighths of the heat passes up the chimney; and even with reflecting backs, etc., the waste is excessive. At the same time such a fireplace and

chimney will ventilate a room capable of holding from three to six persons, as the quantity of air passing up it is equal to from 6000 to 20,000 cubic feet per hour. If the room is small and the fire brisk, the passage of the air through the room is keenly felt; and you are roasted on the side turned to the fire while the other is chilled by the cold air which rushes in behind. Large rooms, with an equal amount of fire, are much more comfortable than small ones; provided that the large rooms are not unnecessarily airy and draughty. With the ordinary fireplace then the room is rather ventilated than warmed; and when the room is too well closed against the entrance of the cold air by chinks in the doorways and windows, the chimney has down draughts, and the cold air rushes down as well as the heated air mounts. The diffusion will take place somehow. As a rule the cold air rushes in under the door; and every one knows rooms where you are comfortably warm everywhere except the feet. They are stone-cold from the cold draught betwixt the space beneath the door and the fire.

Many have been the inventions to render fires more useful as warming agents. One of the best contains an air chamber at the back, through which the air enters the room, and is at the same time so heated as to no longer cause a cold draught. Another is a cottage grate of fire clay, also with an air chamber. Less complicated plans of causing the back of the grate to lean forward and so throw back the heat into the room, have been more or less adopted. The desirable fireplace, of simple yet effective construction, has still to be discovered. Several forms of stoves have been invented to economize fuel, or to utilize the heat produced. Two favorite forms have the air introduced beneath the stove and then give off, warm flanges of metal heating the air as it passes off. A dish of water gives to the heated air the requisite and desirable moisture.

Some gas stoves warm the air ere it is given off into the room, moisture being furnished by a water dish. But all stoves are objectionable, for, while heating the air, they give it an unwholesome dryness.

Another method of utilizing flame as a ventilator is to have the gas-lights so arranged in the ceiling as to form the "sunburner," and by adding a shaft to this burner the already respired and vitiated air is drawn towards the shaft and passes away out. This forms an efficient ventilator.

But gas is an objectionable heating agent; and the arrangements must be very perfect to admit of its being used without actual detriment. The products of gas consumption are very disagreeable as well as deleterious, as every one knows who has been where gas is largely burned either as gaslight, or in the "clinker made-up grates," which when red hot somewhat resemble an ordinary fire. The air is heavy, unpleasant, and laden with the products of combustion; unless the ventilation be very perfect.

Another plan of producing warmth and ventilation is that of combined hot water pipes and air shafts. The plan of warming a room with hot water pipes has long been in vogue, and in many instances it is an excellent and efficient mode; and it has also been proposed to have around the water pipes air shafts, so that the air might be heated by the contact with the hot water pipe. This air shaft along the hot water pipe would surround the room, and by many minute perforations admit of the warmed air entering the chamber. Then, by means of propulsion, the air could be forced into the room at a fixed rate; and by a modification of the machinery its rate of entrance could be checked when desirable. Propulsion of air into rooms dates back to the year 1734.

and the idea of warming it ere its introduction into the room has existed since 1713.

Extraction of air by a fan is used in collieries to maintain a practically sufficient ventilation. A fan worked by steam will extract no less than 45,000 cubic feet of air per minute, and so cause an equal quantity of fresh air to rush in to take its place; so that no less than 225 men could be supplied with fresh air at the rate of 2000 cubic feet per hour, by one of these fans. This extraction of air is used for buildings in other countries, and is said to be more efficient and less costly than the plan of propulsion. Whenever hot pipes are used to warm rooms it must not be forgotten that there is no longer the air current established and maintained by an open flame; and special means must be taken to maintain the ventilation. The tendency to exclude fresh air from rooms is only too deeprooted, and the more effectually most of the chinks in the room are closed the more active will be the draught from the unclosed chinks. If all the chinks are closed the atmosphere of the room will become very vitiated; and all the consequences of bad ventilation will be artificially secured. —From "Maintenance of Health," by Dr. F. Miller Fothergill, in *New Dominion Monthly*

On some of the Graver Pleasures of a Country Dominic.

In a manual much thought of amongst teachers some twenty years since, it was laid down that "above all things a teacher should not be of a bilious temperament or troubled with a liver." The author, if he ever had to select a youth as a pupil teacher, would doubtless have searched for one who possessed the "mens san a in corpore sano." It would be well in these days of haste and high-pressure work if more attention were devoted to this question of health. How many a teacher has become a miserable man and a terror to his youthful charges because he was dyspeptic and had a liver! and how many strong and healthy men have succumbed to the bad ventilation of their schools (especially of the class-rooms) and the harassing nature of the work because they neglected their health. Every teacher ought, therefore, to be thoroughly sound in constitution to begin with, and should take reasonable care to remain so under God's blessing. He should do this, not merely for his own sake, but also for the sake of those committed to his charge. It would be a very black list, we fear, if all the punishments were enrolled that were caused or aggravated by a bad liver, or a fractious temper engendered by a bad atmosphere and the want of outdoor exercise.

Every one engaged in a sedentary occupation like that of teaching ought to provide for a daily stipulated amount of time to be spent in the open air. The freshness and renewed vigour with which one goes back to duty after such relaxation are most decided, and will invariably show themselves in a more cheerful and even temper, and in a more kindly appreciation of that child-life with which a teacher has to deal. We well remember, and with gratitude, the sound advice given by one of Her Majesty's Inspectors to the writer in the first year of his school work. It was this—"Work hard in school, and after school hours get as far away from it as possible." We understood it to have two meanings: first, to go for a long walk, and second, to take up some study, as every teacher ought, as far removed from school work as possible. We have followed the advice and can commend it. Of course cric-

ket, gardening, football, &c., will do instead of the walk. But to those whose years, and perhaps weight, render such exercises unsuitable, the walk by "hedgerow green," "o'er the breezy down," and "through the pathless wood," can always be enjoyed. And to give a zest to the country ramble one of the most amusing is the collection of quaint "uncouth rhymes." This have been one of our graver pleasures; a livelier one is a good working committee or an enthusiastic conference. A good strong pair of boots, with a stout useful stick, and a few shillings in pocket, are all that are required. England and portions of Scotland have furnished the writer with sufficient variety of incident and scenery, and to him it is a source of gratification that, come fair, come foul, no one can rob him of the pleasurable recollection of scenery enjoyed, and of the remembrance of "ivy-mantled towers" and old baronial castles which he has seen. How pleasant when on such a journey in search of the picturesque and of health, how charming it is to turn aside from the beaten path and ramble amongst the mansions of the dead in God's acre, to scan each stone, and to examine the fane whose spire, in each assemblage of men intent on the pursuit of wealth, ever enters its silent protest against man's grovelling pursuits, and solemnly points his eyes and thoughts aloft. In this "land of old and settled renown" there are not many villages but can boast of a temple remarkable in some way. In this the architecture calls for study and notice, in that the last resting-place of some of one memorable, possibly in national, or at least in local interest, arrests attention; there is one—which for ages has been a guide for the tempest-tossed sailor, whilst here perhaps is another famous for nothing but its exceeding plainness.

However, it is not with the buildings; but with the graves and "the doors of the dead," as we once heard the poet Longfellow describe the grave-stones, that we propose to deal in this short article. And as none but good people are ever buried, we are bound to limit our remarks to those inscriptions and epitaphs which are noteworthy for their quaintness, wit, rusticity, or uncouthness. We cannot pretend to burden our readers with the ordinary praises of affectionate husbands and fathers, of beautiful and loving wives and mothers, or of obedient and all-that-was-to-be-desired sons and daughters. They for an army whom no man can number. To our task then. The first we remember culling is to be seen in St. Clement's churchyard, in that ancient and once important borough of Sandwich. It is in memory of "an old salt," one Captain John Morgan, and is dated 1777. It runs thus with happy feet!—

'Tho' Boreas' blasts and Neptune's waves
Have tossed me to and fro,
In spite of them, by God's decree,
I harbour nere below.
Where we at anchor ride
With many of the fleet;
Yet once again we must set sail
Our Admiral Christ to meet.

Who but can admire the simple faith and trust of this brave old seaman? The next one, also from the Garden of England, shows what ludicrous nonsense some village poet has perpetrated for the sake of the rhyme. It is in the churchyard of a village in the Weald, and states that—

Here lie two children dear,
The one buried at Cheriton and the other here.

A cynic might say that the distich *did* the lying. Of a kin to this one, and as another specimen of how truth

must give way to the exigencies of rhyme, take this for example—

Underneath this soil *lies* John Round
Who was *lost* in the sea and never was found.

The next one, given in the *Spectator* a short time since, may be inserted here as a strong contrast to these *lying* ones—

Here *lies* at last prevaricating Will,
He loudly *lied* in life and now *lies* still.

The parting kick *downstairs* is particularly strong. For the sake of rhyme the poet has turned prophet in the next—

Near this place his mother lies.
Likewise his father *when* he dies.

Before the labours of Messrs. Curwen and Hullah (we do not wish to be invidious, and you may put Hullah and Curwen if you prefer it) had produced such a respectable knowledge of music as can be found now in almost any village, the services of the parish clerk were of very much more importance than now, especially when, as in Swift's case, the service forme a *duet* between the doctor and dearly beloved Roger. My next does justice to one of this meritorious class of "poor clerks." It is in Bakewell churchyard, and sings Philip's praises thus (Philip Roe, September 12, 1815)—

The vocal powers, here let us mark
Of Philip, our late parish clerk,
In church none ever heard a layman
With clearer voice say Amen!
Oh! who with Hallelujah's sound
Like him can make the roof resound?
The Quire lament his choral tones,
The town—so soon here lie his bones.
Sleep undisturbed with thy peaceful shrine,
Till angels wake thee with such tones as thine.

What a grand apostrophe in the eighth line! The poet was evidently distressed for a suitable rhyme to tones. The same churchyard furnishes the following dry and caustic description of a barber-surgeon. It reads thus:—"Know posterity, that on the 8th of April, in the year of grace 1757, the rambling remains of the above-said John Dale were in the 86th year of his pilgrimage laid upon his two wives.

This thing in life might raise some jealousy,
Here all three lie together lovingly;
But from embraces here no pleasure flows
Alike are here all human joys and woes.
Here Sarah's chiding John no longer hears,
And old John's rambling Sarah no more fears.
A period's come to all their toilsome lives.
The good man's *quiet*: *still* are both his wives.

Some such as the two following doubtless caused Grey to write about uncouth rhymes:

Betty Ooden,
Who lived no longer, cos she couldn.

Poor Martha Snell, her's gone away,
Her would if her could, but her couldn't stay;
Her'd two sore legs and a badish cough,
But her legs it was as carried her off.

Evidently grammar had not been a "specific" subject of instruction in the days when it was penned. We feel, however, that we could almost excuse the grammar for the grim humor of the last line. Sometimes the epitaph is made to serve a double purpose, and when we see nowadays the rector of a parish keeping a sharp look-out on grave-stones, and refusing to allow

the harmless title of courtesy to be placed on the memorial-slab of a brother workman in the vineyard, one is constrained to sigh for the charity of bygone days. Why did the rector not object to this?—

Beneath this stone in hopes of Zion
Doth lie the landlord of the Lion:
His son keeps on the business still,
Resigned unto the heavenly will.

And to this on a quack?—

I was a quack, and there are men who say
That in my time I physick'd lives away.
And that at length, I, by myself, was slain
With my own drugs, ta'en to relieve my pain.
The truth is, being troubled with a cough
I, like a fool, consulted Dr. Gough,
Who physick'd me to death at his own will
Because he's licensed be the State to kill.
Had I but wisely taken my own physic
I never should have died of cold and tiskic.
So all be warned, and when you catch a cold
Go to my son, by whom my medicine's sold.

The next we propose to give is from Wigtown in Galloway, and is a specimen of bathos. But "if all's well, that ends well," who can blame the poet?—

Here lies John Taggart of honest fame,
Of stature low, and a leg lame:
Content he was with portion small,
Kept a shop in Wigtown and that's all.

Here is another. We have often wondered if the bereaved relatives were proudest of the fact that there was such a *large family* or that one was *abroad*. It runs thus:—"She was the mother of fourteen children, thirteen of whom followed her to the grave, whilst the other was in the Isle of Man." In the same churchyard, which by-the-way is on the banks of the Eden and in one of the loveliest parts of England, there is this homely and pathetic epitaph. It is on the grave-stone of a lad who died in his teens, and stands thus:—

When in this world but short was my stay,
And empty was my laughter,
I go before to show the way,
And thou comes jogging after.

Want of space will prevent the exhaustion of the writer's *repertoire*. During this Christmas holidays, in a glorious "tramp" along the breast of the Pennines in company with a congenial soul, the writer picked up a couple more, one a little gem in its way, and the other one of the uncouth rhymes of Gray's immortal song. It, with Mark Twain's account of his visit to Niagara, over which cascade he fell and got wet, formed admirable condiment for the smoking ham fresh eggs with which the neat-handed Phyllis refreshed the hungry dedestrians.—*The Schoolmaster*.

Treatment of Children.

BY MRS. N.

Mothers, let us have a little chat together about the proper training of the little ones and the young people that are so soon to take our places in the busy work-a-day world; perhaps we can get some new ideas from each other that will be helpful to all. I am not of those who think the little ones can be put aside to care for themselves as best they may. They need watchful attention from the time they begin their education, which is the moment they begin to observe how other people do, and try to imitate them. Children are great imitators; how important then that we put a double guard upon our lips and our general conduct; how important that we should be

always truthful and candid with them. Always say just what you mean to a child, and never break your word with them; if necessary put yourself to inconvenience; disappoint yourself and your older friends if need be, but keep faith with the little ones. Be careful not to promise more than you will be able to perform; do not allow any one to frighten them in any way, either by telling stories or playing tricks on them. If they ask information, explain to them plainly and truthfully; or if it is something they ought not to know tell them so, do not deceive them; they are sure to learn the truth sometime. If it become necessary to punish for a fault repeated, do not allow yourself to do it while you are angry—if you do you will do more harm than good; take them away from the family—speak gently, explain and reason with them, and they will generally take pride in doing well at all times. Many children have been made stubborn and wilful by mismanagement. Do not expect more of the young than the old; do not correct them for things that you, by example, teach them every day—even the substance and tone of conversation will be imitated. If you wish your children to be lovers and retailers of scandal and gossip, you have only to talk regularly of the doings, sayings and imperfections of your neighbors and associates, and allow them to tell you of the day's doings at school, etc. Whatever is made the most of at home the children are apt to think is best. How important, then, that we have good and suitable books, pleasant and interesting conversation, and some work suitable to their years, that they must perform every day at the proper time. They should also keep their room and clothes in order as much as possible; have a place for every thing and everything in its place. "Order is Heaven's first law." None should be allowed to disturb their belongings; their rights should be held just as sacred as those of the older members.

Some people think it a very fine thing to tease and torment children. Parents should not allow this; by compelling them always to act on the defensive, they will soon learn to be aggressive, and very often the sad results in after life are traced to the spoiling of the disposition of the young. Teach them that they are not to be loved for their pretty looks, or fine clothes, but for their good behavior and gentle ways.

McGill University.

ANNUAL MEETING OF CONVOCATION.

The annual public meeting of Convocation of McGill University was held in the William Molson Hall in the University yesterday afternoon for conferring degrees in medicine and law. The attendance of friends of the students and of education was very large, the spacious hall being filled to overflowing. The additional interest shewn by the fair sex over previous years is also worthy of remark. Shortly after three o'clock the members of Convocation passed through the hall wearing their picturesque academic robes and ascended the platform. Mr. Peter Redpath one of the Vice-Chancellors of the University presided in the absence of the Chancellor the Hon. Mr. Justice Day. The Professors of members of Convocation representing the Medical Faculty occupied seats to the left of the Chancellor. The Governors and those representing the legal profession occupied seats to his right, and included the following: Professors—Drs. Scott, Fenwick, Howard, Wright, Craik, Godfrey, Roddick, Girdwood, Ross, Gardner, Osler and Shepherd. Members of Convocation—Drs. J. Reddy, G. A. Baynes, Proudfoot, Webb, Bessy, Mondelet, T. J. Alloway, Principal Dawson, Rev. Dr. Leach, Rev. Dr. Wilkes, Messrs. C. J. Brydges, J. M. Molson Professors Kerr, Wurtele, Rainville. Lecturers.—Larocau, Archibald and others.

The meeting was opened with prayer by Revd. Archdeacon Leach, after which Mr. W. C. Baynes, B. A., the secretary, read the minute of last convention.

In the absence of the Dean of the Faculty of Medicine, Professor Scott, M. D., read the following report of that faculty: The total number of students enregistered in this faculty during the past session was 118, of whom there were from Ontario 85; Quebec, 12; Nova Scotia, 4; New Brunswick, 3; P. E. I., 5; West Indies, 1; United States, 7. The following gentlemen, 21 in number, have passed their primary examinations on the following subjects: Anatomy, Physiology, Chemistry, materia medica and pharmacy, institutes of medicine, and pathology and zoology. Their names are as follows: Armstrong G. E., Bell Jas., Boyle Albert, Brodie John, Burland Samuel, C., Cannon Gilbert, Cameron Duncan, H., Collson Robert, Cotton Cedric L., Faulkner Daniel W., Fortier Alexandre, Fraser Alex. C., Gillies John A. F., Graves Henry C., Jameson Alexander, B. A., Lane John A., Law Wm. K., Miner Frank L., Oakley William D., Park Geo. A., Smellie Thos. S. D., M. A.

The following gentlemen—thirty-four in number—have fulfilled all the requirements to entitle them to the degree of M. D. C. M. from this University. These exercises consist in examinations, both

written and oral, on the following subjects:—Theory and Practice of Surgery; Theory and Practice of Medicine; Obstetrics and Diseases of Women and Children; Medical Jurisprudence and Hygiene, and also Clinical Examinations in Medicine and Surgery, conducted at the bedside in the Hospital.

The names of the successful candidates, and the subjects of their Thesis are as follows:—

Baynes Donald, M. A. L. R. C. P., Bronchocele; Campbell James, Spasmodic Asthma; Clarke Fincastle G. B., Bloodless operations; Colquhoun George, Clinical Reports; Cook Guy R. B. A., Bronchitis; Cooke Wm. Henry, Food; Coyle Henry W., Erysipelas; Craig Thornton, Erysipelas; Cream Thos. N., Chloroform; Cruthers Wm., Clinical Reports; Eberly Henry A., Pneumonia; Gray John S., Uterine Hemorrhage; Greer Thos. A., Spermatorrhoea; Hunt Henry, Clinical Notes; Johnson Jas. B., Hospital Reports; Lang Christopher McL., Ankylosis; Levi Reuben, Lobar Pneumonia; McLimoye Henry A., Typhoid Fever; Metcalf Henry J., Diabetes Mellitus; Munro Alex., Tubercle; Murray Chas. H. B. H., Hospital Reports; Powell Robert W., Surgical Cases; Reddy Herbert L., B. A., Hospital Reports; Ritchie Arthur F., B. A., Tubular Nephritis; Robertson Stephen J., Typhoid Fever; Secord Levi, Pulmonary Euphysema; Smith Wm., Alcohol; Snider Fred. S., Acute Ati; Rheumatism; Stevenson Chas. N., Clinical Reports; Storrs Arthur, Post Mortem Hamorrhage; Stroud Chas. S., Syphilis; Young Philip R., Hospital Reports.

One of the above named gentlemen (Mr. R. W. Powell) is under age. He was, however, passed all examinations and fulfilled all the requirements necessary for graduation, and only awaits his majority to receive his degree. The following gentlemen, seventeen in number, passed their examinations in theoretical chemistry:—A. S. Greenwood, James J. Guerin, J. P. Cameron, F. J. Stafford, M. C. Rutherford, J. R. Fraser, Milton McCrimmon, H. H. Gardner, W. B. Gibson, A. P. Chisholm, Robert Bell, H. N. Vineberg, George W. Kirk, N. Ayer, D. P. Smith, J. K. McKinlay, M. Bicksted.

Students who have passed examination in Botany and Zoology.

BOTANY—CLASS I.

W. J. Neilson, W. D. Oakley, B. F. Butler, D. F. Gurd, W. C. Baker, J. S. Brown, H. Stevenson, J. Smith, W. F. Shaw, J. B. Lawford, A. W. Imrie, E. McNeil, J. B. Carman, P. E. Carman, W. H. Gardner, H. F. Feader, S. A. McDonald, O. Henderson, A. D. Webster.

CLASS II.

J. McCarroll, J. G. Scott, S. McNeer, T. A. Kidd, F. McLennan, F. Hana, W. Sutherland, J. C. Meltae, F. H. Newburn, J. M. Wilson, H. B. Burwash, C. J. Jamieson, J. M. Smiley, M. Seymour, M. Bicksted.

CLASS III.

W. K. Law, C. D. Bancroft, J. S. Edwards, S. K. Herbert, B. Menzies, E. W. Lettree, W. J. Prendergast, T. A. Page, R. C. McDonald, G. W. Oliver, G. A. Wengant, G. C. McCulloch, J. E. McEwenne, W. D. M. Bell, J. A. Mathice, G. Tate, A. Provs, W. Karmon, W. B. Hall, W. F. Mullen.

The ceremony of conferring of degree of M. D. C. M. was next proceeded with, Professor Dawson and Professor Craik officiating. So soon as this was completed,

Dr. Ritchie, a graduate, delivered the valedictory.

Professor Ronnick, M. D., followed in an address to the students, of which the following is a summary:—In accordance with time honoured custom, I am here on behalf of the medical faculty of this University to offer to you their hearty congratulations on being this day the recipients of the highest honour which it is their privilege to bestow. After a long, and in the main tiresome race, lasting over four years, you have at length reached the winning post, and are here to-day in the presence of a gracious, admiring and sympathising public receiving the laurels you have so honourably won. You are to be congratulated, gentlemen, not only on having graduated in medicine, but in having done so at such an auspicious a period in the history of our profession and country. There never was a time among us in this Dominion when energetic workers, honest, conscientious men, were in greater demand. It is certainly time to be up and doing when we have one of the chief leaders of public opinion in our midst—a journal of which we would have expected better things upholding the cause of quackery and imputing to us the basest of motives because we attempt to vindicate our right and raise our voices on behalf of a deluded people. The Toronto Globe asserts with an air of apparent earnestness that to molest these charlatans in their absurd and often nefarious practice is an unwarranted interference with the liberty of the subject. It positively contends that anyone who considers himself competent either from some inherited charm or from mere—of treating the various troubles of the flesh to which humanity is heir should be

allowed to do so unmolested. The evil consequences of such a policy cannot be estimated. It is difficult to understand indeed how it should find so strong an advocate in this otherwise respectable mouthpiece of public opinion. This journal chooses to ignore the time and pains we have expended, and the pecuniary outlay we have made in endeavouring to acquire a thorough knowledge of our profession, so that we may the better inspire the over credulous with our ability to heal. Forsooth we are told that to raise a warning voice against, and endeavour by legislation to rid society of these its evil members, is to destroy the liberty of the subject. It is not jealousy that impels us in our action against those clover rogues, who gain immense riches, where honest men starve. Give us our dues; it is not jealousy but an honest desire, irrespective of our profession, to protect our fellows from fraud. You are called upon then gentlemen on the very eve of your professional birth to do battle for legitimate medicine. This refers especially to those of you whose lot will be cast in the neighbouring province of Ontario, which seemed to be a favorite haunt of these proteges of the Toronto press. The influence which many of you must of necessity wield in a few years cannot better be employed than in seeking to fill the legislatures of our respective provinces with men, either professional or otherwise, having decided and intelligent views on the all-important subject of medical legislation. The fact is we are not so well represented at court as we might be—that we are not the power in the state we should be. It is true there are members of our profession in our general and local parliaments, but how feeble are their voices when we would expect to find them the loudest in debate; there are two or three who do us credit and whom we delight in honouring, but even they, after long political careers, fighting for their party principles, or from other causes, have become estranged from us, and are more famous as financiers or expounders of the law than as sons of Esculapius; besides, our services, I contend, are required in the Legislature of our country as much on the country's account as on our own. Those great measures of sanitary reform, which must, in the natural course of things be accomplished, will of necessity be a great part of the work in our hands. And then we can better procure an enactment respecting vital statistics, the proper ventilation and drainage of cities, and then we can better devise measures for the prevention of epidemics, and the grappling with them when they appear. It is our province; it belongs by right and title to us; and while the financiers of our Legislatures are squabbling over their dollars and cents and ways and means; while the manufacturers are keeping a weather eye open to the tariff, let us have men there irrespective of party, so that Liberal and Conservative, Whig and Tory, will rally round the old flag, remembering that our motto is, *Sanitas, sanitatum omnia sanitas*. As medical men, and taking, as you no doubt will, a prominent part in the community in which you work, you will be expected to give a ready and intelligent opinion of various topics of the day, having reference to sanitary science. The relation to defective drainage, impure air and adulterated milk in the causation of typhoid fever, will come up for constant discussion. The subjects of over-crowding, adulterating food, impure occupations, &c., and the influence they exert in multiplying causes of disease, and in the production of disease, will be matters on which you will be expected to be thoroughly versed. There is nothing, however, in the discussion of which your temper and ingenuity will be more sorely tried than in the defence of that priceless preventative, vaccination. Have at your finger ends some of the more familiar facts connected with this all-important subject, in order to meet the objections of those who have, unfortunately may be, erroneous views on the subject. Relate to them, for instance (among other facts which he named), that during the epidemic in London in 1863, how it was found out that the best vaccination was more than thirty times as protective as the worst; and the worst was more than fifty-seven times better than none at all. Tell them that in the City of Montreal, during the last year of your studentship, the total number of deaths was 6,321, of which nearly one-eighth, or 784, were from small-pox, and of these 653 were unvaccinated French-speaking Canadians. If these facts fail to make an impression on these unbelievers, quote the statistics of the Montreal General Hospital during the past year, in which it is found that fifty per cent. of the unvaccinated died, whereas only four deaths occurred among all those who had been vaccinated, and when re-vaccination had been successfully performed only two cases had been admitted, and those were of the mildest type. The Doctor went on to advise the students on the responsibility of their position, the necessity for study, their duty to their patients, to the poor, and as to their professional and gentlemanly behaviour towards one another.

Professor W. H. Kerr, Q. C., in response to the request of the Chancellor, read the statement of prizes, honors and stand of the students in the Faculty of Law, sessions 1875-6, as follows:—

THIRD YEAR.

In this year thirteen candidates presented themselves for the degree of whom twelve were successful, as follows: Messrs. Doherty, Greenshields, McDonald, Scallon, Desmarais, Desaulniers, Glass, Taché, Bissailon, Peradeau, Gelinus, LeBourveau. Of the above gentlemen Mr. S. A. LeBourveau did not pass the examination on account of illness, but his proficiency being well known to the faculty he has been granted an *agrotal* degree. Mr. Samuel Hutchinson also attended the lectures until about the 1st of February when he was seized with illness, and about the 1st March, was removed by death. This gentleman gave promise of eminent ability, and the thesis which he composed was adjudged considerably superior to that of any of his competitors.

General Standing of Students in the Graduating Class—1st, Charles J. Doherty and James N. Greenshields, equal; 2nd, John S. McDonald.

Elisabeth Torrance. Gold Medal.

In the competitive examination for this medal, two gentlemen, Messrs. James N. Greenshields and Charles J. Doherty were, in the opinion of the Faculty, of equal merit, and having obtained very high marks, viz., 665 out of a possible 700, the Faculty resolved to recommend the Corporation to issue duplicate medals, which the Corporation consented to do, so that each of the gentlemen is entitled to receive the Elisabeth Torrance gold medal for the present session. The prize for the best Thesis was awarded to Odilon Desmarais, whose thesis was judged next best after that of Mr. Hutchinson, who is accordingly entitled to deliver the valedictory address on behalf of the graduates.

Ranking of students in the respective classes for the third year:—

International Law and Commercial Sales—Professor Kerr—1st, Doherty; 2nd, Greenshields.

Commercial Law—Professor Wurtele—1st, Greenshields and Doherty, equal; 2nd, Bissailon.

Roman Law—Professor Trenholme—1st, Doherty and Greenshields, equal; 2nd, Lebourveau.

Civil Procedure—Professor Doutre—1st, Doherty; 2nd, Greenshields.

Civil Law—Professor Rainville—1st, Greenshields; 2nd, Doherty.

Criminal and Constitutional Law—Lecturer Archibald—1st, McDonald; 2nd, Doherty and Greenshields, equal.

Legal History and Bibliography—Lecturer Lareau—1st, Greenshields; 2nd, Doherty.

Students who have passed the sessional examinations for the second year in the order of merit:—Messrs. Goodhue, Purcell, Capsey, McCorkill, Garon, Olliser, Charette, Monk, Lassalle, Beaulieu, Pelletier, Knapp, Ethier—13.

In this year twenty students presented themselves for examination of whom seven were unsuccessful.

General Standing—1st, Goodhue, 1st prize; 2nd, Purcell, 2nd prize.

Ranking of students in the respective classes for the second year:—

International Law and Commercial Sales—Professor Kerr—1st, Capsey, Professor's prize; 2nd, Goodhue.

Commercial Law—Professor Wurtele—1st, Purcell; 2nd, Goodhue.

Roman Law—Professor Trenholme—1st, Goodhue; 2nd, Purcell.

Civil Procedure—Professor Doutre—1st, Goodhue; 2nd, Purcell.

Civil Law—Professor Rainville—1st, McCorkill; 2nd, Purcell.

Criminal and Constitutional Law—Lecturer Archibald—1st, Purcell; 2nd, Goodhue.

Legal History and Bibliography—Lecturer Lareau—1st, Goodhue; 2nd, Purcell.

In the first year thirty-six students presented themselves for examination, of whom thirty-three were successful, whose names are as follows, in the order of merit:—Messrs. Brooke, Crimmen, Mignault, Taylor, Corregan, Cross, Pope, Crothers, McGoun, Duffy, Bissonnette, Abbott, Cavanagh, Varin, Brown, Gaudet, Lanctot, Ritchie, McKinnon, Morrie, Berthelot, Leblanc, Adam, Ward, Laviollette—33.

General Standing in all the Classes—1st, Brooke, Crimmen, and Mignault, equal, 1st prize.

Standing of students in the respective classes in the 1st year.

Obligations—Professor Wurtele—1st, Gaudet and Mignault, equal; 2nd, Brooke, Crimmen, and Taylor, equal.

Roman Law—Professor Trenholme—1st, Crimmen and Crothers, equal; 2nd, Abbott and Taylor, equal.

Civil Procedure—Professor Doutre—1st, Duffy; 2nd, Brooke and Crimmen, equal.

Civil Law—Professor Rainville—1st, Mignault and Corregan, equal; 2nd, Varin and Brooke, equal.

Legal History and Bibliography—Lecturer Lareau—1st, Mignault; 2nd, Brooke.

Professors Kerr and Wurtele then proceeded with the award of prizes and honors to students in law, and afterwards assisted Principal Dawson in the conferring of the degree of B. C. L., after which Mr. O. Desmarais read the valedictory in the French tongue.

Lecturer ANCHBALD, B. A., B. C. L., addressed the successful law students on the duties shortly devolving upon them, taking occasion to pay a high tribute to the memory of their late fellow-student, Mr. S. Hutchison.

After the conferring of the degree of D. C. L.

The Hon. M. Justice TONTANE rose and addressed the students of both faculties as follows :

GENÉRAL GUAURATIS.—You have till to-day been candidates for degrees in Law and Medicine. Henceforward you will be candidates for the reward of your professions and for the support and favour of the community in which your lot is cast. Think of the origin and meaning of this word candidate. It is the Latin word *candidatus*, and was applied to the aspirants for political honours in ancient Rome, because they made their canvass clothed in robes of white *lana candida* as emblematic of their personal purity. Let us hope, in the best and highest sense, that the honour and purity of your professional careers may be among your best and highest aspirations. Let me here say that hitherto you have been recipients of knowledge, and now you go forth to be the educators and instructors—the advisers—of others. Let me express the earnest hope that you will continue your education in the future with large and liberal views of what that education should be. A clergyman who knows nothing but divinity should not be called an educated man ; and a lawyer whose knowledge is confined to his codes, and a physician whose knowledge is limited to his medical books and his cases, should not be called an educated man. Dr. Whewell explained education to be the process by which an individual is made a participator in the rational, the true, the beautiful and the good. Some one has justly remarked that if we rest contented with what we have acquired during our boyhood and youth, and merely trust to the old stories of thought and information for the benefit of others, we will be like one who draws water from a stagnant pool instead of seeking it from the ever flowing springs of a clear and sparkling well. Do not neglect your education as men any more than you should neglect your professional education in the future. A few words here to the graduates in law. Your profession concerns the administration of justice, which has well been termed the grandest position which has been assigned to man by the great Author of his being—the function which, of all others, most surely satisfies his noblest instinct. “There is not, in my opinion,” says Sir James Macintosh, in language which has been often quoted, “in the whole compass of human affairs, so noble a spectacle as that which is displayed in the progress of jurisprudence ; when we may contemplate the cautions and unwearied exertions of wise men through a long course of ages, withdrawing every case as it arises from the dangerous flexible rules ; extending the dominion of justice and reason, and gradually contracting within the narrowest of possible limits the domain of brutal force and arbitrary evil.” There is a particular feature about the training of the advocate—that it is necessarily severe—in a manner not to be found in the other professions, and I make the observation without in the least assuming or asserting that the weight of care and responsibility is greater in the profession of law than the other learned professions, but in one respect the profession of the advocate is peculiar. The physician plies his noble and beneficent vocation in the privacy and silence of the sick chamber. His skill and sagacity on the one hand, or his unskillfulness on the other, have not that publicity which attends the advocate.

Again, the teacher of divine truth from the pulpit expounds his doctrine—powerfully or feebly—soundly or erroneously—to a silent and respectful audience, without audible questioning or contradiction. Far otherwise is it with the advocate. Every statement and proposition with he makes, or advances, is scrutinized, and, if possible, called in question by a vigilant and interested adversary. The controversy is decided by an experienced Judge, indifferent to either side, without any motive but the promotion of truth and justice. And even the decision of the Judge is not final ; the party aggrieved has his recourse to a higher tribunal if the decision is erroneous. And it is also to be borne in mind that the decision of the Judge is rendered with reasons in the presence of, and under scrutiny of, an experienced and vigilant Bar, who surround the parties and the Court, and are observant spectators of the proceedings. This publicity in the practice of the law—this open public controversy—assuredly necessitates a hardy training on the part of the members of the profession. To the graduates in medicine I would say this—that if your noble and beneficent vocation is plied in the privacy of the sick chamber, often away from the scrutiny of human eye, and with only the Unseen Eye watching your actions, your profession for this reason more especially appeals to your conscientiousness, for your patient is, humanly speaking, entirely at your mercy, and is unreservedly and entirely in your hands. Do you not labour all the more tenderly, the more pitifully, because suffering humanity lies so helplessly before you ? Let me say this also—that it appears to me that your profession is peculiarly honoured by the fact that the Divine Being, who became incarnate and dwelt among men, plied your vocation

when he healed the sick and cured divers diseases. And among the triumphs of Christian missions in this century I do not know anything more interesting and significant than the fact that the mighty influence for good of your profession is enlisted in Christian missions by the formation of so-called medical missions—by the union of your profession with the vocation of the Christian missionary, so that the healing of the body may lead to the healing of the soul.

I will close with two thoughts as to the duties of you who have to-day become graduates. It is a counsel continually given to you, but which deserves well to be dwelt upon, because of its importance—that you should be ever learners. Your profession is one of research and study, as well as one of action. You must, by mental activity, keep abreast the march of human progress, or you will be inevitably left behind in the race. Take an illustration. I was a student in Paris 1840, at attended a course of lectures on chemistry given there at the School of Medicine by Mr. Orfila, the celebrated Toxicologist. The science of chemistry has made great progress since then, and if I had then received from Orfila all the knowledge of science then possessed by that great chemist, and if I now attempted to teach a class of chemistry on the knowledge of 1840 communicated by Orfila, I need not say how valueless that teaching would be to the students of 1876. It is plain then that the acquisitions of middle age should be a great advance upon those of youth. Do not repine if the first years do not fulfil your expectations the future will afford you golden opportunities for systematizing your knowledge, and utilizing your experience, and in this way you will pursue studies without which no valuable results will ever be retained. In such wise do justice to your profession, and a celebrated London physician said, rely upon it your profession will one day do justice to you. Another counsel I would give you is to beware how you regard any portion of your professional duties as “drudgery.” There is no more dangerous rock on which to make a shipwreck of your prospects. Regard everything—the minutest details—in your profession as interesting—every instrument the lawyer draws or copies, and copying is most important. Lord Chancellor Eldon, who was the most eminent Equity judge in England of his time, said that in his younger days he copied everything in the shape of a deed that he could lay his hands on. Every time you attend public offices, the chamber of counsel, or the judges’ or are in Court, or the Hospital, at all these times let your observation be incessant. The late Sir Astley Cooper, one of the most eminent of English surgeons, when giving some interesting particulars about his early career, said that he counted nothing drudgery when he entered his profession, to which he gave himself up altogether, doing everything that he could find to do, never caring how disagreeable or repulsive it was,—nor whether he did it over and over again ; for he reflected that *practice* would make perfect ; and by doing so, he had seen out and done better than a good many fine gentlemanly fellow-students.

THE ACTING CHANCELLOR said as Dr. Hingston had not been present for a number of years at the annual convocation, and as he was then in the room he would call upon him to state whether the University had made any progress since he left the institution.

HIS WORTHY MAYOR HINGSTON drew an amusing contrast between the past and present. He was certainly impressed when looking over that vast assemblage with this contrast. When he graduated, there were precisely five ladies present, and it was at that time an understood thing that no lady under a certain age or over good looking should approach the college grounds. He was pleased to say that it was now fashionable not only for the age but also for the youth and beauty of the city to attend on such occasions.

The Rev. Dr. Wilkes closed the proceedings with prayer.

POETRY.

The Pilgrims of the Plains.

BY JOAQUIN MILLER.

They climbed the rock-built breasts of earth,
The Titan-fronted, bloody steep
That cradled Time where Freedom keeps
Her flag of white-blown stars unfurled.
They turned about, they saw the birth
Of sudden dawn upon the world.
Again they gazed ; they saw the face
Of God, and named it boundless space.

And they descended and did roam
Through levelled distance set round
By gloom. They saw the silences
Move by and beckon; saw their forms,
Their very beads, oft time in storms,
And heard them talk like silent seas.
On unnamed heights black-blown and brown
And torn like battlements of Mars.
They saw the darkneses come down.
Like curtains loosened from the dome
Of God's cathedral, built of stars.

They saw the snowy mountains rolled,
And heaved along the nameless lands
Like mighty billows, saw the gold
Of awful sunsets, saw the blush
Of sudden dawn, and felt the hush
Of Heavens when the day sat down,
And hid his face in dusky hands;
Then pitched their tents, where rivers run
As if to drown the fallen sun.

The long and lonesome nights: the tent
That nestled soft in sweet of grass.
The hills against the firmament
Where scarce the moving moon could pass—
The cautious camp, the smothered light,
The silent sentinel at night!

The wild beasts howling from the hill:
The troubled cattle bellowing;
The savages prowling by the spring,
Then sudden passing swift and still,
And bended as a bow is bent,
The arrow sent; the arrow spent
And buried in its bloody place,
The dead man lying on his face!

The clouds of dust, their cloud by day,
Their pillar of unfailing fire,
The far North Star. And high, and higher—
They climbed so high it seemed at noon
That they must face the falling moon,
That like some flame-lit ruin lay
Thrown down before their weary way.

They learned to read the sign of storms,
The moon's wide circles, sunset bars,
And storm-provoking blood and flame:
And like the Chaldean shepherds came
At night to name the moving stars;
And in the heavens pictured forms
Of beasts and fishes of the sea;
And marked the great bear wearily
Rise up and drag his clinking chain
Of stars around the starry main.

OFFICIAL NOTICES.

Ministry of Public Instruction.

APPOINTMENTS.

The Lieutenant-Governor has been pleased, by order in council, dated the 29th day of March, 1876, to make the following appointments:

SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.

County of Bagot, Saint-Ephrem—André Belleval, junior, *vice* Pierre Savoie.

County of Bonaventure, Saint-Charles-de-Caplan—Messrs. Roch Xavier Bigaouette and Sifroi Lepage, *vice* Messrs. Frédéric Frelatte and Salomon Babin.

County of Gaspé, Cap-aux-Os—Messrs. J. B. Oncllet, Thomas Smith, John Robert and Louis Lemieux.

County of Kamouraska, Pohenégamook (Saint-Éleuthère)—Revd. Edouard Roy and François Morin, Euchariste Bouchard, Eusèbe Sirois and Joseph Lebel.

County of Ottawa, Hull—The Reverend Father Delisle Reboul,

Moise Daigneau, Joseph O. Laferrière, Hercule Pinard and Emery Perin.

County of Quebec, Cap-Rouge—Michel Hamel, junior, *vice* Jean Moisan.

TRUSTEES.

County of Gaspé, York—Messrs. James Fitzpatrick, Charles Lehouillier and Martin Power.

County of Gaspé, Gaspé-South—The Reverends Majorquin Balduc, Alexandre Gollis and Michael Dowling.

MISCELLANY.

How shall we Spell?—How our English words shall be spelt is a matter concerning which the great mass of those to whom the language is native appear to have pretty fully made up their minds. They intend to tolerate no change in the present orthography. Those who put forth proposals for its alteration, whether in certain words and classes of words only, or upon a wider scale, are set down and laughed at without mercy. No one, we presume, will be found to question that one very important reason why we cleave to our present modes of spelling is the simple fact that they are ours. We have learned them by dint of diligent study, if not of painful effort; we are used to them; our spoken words in any other garb would look to us strange and quaint, or even ridiculous. To give them up would imply a revolution—such an overthrow of a grand institution, firmly rooted in the usages and predilections of a wide community, as no race or generation has ever yet been willing to permit, save under the pressure of some great and profoundly-felt necessity. And we acknowledge no such necessity; far from this, we think we see a variety of reasons why our favourite institution is preferable to any that could be put in its place. Precisely here, however, we ought to feel most distrustful of the ground we stand upon. It is easy to overvalue, or even wholly to misinterpret, reasons apparently favouring conclusions which we are already determined to reach! Let us, then, enter into a summary examination of the alleged advantages of our present English orthography, for the purpose of determining both what is their actual worth and how far we rely upon them in our defence of the institution. *Alleged Advantages of the Present Spelling.*—First to be noticed among the advantages referred to is the convenient discrimination to the eye of homonyms, or words which are pronounced alike but have a different origin and meaning. A familiar example is afforded us in the written distinction of *meet*, *meat*, and *metc*, and another that of *to*, *too*, and *two*. Such triplets, as every one knows, are not very rare in our language, and couplets of the same sort are to be counted by scores. Now, we have to observe that any credit which is given to our written language in this particular must be taken away from our spoken language. We gain nothing by writing the uttered syllables *meet*, and *too* in a variety of ways, unless, when uttered, they are of ambiguous meaning. If our minds are for even the briefest moment puzzled by such expressions as "he goes *to* Boston," "he goes *two* miles," "he goes *too* far," not knowing which *too* is meant in either case, then it is worth while to avoid a like difficulty in our reading by spelling the word differently. But who will consent to make so damaging an admission? There is a language in the world (the Chinese) where the words are so few, and their meanings so many, that orthographic differences are brought in as an important aid to comprehension, and the writing follows, upon a grand scale, not the utterance alone but the signification also. Thus there are more than eleven hundred ways of writing the word "e," and other words count their representatives by hundreds, by scores, or by tens. A host of devices have to be resorted to there in spoken speech to get rid of ambiguities which are wholly avoided in written. Our English, however, is not afflicted with such poverty of expression as to be brought to this strait. We have also three different "sounds"—"found," from "find"; "found," meaning "establish;" and "found," meaning "cast," "mould," between which, we venture to say, no soul ever thought of making a confusion, though they are all spelt with the same letters. Is there any one who cannot tell, by the ear or by the eye, when "cleave" means "stick together" and when it means "part asunder"? Who ever find any more difficulty in separating bear, "carry,"

than in separating either of these from bare, "naked?" Of how infinitesimal value, then, is the Chinese principle as introduced into English usage! We may blot out every vestige of it from our vocabulary to-morrow, and it will never be missed; the written language will still continue to be as good as the spoken; and if anyone is not content with that, let him migrate and learn another tongue. If the principle is to be kept and made much of, let us agree to give it a more consistent application; let us not spell alike words so different in history and use as the three "found"; when the same vocable diverges into meanings widely dissimilar, let us vary its spelling a little to match, not writing in the same way "she became ill" and "her dress became her," not telling the lawyer and the lover go to "court" in the same orthographic fashion—yet more, when there has been a divergence of pronunciation as well, as when a "minute" portion of time has become a "minute." Let us separate the "read" from the "reads," as we have separated the "led" from the "leads;" above all, let us not compound together in spelling words distinct in every respect—derivation, sense, and utterance—like the verb "lead" and metal "lead."—From "Linguistic Studies." By W. D. Whitney, Professor of Sanskrit and Comparative Philology in Yale College, New Haven. U. S.

—Some years ago (says a contemporary) a learned and ingenious writer in the *Quarterly Review* attempted to establish the relation of cause and effect between national character and verbal forms of salutation. In the "shalum"—peace—of the Jews he traced the appreciation of a nomadic people of what was to them the highest because rarest good, and he matched it with equivalent words of greeting among the Bedouins and the American Indians. In the "chaire"—be glad—of the Greeks, he saw plain indications of a disposition whose leading tendency and chief aim were to rejoice and be merry. In the "salve"—be healthy—and "vale"—be strong—of the Romans, he perceived manifestations of the spirit befitting the conquerors of the world, who only in later and degenerate times condescended to the "Quid agis, dulcissime rerum," the "Quid agis," as he conjectures, being far older than the "dulcissime rerum" with which Horace connects it. What could be more appropriate than the "sanità e guadagno"—health and gain—of the commercial Genoese, the "crescete in sanità"—grow in piety—of the Neapolitans, and the "rab vash"—your slave—or "kholop vash"—your serf—of the Russians? Similar lessons are to be derived, it was contended, from the "comment vous portez-vous" and "comment ça va-t-il" of the French, the "buenas tardes" and correlative replies of the Spaniards, the "wie gehts" and "leben Siewohl" of the Germans, the "come sta" and "come state" of the Italians, the "Hoe vaart's ge" of the Hollander, the "Hur mür ni" of the Swede, the "lev-vel" of the Dane, and so forth. "How is your stomach?" says the "Heathen Chinees;" "Do you perspire copiously?" inquires the polite Egyptian: both of which particular queries, and many more besides, are included in our comprehensive formula, "How are you?" But "How do you do?" can only be described as "an epic self-contained" if as it is affirmed, it "is sufficient to account for Trafalgar, Waterloo, steam-engine, railway, Exeter Hall, *Times* newspaper *Punch* itself," and if, as it is affirmed, it ought to have been made the chorus of "Rule Britannia." "To do! Surely this contains the whole essence of productive existence, national or individual. To do! It is the law and the prophets, the theoretic and practick, the whole contexture of life. And this doing is so universal among us, it is such a completely recognised and accepted fact, that we do not ask a man, What do you do? but, How do you do? Do you must; there is no question about that"—a very useful thing to be remembered, in one sense, in all business transactions. The correct theory of "ave:"—"Nunc et in æternum, Frater, ave. atque vale."

—The *Lancet* calls attention to an additional and unsuspected evil due to the prevalent mania for competitive examinations. These so-called "test or individual capacity" have been multiplied in all directions, and have increased in severity. "Formerly," says the *Lancet*, speaking rather of private than of public schools, when competition was limited to the struggle for a college scholarship or a place in the university class-list, and the army, navy, Civil Service, and East India Company's appointments were only to be obtained by interest, schools were selected on different principles than are now recognized. Then more regard was paid to the plan and method of education, and almost every school possessed in this respect an

individuality of its own. At the present time the object of education appears less a matter of steady training and the patient laying of solid foundations, than a system of successful cramming, and a school seeks for reputation more in the number of public prizes annually won by its scholars than for the soundness of its scholarship. For a considerable period after the first introduction of the competitive system the great public schools made no effort to extend their system of education. Consequently large proprietary colleges, such as Marlborough and Cheltenham, were founded in order to meet the new requirements. These establishments differed only from the public schools in affording facilities for the study of the extended range of subjects required for the public competitive examinations, the traditions and methods of the older schools being, however, still closely adhered to. The success and popularity attending these proprietary colleges led to the establishment of others, though not on such a sound basis, and the multiplication of so many institutions, all struggling for fame and existence, has led, we fear, to the introduction of a very unsound system of teaching." The *Lancet* has examined the prospectuses of many of these schools, and it has generally found the hours of work to be excessive, ranging from forty-five to forty-eight hours a week, which give a daily average on four whole school-days of eight to nine hours, and six hours and a-half on two half holidays. Eight hours a day of mental work is a considerable strain even for an adult; how much more for mere children, who have also to expend so much force to meet the vital requirements of the growing frame! Moreover, in adult life, the work, being more mechanical, is accomplished with less intellectual excitement than is the case where fresh facts and new ideas are constantly being acquired. As a general rule, the *Lancet* is of opinion that thirty-five hours of school work a week for boys under fourteen, and forty-two hours for boys above that age, is as much as the health and strength can fairly stand; while the success that still attends the old public schools, who rarely exceed these hours, shows that they are amply sufficient for educational purposes. This is a subject to which "parents and guardians" cannot too speedily turn their attention, for it is certain that from them and not from schoolmasters the remedy for the evil thus exposed must come in the first instance. The extent to which the evil is carried on, especially in the neighbourhood of London, is extraordinary. A gentleman connected with an educational establishment of high standing, and who has often spoken with authority on education questions, considers the subject to be worthy of Government inquiry. Only a Royal Commission could get at the real truth, and reveal the amount of mischief that has been done by the reckless employment of the grinding system. In the same manner that factory children are protected from excessive physical labour ought the children of our middle-classes to be protected from the excessive strain that ambitious parents and schoolmasters would put on them. It should never be forgotten that youth is the period of growth and development, and that the boy is then laying in the stock of health which has to bear him bravely through the vicissitudes and struggles of adult life. A few hours of work can speedily be made up later on, but nothing can restore the tone to the jaded nerves exhausted by premature toil and excitement.

The Way Out of Poverty.—There are many thousands of respectable persons and families in our land at the present time greatly crippled by pecuniary embarrassments, and not a few are grinding in the prison-house of poverty, and know not the way out. In most cases there is an honest and honorable way out. The way marks are good common sense in exercise, industry, self-denial, good economy, and pay as you go. Let us look at these waymarks on the road to prosperity:

1. There are thousands ground down in perpetual poverty simply because they do not and will not bring their good sense to bear upon their circumstances. They build castles in the air, and these come tumbling down on their heads. Instead of depending upon small and honest gains with saving, they attempt to raise themselves by artifices and doubtful speculations. Wisdom in all these matters are profitable to direct. A daily dose of good common sense, applied outside and in, would straighten things out and set them to building on the rock of industry and frugality, and not on the vagaries of an erratic fancy.

2. The poor man, if he means to rise must look well to his time and skill. These are both marketable commodities, and bring money. Every laboring man must make the best possi-

ble use of his time and skill. They are his stock in trade, and should not remain idle. A day wasted is at best like throwing so much money in the fire. If there is no work in the shop, in the office, or store, there is in the garden, in the wood-house, or in the house, making improvements and putting all right. Allow no time to run to waste; no time for visiting, for excursions, or pleasure-taking when wants call for toil and attention. "A diligent hand maketh rich." A poor man who loafes away \$50 a year soon squanders enough in this way alone to furnish himself and family with a good cosy home.

3. Another way-mark on the road from poverty to prosperity is self-denial. You do not need fancy clothing, nor fancy food, nor fancy amusements, nor society. Our real wants are few and simple. The most of us may weed out much from our tables, our wardrobes, and our sensuous pleasures, and our health and happiness would be improved, and much money for the day of need. Tobacco, patent medicines, artificial drinks of all kinds, confectionery, pastry and condiments may be banished from our lips, hearts and tables with a great saving of time, health and money. I speak from many years of experience and know whereof I affirm. Self-indulgence is a prodigal and a spendthrift, and comes to want and often to crime.

4. Another way-mark of prosperity is good economy. This consists in making a good and wise use of our means, our time, talents, earnings, and income. The economist is a neat, tidy, industrious careful, trustworthily man, who allows nothing to waste through neglect. Such men with a common chance always work their way up hill and enjoy more and more of the sunshine of prosperity.

5. But there is one more way-mark. It is: Live within your income and pay as you go. A poor man should never get in debt in a single penny for his living. If you ever mean to work up into competency, shut down the gate of debt so far as current living expenses are concerned, and live wholly on your earnings and earnings in hand. It is miserable slavery to be in debt for your daily bread. This is inexcusable shiftlessness. It should be abandoned at once and forever by every poor, family. If you can live at all out of the alms house, you can live on your earnings, or income. Do not allow them to run away from each other. Keep income and earnings face to face, and what you cannot now pay for, go without till you can. Wear the old hat, the old coat, the old boots, dress and bonnet till you can pay for a new one. So of your food; if you cannot pay for roast beef, go without it till you can; if you cannot pay for butter, sugar, eggs, etc., let them go till you can. Trim in, and trim down the expenses and pay as you go, and bring the living freely, fully inside of the income, and you will soon be in easy circumstances. These simple rules, heartily adopted and faithfully carried out, and nine out of ten now embarrassed and put to their wits how to live, floundering in the slough of honor, would speedily find the sunny path of prosperity, and become independent in their circumstances.—P. R. R., in N. Y. Witness.

Higher education.—At the quarterly meeting of the Teachers' Association held on Friday evening last, (24 March) Dr. Kelly remarked upon the above subject as follows:

The English Universities have taken an active part in this great educational movement. The effect of their school examinations has been wide-spread and beneficial. Dotheboys Halls have been closed, and the governesses in *Vanity Fair* have found their occupation gone. Year by year the applicants for the University School certificates have increased. For the Cambridge certificate there were in 1871, 2,843 candidates; in 1872, 3,075; in 1873, 3,550; in 1874, 4,283 of which 2,652 were boys, and 1,636 girls.

Oxford, London and the College of Preceptors, have followed this lead of Cambridge. Last year over 10,000 boys and girls came forward to test their training by the University standard.

The success of this effort, with the growing demand for higher education, has resulted in the "University Extension Scheme." This contemplates the establishment in every important town of an institution which shall provide the highest education possible; its lecturers, to be men of proved ability and experience; its curriculum, to embrace a course of instruction worthy of the great universities; its aim, to make the man at the desk, and the workbench, and the young woman in the shop, and in the drawingroom all alike members and students of the University. So far this scheme has met with more than success. Take Cambridge alone. In 1874 three cities took advantage of it. Last year lectures in the Physical Sciences, Logic, History, and in English language and literature, were

delivered to 3,500 students in sixteen of the great commercial centres of Northern and Central England.

In this movement the increased educational advantages of women are specially noteworthy. In 1869 Girton College for ladies was established at Cambridge, mainly to prepare students to pass the University examinations. At the general examination for the ordinary degree of B. A. last year a student of Girton stood at the head of the list, and "in 1873 another sent in the best philosophical papers for the year—an achievement which would have earned a college fellowship for her if she had been a male student of the University." Although passing all the required examinations, Cambridge yet refuses to grant ladies the honour of its degrees. In this respect, however, Cambridge is behind the University of London.

At the late intercollegiate contest in New-York, in which eleven American colleges were represented, the prize in Greek was won by a lady from Cornell.

In selecting English authors for school study we should begin with what is attractive—as, for instance, Robinson Crusoe and Longfellow's Evangeline. These might be fitly succeeded by the stirring lays of Macaulay, Scott's Ivanhoe and Lady of the Lake; then Irving's sketches or selections from Addison's Essays, a poem of Milton, of Spenser, or of Chaucer. In the same advanced classes there might be a careful study of an oration of Burke or Pitt, of a drama of Shakespeare, and of selections from the unrivalled prose writings of Lord Bacon. Three hundred years ago English literature was represented by Chaucer and Gower, and students were, therefore, compelled to turn to the ancient classics. Now we have a literature which is unsurpassed, worthy of the labour of the scholar, and placed within the compass even of the poorest.

Darkness or light.—In the rooms more commonly used the blinds are kept closed, the slats being turned barely enough to permit the entrance of sufficient light to see to work by. The sunlight is not permitted to enter on any account. Frequently the upper part of the window is covered by an opaque and closely-fitting shade. At the very best the window is shaded above and the light is thrown in under the eyes, or on a level with them.

Now this is not the best for health nor for pleasure. Nature's method is to give light from above, and plenty of it. Our windows are usually placed not far from right. If we leave them all exposed, the light will all come in mostly at the top, and fall on our work and on our eyes from above, as it should. This saves our eyes from many a strain and from premature weakness. Besides this, to work in the light, and even in the sunlight, is far more invigorating to the general health than to work in the shade. People hear this frequently. It is iterated and reiterated in the papers continually, and yet we see intelligent women sitting day after day in rooms where it is barely light enough to see to work, and never once letting the direct sunlight into them. The very flies are too sensitive to live in such an atmosphere.

The exposed window is far pleasanter also. It gives us in many cases a landscape view like a picture every time we raise our eyes from our work, and that, too, without the trouble of going to the window to look out. It gives us a view of the sky, which we do not get at all by the ordinary method of draping, and this is one of the brightest and most changing views we have. It gives us an abundance of light for our work. This strengthens the eye. We can hardly get too much of it, unless the sunshine falls directly on our work or on our eyes.

"But these bare windows look staring."
Do they? Well, that depends very much on how you have been accustomed to look at them. Still, if you wish some ornament for the parlor windows, drape them with lace or Swiss.

For the other rooms, let this drapery be only a light frill across the top of the window. This is very pretty and inexpensive and you will come to like it in time, better than the other.
—From *Science of Health*.

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