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THE CANADA
EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY
AND SCHOOL MAGAZINE.

MARCH, 1883.

THE HUMOURS OF EXAMINATIONS.

AS a rule, examinations are not regarded by the outside world as occasions on which a display of humour may be expected. But if exceptions prove the rule, then may examinations claim to afford a very rich fund of ludicrous incidents. There are naturally varied circumstances in examinations which call forth the wit of the candidate. The humour varies, in fact, with the particular person who is being examined, and what is the topic of conversation between examiner and candidate. There is to be distinguished a medical as well as a legal humour; and conspicuous amongst the occasions which afford opportunity for the display of the ludicrous, are those examinations which, dignified by the name of "general knowledge" trials, afford a very wide and rich field for the ingenuity of candidates.

A thought may suggest itself to readers who reflect upon the subject of examination humour, that of all circumstances, the position of a candidate at an examination table is the

least likely situation to evoke a sense of the humorous. The racking of the brain to find an answer to an oral question, the knowledge that the examiner is waiting with a fixity of gaze for one's reply, and the desperation with which at last the candidate may rise to the occasion, form a series of circumstances, out of which a joke might be regarded as least likely to arise. But it is this very desperation which is frequently the natural parent of the witticism. The candidate makes up his mind to say or write something, and that something, as often as not, is, in an innocent moment of inspiration, a joke.

One of the frequent causes of humour at examinations is of course the ignorance of candidates. A person was once asked to answer the question, "Who was Esau?" His reply was highly characteristic. "Esau," said he, "was a man who wrote fables, and who sold the copyright to a publisher for a bottle of potash!" The confusion of "Esau" and "Æsop," of "copyright" and

"birthright," of "pottage" and "pot-ash," is an example of humour of by no means an unusual class. Another student was asked to give some account of Wolsey. His reply was *ut que*. "Wolsey was a famous General who fought in the Crimean War, and who, after being *decapitated several times*, said to Cromwell: 'Ah, if I had only served you as you have served me, I would not have been des t ed in my old age!'"

In an examination destined to test the general knowledge of young lads about to enter the ranks of professional student life, a series of questions was put as tests of the reading of the candidates. The following were some of the replies obtained from the aspiring youths. "What was the Star Chamber?" Answer: "An astronomer's room."—"What was meant by the Year of Jubilee?" Answer: "Leap-year."—"What was the Bronze Age?" Answer: "When the new pennies became current coin of the realm."—"What are the Letters of Junius?" Answer: "Letters written in the month of June."—"What is the Age of Reason?" Answer: "The time that has elapsed since the person of that name was born."

The replies given to questions of a scientific nature are often of a remarkably curious, not to say extraordinary kind, and appear frequently to result from a want of appreciation of the exact meaning of the teaching. We know, for example, of a student in a popular class of physiology, who on being asked to describe the bones of the arm, stated in the course of his reply that the bone of the upper arm (named *humerus* in anatomy), "was called the *humorous*, and that it received its name because it was known as the 'funny bone.'" The Latin name of the bone had evidently become confused in the student's mind with the popular name given to the elbow, the nerve of which on being

violently struck, say, against a piece of furniture, gives rise to the well-known sensation of "pins and needles" in the arm and hand. Another answer given in an anatomy class is worth recording. The teacher had described the *tarsus* or ankle-bones—the scientific name of course being simply the Latin equivalent for the ankle. No such philological idea had troubled at least the student who replied to a question concerning the ankle, "that it was called the *tarsus* because St. Paul had walked upon it, to the city of that name!" Still more ludicrous was the confusion of ideas which beset a student who was questioned regarding the nature of the organ known as the *pancreas* or "sweetbread," which, as most readers know, is an organ situated near the stomach, and supplying a fluid of great use to the digestion of food. The reply of this latter student was as follows: "The sweetbread is called the Pancreas, being so named after the Midland Railway Station in London." Anything more extraordinary or ludicrous than the confusion of ideas as to the relation between St. Pancras Railway Station and an organ of the human body, can hardly be conceived.

It is related of a rough-and-ready examiner in medicine that on one occasion having failed to elicit satisfactory replies from a student regarding the muscular arrangements of the arm and leg, he somewhat brusquely said: "Ah! perhaps, sir, you could tell me the names of the muscles I would put in action were I to kick you!" "Certainly, sir," replied the candidate; "you would put in motion the flexors and extensors of my arms, for I should use them to knock you down." History is silent, and perhaps wisely so, concerning the fate of this particular student. The story is told of a witty Irish student, who, once upon a time, appeared before

an examining board to undergo an examination in medical jurisprudence. The subject of examination was poisons and the examiner had selected that deadly poison, prussic acid, as the subject of his questions. "Pray, sir," said he to the candidate, "what is a poisonous dose of prussic acid?" After cogitating for a moment, the student replied with promptitude: "Half an ounce, sir." Horrified at the extreme ignorance of the candidate, the examiner exclaimed: "Half an ounce! Why, sir, you must be dreaming! That is an amount which would poison a community, sir, not to speak of an individual." "Well, sir," replied the Hibernian, "I only thought I'd be on the safe side when you asked a poisonous dose." "But pray, sir," continued the examiner, intent on ascertaining the candidate's real knowledge, "suppose a man did swallow half an ounce of prussic acid, what treatment would you prescribe?" "I'd ride home for a stomach-pump," replied the unabashed student. "Are you aware, sir," retorted the examiner, "that prussic acid is a poison which acts with great rapidity?" "Well, yes," replied the student. "Then, sir, suppose you did such a foolish thing as you have just stated," said the examiner; "you ride home for your stomach-pump; and on returning you find your patient dead. What would you, or what could you, do then?" asked the examiner in triumph, thinking he had driven his victim into a corner whence there was no escape. "What would I do?" reiterated the student. "Do?—why, I'd hould a post-mortem!" For once in his life, that examiner must have felt that dense ignorance united to a power of repartee was more than a match for him.

Incidents of a highly ludicrous nature frequently occur in the examination of patients both by doctors and by students. A professor on one

occasion was lecturing to his class on the means of diagnosing disease by the external appearance, face, and other details of the patient. Expressing his belief that a patient before the class afforded an example of the practice in question, the professor said to the individual: "Ah! you are troubled with gout." "No, sir," said the man; "I've never had any such complaint." "But," said the professor, "your father must have had gout." "No, sir," was the reply; "nor my mother either." "Ah, very strange," said the professor to his class. "I'm still convinced that this man is a gouty subject. I see that his front teeth show all the characters which we are accustomed to note in gout." "Front teeth!" ejaculated the patient. "Yes," retorted the professor; "I'm convinced my diagnosis is correct. You have gout, sir!" "Well, that beats everything," replied the man; "it's the first time, sir, I've ever heard of false teeth having the gout. I've had this set for the last ten years!" The effect of this sally on the part of the patient, upon the inquisitorial professor and his students, may be better imagined than described.

Occasionally within the precincts of colleges and universities, a rich vein of humour may be struck in a very unexpected fashion. On one occasion a professor, noticing that certain members of his class were inattentive during the lecture, suddenly arrested his flow of oratory, and addressing one of the students, said: "Pray, Mr. Johnston, what is your opinion of the position of the animals just described, in the created scale?" "Mr. Johnston" was forced to say that "really he had no views whatever on the subject." Whereupon the professor, turning to a second inattentive student—who had evidently not caught "Mr. Johnston's" reply or its purport—said: "Mr. Smith, what is your opinion of the

position of these animals in the classified series?" "Oh, sir," replied the innocent Smith, "my opinions exactly coincide with those just expressed so lucidly and clearly by Mr. Johnston!"

There are examiners, and examiners, of course; some stern, others mild and encouraging; some who try to discover what a student knows, and others whose aim appears to be rather that of elucidating the ignorance of the candidates who appear before them. But to the end of time, there will be humour mixed with the grave concerns of testing knowledge, which

is, for both sides, a hard enough task. The student who, when asked by a stern examiner what he would recommend in order to produce copious perspiration in a patient, replied, "I'd make him try to pass an examination before you, sir!" had a keen sense of humour, which it is to be hoped the examiner appreciated. His answer was in keeping with the question which has been argued by us and by others, whether the whole subject of examinations, as at present conducted, should not be thoroughly overhauled and revised.—*Chambers' Journal.*

PRECOCIOUS MENTAL DEVELOPMENT.

BY SAMUEL FINDLEY, D.D., SOMERVILLE, O.

THE great tendency of the age is to encourage and foster the precocious development of the intellectual powers. To make the school-boy intelligent and learned beyond his years, is the favourite problem of both parents and teachers, and too frequently do they accomplish it. School boards, with all their enlightened wisdom, are the ready victims of the same fatal ambition, and hence many schools have imposed on them a curriculum of study which cannot be mastered by the pupils within the required time unless at the expense of the harmonious and healthful growth of the intellectual powers. Long and careful observation of the effects of this prevalent and growing evil, has induced me to direct the attention of the educators of the State and the friends of a pure humanity to this subject. The future status of our race—physically, intel-

lectually, morally—depends on the educational theories which are reduced to practice in the school-room. Here a mistake may prove fatal, and at no time in the life of our children, is it so important that their instructors be guided by enlightened reason and true philosophy.

Judging from the large number of primary text-books, designed to reduce the principles of the more abstruse sciences to the easy comprehension of the minds of children, and the readiness with which they are introduced in some of the most popular schools, I am compelled to arrive at the conclusion:

That many of the leading instructors of youth suppose it to be the great end of education to communicate facts—to pour into the mind, as into a vast reservoir, a large amount of information—to burden it with knowledge, as one would burden a

pack-horse with corn—to stuff it with principles as you would stuff a purse with coin—not always regarding its actual capacity, being guided more by their conception of what it ought to be than by what it really is. Hence the pride with which teachers and parents often speak of the unusual intelligence of John or Mary. How far John surpasses those of his own age—that his preference is always for the society of men and women, that he takes no delight in the sports and rambles which so much attract boys and girls from their studies, and that his whole soul is on fire with the thoughts of the best writers, and that he always thinks wisely and profoundly on every subject.

One such specimen of precocious boyhood is enough to spoil the gambols of a whole neighbourhood of boys. They cannot indulge an hour in bodily exercises congenial to their tastes, and appropriate to their age, without hearing from their ambitious parents the name of this intellectual prodigy, who has outgrown his boyhood, cast up to them as a model of intellectual greatness, who is not *wasting* his time (?) in childish sports but pursuing knowledge *like a man*. To please their fond but misguided parents, and to meet the unreasonable demands of the school-room, they must drive nature from her stronghold, and restraining their propensity to act rationally, they must enter their study and strive to be intellectually men and women before their time.

While the laws of their physical nature are thus ignored, how is it with the mind? Is its relation to a material organization taken into consideration, by those who are directing and developing its activities? Does the thought ever seriously enter their minds, that the intellectual powers operate through the instru-

mentality of a mysteriously organized brain? That the successful and healthful development of the former must calmly await the growth and development of the latter? That the mind, however wonderful its innate energies, is limited in its capacity by the organism through which it acts? That the brain advances toward maturity and strength only with the healthful growth of the other parts of the body? And that its premature development resulting from the precocious activity of the mind, will abstract physical energy from the other animal functions, and ultimately enervate the whole man? Let us seek an answer by examining the pile of text-books we often find on the study-table of a boy of twelve summers. If a due regard to the laws of the mind and the body and their mutual relations had influenced his parents he would not have been sent to school till he was at least seven years old; but we learn that he has been a pupil under tutors since the bright age of five years. I am glad that this offence against nature is not committed as often as formerly; but I am sorry that school boards do not forbid the admission of scholars before the age of seven years. Boys are thus pressed forward in their studies, till, at twelve, before the brain power is sufficiently developed, they are studying the most abstract rules of arithmetic, and algebra, together with grammar, geography and history, in each of which a lesson must be recited daily, together with the usual filling up of orthography, reading, and penmanship.

A prodigy indeed! But such as we often meet, especially among our young girls, whose haste to become ready for the enjoyments of social life drives them, as with a goad, through their educational training. The result of this undue pressure of the mind, is either very superficial

scholarship, or a ruined physical system, trembling with the spasmodic twitching of overtaxed nerves and weakened by chronic indigestion. The mind cannot *safely* receive more information than it can appropriate, by healthful digestion, to its own development. In this respect the mental functions are analogous to the physical. Overtask any muscle, and you weaken it, and induce general physical debility. Hence, after an unusually hearty meal, when the digestive organs are taxed beyond their normal ability, great lassitude prostrates the whole system, often ending in sleep. The great natural law governing these cases is this, that when the exercise of any function becomes excessive, the increased vital power needed in the emergency must be abstracted from other parts of the system. There can be no creation of vital power to meet the demands of the extraordinary activity of any one function.

The mind operates by means of the *brain*, which is the most impressive and the most complicated physical organ in man. By the susceptibility of this organ to external impressions, the mind acquires all its knowledge of the outer world, and by the mysterious inter-working of the mental powers within this finely elaborated structure thought is developed and ideas find expression. There can, therefore, be no undue excitement of the mind which does

not proportionately press into undue activity all the brain-power of the body. And through the brain the nervous system will be affected and a general prostration of the physical energies will ensue. Especially will the digestive organs be weakened by the withdrawal from the stomach of that cerebral force so necessary to its healthful and vigorous action.

If the physiological compact between the brain and the stomach be disregarded, by extraordinary and unnatural drafts upon the brain-power through excessive study, the stomach will soon avenge itself upon the health of the man, by the loss of appetite and all the pains of an obstinate dyspepsia. There are hundreds of scholars who have brought upon themselves constant bodily pain, and have enveloped themselves in the dense gloom of blue melancholy for life, by the fatal mistake of overtaking their brain in youth.

Fellow teachers, awake to the importance of this subject, and use your influence to correct the morbid desire of parents to encourage the precocious growth of the minds of their children. Study well the laws of that compound organism which God has committed to your training, and be guided by them in your teaching, and a generation of men and women of highly cultured minds and healthful and vigorous bodies will rise up to bless you and reverence your memory.—*Ohio Educational Monthly.*

THE *Philadelphia Times* says:—"There should be a great deal more oral instruction, and a great deal less of text-books. Especially should there be a less stringent and exacting rule in regard to memorizing from text-books. A teacher who cannot teach history or geography without requiring a pupil to answer questions in the exact lan-

guage of the text-book is not fit to be a teacher. Some teachers exact from pupils a degree of accuracy and verbal memorizing in this regard which the teachers themselves could not attain to, and which not a single member of the School Board could reach, even if they had to be 'kept in after school' every day in the year."

SCHOOLMASTERS AND THEIR OFFICE.

BY A. T. S.

WHO shall assign a date to the first ridicule of the schoolmaster and the tutor? Comic writers have made him one of their favourite butts, and even grave writers have betrayed him. Some have mocked him in his chair of authority, and some, like Pope and Churchill, have shot at him flying. At home with his pupils, or travelling with them, he has never been safe. With his ferule, he has been a monster; without it, an impostor, affecting a home and family tenderness which he cannot be expected to feel in reality. Sidney, Shakespeare, Ben Jonson, Beaumont and Fletcher, Bishop Corbet, and we know not how many more of our early writers, who could command the laugh of the town, have all had their fling at him; indeed, of such writers, we may ask, who has ever said a solitary word in his favour? But his discredit is older, far older, than this. Juvenal in Rome laments over the want of appreciation, and the ill-paid services, not of the sham school speculator, but of the really doctus Palæmon, who might well have shed tears, not, as Isocrates did, at having to accept a fee, but at having to accept so very small a one. We could copy many an ugly picture. St. Augustine calls the school system of his day "magna tyrannis et grave malum;" and the learned Erasmus, in his *Encomium of Folly*, describes the master as "taking a great pride and delight in frowning and looking big upon the trembling urchins; in boxing, slashing, and striking with the ferule:" and this last, near about the day of Grocyn, Linacer, Ascham, and Dean Colet, when, if ever, a short gleam of honour

shone upon the profession of the schoolmaster. In vain, on the other hand, have some of our best heads in England striven to come to the rescue, and tried to prove that the profession should be one of honour, and not of obloquy. In no country, not even in France, have the laughers had so much of their own way, and for so long a time, as in England. It is one of our longest, if not our final test; and, with a view to give it fair opportunity, every public question is put in every possible light, and made to throw itself into every conceivable attitude. It may be almost asserted that nothing whatever has been established in England that has not passed triumphantly through this ordeal, which our national character makes the severest of all. The school and schoolmaster have had their full share. Lord Bacon, in his *Advancement*, vindicates the instruction and the instructors of youth from contempt, and loudly condemns "the disesteeming of those employments wherein youth is conversant, and which are conversant about youth;" and he set his seal to the truth of his words in the letters to Secretary Conway, written many years afterwards, in which he requests for himself the appointment to the provostship of Eton. Bacon missed it; but the man who held it—Wotton—thought it no disgrace to have changed the duties of a statesman and an ambassador for those of a pedagogue, which he esteems as a high and public office. These are his words at the opening of his survey of education: "If any should think education, because it is conversant about children,

to be but a private and domestic duty, he will run some danger in my opinion, to have been ignorantly bred himself." Not to weary the reader with quotations, which, however, are far less easily met with on this side of the question than on the other, we will only add a line or two from Cowley's essay on "Liberty:" "I take the profession of a schoolmaster to be one of the most useful, and which ought to be of the most honourable, in a commonwealth." Thus, at least, some great men have shown themselves disposed to pay respect to the office, where those who hold it suffer it to be respectable, and have thought highly of the post when they have thought of it as they would themselves have wished to fill it; that is to say, they have honoured their own ideal of the tutor and schoolmaster. Now, again, for the actual. How far has the public feeling towards the pedagogue been undergoing change? Hundreds of influential writers have given, by their remarks on education, an importance to the office of the educator. There has been an immense accumulation of records of gratitude from individual pupils to individual teachers, and respect for the office itself has risen—but how slowly! Bushby, in spite of those magnificent "blooms of his rod," with whom, in full expansion, Dr. Johnson nearly fills one of the volumes of his "Lives of the Poets," is a name rather smiled at than honoured; and the schoolmaster-in-chief of our own day, Arnold, is compelled to confess, in one of his private letters, that the educator, as such, holds no position, and that it is desirable to attach "the Reverend" as soon as possible, to give a greater prestige. There is still such a mingled feeling of dislike to, and suspicion of, the office that our novelists and satirists, like those of old, can make their play upon those who hold it, taking unfavourable

specimens as fair representatives of the class, and feeling that enough of public feeling is still with them to make their portraits popular. The rich chairs of the higher public schools are, indeed, sought for by men of mark, as being among the most likely prefaces to a bishopric, but even these not by men of family; indeed, men who are, or fancy themselves, of anything like high caste, without means in proportion, would, for the most part, rather beg, borrow, or live in the narrowest way, than lose that caste by earning money in any office of education. This is the simple fact, however painful it may be to state it. You may cite to them great men, from Dionysius to Louis Philippe downwards, who have been engaged in instruction; or tell them, in the words of Adam Smith, that legions of the worthies of Greece thus employed themselves. You will not get men of high family to fancy that a schoolmaster's office is anything but a subordinate one. Search the rolls even of college tutors, private and public, and you will find, almost without exception, that they are men strictly of the middle—occasionally of the lower—class. One main reason of this unquestionably is that men of real or supposed high social rank, though they would submit to vegetate upon two or three hundred a-year in a Government office, responsible to two or three official superiors, would detest the idea of being in any way minutely accountable, as the instructor must be directly, to every parent who chooses to intrust him with his son, whether patrician or plebeian; still more unpalatable is the idea of an income made up by private and often plebeian payments; for, to the Government official, the numerous private payments which supply his salary are purified by being filtered through the public purse. There is a certain sense of favour, private patronage, and ob-

ligation in the schoolmaster's position, if we accept the very highest, from which even the merchant, in his transactions, is comparatively free, or at least feels himself so; or the professional man, who receives his fee for some distinct single exercise of his craft; the *quid pro quo* is more measurable and distinct in the exchange of goods for money, and money for goods, than where the moral is paid for by the material, the uncertain by the certain, and where not one parent in twenty feels quite sure that he has got his money's worth for his money. However well the schoolmaster may feel that he has earned and over-earned the payment, his consciousness of the parent's uncertainty often acts disagreeably on his own mind, and, indeed, is one of the almost inevitable pains of his position. Then, again, whatever Bacon, Wotton, and the rest may have said, men, and especially proud men, desire to mix with and to struggle with their coevals, and dislike the idea of perpetual engagement with the immature—a feeling at which no one can wonder; and thus it is that, though education is a topic popular and fashionable, in which some of our social and political leaders really feel, and all affect, interest—on which our statesmen from the Premier downwards, give amateur lectures all over the country during parliamentary recesses—yet, however great the appetite for talking about education, its duties and responsibilities, its practice is about the very last employment to which most of the lecturers would resort. It is much the same with the man of letters; he likes to view his scholarship as a grace, not as a stock-in-trade; and, if he is ever a schoolmaster, it is generally his necessities that make him so; school labours interfere with his insatiable yearning for endless self-instruction. He, indeed, often scatters throughout his

works invaluable hints on the disposition of youth, on its capacities, its tempers, its training. Scarcely an English moralist can be mentioned who has not done so—hints, many of them, never picked up by the drudging, but often unreading, schoolmasters for whose guidance they were intended. Look at La Bruyère, Rousseau, De Staël, Jean Paul, Lamartine, Souvestre, and a host of others, by whose golden sentences on youth and its discipline the majority, even of our upper teachers, seem never to have been made one whit the wiser; for it is only here and there a man who, after the toils of the day over print and paper, has energy to labour on, on his own account, or courage to withdraw from his fireside enjoyments for any purpose of private study. And here it may be observed that, as a high appreciation of the advance of other minds can scarcely be conceived to exist without an intense desire of the improvement of one's own, so every schoolmaster of a really high order makes a sacrifice for which it is impossible to make a compensation approaching to adequacy. Even the pleasure of seeing his pupils advance, one by one, far on paths of honour is not always without a certain sadness, such as one may be expected to feel who is ever giving passports to a land of promise and beauty into which he himself is never destined to enter.

Another reason of prejudice against the schoolmaster and his office, not much in itself, because often shared by him with the members of some other professions, but considerable when added to the sum of objections, is that he is generally poor—without capital, except his education; or with a very small capital. We know upon how many minds in England this is likely to tell, and there is no denying the fact or averting its consequences upon the vulgar estimate of the schoolmaster's profession. We simply state

this, not wishing to diverge into a vain protest against mammon worship, but because, as is the estimation of a schoolmaster, so will often be the average schoolmaster himself, the quality of an article in these cases often actually tending to sink to the value at which it is rated, whether the estimation is originally a fair or an unfair one.

The tendency of public feeling, then, as we have endeavoured to show, and we believe without exaggeration, is, however, much in favour of education, rather against the individual educator, tending to keep him down; and on him lies the onus of raising himself, and with himself, as far as possible, the estimate of his profession. Most of the sources of prejudice to which reference has been as yet made are, it must be owned, almost necessities of his position. His main payments, especially where teaching is connected with boarding, coming from private hands; his subjection to innumerable petty interferences and remonstrances, and the general consciousness that he is so subject; his amenability to private criticism rather than to large public judgment as to his efficiency; his general want of large means; the main business of his life concerned with children and boys, not with men, and strongly leading him to trace the same eternal and limited circle, often real, always imagined; the confining nature of his labours, generally keeping him in a great measure secluded from the world of men, and from a liberalising mixture with general society—and, on the other hand, if he does so mix, the ready inference that his duties are neglected; nay, his very efforts to give dignity to his position, and shake off some of what are deemed its humiliations, sometimes leading him too far in the other direction, and tending to what is by no means uncommon in many schoolmasters, a

blunt want of courtesy, and an unnecessary giving of offence, and an absolute unreasonableness, in order to shake off every semblance of servility;—all these, we say, are disadvantages against which it requires a very superior mind indeed, and a constant and consummate exercise of practical judgment, to buoy up his profession; indeed, they are difficulties and disadvantages which will probably permanently hinder it from ranking amongst the professions *par excellence*. We speak not so much here of young men who commence life as educators, and who are respected for the credit of another future which they often have in prospect, as of the doomed and devoted instructor for life, and who must, out of his profession, or in spite of it, get his respectability.

Most of the difficulties above mentioned are the “inseparable accidents” of the profession as exercised by most private, and even by some public, schoolmasters and tutors. There are others which we are obliged to state, or we should not be taking a thorough view of our subject. There is a kind of admitted claim that one who sets up as a teacher and guide should himself approach to something like perfection of character, though probably no one who presents this bill seriously expects to find it honoured to the full. Then there is a shrewd and very general suspicion that the profession is a makeshift, as truly it often is; indeed, to those who dislike it—and they are the majority—the occupation seems so eminently repugnant that they have the greatest difficulty in conceiving that any one can possibly have a sincere taste for it; they would scarcely credit such a passion as that professed by a clever French baronne to us, carrying conviction in the very terms of its expression: “J’avais dès mon enfance un goût dominant d’instruire et documenter quelqu’un.” If we honour,

above all, a man whose heart is in his profession people are not likely to be much disposed to honour a profession into which they fancy that not one out of twenty of its professors can possibly throw his heart. These are further reasons for popular prejudice more or less just.

Then there are perils of character to which the instructor of the young is greatly exposed, and is known to be so, as he is too often giving proof of it. Notwithstanding his vague and occasional responsibility to parents, most of his daily life is spent in having his own way, and so every fault of his disposition is in danger of running to excess, whether it be penuriousness, impatience, irritability, favouritism, indolence, unreasonableness—faults all of which would be exposed to smart checks if his intercourse lay with men. This liability however, is not like some of the others. We have mentioned an inevitable disadvantage, which demands a constant vigilance for its counteraction, and only a naturally noble heart and originally happy temper rises unscathed ever from the perpetual ordeal, a man's very superiority so often making him impatient of imperfection, and his mental excellence constituting his moral trial.

Besides the real drawbacks and difficulties which are the cause of his disesteem, and the deserved censure which he often incurs, the schoolmaster is subject to certain unreasonable demands, and, if he fails to satisfy them, to consequently unreasonable charges. From one of the most frequently urged of these, supposing him in other respects to be a "good man," we here mean to defend him, and check, if possible, those who seek to bring him into discredit on false grounds. One of the commonest accusations against the schoolmaster in the present day, especially if there is no other fault to find with him, is

either that he has not got the tact, or will not consider it to be his duty, to consult the peculiarities of his individual pupils, and adapt his treatment and tuition separately to each character. Where a man has five or six pupils, or even ten or a dozen, the demand may be made reasonably enough; but we have heard one of the foremost men of the present day bring the charge against the masters of the public school at which he was educated that they did not spy out, cultivate, and give him credit for the talent which has since made him world-famous, though at fifteen or sixteen years of age he bade the said school farewell. The French novelist, Mürger, taking probably pretty much the same view of a master's obligations, speaks with all the bitterness of personal feeling, and with considerable coarseness, of the "*méthode unique d'enseignement brutal*" pursued at some schools.

Sir Joshua Reynolds' father, we are told, wrote indignantly under one of the great painter's early sketches, made at an improper time, "Done by Joshua, out of pure idleness:" who shall blame the father for not foreseeing a grand, but what was then a problematical, career? A schoolmaster may, perhaps, have more secret sympathy with a lad who is fond of spouting scraps of Shakspeare than with one who says his Horace perfectly. The boy may possibly be a Garrick in embryo; but, if the master were to make provision for any such development, the chances are that in the end he would find himself mistaken. The boy who can amuse his schoolfellows, and, perhaps, his teacher, with an ingenious story may possibly be an unfledged Walter Scott; but the chances are that he is nothing of the kind. A sensible master knows this, and that his only proper course is to give his preference, if he gives a preference at all, to a boy who will show his spirit,

talent, perseverance, and ambition by running fairly and straightforwardly in the same path with his fellows, and fairly beating them in it. Probably the greatest man was never much the worse for anything he was compelled to learn in a really good school, whether he liked it or not. The teacher has sometimes very little opportunity for observing peculiarities of genius, especially if they lie out of the common track; often no time, consistently with his duty, for consulting its caprices; often not that many-sidedness in himself which could appreciate the specialities which may happen to exist in fifty or a hundred pupils. To bring out the good common working qualities, and those most

likely to be useful in the common professions and usual walks of life, is the master's duty and plain wisdom; and the regularity of a system, common as far as possible to all, is the best discipline for a boy. The real fault is where a master takes the other plan, and pays special attention to pet boys, giving them more than a just share of his time; for this, too, he will find plenty to blame him, and with very good reason. To some masters, indeed—especially the crotchety and dishonest—this is an overpowering temptation, particularly in schools of unwieldy size; and we may have again occasion to refer to it.—*The Schoolmaster, London.*

A GLANCE AT EDUCATION IN GERMANY.

HAVING recently paid a visit to Leipsic and other parts of Saxony, we propose to lay before our readers a few cursory remarks upon schools and colleges, wishing it to be understood that many, if not most, of our observations will be equally applicable to other parts of Germany, and also to the German cantons of Switzerland. As we have already said, attendance at a school has long been compulsory, and the means employed to enforce attendance are much more severe and summary than have yet been tried in England, or perhaps ever will be. The school age is from six to fourteen years. Before the age of six great numbers of children attend schools conducted upon the Kindergarten system of Froebel, who was a native of the little village of Schweinau, about twelve miles from Eisenach, on the edge of the Thuringian Forest. In the course of our tour we visited this village, and made

a pilgrimage of respect to the grave of Froebel. It seems to have been one of Froebel's principles that very young children should not be prematurely taught to read, but should have their natural powers of observation and intelligence awakened and sharpened by exercises better suited to their tender years and undeveloped capacity. When a boy enters a German school at six years of age he usually learns to read and to write the alphabet simultaneously. His ear, his eye, his tongue, and his little hand all find employment. He hears the schoolmaster utter the sound of a letter, he sees that letter immediately written upon the blackboard; he is then told to imitate with his tongue *the sound* uttered by his schoolmaster, and, lastly, to imitate with his hand upon a slate the same letter which he has seen written upon the blackboard. The names of letters are not mentioned for a long time. Upon this system of

beginning to teach reading and writing to children at six years of age it is surprising to note how rapid is their progress under an able and zealous teacher. By the adoption of this method the time spent in learning to read common words in simple sentences may be reckoned by months instead of years. It is one of the most marked characteristics of German instruction that it is so extremely methodical, slow, and thorough. In arithmetic, for example, it is always a prime object with a German teacher not to be content with obtaining right results, but to insist further on finding out whether his scholars have really grasped the processes and principles involved in attaining the results. Thoroughness and exactness are amongst the most important and valuable marks of the German character. These qualities pervade the barrack-room, the drill-ground, and the battle-field just as much as the school-room. It seems as if the Germans had thoroughly and heartily accepted the maxim—"that whatever is worth doing at all is worth doing well." Till a scholar has thoroughly mastered one step he is not prematurely urged to take another. With the German teacher this plan is quite natural and easy, because in his country there are not as yet (and, for his sake, we hope there never will be) any fixed "standards" of examination which must be annually passed by every school. Of course there are in Germany School Inspectors and periodical examinations of the scholars, for the purpose of testing amply and thoroughly their proficiency and the progress made from year to year. But these examinations are not conducted by the School Inspectors as ours are now in England, upon the cast-iron system that sprang from the principle of "payment by results." The Germans would ridicule the idea of paying vast sums of public money for

mechanical results in the art of instruction. We once had occasion to explain to a school inspector on the continent what was our system of inspection in England. He listened attentively to our account, which roused, first, his amazement, and then his amusement, for he could not refrain from laughing at such a mode of testing the real merits of a school or the efficiency of a teacher.

The methodical, systematic, and graduated steps deliberately taken in every German school, in accordance with a carefully considered theory of education, have led the Germans to adopt three distinct classes of schools, with courses of instruction of a perfectly distinct type in each of them. For children who are not likely to remain at school beyond the statutory age of fourteen there is the elementary school; for children who can remain at school till they attain the age of sixteen, and are likely to be employed in some commercial or manufacturing position of responsibility, there is the "Réal-schule," or, as we should call it, the "Commercial" school, where Latin and a modern language are learnt, in addition to other ordinary subjects; and, lastly, for those who are destined to enter one or other of the numerous universities of Germany, there is the "Gymnasium," or, as we should call it, the "Grammar-school," where Greek is taught. In each of these three classes there is a regular systematic curriculum of work to be done, so that the scholars in the lower schools are never allowed to attempt subjects which they will not have time to master during their stay at school. Hence, in German elementary schools no place is found for our "Specific Subjects" and a "Fourth Schedule."

Having seen how methodical the Germans are in defining the work in the three classes of schools above named, we shall be fully prepared to

expect that there is an equally systematic course of instruction prescribed for Normal Colleges. There are no pupil-teachers in Germany; and, consequently, the Normal Colleges of Dresden, for example, admit candidates at fourteen years of age, direct from the elementary schools, and retain them for six years, till the age of twenty, when they are appointed to situations by the School Inspectors. A time-table lying near us at this moment shows what are the subjects and hours of instruction during these six years of residence in the Normal College. An examination is held at the end of every year; and if a student fails to satisfy his examiners, he has to go over the same subjects again for another year; and, as his parents have to pay about £10 a year for his education, it is no slight punishment for a student to be put back for a year. This time-table shows that the students are not confused by a multitude of subjects of study—the principle being here, as elsewhere, to do thoroughly what you undertake to do at all. They devote much time to the theory and practice of music, vocal and instrumental. They learn

Latin very thoroughly, but not French, English, or Greek. Their native language, of course, is closely studied, and so is the Art of Teaching. They do not attempt half-a-dozen distinct "sciences," but only one—called "Knowledge of Nature"—comprising such an amount of natural philosophy as will enable them to teach children the leading facts and principles of science applied to the wants of everyday life in town and country. It is impossible to avoid the inference that a system of regular class instruction day by day for six years, with only occasional interruptions during attendance in the Practising Schools, must necessarily produce far riper and sounder knowledge than can reasonably be expected from our system of four years' apprenticeship and irregular instruction, followed by two years' spasmodic exertion in a training college. It is a common mistake amongst us to attempt to master too many subjects of study in an inadequately short space of time. Knowledge so acquired is seldom full and accurate, and usually is extremely evanescent.—*The School-master.*

IN this the age of telegraph and telephone as well as steam, when the clear rays of the electric light drive even the natural darkness of night away, it is indeed wonderful that such a large amount of superstition should remain. Troy, in the State of New York, has of late been the scene of an outbreak of the old superstition of the healing power of the seventh son of a seventh son. The outbreak of spiritualism and other kindred beliefs is a peculiarly modern affair, but this seventh son legend can at least claim the benefit of extreme age. As long as the seventh of seven confines his manifestations to healing the sick without demanding payment he is a peculiarly harmless character unless, indeed, he manages to

transform some harmless, weak-minded person into a raving lunatic. On the whole he cannot do any more harm than the Indian doctors and patent medicine pedlars who go about the country selling their drugs and taking the money out of the pockets of those who believe in them.—*Montreal Witness.*

SOME scientist has been translating the songs of our childhood into the language of the learned. The little piping rhyme beginning, "Twinkle, twinkle, little star," has been changed into this rhetorical blast from the trombone:—

"Scintillate, scintillate, globule vivific;
Fain would I fathom thy nature specific.
Loftily poised in ether capacious,
Strongly resembling a gem carbonaceous."

A BOY'S BOOKS, THEN AND NOW—X.

BY HENRY SCADDING, D.D., TORONTO.

(Continued from p. 73.)

I HAVE still to notice Littleton's Dedication. Having been not simply an eyewitness of the troubles of England in 1649-1669, but an actual personal sufferer from them, it was to be expected that his satisfaction at the restoration of the Stuarts would be great. It was to be expected, too, that his gratitude to Charles himself would be lively, inasmuch as in his case a good deal had been done to reinstate him in the emoluments, honours and comforts of which he had been deprived. But the terms used in the Dedication of his dictionary to the King exceed all bounds. He accosts Charles as a divinity. After the inscription, "Ser-enissimo Domino D. [for Divo] Carolo Secundo, Dei gratiæ Britanniarum, Franciæ, et Hiberniæ Regi, Antiquæ et Apostolicæ Fidei Defensori, Christianæ Pacis Sequestro," he proceeds, "Non aspernabitur Sacro Sancta ac Diva Majestas tua ea est Numinis tui clementia ac benignitas quâ universos subditos tuos complecteris, hoc quale quale munus literarium ab homine domestico oblatum." But it is not beneath the dignity of exalted personages, he says, to patronize letters. Julius Cæsar himself wrote books; witness his rhetorical work entitled, "De Analogiâ Linguæ Latinæ," and the deified Augustus (Divus Augustus) established a library dedicated to Apollo on the Palatine Mount, wherein were assembled the works and busts of all worthy Greek and Latin authors; of which library a view adorns the book, he adds. Moreover, had not Charles been in-

vested with the title "Pater Patriæ"? How fitting then that a work intended for the benefit of the youth of Britain should be consecrated to him! He then compliments Charles on the successful issue of his efforts to bring about for all Europe the so long desired peace [the peace of Nimeguen],—which explains the allusion in "Christianæ Pacis Sequestro," in the superscription.

Examples of quaint English, of course, abound in Littleton. I do not observe that he indulges his spleen against political opponents, as South did, and Johnson afterwards. I notice that he turns a slang expression of the Court probably, namely, "a gifted brother," meaning a Puritan or Roundhead, into Latin by the words "fanaticus homo, enthusiasta, batto-logiæ deditus, a fanatical person, an enthusiast, one given to vain repetitions in his prayers." One startling translation of a Latin word appeared in the first edition of Littleton's Dictionary. While the work of compilation was going on, an amanuensis innocently asked of Littleton, but somewhat superfluously, as he seems to have thought, in regard to the Latin word "concurro," whether it meant "to concur." "Concur," replied Littleton, either testily or jocosely, "Oh! no, *condog!* of course." And down went "condog" as the English of "concurro;" and so in due time it came forth solemnly printed. This rendering causes the first edition of Littleton's Dictionary to be sought after.

(a) *Ainsworth*.—I now at length arrive at Ainsworth. Most young students of Latin amongst us were formerly familiar with Ainsworth's Latin Dictionary, and probably possessed a copy in common with brothers or school-fellows. However, few of us probably ever saw a true Ainsworth in its plenitude, as we have it here, in two thick quarto volumes. This is the third edition, with additions and improvements by Samuel Patrick, LL.D., Usher of the Charterhouse School; and printed by C. J. Ackers in London in 1751 for twenty bookselling houses, all named, among them the still flourishing Rivingtons and Longman. The Dictionary, in fact, seems to have been got up by them to displace Littleton. The title is "Thesaurus Linguæ Latinæ Compendarius, or Compendious Dictionary of the Latin Language designed for the use of the British Nations." Opposite the title-page is the Royal License or "Privilege" from George II., signed by the Secretary of State, Harrington, and securing to the booksellers named the sole printing, publishing and vending of the work within the kingdoms and dominions of the King for fourteen years. After the inevitable Dedication appears Ainsworth's Address, "Eruditus et Puræ Latinitatis Amatoribus," in Latin of course, and filling two quarto pages of small print. "Although in judging of a work," he says, "it matters little who the author is—the *quid* being a more important question than the *quis*,"—as he expresses it; yet, nevertheless, he without scruple will give some information in regard to himself. Formerly, he says, namely, in 1736, he was the conductor of a private school, but now for many (twenty) years he had been living as an emeritus; and he is forward to state this, he says, not so much on account of the often quoted injunction, "non artem pudere proloqui quam factites"

—not to be ashamed to speak out boldly of the craft which one follows—but from his sense of the equal utility and dignity of his former occupation, and the fact that the remembrance of a life almost wholly spent in a career so pleasant has become most delightful to him. He then proceeds to speak of the difficulties which he had experienced at the beginning of his professional life in finding useful helps for his pupils in the ready conversion of English into Latin and Latin into English, a practice on which he always laid particular stress in his system of instruction. He then describes how he was hence induced himself to undertake, first, an English-Latin, and then a Latin-English Dictionary, to be more full and more idiomatic than any other existing work of the kind; a task most laborious. After the Latin address comes a Preface in English filling twenty pages, in which he gives an exhaustive account of all the preceding Latin Dictionaries by English writers, Elyot, Cooper, Barret, Thomasius, Philemon Holland, Rider, Holyoake, Grey, Wase, Goldman, Littleton, and Elisha Coles; and he especially criticises a manual much used in his day in schools, known as the Cambridge Dictionary, and he shows that it was full of inaccuracies and barbarisms. Here again we have numerous illustrations of the state of flux the English language has all along been in; of the continual abandonment and adoption of words and phrases which are all the while taking place in it. Alert, dupe, furlough, stock-jobber, air-pump, chicken-pox, box, set, etc., were recent introductions, and dumps, puff, punt and others had acquired new meanings, all necessitating special renderings in Latin; while in the Latin itself the issue of more and better texts of the classics since the times of preceding lexicographers had rendered a strict

revision of all words and phrases quoted by them very necessary for accuracy and elegance.

The Dedication is not directed to a royal personage this time, but to the eminent physician, Dr. Robert Mead. Ainsworth calls him the *Mæcenas* of the period, the universal patron of every project, literary and scientific. "Ad te tanquam ad commune aliquod perfugium et unum hodie *Mæcenatem*, *cujus ope et favore adjuventur et protegantur, undique se conferant.*" He enumerates some of the important books which had been already dedicated to Mead, and the publication of which in England he had promoted—the whole works of Bacon, Chishull's *Asiatic Inscriptions*, and Thuanus. Like *Asclepiades*, the friend and medical adviser of Cicero, Mead, Ainsworth says, was a devotee of both *Apollos*, the literary and oratorical, and the medical. He therefore desires to put his *Thesaurus* under his guardianship. There is no accession to the good fortune of his patron that he can implore. Riches? he has them already, conferred on him by the benign *Hygieia*. The favour of nobles or of the august King? He has it now. Glory and a deathless name? These are secured to him by

the gratitude of the world. All he can do is simply to pray God that he may be preserved to his fellow-men in life and health, so that he may continue to enjoy his felicity as long as possible. Mead had a European reputation as a scientific medical man, and was the author of many scientific works, some of them written in a fine Latin style. The great physician *Boerhaave* was a life-long friend and correspondent of his. His house, we are told, was the noble receptacle at once of genius and talent, and of every thing beautiful, precious and rare. His curiosities, whether books or coins or pictures, were laid open to the public, and the enterprising student and experienced antiquary alike found amusement and a courteous reception. After his death his collection of books, pictures and coins sold for over £16,000. As for Ainsworth, he died in 1743, æt 83, and was buried at Poplar, near London. The following is part of the inscription on his memorial stone, prepared by himself, "Rob. Ainsworth, et Uxor ejus, admodum senes, dormituri vestem detritam hic exuerunt; novam primo manè surgentes induturi. Dum fas, mortalis, sapias et respice finem."

DR. NUSSBAUM, in detailing his examination of children at different hours of a long school day, says that a child who will easily take in a lesson at the first hour, and make excellent answers while his powers are fresh, is stupefied at the eighth hour, and finds it hard to apprehend what he could easily have understood earlier. He is especially strong in his condemnation of the

system of home lessons. "It is an error to suppose," he adds, "that an ordinary child really acquires much more knowledge in eight hours than in four hours." When the powers, are fresh, active, and unrestrained, the process of learning goes on successfully; but, when they are worn, limp, and overtaxed, next to nothing can be satisfactorily acquired and assimilated by the learner.

THE VULGAR TONGUE.

BY GODFREY TURNER.

"REFINING influence" is a phrase not seldom used in attempts to determine and appreciate the effects of civilization upon language, as well as the direct and indirect action of many causes upon civilization itself. What is "refining influence"? Nobody can tell. Refinement is an effluence, a drawing away; not an influence or accretion. To speak, therefore, of a "refining influence," is as absurd as it would be to talk about "a desperate hope," which expression of confused ideas is also not unknown to modern speech. Vulgarity, of a sort, our late English tongue can hardly be said to lack; though it has lost much that, in a better signification, we might be proud rather than ashamed to call vulgar. The frequent use by persons of rank or pretension, by coalheavers, and by other useful and useless members of society, of foolish and unmeaning expletives, will supply the readiest examples of one species of vulgarity, both in its dregs and in its froth or scum. In another and far different kind of vulgarity, the poetical, the practical, the homelier, terser, honester, earnest kind, our holdings are less than they were, by many an ingot of pure metal.

Ten thousand terms, made to accommodate technical necessity or physical investigation and experiment, could not add a doit to the wealth of a language. In no sense are they new words: in no measure or degree are they ours. Raked from antiquity, pieced and patched with greater or less cunning, they now

serve, not one nation, with a language of its own, but all nations pursuing science and scientific invention with a terminology in common among them. The truth is, we can add little, and should be jealous of adding much, if anything, to a language that is once formed. But it behoves us to keep what we have; to regain, if possible, what we had; and always to put our possession to the best uses in our power, resisting habits of careless makeshift in the choice of indifferent words to express our thought. Patient inquiry might force us to the conviction that fermentations instead of influences, impoverishment without refinement, have changed the language of Englishmen. We might even be driven to suspect that those good agencies on which our forefathers relied are beginning to fail us now, and are even turning traitors: that printing, which forced writing more than once to the point of absolute perfection, has afterwards hastened its decay; that writing, which erewhile made an exact man, now maketh at best a self-satisfied and over-confident man; that the theatre, which modelled oratory in a past age, has destroyed it in the present. We have a glibber productiveness in authorship than was ever prayed for; but it often suggests the difference between the two famous orators, one of whom never paused or wanted a word, while the other, pausing at times, never wanted *the* word. Journalism, in its hot haste, its indifference to all but the business of the hour, and its contemptuous dismissal of the day's work so soon as it

has lapsed into the work of yesterday, has much to answer for. Mischief of another kind has been done by the ill-advised meddling of the "purist." Whoever first committed to the legibility of black and white that vicious noun-substantive has, it may be hoped, lived to repent a deed that offends forever against verbal purity. What other English noun *quod exit in ist* has been tinkered out of an adjective? A *purist* we might understand as a being somewhat differentiated from a puritan; but "purist," among all blundering conceits of modern phraseology, stands distinguished from its misshapen fellows by an unapproachable singularity of malformation.

It is the "purist" who has led the cry against a few verbal favourites of his aversion, such as "talented," "reliable," and similar small game. Let us deal first with the case of "reliable." Verbs that need an intervening preposition before the object—verbs not transitive, but mostly used in application to some person or thing, as transitive verbs are always—yield no adjective-participles. Hence, the word "reliable," proceeding by bend sinister from one of those intransitive verbs, is condemned as an adjective-participle that has no legitimate position. This is lawful judgment, no doubt; and "reliable" must down on his knees and sue for mercy. He should have been "rely-on-able," if anything. But why does "reliable" stand at the bar alone? Where are his companions, "indispensable," "laughable," and "unaccountable," whose aliases should be "indispensable-with-able," "laugh-at-able," and "unaccount-for-able?" A word used by Coleridge is "inappealable;" if he did not coin it, he must have taken it advisedly from some approved source. This word stands on a level with "reliable" and the rest; and wants the preposition "from" between the par-

ent verb and the adjectival termination; viz., "inappeal-from-able." Like Captain Macheath, rogue "reliable" might wonder to find himself without better company beneath hangman "purist's" gibbet.

Now for "talented." This is a cant word, scarcely used by any but the lowest class of writers; but to condemn it on the ground of its irregular formation, there being no verb "to talent," is to betray ignorance or thoughtlessness such as would at once disable the criticism. There is no verb "to neat-hand" but "kind, neat-handed Phillis," our pastoral acquaintance of good old time, is well understood to be a young person gifted with neat hands. So, we have "skilled," though there is no verb "to skill," except a verb that is not to our purpose, and has hardly been used since the poet of "The Faerie Queene" employed it in its ancient sense, "to be of importance," or "to signify." Unless we are prepared to quarrel, then, with "skilled," "neat-handed," "blue-eyed," "web-footed," "bandy-legged," "broad-shouldered," "fair-haired," and the like, because there are no corresponding verbs "to skill," etc., the objection to the word "talented," on that score, is untenable. All verbs were nouns originally, and every day that a horse is saddled, or its rider is booted and spurred, saddle, boot, and spur, though plain substantives that all may see and handle, are verbs for the nonce, and good verbs too. As, in condemning a few words which are not a jot worse than a great many that escape condemnation, persons deficient of original reflection or judgment follow in a dusty track of pseudo-criticism, so, on the opposite hand, the adoption of other words as favourites is likewise a matter of imitation. Poor authors will wear the second-hand thoughts and phrases which come in their way, or will furtively assume the garb of their

bettors, as Jane the housemaid "tries on" her mistress's new bonnet. Of such scribbling folk it may be said, as of Autolycus tricked out with the courtier's robes, their garments are rich but they wear them not handsomely.

In the vocabulary of the modern Quicklys and Malaprops are the words "fain," "greet," "circumstance," "incident," "effluvium," "sumptuary," "decimate," "holocaust," "allege," "wholesale," "conflagration," "immense," "phenomenon," "preposterous," "culminate," "assiduous," "partake," and "ovation." It is your "Saxon" Malaprop who mostly affects "fain" and "greet." He misuses both the adjective and the verb very strangely. If any man has grievously failed in an effort to do or to get something, and is driven to put up with something else instead, the Saxon Malaprop says that the discomfited person was "fain" to accept the disagreeable alternative. Now "fain" signifies "joyful" or "glad," in which true sense good English scholars, like Mr. William Morris and Mr. Swinburne, are now using the old word, perhaps a little too lavishly. A greeting is a salutation; to talk, therefore, of "greeting" a man should awaken no idea of pelting him with mud, material or metaphorical. But it is no uncommon thing to read, in the Parliamentary reports, some such statement as that the honourable member for Clare was greeted with ministerial groans; or, in the record of a party meeting, that a rash dissident from popular opinions was "greeted" with cries of "turn him out." No malapropisms are commoner than the often misused words "circumstance" and "incident," both being written indifferently as signifying mere matters-of-fact. Whether "a circumstance" is, in any case, an allowable expression may be doubted. Circumstances stand around; and any one thing that

stands around, unless it be a ring fence, or a fog, is hardly conceivable as a possibility. But the gravity of the error lies in a distinction less capacious. A quarrel or accident in the street is not a "circumstance;" but it may be explained, or excused, or accounted for by circumstances. A fire breaks out in a building, and burns it to the ground. This is not an "incident;" it is a fact. If anybody were to jump out of a window, while the fire was raging, that would be properly described as an incident. And again, if the supply of water were to fail, if the turncock were slow or quick in coming, if the engines were early or late, any of these things would be circumstances, for they would surround the fact and modify its results. "Effluvium," with its plural, is a noun often misapplied, and yet more frequently restricted to one of its many applications. By "effluvia" is vulgarly meant evil odours; and of course an effluvium may be an outflow of foul air. But it may just as well be a stream of pure water. Many writers employ the adjective "sumptuary," as if it belonged exclusively to dress; whereas it may relate to all matters of luxurious living; and if the old sumptuary laws should be revived they might reach the epicures who waste their patrimony on *patés de foie gras*, opera-boxes, horses, carriages, jewels, and rare wine, as well as the extravagant wearers of costly attire. "Decimate" is a verb which, with its adjective-participle, "decimated," is ludicrously mistaken. Its original significance was grave and often terrible; for it meant no less than taking the tenth of a man's substance, or shooting every tenth man in a mutinous regiment, the victims being called out by lot. This appalling character of decimation lay in the likelihood that innocent persons, slain in cold blood, might suffer for the guilty. But the peculiar horror vanishes when

we alter the conditions; and a regiment which has taken part in a hard-fought battle, and comes off the field only decimated, that is to say with nine living and unscathed for each man left on the field, might be accounted rather fortunate than the reverse. We come now to "holocaust," the use of which noun often betrays ignorance quite as gross. Thus, the dreadful loss of life by the sinking of an excursion steamboat on the Thames was recently spoken of as a "holocaust," by which remarkable misprision of etymology the Thames was set on fire indeed.

Few words are commoner in the language of the newspapers than the word "alleged." To allege anything, if the old meaning be good, is to affirm it with the exactness of a despatch. But the participle of this verb has found new service. Whenever any doubt is felt that a murder is a murder, the deed is softened to an "alleged" murder. Whenever a man loses his watch and his senses, and cannot tell exactly how they went, the lamentable occurrence is chronicled as an "alleged" robbery. According to these new linguistic lights, an allegation means a guess. "Phenomenon" applied to something wonderful and abnormal, is a common instance of high-flown vulgarity, much in the mouths and on the pens of persons who can hardly have compassed the truth that a shower of rain is just as positively a phenomenon as is a shower of frogs, a calf with six legs, Miss Crummies, or an enormous gooseberry. "Immense" is an adjective seldom used but in such a manner as to confute its own meaning. Thus in an account of some discovery beneath an ancient ruin, it was said that skeletons of great size were found, one of them being of "the immense length of seven feet ten inches." If the length of this skeleton was really seven feet ten inches, or ten feet seven

inches, how could it have been "immense"? So, too, we read of walls of "immense" thickness, and pumpkins of "immense" girth. Are there, then, no foot-rules or measuring-tapes to reduce these immensities? A "conflagration" is not the burning of one house; it is the meeting of flames, as when a street, town, or village is fired in several places. "Culminate" is a verb incorrectly used, unless in respect of something which has reached the limit of its possible height. When, therefore, the career of a wrong-doer is said to "culminate" in the lowest depths of degradation, the term is misapplied, even to being turned upside down. So is the term "assiduous," when employed to strengthen the idea of perseverance, if the particular kind of perseverance intimated be locomotive and not sedentary. So, too, is "preposterous," unless clearly denoting the figure which homely rhetoric describes as "putting the cart before the horse."

The word "ovation," from which many timid writers appear to have been frightened by a persistent course of ridicule, not always, or often, justly bestowed, was used with propriety whenever it signified a minor triumph, or anything that could, by a reasonable feat of imagination, be so dignified. It is true that we do not sacrifice a sheep when we applaud a victorious general, a fine fiddler, or a favourite singing-woman; but the spirit of historic words survives their literal matter-of-fact signification, or language would be dry and colourless indeed. When this noun, "ovation," is uttered in any connection with imperial progress — when a sovereign, at some rare climax of popular enthusiasm, receives the homage of the nation in its one undivided voice — then, indeed, the word is out of time and tune with the event. It is precisely an emperor, empress, or head of a state, who can-

not be said to receive an "ovation," this being an award of praise distinctively reserved for meritorious subjects of the empire. Over and over again, after his Italian battles, Napoleon III. was said, in print, to have received "ovations;" and the solecism was repeated, years after, when the Emperor William entered Berlin, in such triumph as surely precluded the idea of any minor sacrifice. Had pagan rites been revived at that time, no simple, silly sheep, but Jove's own chosen shape and symbol, the majestic bull, would have bled on the laurel-wreathed altar. It was a triumph with a capital T. We have seen how the dabbler in what he is pleased to call, very loosely, "Anglo-Saxon," boggles with "fain" and "greet." One of his kind, not long ago, gravely condemned, as a vulgar phrase, "I would as lief;" and, in pronouncing his mighty fiat, disclosed the sum and substance of his knowledge concerning "lief," by spelling it "leave." Not only is "lief" (Saxon *leof*, German *lieb*) a most comely and warrantable word, and the especial favourite of English poets, not only is it good and sound in itself, but its comparative, "liever," for "rather," as "I would liever have had," is, though unfamiliar, yet by no means vulgar; vulgar, that is to say, in the evil sense, which applies as much to the slang of the drawing-room as to the slang of the slums. "Very," is a word that has fallen upon evil days. Blind leaders of the blind have denounced the practice, as old as Chaucer, of placing this word before an adjective in the superlative degree, sapiently remarking that to do this is to qualify a superlative with a superlative. This astounding nonsense, manifest in the condemnation of phrases like "the very wisest man," calls for few words of exposure. "Very" is indicative of the man who is wisest; and it is here equivalent to the Latin *idem*. Is *idem sapientissimus*

a qualifying of the superlative? Of all stupid men, we might say, this very man is stupidest—*idem stultissimus*, that same stupidest man, or truly the stupidest of all. For "very" and "truly" are the same word, and the "very perfect, gentle knight," was he who truly was perfect. You do not "qualify" perfection by thus emphasizing the superlative attribute of embodied chivalry.

Is it yet too late in the decline of our language to appeal against such tricks as the substitution of "numerous" for "many;" of "witness" for "behold" or "see;" of "the whole of" for "all," when numbers are implied, of "starvation" for "hunger," "want," "famine," "privation," or "inanition;" and of "commence" for "begin"? It should be remembered that "numerous" is an adjective properly qualifying such nouns as "crowd," "family," "class," "crew," "assembly," "troop," "herd," "flock," etc. If we speak of our numerous friends we may suggest to a precision the awkward idea that each friend is numerous.* "To witness" does not

* Four or five years ago, in protesting against the use of the word "numerous" in lieu of "many," I wrote certain comments which I may now be allowed to repeat. "It has been a favourite custom with the poets to apply the adjective 'numerous' to objects of magnitude, vastness, grandeur, or depth, even though the terms of such object were not nouns of multitude; and this very connection of the word with nouns, such in the singular number, sufficiently demonstrates the impropriety of substituting it for 'many,' which always belongs to the plural. Waller supplies an illustration, which I take at second hand from Latham's Dictionary.

Thy heart no ruder than the rugged stone,
I might, like Orpheus, with my numerous moans,
Melt to compassion."

"The many-voiced, or multitudinously murmuring quality, which a much older poet than Waller ascribes to the sea, is here very elegantly suggested, is a line through which we seem to hear the breathings of an Arabian harp. Is the 'numerous moans' especially one feels the pulsating sweep over the strings. But to my purpose, which is very practical, being simply to establish the grammatical distinction of 'numerous' and 'many.' Perhaps I have done this, and I hope I have; but if enforcement be yet needed, let us just suppose that Waller had spoken of many moans instead of only one moan, and had chosen to qualify them all in the same manner. His phrase would then have been 'many numerous moans.'" To this I must now add that Waller's contemporary, Milton, employs "numerous" in its modern application; but he does so only once or twice, giving the preference to "many."

properly mean "to see." It means "to testify," an act which does not of absolute necessity imply seeing. Day after day we glean the interesting news that certain exalted personages have honoured one of the theatres with their presence to "witness" the representation of a new burlesque, or other dramatic composition. To "witness" the thing is to tell us all about it; and it is needless to say that their Royal Highnesses have something better to do. They did not, in fact, go to witness the burlesque at all. They went to see it. That any decently informed person should be guilty of such spoken and written abominations as "the whole of the pictures," "the whole of the singers," "the whole of the guests," "the whole of the servants," instead of "all the pictures," "all the guests," "all the servants," "all the singers," would be wonderful if it were not so common and frequent a fact as unhappily it is. There are men who go far about to pick up ungainly phrases when the best that can be had lie within easy reach; who prefer to write "two and a half hours," "one and three quarter miles," when there very servants and the common folk who do their bidding would, speaking the natural vulgar tongue, say "two hours and a half," "a mile and three quarters." They run gravely riot in such heavy exuberances as "that of," in a sentence like this, clipped from a necrological memoir: "He chose for a profession that of arms." Here we have a collocation profoundly characteristic of a large and dull class of biography-mongers. He chose for a profession the profession of arms! That is, he chose a profession for a profession. Why could not the good man say, "He chose arms for a profession?" Oh, that would have been vulgar English. Had we been merely speaking of a common, everyday occurrence, it might have

been different. We should of course say, "He ordered eggs for breakfast," and not "He ordered for breakfast that of eggs." But we must suit our words to the occasion; and when we are speaking or writing of a military hero deceased, who, in the whole course of his honourable life, never penned a despatch without at least one extraneous "that of," it befits us and our language to be stupid, solemn, and dull. Redundant "ands" and "buts" sprout everywhere in those academic hedges which inclose the strait plots tilled by hack erudition. "He was a well-known author, and who had written several successful works:" "He was a notorious criminal, but who had managed to escape conviction." I think we have seen sentences like those, now and again, in current literature. When the spurious word "starvation" was first heard in the House of Commons, which at that time was a tolerably well-educated assembly, a contemptuous outburst of laughter ran round St. Stephen's Chapel; and he who had needlessly fabricated this motley and sinister noun was dubbed "Starvation Dundas," thenceforth and forever. So poor a crotchet of pranked and concealed word-coining was long resisted by the lexicographers; and one modern philological dictionary omits it even to this day. Johnson and Bailey, of course, knew it not. There was never a shadow of justification for its acceptance. But the many, not being nice, overruled the few; and accordingly "starvation" holds an established place in the vulgar tongue. After this, of course, "cablegram" cannot be refused admission to our language; and the cant of the Stock Exchange, "backwardation," may lay claim to credit and respectability. In lax days it is to the basest that we owe all the defilements of speech. I by no means ascribe to the author of

"Childe Harold" such habitual distortion of grammar as "to slowly draw." Indeed the single occurrence of such a phrase in the entire collection of his poems may supply me with an exception which fairly proves that, as a rule, Byron did not write words in any such twisted sequence. That he once, and once only, employed the device for lengthening the sound of a line intended to express the idea of prolonged pain is true; but this was long before the trick became a vulgarity; long before the vulgar had stumbled upon it; and I do not suppose they caught it from reading Byron. One may be sure he did not get it from hearing them.* It has worked its muddy way upward, however; and I am ashamed to think of the one or two honoured names that have latterly lent it some approval. Observe, that this form of the infinitive mood, "to write," "to speak," etc., is peculiar to the English tongue. No other language has it. And the simple fact that it is translatable from English into *one* word of any other language should suffice to remind the Englishman that, having but a single meaning, it is essentially one word with us. The very modern custom of dividing it by an adverb, or by a phrase adverbially used, is one of those innovations on which foreigners, studying our language, must come with a feeling of doubt and perplexity. They do not find the deformity in any English book written more than half a century ago; they find it very sparsely scattered in somewhat later literature; and they must take the writings of little more than one decade, counting back from to-day, to see multiplied examples of this wanton habit of dislocation. The "pur-

ist," who, as a general stickler for what suits his taste, frequently finds himself called upon to defend impurities, may be imagined pleading in his feeble way for this treatment of the infinitive mood. It would be quite in harmony with his usual conceptions of grammar were he heard saying: "There might be a doubt whether the adverb belonged to one verb or another; so, by wedging it into the midriff of the verb for which we intend it, there cannot possibly be a mistake of possession." He would then cite a sentence like "Their lordships refused judicially to believe the evidence;" and he would submit that, by turning about the words "judicially to believe," and causing them to stand in this rickety position, "to judicially believe," we should make it clear that "judicially" applies to the verb "believe," and not to the verb "refused." In the endless plurality of such cases it really does not matter a straw how the adverb goes; as in this instance of their lordships' refusal; for it was exactly the same thing whether they judicially refused to believe, or refused to believe judicially. Supposing it really signified which way the adverb should go, common sense would instantly settle the question. Take, for example, the following, from the speech of a minister: "We shall endeavour sedulously to guard the interests of the country." Here it is manifest that "sedulously" refers to the preceding verb; and equally plain, had the statesman said "We shall endeavour effectually to guard those interests," would it have been that "effectually" applies to the verb "to guard" which follows; because nobody can undertake that his act of *endeavouring* shall be effectual, though he may promise that it shall be directed towards effectual guardianship. No need is there then to maim the verb by that torturing locution, "to effectually

* Nor would Byron's authority, in any case, have availed to settle a point of grammar. Few poets have been so careless as he of such matters, and he would probably have laughed at the suggestion that his example might give lasting effect to what, in his day, was veritably a new departure in syntax.

guard," merely that the service of the adverb may be secured, so as to keep it from slipping away to the unrequired and inappropriate support of "endeavour."

A clumsy trick of speech common among speakers and writers who think thereby to be impressively accurate, is the reduplication of past tenses, in some such instance as, "I had intended to have gone thither." This is nonsense; but nine times out of ten it is substituted for the plain, intelligible assertion, "I had intended to go thither." Some confused idea of concord no doubt leads the well-intending grammarian into error. Having started with a proposition laid in the past, and having got so far as "It was my purpose to," he cannot persuade himself to finish in the present tense, and say "It was my purpose to *do*" such or such a thing, but feels constrained to say, "It was my purpose to *have done*" so and so. But a very little reflection will show that it could never have been any person's intention, or forward impulse, to have already performed the act of which he speaks. Many speakers are exceedingly fond of "only too." When it is said of a prodigal that he knows "only too well" the sight of a bill-stamp or a bailiff, there is good sense in the expression. When a friend says he shall be "only too" happy to serve you, the meaning is not so clear. If it be told us that disease has been spreading rapidly, no force is added by saying "only too" rapidly; but there is a real significance in the proposition that coffin-making is "only too" active a business. There should be something in reserve to justify the phrase, "only too;" something behind the statement as it stands; something implicative, as when, by saying that the gin-merchant is "only too" wealthy a citizen, we speak of the poverty and the generally de-

based condition of the neighbourhood in which his wealth is amassed. To assert of the inhabitants that they are in the main "only too" poor, would be a statement, on the other hand, destitute of prompt implication, and therefore of wit.

I have used the word "vulgar" in two senses. It is difficult to avoid this in an argument such as I have attempted. But I think it will have been understood that whenever "vulgar," "vulgarity" or "vulgarism," has been written in a derogatory spirit, the class of speakers aimed at has not been the class which, in olden times, was called "simple." Those, the mere vulgar, never have been the most vulgar. Their language, so long as it is true to its source in common things, must always be purer than the language of the class just above them in condition—a class that has picked up a fashion of speech flowing from what few among them comprehend. "Hence," as Landor demonstrates, "the profusion of broken and ill-assorted metaphors, which we find in the conversation of almost all who stand in the intermediate space between the lettered and the lowest." He goes further than this, in his assertion that most of the expressions in daily use among persons of high education are ambiguous and vague. Your servant, he observes, would say, "A man told me so;" the most learned and elegant of your acquaintance would be more likely to say, on the same occasion, "A certain person informed me." Here the person is not a *certain* but an *uncertain* one; and the thing told may have nothing in it of information. Year by year our language loses something of its propriety and force. It is doubtful whether, in the no longer unlettered, but still ignorant, ranks of the English people, a sound and honest vulgarity exists as it did when Landor wrote. A footman, nowa-

days, would be more likely to say that he had been "informed" than that he had been "told." The plain yeoman, who, at that period, might have said it had cost him a deal of money to build a house, would now tell us that he had expended a considerable sum in erecting a residence. We no longer eat and drink: we "partake of refreshment;" and we contrive by some miracle to "partake" even when we dine alone. Affected rusticity of speech is as much to be shunned as affected anything else. The true vulgar were never guilty of it. Those whose

vulgarity has been named "Philistinism"—and the term is terribly significant—are guilty of all affections that a plain man's mind can conceive and detest. But if we need not be rustic we need not be roundabout. The simplest words are always best; and so unerringly does their habitual use indicate a clear mind, an earnest meaning, and a sincere intent, that he will always be better worth listening to who never says "arrive" when he should say "come," nor "proceed" when he might say "go."—*From "Macmillan's Magazine."*

THE DISEASES OF PREHISTORIC MAN.

—One after another the cherished illusions of our youth vanish in the fierce light of scientific examination like the morning dew. Mr. Cox resolves the tale of Troy divine into a sun-myth; Cinderella's glass slipper is found to have been made of sensible and prosaic fur; Pocahontas no longer saves the devoted Smith by laying her little head on his, but earns vulgar sixpences and tobacco-plugs by turning somersaults before a gaping crowd; and we turn with disgust from Leatherstocking as the worthy parent of that other insufferable old humbug, Uncle Tom. The Pilgrims are fling off into limbo, whither Plymouth Rock has preceded them. It was but lately that we pinned our faith upon the Norse Vikings, the rovers of the sea, who defied storm and wave and ice in their swift barques, and rejoiced in the tempest; and all at once one of their degenerate descendants, an unworthy surgeon of Christiania, could find no better occupation than to examine his forefather's bones and prove that the sea-kings went to battle with the Raven standard floating over them, doubled up with rheumatism and roaring with the gout. And now comes a still more daring atrocity. An English physician, Mr. H. W. Jackson, lately read before the West Kent Medico-Chirurgical Society a paper "On some Diseases and Injuries of Prehistoric Man." In this he shows that the

noble savage running wild in woods, eating raw horse and sleeping in caves, had a great deal of civilized human weakness in him. Mr. Jackson has found in prehistoric bones evidences of toothache and of abscesses in the jaw, of rheumatic ulceration of a joint in a jawbone, of hydrocephalus, of hip-joint disease and diseased thighs. He detects synostosis of the sutures in the famous Neanderthal skull, and there are numerous instances of surgical trepanation. In bones from both hemispheres he has found evidences of a disease long supposed to have been first heard of about the time of the discovery of America. Ruder these ancestors must have been, but not more simple in their way of life, than their descendants. It is pretty clear that they were as dissipated as they knew how to be.—*New York World.*

FROM observations made on specimens still in existence, the longevity of various trees has been estimated to be, in round numbers, as follows:—Deciduous cypress, 6,000 years; baobab trees, 5,000; dragon tree, 5,000; yew, 3,000; cedar of Lebanon, 3,000; "great trees" of California, 3,000; chestnut, 3,000; olive, 2,500; oak, 1,600; orange, 1,500; Oriental plane, 1,200; cabbage-palm, 700; lime, 600; ash, 400; cocoa-nut palm, 300; pear, 300; apple, 200; Brazil wine-palm, 150; Scotch fir, 100; and the balm of Gilead about 50 years.

"OLD MOTHER HUBBARD."

[The following Latin version of our old nursery friend,

"Old Mother Hubbard
Went to the cupboard
To give her poor dog a bone,"

has been kindly sent us by Mr. E. L. Curry, B.A., of Grimsby, who informs us that it was contributed in 1868 to the press by an English Grammar School master, under the signature of "ULTOR EGO."—ED. C. E. M.]

Capsam scrutata est Hubbardia, sedula mater,
Ut catulo tenui quæreret oesa suo :
Nil ibi comparet ; capsam deprendit inanem ;
Quo fit uti caro nulla sit esca cani.
Protinus hinc properans se fert pistoris ad ædes,
Ut catulo panem comparet inde suo :
Ast ubi nacta cibum retro vestigia torsit,
Abstulerat carum mors truculenta canem !
Ad fabri mærens se contulit inde tabernam,
Mercatura arcam qua tegetur humo.
Ocius inde domum rediit mærore gravata,
Multiplici risu concutit ille genas !
Attonita est ; tamen it properans ad omassa petenda ;
Foeda quidem, at pura provida lance tulit.
Mox regressa domum, quid tum perterrita vidit ?
Fumificam cannam callidus ore gerit !
It Cereris potum quærens cauponis ad ædes,
In sella reduci conspiciendus erat
Vinum album rubrumque petit, repetitque tabernam ;
Mox redit, inque caput sistitur ecce canis !
Pileolum quærit, quæsito deinde potita
Mox redit, et feli porrigit ille cibum !
Tonsorem petiit, capiti velamina quærens,
Mox redit, et saltans en ! pede pulsat humum.
Poma petit ; tum parta ferens nova monstra stupebat,
Inflatis calamis, fundit ab ore melos !
Sartorem petiit, tunicam partura catello ;
Mox redit et capro vectus inibat iter !
Calceolos quærit ; secum mercata reportat ;
Ecce canis sollers acta diurna legit !
Textricem petiit linum partura ; reversa est ;
Pollice deducit mollia fila colo !
Vestimenta petit ; propere mercata revertit,
Et sua jam catulus tegmina cinctus erat !
Femina se curvat, catulus caput ipse vicissim,
"Sum tua," mater ait ; bis boat inde canis.

UNIVERSITY WORK.

MATHEMATICS.

ARCHIBALD MACMURCHY, M.A., TORONTO,
EDITOR.

SELECTED QUESTIONS.

By Wilbur Grant, Collegiate Inst., Toronto.

6. Show that

$$u^3 + v^3 + w^3 + 3uvw = (u-v)^3 + (u-w)^3 + (u-z)^3 + 6xyz,$$

if $u = x + y + z$

$$(u-v)^3 + (u-w)^3 + (u-z)^3 + 6xyz$$

$$= (u-x)^3 + (u-y)^3 + (x+y)^3 + 6xy(u-x-y)$$

$$= u^3 - 3u^2x + 3ux^2 - x^3 + u^3 - 3u^2y + 3uy^2$$

$$- y^3 + x^3 + 3x^2y + 3xy^2 + y^3 + 6uxy$$

$$- 6x^2y - 6xy^2$$

$$= u^3 + \frac{1}{3}u^3 - 3u^2(x+y) + 3u(x+y)^2$$

$$- (x+y)^3 + x^3 + y^3$$

$$= u^3 + x^3 + y^3 + z^3.$$

7. Solve the equations

$$(a) \frac{x-a}{x-b} + \frac{x-b}{x-a} + 2 = 0.$$

$$(b) x + y = a^2 \left(\frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{y} \right)$$

$$\frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{y} = \frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{xy}.$$

$$(a) \frac{x-a}{x-b} + \frac{x-b}{x-a} + 2 = 0$$

$$(x-a)^2 + 2(x-a)(x-b) + (x-b)^2 = 0$$

$$\frac{x-a}{x-b} + \frac{x-b}{x-a} = 0$$

$$x = \frac{a+b}{2}.$$

$$(b) x + y = a^2 \left(\frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{y} \right) \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{y} = \frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{xy} \quad (2)$$

$$x + y = \frac{a^2}{xy} (x + y)$$

$$I. \therefore x + y = 0 \quad x = -y$$

$$I = \frac{a^3}{xy}, \quad y = \frac{a^3}{x}.$$

Substituting this in 2nd

$$x + \frac{a^3}{x} = \frac{a^3 + b^3}{b}$$

$$x^2 - \frac{a^3 + b^3}{b}x = -a^3$$

$$\therefore x = \frac{a^3}{b} \text{ or } b, \quad y = b \text{ or } \frac{a^3}{b}.$$

8. Let $x =$ rate of steam launch, $y =$ distancefrom A to B , $\frac{y}{6} =$ time boat takes to go from B to A , $\frac{y}{x+2\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{y}{x-2\frac{1}{2}} =$ time steam launch takes togo from and return to A .

$$\therefore \frac{y}{6} = \frac{y}{x+2\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{y}{x-2\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$x^2 - \frac{25}{4} = 12x$$

$$x = 12\frac{1}{2} \text{ miles per } 1^{\circ}.$$

9. Given $a + f = a$ and $a\beta = b^2$, find value of $a^6 + a^4\beta^2 + a^2\beta^4 + \beta^6$.Expression = $(a^4 + \beta^4)(a^2 + \beta^2)$

$$a^2 + \beta^2 = (a + \beta)^2 - 2a\beta = a^2 - 2b^2$$

$$a^4 + \beta^4 = (a^2 + \beta^2)^2 - 2a^2\beta^2 = (a^2 - b^2)^2$$

$$- 2b^4 = a^4 - 4a^2b^2 + 2b^4.$$

$$\therefore \text{Expression} = (a^2 - 2b^2)(a^4 - 4a^2b^2 + 2b^4) = a^6 - 6a^4b^2 + 10a^2b^4 - 4b^6.$$

10. Show that the sum of the squares of the first n natural numbers is $n(n+1)$ $(2n+1) \div 6$.

See Todhunter's Algebra.

Find an expression for the sum of the squares of the first n odd numbers,

$$2n-1 - 2n-3 = 6(2n-1)^2 - 12(2n-1) + 8$$

$$2n-3 - 2n-5 = 6(2n-3)^2 - 12(2n-3) + 8$$

$$2n-5 - 2n-7 = 6(2n-5)^2 - 12(2n-5) + 8$$

$$7^2 - 5^2 = 6 \cdot 7 - 12 \cdot 7 + 8$$

$$5^2 - 3^2 = 6 \cdot 5 - 12 \cdot 5 + 8$$

$$3^2 - 1^2 = 6 \cdot 3 - 12 \cdot 3 + 8$$

$$1^2 - (-1)^2 = 6 \cdot 1 - 12 \cdot 1 + 8$$

Let S designate sum required,

$$\therefore \overbrace{2n-1+1}^2 = 6S - 12 \left\{ 1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + \frac{2n-1}{2n-1} \right\} + 8n$$

$$\therefore S = \frac{1}{4} \left\{ \overbrace{2n-1+1}^2 + 12n^2 - 8n \right\} \\ = \frac{1}{4} (2n-1)2n(2n+1)$$

PROBLEMS IN ARITHMETIC.

I. A man bought a farm, containing 360 acres; for part of it he paid \$20 per acre, and for the rest, \$35 per acre. The whole farm cost him \$9,750; find the number of acres bought at each price.

Ans. 190 and 170.

II. One pair of boots costs \$7 and can be worn for 12 months, another pair costs \$4 and lasts for 7 months; which kind will be the more advantageous for the purchaser? If A wears one of these kinds of boots continuously, and B the other kind, at the end of what time will each require a new pair of boots on the same day?

Ans. 2nd; 7 yrs.

III. If 20 men can move 20 cub. yds. of rock in 20 minutes, how long will 8 men be in moving 8 cub. yds.?

Ans. 20 min.

IV. The driving wheel of a locomotive is 7 ft. across, and rests with a mark at the under side of it just at the end of a rail; how fast will this engine be going when this same spot touches the end of a rail twice in a minute; a rail being 25 ft. long, and the circumference of a circle, $3\frac{1}{2}$ times its diameter?

Ans. $12\frac{1}{2}$ miles per hour.

V. When the driving wheel is 7 ft. in diameter, and the truck wheel 3 ft., and the smaller wheel turns 20 times a minute more than the larger wheel, how fast is the engine going.

Ans. $3\frac{3}{4}$ miles per hour.

VI. A bought a farm of 160 acres at \$15 per acre; he kept part of it for himself and

sold the rest—half at \$20 per acre, and half at \$18 per acre, thus getting \$260 more than he paid for the whole farm; how much did he keep for himself? *Ans.* 20 acres.

VII. A mechanic cut $\frac{1}{2}$ off the length of a piece of board, and then $\frac{1}{3}$ off the breadth of it, and said he had $\frac{1}{3}$ left; what was the amount of his error? *Ans.* $\frac{1}{3}$.

VIII. A bought 3 doz. eggs, 4 lbs. butter, and 5 lbs. cheese for \$1.74. B bought 4 doz. eggs, 3 lbs. butter, and 5 lbs. cheese for \$1.65; and C bought 4 doz. eggs, 5 lbs. butter, and 3 lbs. cheese for \$1.71; from this, find the price per lb. of butter and cheese, and per doz. of eggs.

Ans. Eggs, 9c; butter, 18c.; cheese, 15c.

IX. On a certain day of the year the sun is above the horizon for 12 hours at that parallel on which a degree of longitude measures 50 miles. Suppose that on this particular day, at sunrise, two vessels pass each other close to this parallel, one sailing due east, the other due west, the rate of each being 15 miles per hour; what number of hours of sunlight would each have?

Ans. $11\frac{1}{3}$, and $12\frac{1}{3}$.

X. Multiply .3417652 by 5.123, getting the answer correct to 4 decimal places, using contracted multiplication.

XI. $\frac{1}{4}$ will reduce to a pure circulating decimal; $\frac{1}{3}$, to a mixed circulating decimal; yet their product becomes a terminated decimal. Explain why.

XII. A merchant throws 5 per cent. off marked price for cash payment; charges the marked price if the goods are paid for within 3 months; and adds 5 per cent. if the bill runs over three months. What sum will settle the following account on July 1st, 1882?—January 1st, 1882, bought goods marked at \$350, paid \$150; February 1st, paid \$150. March 1st, bought goods marked at \$600, and paid \$200. May 15th, paid \$300.

Ans. \$338.15.

XIII. Conditions of payment same as in previous problem, it being understood that each payment is applied to the most recently contracted debt. January 1st, bought goods

valued at \$125; January 15th, bought goods valued at \$200, and paid \$200. March 1st, bought goods valued at \$300; March 21st, bought goods valued at \$150, and paid \$250. What sum will settle the account on July 1st?
Ans. \$316.38.

SELECTED.

1. *A* and *B* start simultaneously from two towns to meet one another. *A* travels 2 miles an hour faster than *B*, and they meet in 7 hours; if *B* had travelled 1 mile an hour faster, and *A* at only half his previous rate, they would have met in 9 hours. Find the distance between the towns.

2. A wine merchant buys spirit, and after mixing water with it sells the mixture at two shillings a gallon more than he paid for the spirit, making $23\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on his outlay; if he had used double the quantity of water he would have made $37\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. What proportion of water was there in the mixture?

3. Solve the equation $x^2 + px + q = 0$, and determine the condition that its roots may be real and unequal. If α, β be the roots, form an equation whose roots are $\alpha + \beta$ and $\alpha\beta$.

4. The first term of an arithmetical progression of n terms is a , and the common difference d ; find the sum. If n be odd and the sum of the even terms be subtracted from the sum of the odd, show that the result is

$$a + \frac{n-1}{2}d.$$

BY J. H. THOMSON.

5. If 200 lbs. at one end of a plank balance it across a bench, 120 lbs. at the same end when the bench is removed 2 feet, and 60 lbs. when it is removed 4 feet farther from that end; find the weight of the plank.

6. If seven bullets of equal size, but made of different metals whose specific gravities are in arithmetical progression, are placed in contact in a hollow tube closed at both ends, show how to find the point at which the tube and its contents would balance on a knife edge.

7. A heavy sphere hangs by a string attached to a peg, and of length equal to the radius of the sphere, and the sphere rests against another peg, vertically below the former and at a distance $= 6$, find the tension of the string and the pressure on the lower peg.

MODERN LANGUAGES.

JOHN SEATH, B.A., ST. CATHARINES, EDITOR

NOTE.—The Editor of this Department will feel obliged if teachers and others send him a statement of such difficulties in English, History, or Moderns, as they may wish to see discussed. He will also be glad to receive Examination Papers in the work of the current year.

ENGLISH.

SELECTED EXAMINATION PAPERS.

1. Select from the following those words in which a true diphthong, or coalition of two vowel sounds, occurs; and give reasons for rejecting the rest:—Belief, boat, neuter, bread, bounty, cooperate, tough, boot, boil, Russia.

2. Discuss the propriety of such forms as "moneyed," "comfortable," "positivist," "telegram," "bicycle."

3. Account for the presence of the italicized letters in the following:—*impossible*, *number*, *tender*, *nightingale*, *pair*, *receive*, *debt*, *honour*, *civilization* (compare "civilize"), *referring*, *chemistry*, *inflammation* (compare "inflammation"), *the marys*.

4. How are English compounds known in print and in pronunciation? Which is the defining word in compounds?

5. "Words indicating relatives are often traceable to nouns and verbs." Comment on this statement and illustrate.

6. What law is illustrated by change of consonant in the words *thou*, *tu*, and (German) *du*?

7. Tell the history of each of the forms now used for the inflection of nouns.

8. Cite some examples of the remains of obsolete inflection in English.

9. Distinguish etymologically between *sensitive* and *sensible*, *ye* and *you*, *confess* and *profess*, *verity* and *veracity*, *tense* and *time*, *ingenious* and *ingenuous*, *swear* and *forswear*, *seem* a *besseem*.

10. Words have been divided into Notional and Relational. Explain this classification; and show how it may be made to correspond with the ordinary division of parts of speech.

11. "Duncan comes here to-night." Explain the use of the present indefinite in this sentence. What other distinct forms of thought can be expressed in English by the use of the same tense?

12. Classify English pronouns. What significance lies in the italicized letters of the following:—*him, she, it, ours*?

13. Show by examples the way in which the study of the English language illustrates and corroborates what we learn from English history.

14. Indicate some of the most important facts in the history of our alphabet, and account, as far as you can, for the order in which the letters follow one another.

15. Explain the following terms, applied to the structure of words:—*root, stem, primary derivative, secondary derivative, compound.*

FRENCH.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

ENTRANCE PAPERS.—JUNE, 1882.

1.

Translate into French:

1. At the theatre you will see beautiful ladies and hear music from the best masters. Will your friends go? Mine will be there.

2. You may come to see me when you please. I shall always be glad to know that you are well; but do not come too early; I do not rise before seven.

3. Lend me your book; I will return it to you in the morning, if you do not tell me to give it to your brother. Shall I give it to him?

4. No; do not give it to him, let him use his own or his brother's; send it back to me.

5. I do not believe the doctor will come; whether it rains or not, he is always afraid it will be cold. He does not need any other excuse to prevent his going out.

6. I do not doubt that he is very skilful, but, unless he comes soon, I fear your friend will die. What medicine has the latter taken?

7. I had the tailor make me two coats which I have worn, one in winter, the other in summer.

8. I shall sit down now where those ladies have sat; I mean where they were sitting when I saw them. When I have rested a little, I will call you.

9. If my friend comes to find me, and I am out, tell him to wait till I come.

10. Remember to ask your father for some money, for, before you go to school, you must have pens, ink, and paper.

11. Have you heard Mrs. L. sing? I have heard her sing that song (*CHANSON, f.*) three times, and I have never heard it sung so well.

12. I have just finished writing my letters, and I shall send them to the post-office in order that they may go to-morrow.

11.

Translate into English:

Dès qu'il eut quelque connaissance de la langue latine on *lui fit traduire* Quinte-Curce: il *prit* pour ce livre un goût que le sujet lui inspirait beaucoup plus encore que le style. Celui qui lui expliquait cet auteur lui ayant demandé ce qu'il pensait d'Alexandre: "Je pense, dit le prince, que je *voudrais* lui ressembler." Mais, *lui dit-on*, il *n'a vécu* que trente-deux ans. "Ah! reprit-il, n'est-ce pas assez quand on a *conquis* des royaumes?" On ne manqua pas de rapporter ces réponses au roi son père, qui s'écria, "Voilà un enfant qui *vandra* mieux que moi, et qui *ira* plus loin que le grand Gustave." Un jour il s'amusa dans l'appartement du roi à regarder deux cartes géographiques, l'une d'une ville de Hongrie prise par les Turcs sur l'empereur, et l'autre de Riga, capitale de la Livonie, province conquise par les Suédois, depuis un siècle; au bas de la carte de la ville hongroise il y avait ces mots tirés du livre de Job: "Dieu me l'a donnée, Dieu me l'a ôtée; le nom du Seigneur soit béni." Le jeune prince *ayant lu* ces paroles, prit sur-le-champ un crayon, et *écrivit* au bas de la carte

de Riga: "Dieu me l'a donnée, le Diable ne me l'ôtera pas." Ainsi dans les actions les plus indifférentes de son enfance le naturel indomptable laissait souvent échapper de ces traits qui caractérisaient les âmes singulières, et qui marquaient ce qu'il *devait* être un jour.

On sait sous quelle discipline sévère vivaient les troupes de Charles XII; qu'elles ne pillaient pas les villes prises d'assaut avant d'en avoir reçu la permission, qu'elles allaient même au pillage avec ordre, et le quittaient au premier signal. Les Suédois se vantent encore aujourd'hui de la discipline qu'ils observèrent en Saxe, et cependant les Saxons se *plaignent* des dégâts affreux qu'ils y commirent; contradictions qu'il serait impossible de concilier, si l'on ne *savait* combien les hommes *voient* différemment les mêmes objets: il était bien difficile que les vainqueurs n'abusassent quelquefois de leurs droits, et que les vaincus ne prissent les plus légères lésions pour des brigandages barbares. Un jour le roi se promenant à cheval près de Leipsic, un paysan saxon *vint* se jeter à ses pieds pour lui demander justice d'un grenadier qui venait de lui enlever ce qui était destiné pour le dîner de sa famille: le roi fit venir le soldat: Est-il vrai, dit-il d'un visage sévère, que vous avez volé cet homme? "Sire, dit le soldat, je ne lui ai pas fait tant de mal que votre majesté en a fait à son maître; vous lui avez ôté un royaume; et je n'ai pris à ce manant qu'un dindon." Le roi donna six ducats de sa main au paysan, et pardonna au soldat en faveur de la hardiesse du bon mot, en lui disant, "*Souviens-toi*, mon ami, que si j'ai ôté un royaume au roi Auguste je n'en ai rien pris pour moi."

—VOLTAIRE, *Charle. XII.*

1. Parse the words italicized in the above passages, writing the pres. ind. 3d pers. sing., pret. 2d pers. plu., fut. 2d pers. sing., subj. imperf. 3d pers. sing. of all the irregular verbs.

III.

Translate at sight:

Les ouvrages bien écrits seront les seuls qui passeront à la postérité. La quantité des connaissances, la singularité des faits, la

nouveauté même des découvertes ne sont pas des sûrs garants de l'immortalité. Si les ouvrages qui les contiennent ne roulent que sur de petits objets, s'ils sont écrits sans goût, sans noblesse et sans génie, ils périront, parce que les connaissances, les faits et les découvertes s'enlèvent aisément, se transportent, et gagnent même à être mis en œuvre par des mains plus habiles. Ces choses sont hors de l'homme; le style est l'homme même. Le style ne peut donc ni s'élever, ni se transporter, ni s'altérer. S'il est élevé, noble, sublime, l'auteur sera également admiré dans tout les temps; car il n'y a que la vérité que soit durable, et même éternelle. Or, un beau style n'est tel en effet que par le nombre infini des vérités qu'il présente. Toutes les beautés intellectuelles que s'y trouvent, tous les rapports dont il est composé sont autant de vérités aussi utiles, et peut-être plus précieuses pour l'esprit humain, que celles qui peuvent faire le fond du sujet.—BUFFON.

La fleur donne le miel: elle est la fille du matin, le charme du printemps, la source des parfums, la grâce des vierges, l'amour des poètes. Elle passe vite comme l'homme, mais elle rend doucement ses feuilles à la terre. Chez les anciens, elle couronnait la coupe du banquet et les cheveux blancs du sage; les premiers chrétiens en couvraient les martyrs et l'autel des catacombes: aujourd'hui, et en mémoire de ces antique jours, nous la mettons dans nos temples. Dans le monde, nous attribuons nos affections à ses couleurs: l'espérance à sa verdure, l'innocence à sa blancheur, la pudeur à ses teintes de rose; il y a des nations entières où elle est l'interprète des sentiments; livre charmant qui ne renferme aucune erreur dangereuse, et ne garde que l'histoire fugitive des révolutions du cœur!

—CHATEAUBRIAND.

GERMAN.

Translate one of the passages, and answer the questions upon both of them.

1.

Es war ein Mädchen faul und wollte nich

spinnen, und die Mutter mochte sagen, was sie wollte, sie konnte es nicht dazu bringen. Endlich übernahm die Mutter einmal Zorn und Ungeduld, dass sie ihm Schläge gab, worüber es laut zu weinen anfing. Nun fuhr gerade die Königin vorbei, und als sie das Weinen hörte, liess sie anhalten, trat in das Haus und fragte die Mutter, warum sie ihre Tochter schlug, dass man draussen auf der Strasse das Weinen hörte. Da schämte sich die Frau, dass sie die Faulheit ihrer Tochter offenbaren sollte, und sprach: "Ich kann sie nicht vom Spinnen abbringen, sie will immer und ewig spinnen, und ich bin arm und kann den Flachs nicht herbeischaffen." Da antwortete die Königin: "Ich höre nichts lieber als Spinnen, und bin nicht vergnugter, als wenn die Räder schnurren; gebt mir eure Tochter mit ins Schloss, ich habe Flachs genug; da soll sie spinnen, so viel sie Lust hat." Die Mutter war's von Herzen gern zufrieden, und die Königin nahm das Mädchen mit. Als sie ins Schloss gekommen waren, fuhrte sie es hinauf zu drei Kammern, die lagen von unten bis oben voll vom schönsten Flachs.

1. Give, with definite article, the nominative singular, genitive singular, and nominative plural of the nouns: *Mädchen* (1), *Schläge* (4), *Königin* (5), *Haus* (6), *Tochter* (7), *Strasse* (8), *Schloss* (15), *Herzen* (16).

2. Inflect throughout, singular and plural, our older brother.

3. Write the ordinal numbers from one to twenty-one.

4. Mention all the possessive adjectives, with their meanings.

5. State distinctly the different ways of forming the principal parts of verbs, with examples.

6. Define a separable, an inseparable, and a variable compound verb, with principal parts and definitions of each.

7. Give the principal parts of the verbs: *war* (1), *wollte* (1), *mochte* (2), *konnte* (2), *übernahm* (3), *anfang* (5), *fuhr vorbei* (5), *liess* (6), *trat* (6), *schlug* (7), *führte* (18), *lagen* (19).

8. Synopsis in active and passive, indica-

tive, subjunctive, and conditional, third, singular, of *abbringen* (10).

9. Explain the position of *waren* (18), *führte* (18).

10. What kind of subordinate sentences are respectively introduced by: *warum* (7), *dass* (7)?

II.

Wenn wir nun auf das ungeheure Gedränge in dem Corso zurückblicken, und die für einen Augenblick nur gereinigte Rennbahn gleich wieder mit Volk überschwemmt sehen, so scheint uns Vernunft und Billigkeit das Gesetz einzugeben, dass eine jede Equipage nur suchen solle, in ihrer Ordnung das nächste ihr bequeme Gässchen zu erreichen und so nach Hause zu eilen. Allein es lenken gleich nach abgeschossenen Signalen einige Wagen in die Mitte hinein, hemmen und verwirren das Fussvolk, und weil in dem engen Mittelraume es einem einfällt, hinunter, dem andern hinauf zu fahren, so können beide nicht von der Stelle, und hindern oft die Vernünftigeren, die in der Reihe geblieben sind, auch vom Platz zu kommen. Wenn nun gar ein zurückkehrendes Pferd auf einen solchen Knoten trifft, so vermehrt sich Gefahr, Unheil und Verdruss von allen Seiten. Und doch entwickelt sich diese Verwirrung, zwar später, aber meistens glücklich. Die Nacht ist eingetreten, und ein jedes wünscht sich zu einiger Ruhe Glück.

1. Explain the derivation of the following words, and state clearly the force of each derivative element: *Gedränge* (1), *gereinigte* (2), *Stelle* (11), *Vernünftigeren* (11), *glücklich* (16).

2. Give the English cognates of ten words in this passage.

CLASSICS.

G. H. ROBINSON, M.A., WHITBY, EDITOR.

PAPERS ON "CICERO PRO ARCHIA."

Selected from Toronto University Examination Papers.

I.

1. Who was the founder of the Stoic sect? Why called Stoics?

2. Who were the preceptors of Cicero in philosophy? What peculiarity characterizes his philosophical creed?

3. Under what law did Archias claim the right of Roman citizenship? What was the difficulty in establishing his claim?

4. What constituted the *jus civitatis* of the Romans? What is meant by *jus honorum*?

5. There were three classes of persons amongst the Romans with different legal privileges. Explain.

6. Give the Roman formula for punishment by *exile*. Distinguish *exilium*, *deportatio* *relegatio*.

7. The leading particulars of Cicero's life.

II.

1. From whom did Cicero acquire the principles of Roman jurisprudence?

2. What unconstitutional act eventually proved his ruin?

3. Name the first criminal trial on which he spoke.

4. The legal formula which invested the consuls with full power to protect the state from injury.

5. How many years necessarily intervened between the proctorship and consulship?

6. Where did Cicero die?

7. Give the circumstances of his death.

III.

Translate *Quare conservate . . . esse videatur*.

1. Mark the quantity of the penult and the antepenult of *expetitur*, *periculis*, *levatus*.

2. Distinguish between *municipium* and *colonia*.

3. *Auctoritate*. What is the radical meaning of this word? Show how it comes to have the meaning in the extract.

4. Before whom was this case tried? What is meant by the terms *in jure* and *in judicio*?

IV.

Translate *Census nostros . . . et consule*.

1. *Nostros*, *superioribus*, *primis*. What is the meaning?

2. *Nullam partem . . . censam*. What was the reason?

3. *Quare*. What is the construction?

4. *Frarium*. Where kept and under whose charge?

5. *Pretore et consule*. What different reading, and on what grounds?

6. Briefly explain this statement: "Cicero was the first of the second order of great minds."

V.

Translate *Qui sedulitatem . . . ducitur*.

1. Distinguish *sedulitas*, *industria*, *diligentia*.

2. *Duxerit*, *impetravisset*. Why this mood?

3. Explain and illustrate the phrase *optimus quisque* by examples.

VI.

Translate *Hic igitur tabulis . . . noluisse*.

1. *La huc*. Why the dative?

2. Mark the penult and antepenult of *lituram Reginos*, *Neapolitanos*.

3. What circumstances led to the passing of the law under which Archias was prosecuted?

VII.

Translate *Nullam enim virtus . . . adequandum*.

1. Mark quantity of penult in *mercedem*, *insidet concitat*, *admonet*.

2. Enumerate the principal Latin orators in the last century of the Republic.

3. Notes on *Ennius*, *Heraclea*, *Theophrastus*, and *Lex Papia de civitate Romana*.

4. A short account of Archias, introducing data concerning the various laws by which the allies of Rome acquired the rights of Roman citizens.

VIII.

Translate *Quare quis tandem . . . sentio*.

1. Parse *quantum* (m. g. *ceteris*), *ludorum recolenda*, *illa*.

2. Derive *reprehendat*, *periculis*, *adolecentia*, *alveolo*.

3. What does Cicero allege as the reason for undertaking the defence of Archias? Has any other been suggested?

IX.

Translate *Ergo illi alienum . . . patiatur*.

1. Parse *Mario*, *attingit*, *patiatur*.

2. Decline in *ing.* *Archias, ipri.*
3. *Cimbricas res . . . fuit.* Explain the allusion.
4. Derive *poeta, olim, mandare, eternum.*
5. What two lines of argument does Cicero adopt in this speech?

x.

1. Give the various laws conferring citizenship upon Latin and Italic states, and enumerate the enactments of the *Lex Papiria Plautia.*

2. Explain fully *civitate donari, census praeter talies.*
3. Translate chap. 6. *Ego fateor . . . sumptero.*
4. Parse *ceteros, annos, pudat, avocavit, succulent.*
5. Derive *nullius, tandem, festos, temporum.*
6. Write brief notes on *Lucullus, pigna, apud Jenedum.*
7. Decline *requiem* in full.
8. Explain the Roman process of passing a law.

SCHOOL WORK.

DAVID BOYLE, ELORA, EDITOR.

A METHOD OF TEACHING SPELLING.

THE following method of teaching spelling is given by Chas. W. Cole, superintendent of the schools of Albany, N. Y., in his last Annual Report. He says concerning it: "The underlying thought is, that by accustoming the pupil to look closely at every new word as a unit, an exact image of the whole word is fastened in the memory, which will enable him to reproduce a correct copy thereof at will, with greater ease than he possibly could by conning and repeating the successive letters."

1. The ten or twelve words of the daily lesson in the Speller, and the more difficult words from the portion of the reading lesson which is assigned as a spelling exercise, were first written upon the blackboard by the teacher.

2. The scholars' attention was then called to the form of the word as a whole, sufficient time being given to permit the formation of a mind-picture of the word in its entirety; then any peculiarities of spelling, or any elements which might mislead through similarity of sound when the word is spoken, were pointed out.

3. The word was next accurately defined, both by a carefully-worded definition, and by actual use in a sentence. Both of these things were done by the scholars if they were capable, or by reference to a dictionary, if there was time. In many cases, however, the teacher was compelled both to define and give the proper use of the word in the sentence.

4. Any synonyms or homonyms which appeared in or were suggested by the list of words were then explained. In each case the distinctions were illustrated by the use of the words distinguished in sentences, by the pupils, if they were able, if not, by the teacher. When these steps had been completed, the lesson was really acquired without further study; although a few pupils at first required some further preparation.

5. The words were then erased, and at the next spelling exercise sentences were dictated, in which the words previously studied were incorporated. A paragraph from the reading lesson was also dictated. Correct punctuation and the proper use of capitals were required.

6. The work was then corrected by exchange of slates, or by the teacher, in spare moments, as deemed best. If by exchange

of slates, the teacher read the sentences and the paragraph aloud, pronouncing the capitals and punctuation marks as they occurred, each scholar noting the errors on the slate he held.

A noticeable feature of this plan is the constant coöperation of pupils and teacher in the preparation of the lesson. Nothing can create a livelier interest among scholars, or give them greater zest in their work, than realizing that they and their teacher are working together for a common end.

Perhaps the strongest encomium that could be passed upon this plan was the remark made by a girl to her teacher, after it had been in operation a few days. "Why," said she, "if we study spelling in this way we will never miss!"

The plan worked so well that, after a few weeks' experience, the teacher and the class were invited to give a model lesson before a large number of teachers. The lesson was admirably given, and called forth expressions of the highest commendation.

The plan is not claimed as a discovery, nor as embracing any new ideas. It is at the best only a new combination of old elements, familiar to all successful and experienced teachers. The details are given here for the benefit of any teachers who wish to avail themselves of its advantages.—*Ohio Educational Monthly.*

LANGUAGE LESSONS.

BY W. R. COMINGS AND H. C. KNOX.

WE would suggest to the inexperienced teacher that, as much or more depends upon the perseverance and enthusiasm of the teacher, and upon his ability to get the pupils to work, than upon the topics taken up, or the methods pursued, it is not wise to follow too strictly the course laid down by any author. Adapt the work to the pupils and keep them busy.

At times in the work lists of words synonymous in some meanings, but differing in others, should be given with the requirement that the words be used in sentences which will show the meanings they have in com-

mon, and in sentences which will show a discrimination between the different meanings. Examples: clear and distinct, two and a couple, in and into, instruction and education, custom and habit, temperance and abstinence, knowledge and learning, many and much, bring and fetch, idleness and laziness. Also require them to use correctly words that are improperly used as synonyms; as, teach and learn, mistaken and misinformed, depot and station, transpire and happen, give and donate, and advertise and publish.

The characteristics of poetry should be pointed out,—the rhyme, the metre, the figurative language, the transposed order of words, and the more imaginative way of treating subjects. Compare with rhymes, or mere jingles of words, and with prose. Show how prose is poetry sometimes, except in the arrangement of words. Compare the styles of different authors, as to smoothness, conciseness and looseness; to which is most figurative, simple, plain, grand, lofty, etc., etc. This can be done with the common reading book. Study the thought in a selection until every member of the class can write it out in his own language. This work has a practical value in teaching pupils to read well. They learn by it how to express the thought of the author.

The history work usually done in these grades, will aid greatly in language work, as it affords many topics for written work. The particular advantage of history work to many pupils is that it furnishes the ideas, and thus leaves to the pupil no excuse for not knowing what to write; moreover that part of history which has been written out is sure to be retained longest in the memory.

The practice of memorizing choice selections of English literature is so common, and the value of the work so generally recognized, that no time need here be taken with it.

Teachers can find few ways of benefiting their schools more, than by the collection of a library of young folks' histories, interesting books on animals and nature generally. If this can be done, it will put the pupils in the way of doing a great amount of work indepen-

dent of the personal direction of the teacher. For he can then create a necessity for information and trust the pupil to obtain it from the sources open to him. The old maxim is a good one. "Never tell a child what he can find out for himself," only be sure he finds out.

We believe that pupils trained through a course of work in primary and grammar schools will have learned to think, to view a topic in its different phases, and that thereafter in High School work they can take up individual work in essay writing with good results. At least a suggestion of what the subject selected by a pupil includes will be sufficient. To illustrate this, the following are added :

1. Whispers of a Sea-shell.—By which it relates where it has lived, tells of its associates, and how finally thrown upon the beach, picked up, etc.

2. Ride on an Iceberg.—What led to it? Where was it? Saw what? How relieved? Learned what?

3. Cobwebs.—Where found? Indicate what? How destroyed? Cobwebbed brains. How indicated? Remedy.

4. Nature's Free Music.—Insects. Rustle of leaves. Rain. Wind. Waterfall. Brooks.

5. The Dress is not the Man.—Why? What does it indicate? What does show the man? Examples.

6. Measure of the Man.—Is it wealth? culture? morality? intellect? position? reputation? How many and which of these should be tests?

7. Gossiping.—By whom? About what? Usual motive. Good it does. Harm. Is it elevating? Reasons.

8. Kites.—Children's toys. Usual end is what? Chinese kites. Franklin's kite. Its value to the world. Other kites (speculative) and the men who fly them. Where the wrecks may be found.

9. Labour.—Define. Mental labour produces what? Physical labour produces what? Are they combined? What forces nature of do they employ?—*Ohio Educational Monthly*.

COUNTY OF WELLINGTON PROMOTION EXAMINATIONS.*

First Class—Promotion to Second.

FRIDAY, MARCH 16TH, 1883.

READING.

First Book, Part II. page 76:—When the six months were gone . . . the little sick boy had grown.—Value 30 marks.

WRITING.

Copy on slates in script (not printing), page 43:—The day is past—all the night.—Value, 20 marks.

DICTATION.

Pupils will take separate seats with slates; to be conducted in writing. "In the cold time of the year. Frank and Florence had a room all for themselves." "'Tis time you learnt to fly." "To warm and to guard them." "The young birds are all crying for food." "They had a bath in the brook, but they were careful not to go in where it was deep, lest they should be drowned." "To pull boys' hair and make 'hem cry." "But Clara says she must first learn her verses for school." "They saw him sprawl on the ice." "He did not choose to go so far as the cheese." "Back to her chink the sly mouse ran." Bruise, noise, raise, twirl, floated, heaven, flower, thankful, cabbage, school, tongue, and school-mates.

The above is to be written neatly.—Value, 22 marks, with 2 marks off for each error.

ARITHMETIC.

Separate seats with slates.

1. Find the value of $94753 + 2847 + 793688 + 9386 + 358 + 3456$.

2. Express in words 3004, 12456, 249, 7200, 1764, CCLXIX, DCCXXIV, CCLVI, XIX, and XLIX.

3. Write in figures seven hundred, seven thousand, one hundred and sixty-five, three hundred and forty, and nine hundred and seventy-four.

4. A man gave a cow and \$16 in money for a waggon valued at \$60. How much did he get for his cow?

* By courtesy of Mr. D. H. Clapp, I.P.S., Harrison.

5. Find the difference between 153425178 and 53845258.

6. From two thousand and thirteen take nine hundred and seven.

7. A man deposited in the bank at one time \$238, at another \$472, and at another \$684; he drew out in all \$1097. How much has he still left in the bank?

8. From \$2117.24 subtract \$214.29 + \$119.94 + \$1.88.

9. Out of a 50 dollar bill I paid \$5.31, \$7.98, \$25.27 and \$2.21. How much of the bill have I left?

10. (Orally.)

6 + 9 are how many?

6 + 7 + 9 + 5 " "

9 + 3 + 4 + 6 " "

3 + 6 + 2 + 1 + 7 " "

1 from 9 " "

0 " 7 " "

7 " 15 " "

9 " 17 " "

4 " 12 " "

8 " 16 " "

7 " 13 " "

Etc., etc. Each pupil must be examined orally on one question similar to the last on this paper.—Value, 100 marks—10 each.

LITERATURE.

Open books and answer orally from page 58. (1) What is a truant? (2) What was the truant's name? (3) In what month did this occur? (4) Name the month that follows June? (5) What are berries? (6) What are wicked boys? (7) What do you think of Henry's conduct? (8) Explain the meaning of "neat and clean," "fine morning," "full of glee," "be so naughty," "do right," "to their classes," and "lots of ripe berries."—Value, 28 marks; the last is worth 14 and the rest 2 marks each.

MARCH 22ND, 1883.

Entrance to Third Class.

ARITHMETIC.

On paper—full work required—no marks unless correct and without changes.

1. Write in figures eight millions ten thousand and eight. Write in words 13000-

107, 19685799 and in Roman Numerals 5555, 1883, 9493, and 1019.

2. Divide 73146592 by nine thousand eight hundred and seventy-four.

3. Multiply eight hundred and ninety-six thousand and seven by ninety thousand and seventy-six

4. If a train goes 350 miles in 14 hours, how far will it go in 20 hours?

5. If I get into a boat and row up stream 224 yards, then stop rowing and float down stream 1074 feet, then row up stream 80 yards; how far am I from where I started?

6. Find the difference between $783007 \div 8$ and $864811040 \div 23$.

7. If 13 ploughs cost \$122.85; how many such ploughs will \$160.65 buy?

8. A boy bought a pair of skates for \$2.25, 7 pencils at 60 cents per doz, 3 books at \$2 each and handed the merchant a \$10 bill. How much change should he receive from the merchant?

9. What is the least number which should be added to 3758 to make the same exactly divisible by 117?

10. A drover bought 68 lambs at \$2.25 each and after keeping them 4 months at a cost of 10 cents each per month, he sold them at \$3.10 each; find his gain.

LITERATURE.

On paper. Candidates may use Second Reader. Open books at pages 159 and 160.

1. What is meant by "presence of mind" and what is an "ingenious device"?

2. Give another name for a "grand church." Why were they painting the ceiling?

3. What is meant by "handiwork"? What is "a platform"?

4. What is "a cruel stroke"? What is "a storm of passion"?

5. Give the meaning of "quick as thought," "daubed it," "utterly spoiling it," and "strange action."

6. What is a factory, and what is the tall chimney for?

7. What is meant by "means of descending"?

8. What is a keepsake, and why was it a keepsake?

9. What is a pulley? a scaffold? a ladder? a coil?

Value, 8 marks for each; total 72.

GEOGRAPHY.

Answers to be written on paper.

1. Draw a map of the County of Wellington, showing its Townships, County Towns, Incorporated Villages, Railroads, and chief Rivers.

2. Bound the Township of Minto.

3. What township lies north of West Garafraxa? East of West Luther? West of Peel?

4. What is a Town Line? Define Concession, Lot, Side Road, and Blind Line.

5. What and where are Irvine, Grand, Four-mile Creek, Erin, Elora, and Saugeen Road, and Conestoga?

6. What is a City? What is a Mountain? What is an Ocean? What is a Valley? What is a Sea?

7. Name fifteen post offices in the County of Wellington.

Value, 72 marks—1, 15; 2, 7; 3, 3; 4, 10; 5, 12; 6, 10; 7, 15.

DICTIONATION.

Second Reader, page 226, from "At length when the last biscuit had been eaten" to "his queen." Pupils are to be told by Examiner where each sentence begins; Capitals to be counted.

Memories, desolate, unbridled, impulse, perseverance, proceeded, jealous, entangled, loosened, hospitable, stiffening, inclement, wearisome, invocation, acceded, demurred, impatient, carpenters, majority, and separated.

Slates are not to be used, but plenty of time can be given the candidates to write it *once* carefully on paper.

Value 40, with two marks off for each error.

READING.

Second Reader, page 161, from "They all stood in silence" to "for eager heads to reach."

Value, 30 marks.

WRITING—ON PAPER.

Second Reader, page 148, "Golden au-

turn comes again" . . . "Hence the reapers bear the sheaves."

Value, 20 marks.

Entrance to Fourth Class.

READING.

Third Book, page 188, from "Upon one of the green islands" to "breathed his last."

Value, 30—*i.e.*, fluency 20, and expression 10. Two marks to be deducted for every mispronounced word, and one for every other error in fluency, such as hesitation, miscalling, etc., etc.

WRITING.

To be judged from Dictation paper. Value, 20 marks,

DICTIONATION.

To be written at once on paper and no copy made, capitals and periods to count.

Value 50, with 5 marks off for each error.

Third Reader, page 224, from "The schooner collided" to "driven up the lake." "The principal Saxon chiefs," "unrivalled naval power," "eminent in cultivating the arts of peace," "witness the spectacle," "entitling him to grateful remembrance," "the eddying gust," "the melancholy days," "I reflect with sorrow and astonishment," "Hurrah for England's Queen!" "The moral effect of this memorable action," "As they drifted on their path," "Over the enemy's taffrail," "Having the curiosity to know its contents," "in his embarrassment," "The echoing chorus sounded."

The above is not to be written on slates.

COMPOSITION.

1. Write short descriptions of the following tradesmen and their occupations:—

(a) A blacksmith. (b) A butcher. (c) A shoemaker. (d) A farmer.

2. Write short descriptions of the following members of different professions and their duties:—

(a) A minister. (b) A lawyer. (c) A teacher. (d) A doctor.

3. Write short letters on the following subjects:—

- (a) Excusing a child's absence from school.
 (b) Ordering goods from a merchant. (c) Invitation to a friend to dine or take tea.

4. Write a short account of "The Little Hero of Harlem."

Values, 1, 20; 2, 20; 3, 18; 4, 14—
 Total 72.

GRAMMAR.

1. Enlarge the sentence, "Books please me."

2. Combine the following group of statements into *one* simple sentence:—"The house was burned. It stood on the hill. It was a white house. It was burned last Tuesday. It had a beautiful garden."

3. Give the Singular and Plural Possessive of ox, fox, lady, tooth, roof, and men. Also the plural of half, this, monarch, motto, German, Frenchman, was, and cherub.

4. Define Antecedent, Comparisop, Strong Conjugation, Possessive Case, and Adverb. Give an example of each.

5. Analyse, *Yonder stands Mary's little lamb. Just then I heard a voice behind me.* Parse the words in italics, giving relation.

6. Divide the following words into syllables and underline the silent letters in them:—Transportation, written, streamed, and caught.

7. Correct any mistakes in the following:—Him and me was going to the show, but papa wouldn't give us no money. Them's my mittens.

GEOGRAPHY.

1. Define:—Ecliptic, Orbit, Oasis, Latitude, Watershed.

2. Name the Political Divisions of South America with their capitals.

3. Name and locate the Cities of the Dominion.

4. Name the Counties of Ontario on the Great Lakes.

5. What and where are the following?—Collingwood, Bahama, Cobequid, Yucatan, Missouri, Madeira, Galapagos, Hooker, Race, Titicaca.

LITERATURE.

1. Early in the morning, the family who dwelt in the lighthouse, beheld the vessel, upon the rocks, with a powerful sea beating

upon her, which threatened her with complete destruction.—*Third Reader*, page 73.

(a) What family is meant? (b) Give the names of the vessel and of the lighthouse? (c) In what year did this occur? (d) Where was the vessel proceeding? (e) Explain the meaning of *lighthouse, vessel, powerful, sea, threatened her*, and *complete destruction*.

2. Artists flocked to her lonely dwelling to take her portrait, and depict the scene in which she had been engaged. A sum exceeding five hundred pounds, collected by subscription, was presented to her; and some of the most eminent persons in the land wrote letters to her, containing warm expressions of regard. (a) Why was her dwelling called lonely? (b) Where did she live? (c) How many persons were saved from the wreck? (d) Why is the young woman named in this lesson called a heroine? (e) Give a short sketch of her life. (f) Give the meaning of *artists, portrait, depict the scene, collected by subscription, eminent persons*, and *warm expressions of regard*.

3. Write from memory the verses beginning with "Sweet is the hour of rest" to "In the world beyond the grave."

4. Write from memory the verses beginning with "Ah! rudely then, unseen by me" to "When last I saw thee drink."

CANADIAN HISTORY.

1. Who colonized Canada, and what name did they give it? With what difficulties did they meet?

2. Name two or three objects people had in view in coming from Europe to this country two or three hundred years ago.

3. Tell all you can remember about Champlain, Frontenac, Marquette, and La Salle.

4. Describe the capture of Quebec in 1759, as fully as you can.

5. Why did the French and English colonists in America quarrel so continually?

6. Name the articles of commerce between Canada and France about the year say 1720.

7. When did the Seventeenth Century begin and end?

8. What events happened in Canada in the years 1535, 1603, 1608, 1663, and 1763?

ARITHMETIC.

1. Bought a farm at \$43 per acre; and, after keeping 't for a certain time, I sold it at \$58 per acre, gaining thereby \$4410: how many acres were in the farm?

2. Find the value of $(1\frac{1}{2} \div 2\frac{1}{2}) + (5\frac{1}{4} \div 3\frac{1}{2}) + (4\frac{1}{2} \times 2\frac{2}{3}) \times (\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{4} \text{ of } 1\frac{1}{4})$.

3. A man left $\frac{1}{4}$ of his estate to his wife, $\frac{1}{3}$ of the remainder to his son, and the balance, \$1835, to his daughter. Find the value of the estate.

4. Find the difference between seven millions eighteen thousand and ninety, and DLXVCMIV.

5. The remainder is one-ninth the divisor, the quotient (28) is seven times the remainder. Find the dividend.

6. $\frac{1}{2}$ of my money is in five-dollar bills, $\frac{2}{3}$ of it is in ten-dollar bills, and the remainder (\$10) is in silver: how many bills have I?

7. Find the value of $83\ 807 \times .0047 + 96.34 - .0725$.

8. A boy bought some peaches at 3 cents each; had he paid $5\frac{1}{2}$ cents each, they would have cost \$2.40 more. How many did he buy?

9. James has 4 marbles more than George, and John has 6 less than George. They have altogether 88; how many has each?

10. Find the value of a piece of land $\frac{3}{4}$ miles long, 1 mile wide, at \$23 per acre.

Values. 10 marks for each question.

Entrance to Fifth Class.

WRITING.

Value, 20. Writing will be judged from Dictation Paper. Slates not to be used.

DICTIONATION.

Fourth Book, page 79. From "I had not long to wait" to "in various stages of suffering." (1) "Aside the frozen Hebrides," (2) "No Lethan drug for Eastern lands," (3) "Rings out for us the axe-man's stroke," (4) "So high has the reputation of the ship-builders of New Brunswick risen," (5) "There were beevies of birds and swarms of bees," (6) "Twice twenty leagues beyond remotest

smoke of hunter's camp," (7) "The sweet and solemn hymn of Sabbath worshippers," (8) "The skin, broken and abraded, loses its brightness," (9) "Ere the soil of our faith and freedom should echo a foeman's tread," and (10) "A type of our young country in its pride and loveliness."

Value 60, 5 marks off for each mistake.

READING.

Fourth Book, page 76. "An impression similar in kind" to "become enfeebled."

Value, 30. Marks as in entrance to Fourth Class.

COMPOSITION.

The examiner will write the subjects on the blackboard. Candidates must choose one of the following subjects, and the composition must not be less than 30 lines in length:—

(a) Christmas Day; (b) Intemperance; (c) Making the Best of Things; (d) A Letter to a Friend on any subject.

Value 30.

GEOGRAPHY.

1. Define Aborigines, Great Circle, Roadstead, Tropic of Cancer, Bayou, Delta, Savannah, Morass, Republic, and Pole.

2. Name at least two cities on each of the following rivers:—Mississippi, St. Lawrence, Thames, Volga, Danube.

3. (a) If a passenger starts from Elora for Peterborough by the shortest route, name the railroads passed over. (b) Give the names of at least ten stations on the way.

4. Name the Capes, Straits, Gulfs and Bays on the Atlantic coast of North America.

5. State accurately what and where are Prince Arthur's Landing, Thunder Bay, English River, Bass, Roca, Hammerfest, Pembina, Manilla, Brandon, Queen Charlotte.

6. Draw a map of New Brunswick, and locate its principal towns, rivers, lakes, capes, and bays.

Value: 1, 10; 2, 10; 3, 10; 4, 10; 5, 20; 6, 12—total, 72.

GRAMMAR.

1. What is the difference between gender and sex? Give a sentence containing a

direct and an indirect object. Explain the meaning of the terms affirmative and negative.

2. Give the corresponding gender of widow, nephew, Czar, negro, and author; also the singular of beaux, axes, seraphim, bellows, memoranda. Compare magnificent, dry, wooden, ill.

3. Define Reciprocal Pronoun, Consonant, phrase, conjugation, and antecedent; and give an example of each.

4. Define the moods. Give examples.

5. Decline the Personal Pronouns.

6. Analyse—Here, *with my rifle and my steed*, and *her who left the world for me*, *I plant me where the red deer feed in the green desert*—and *am free*.

7. Parse the words in italics in the above.

8. Correct the following errors, giving reasons. He carried him ashore as lightly and as easily as if he had been a child of five years old. We have both a black and white horse. Your skates lays under the table.

ENGLISH HISTORY.

1. Tell all you know about the coming of

certain German tribes into Britain in the fifth century. Give the cause of their visit, the date, their leaders, and the results.

2. Who was the first King of England? Give date.

3. How did Athelstan encourage commerce?

4. Describe the Feudal System. Who introduced it?

5. Name a few good results of the Crusades.

6. Of the following battles, name simply,

(a) The nations engaged, and their leaders.

(b) The place (country) and the date. (c) The results which followed, viz. :—Bannockburn, Crecy, Agincourt, Bosworth, and Naseby.

7. State the principal conditions of the Treaty of Utrecht, The first Treaty of Paris, The Union Act, The Habeas Corpus Act, and the Reform Bill. Give dates.

8. For what are the following men noted?—Sir Christopher Wren, William Wilberforce, Sir Rowland Hill, James Cook, William Pitt, and James Watt.

Value : 9 marks each—total, 72.

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT, including a general view of the Work of Education, with some account of the Intellectual Faculties from a Teacher's point of view, Organization, Discipline, and Moral Training, by Joseph Landon, Lecturer in the Training College, Saltley. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.; Toronto: James Campbell & Son.

At present we can do no more than indicate the scope of the new issue of this useful series of books, as the volume has just come into our hands as we are about to go to press. Its author is evidently one of the large-minded, alert, modern men engaged in the work of professional education in England, and a type of the progressive educationists and sound practical scholars this Province just now stands much in need of for our Normal Schools.

The first part of the book deals with the Intellectual Faculties, and the bearing of

the facts of Mental Science upon the work of the teacher. The chapters in this division treat of the three lines of educational development,—the body, the intellect, and the emotional nature and will. Then come some interesting lessons on Sensation, Perception, Apprehension, Retention, Reproduction, and Attention. The cultivation of the imagination, the judgment, and the reason follows; after which the practical part of the book is reached, dealing with Organization. Under this head we have chapters on systems of organization, the school and its appointments, the classification of the children, the qualifications and duties of the teacher, time-tables and systems of registration, apparatus and books. The third division is devoted to Discipline and Moral Training, and treats of the emotions and the will in education; school tactics, the government of children, and the nature and

uses of punishment. A good deal under Organization is of course local to England; but there seems to be much of value in the book, both in this and in the other departments of the treatise, that we assume the responsibility, even from the slight glance we have had at the book, to recommend it to our readers.

COMPANION TO ALGEBRA, by L. Marshall, M.A., Assistant Master at Charterhouse. London: Rivingtons, 1882.

THIS work is intended especially for students who are already familiar with the easier parts of Algebra as given in any of the elementary text-books. The selection of the Theorems is well made; and though the demonstrations in some cases are not fully written out, still the hints are so judicious that a learner can easily follow the proof. The examples are many, and well arranged, and several neat results are obtained. The last chapter is on the general Theory of Equations. Mathematical masters and advanced scholars in our Secondary Schools will find this a useful book: it would be still more useful if the answers were given.

A TREATISE ON ELEMENTARY TRIGONOMETRY, by the Rev. J. B. Lock, M.A., Assistant Master at Eton. London: Macmillan & Co., 1882.

THE author states, in his preface, that the work deals only with the part of the subject which can conveniently be explained without the use of infinite series. The book is intended either for class-teaching or for private study. A noteworthy feature of the work is to be found in the remarks, at the beginning, on measurement and incommensurability. No doubt Mr. Lock has good grounds for defining "Measure" as indicating the "number of times the thing measured contains the unit"; commonly the "numerical value" is used for this definition. With reference to incommensurables he makes the sensible remark, that it is useless to carry results to many places of decimals, a recommendation, by the way, to which he is not always careful himself to adhere. For unit of circular measure, the

author uses "Radian," which he proposes to indicate by a letter c , placed as an index, in the same way that we mark degrees by the symbol $^{\circ}$. The work is illustrated by sets of well arranged examples. Masters and students alike will find this work worthy of attention.

THE PRINCESS: A STUDY, with critical and explanatory notes, of Alfred Tennyson's poem, by S. E. Dawson. Montreal: Dawson Brothers. 1882.

A PAPER prepared for "a semi-social, semi-literary society" as a review and critical estimate of the judgment passed by the members of the society on Tennyson's "Princess," has resulted in this book, which we regard as an able and satisfying criticism of that noble poem. Mr. Dawson recounts the reception which this great poetic work of art met at its first appearance from the "chorus of irresponsible, ignorant reviews;" he next points out its central purpose, as a poetical analysis of the position of Woman and Woman's Rights, a position, as he shows, with just satire, very different from that of the "indiscribable persons" of both sexes who are connected with what is termed the "Revolt of Women." He does good service to Canadian society in showing Tennyson's contempt for the craze which seeks to supersede sex by a new arrangement of society. Mr. Dawson next gives a most thoughtful and pleasantly-written analysis of the poem in its two-fold division, from the first to the fourth book, being mock-heroic, while the other books are entirely serious. To most people the transition gives a certain feeling of unreality to the whole poem. But Mr. Dawson writes of both in an appreciative tone and with a thoroughness of insight which shows that he possesses one of the rarest of critical gifts, the power of estimating high-class poetry at its true value. We recommend his monograph on "The Princess" to all teachers as a most useful aid to the study of modern poetry. The work does great credit to the poetic taste and literary skill of its author, who is the senior member of the well-known and long-established publishing firm of Dawson Brothers, Montreal.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

THE MINISTER'S REPORT FOR 1882.

By the courtesy of the Secretary to the Department, we have been put in possession of an early copy of the Honourable the Minister's Report for the past year, the physical frame-work of which is of the usual Brobdingnagian type. It would seem to be impossible to get this Annual Blue-book (?) down to modest proportions. While we are annually in expectation of this, up crops, as in the present instance, about a hundred pages, consisting of the financial statements for the year of the various Mechanics' Institutes of the Province. This lumber, the Department might readily see, is not wanted where it appears: it is matter for the Provincial Auditor and the Public Accounts' Committee of the Legislature; and we would suggest, if the public money is still to be spent upon it, that any hanger-on of the Education Office who prepares it for press should send the sheets as issued direct from the printer to the paper-mill, with the rubbish that may yet litter the Department from the abandoned Book Depository. As these accounts, for the second time, annoyingly obtrude themselves, we take occasion to say that the Government grant of two dollars for every one locally raised by these Institutes should be paid over in *strict* accordance with the law. Nananee we observe, for instance, receives a Legislative Grant for the year of \$400, while the sum raised by the members of its Institute is only \$57 odd—a clear case, and not the only one in the Report, of misappropriation of the Government bounty. The matter wants the more looking into when we find that not a dollar has been disbursed by the Institute in question for books during the year. The Department will do well also to see that the Government Grant is spent currently as received by the Institutes, and for the legitimate purposes for which it is given. Moreover, let there be no accounts passed by the Department with a heavy balance "carried forward" by the Institutes, and no large sums allowed to appear in the statements under the

ambiguous term of "miscellaneous." One other remark and we pass from this subject, viz., that it is not a healthy sign to see the very disproportionate annual issue of fiction by these Institutes: in many cases the average is eighty per cent. of the whole reading of the community. This is not encouraging to the advocates of Free Public Libraries.

Into the tabular matter proper to the Blue-book we shall not now enter; nor does that under the head of Legislation, Orders in Council, Opinions and Decisions of the Minister, etc., at present particularly invite us. We would rather note, in the meantime, a few of the utterances of Inspectors, High and Public, on matters which have come under their observation, particularly on points of importance to the well-being of the schools. And first let us say how desirable it is that Inspectors should give free voice to their convictions and opinions formed while coming fresh into contact with the teachers under them, and with a state of things—whether gratifying or otherwise—brought under their notice, of which the head of the Department and the public should be cognizant. This information, if well digested, and compactly and lucidly presented, cannot fail to be of the highest service to any competent administrator of the educational affairs of the Province. We trust that no considerations of a personal, still less of a political, character will prevent Inspectors from fully and freely reporting, in these annual documents, the true condition of the schools. If teachers are incompetent, or their methods are bad, there should be no scruple about saying so. Duty, indeed, compels them to speak frankly and honestly. It is gratifying, of course, to have our patriotic pride sustained in the belief "that Ontario has the best system of education in the world." Somehow, however, this flattering statement, even in the Report before us, is not borne out. Let us see what is really said.

To take the utterances of the Senior Inspector first, if our readers will turn to the Report (pp. 136-140), they will find an

indulgent against our "Schools and School-masters" that ought to dispel all illusion. The reference, it is to be noted, is to High Schools and Collegiate Institutes. 1. In regard to the Entrance Examination, Dr. McLellan affirms, that the Local Examiners fail to do their work with sufficient care; that the penmanship of candidates is bad, "a good deal of it very bad;" that the work is indifferently put on paper—"without neatness, without method;" that there is "a serious lack of proper training in this direction;" and that there appears to be "too much telling on the part of the teacher and too little doing on the part of the pupil." 2. With reference to the Course of Study, regret is expressed that Drawing "has not been given at least the rank of an option;" and the Normal Schools are arraigned for failing to educate teachers in even the Elementary branches of this subject. Science is next touched upon, and is said to be neglected and under-valued. Literature-teaching is then brought to the bar, and is charged with being mere instruction in "parsing and analysis, and nothing more." The text-books are found fault with; and reliance on them, wrong methods, and grammatical hair-splitting are rebuked. The next step is to professional training, and here the Report is more dismal and the outlook less bright. The untrained teacher is "a delusion and a snare," and the men of luminous minds and aptitude for educational work are not forthcoming. "Hide-bound pedants" and "crammers of dead vocables" ply their trade; and Matthew Arnold is called in to state that "the mass of mankind know good butter from bad, and tainted meat from fresh," but they "do not so well know good teaching and training from bad." The Universities, according to the Senior Inspector, are not alone to be looked to in providing competent teachers; and satisfactory professional training, we infer from his words, is not to be had at the Secondary Schools. Much of the teaching in the High Schools, Dr. McLellan affirms, is "not of good quality, and cannot be of good quality until we have some means of teaching the teachers, of giving them at least a fair professional training." And this,

forsooth! is to be had at the Normal Schools, on the chopped straw and starveling diet that passes in these precious institutions for professional education!

In Mr. Inspector Hodgson's first Report, the results are not more gratifying; and the tax-payer of the Province has little to console him for the provision made by the Department in his name for higher education. Mr. Hodgson's returns cover the inspection of High Schools west of Toronto, and the tale he has to tell us, is "of the all but total disregard" in these Institutions "of such everyday subjects as reading and writing." The Department, we are informed, that is taught "worst and least is English;" and Mr. Hodgson's statement is significantly endorsed by specimens which he quotes of the speech of even "prominent masters." Mathematics, he refers to, as having the preference in the studies, and for its undue prominence in the curriculum we know whom to blame. Physical Science, he considers, is taught without any educational value, from the want of the necessary apparatus and appliances.

The same story of imperfect education, inadequate professional training, and criminal indifference to the practical studies to which pupils should be compelled to give their attention, meets us in the returns of the Public School Inspectors, in the Report before us. The truth is, painful though it may be to confess it, upon few grounds can we justify the boastful talk we are accustomed to hear on the subject of Education in Ontario. In moments of professional exaltation, if vaunting people will only sit down with the Government blue-book in their hands, and con over, not the statistics, (for these can be made to prove anything), but the passages in the Reports that speak of inefficient teachers and the indifferent results of their work, we shall have less to inspire unhealthy ambitions and more reason to confine our talk to sober speech.

THE ROYAL CANADIAN READERS.

WHOEVER approaches the task of compiling a series of school reading books, if he wishes to do himself and his work justice, can have at the outset, we imagine, but little

no'tion of the difficulties he is likely to encounter. He may provide himself with all available and seemingly-serviceable material, he may arm himself with every equipment of the scholar, and become proficient in the art of the clear and ready writer, but he will not go far before he finds that there is much in educational book-making which he has not dreamt of, and a thousand-and-one contingencies, sure to confront him at the most unexpected moment, of which he has not "taken stock." But editorial confidences of this sort, we fear, will lay us open to the suspicion that we have ourselves been "through the mill," and that these prefatory words are but thinly disguised apologies for our assurance, if not incompetence. The readers of the MONTHLY, we premise, however, will not do us this wrong. Our remarks should rather be taken as indicating our sympathy with a proverbially difficult bit of literary work, and the fairness of our position in attempting to estimate the labours of men who, presumedly, have come to their duties with a befitting sense of responsibility, and with resources equal to any emergency in the task they have undertaken for the schools of the country. There are, of course, School Readers and School Readers, but the series, *par excellence*, that is to meet the wants, and for the next decade fulfil the purposes, of education in Canada, obviously cannot have been prepared without the expenditure of much practical labour, careful and experienced thought, and a generous sum of money.

There have been few things in the history of educational enterprise in Canada more remarkable, in a quiet way, than the preparation and issue of this excellent and really handsome series of School Readers. There has been no horn-blowing or clamorous laudation of what was being, or about to be, done. The series has taken some time to prepare; and if we take the publishers' word, and we have no reason to doubt it, for what has been spent in money on the books, the Education Department, School Trustees, and the profession at large may be assured that these Readers make their appearance as the product of a well-matured, intelligent, and painstaking effort, to give

to education in Canada the best Reading Books that publishing resource and native talent could well call into existence for use in the schools of the country.

Education is now-a-days playing so important a part in mundane affairs that the enterprise which has produced these books really became a necessity of the times. For some years Canada has rubled along with a series of Readers which, however good in their day, had by common consent outlived their usefulness. The horizon of education has of late been extending in every direction; new methods of teaching have come into vogue; a more critical taste and a wider scholarship has been manifested; and literature itself has taken on new form and beauty. To meet these advances, to supply aids to the profession in the technical art of teaching, and to give to the pupil the fruit of the modern mind in letters and art, was an act that will not only bury the remembrance of the unattractive books that have hitherto done duty as the tools of education in Canada, but will open a new world of bright activity and interest for the minds of the youth who are to be nurtured on the goodly fare so bountifully provided in the Royal Canadian Readers.

Within the narrow limits of an editorial note, it is of course impossible to go into a detailed review of the various features and many excellences of the books. Nor is this necessary, as the publishers, in our present issue, have taken advantage of our advertising pages to supply readers of THE MONTHLY with a syllabus of the series; and we learn that it is also their intention to place the books on view at the approaching meetings of the Teachers' Associations. What we may here specially note, however, is the extent to which the compilers have drawn upon the suggestions, both of the Department and of practical teachers throughout the Province, as to making the books serve the purpose of good reading manuals, and, by means of copious hints to teachers and well-graded exercises for the pupil, at the same time to give practical aid to the critical study of the mother tongue. This is a service which was well worth per-

forming for the schools of the Dominion, and it is a service which, it seems to us, has been very efficiently rendered by the editors of the books before us. The study of English is now happily taking its rightful place in the schools, from which it has hitherto been largely divorced by the undue prominence given to mathematics and other less important subjects. The impetus which these Readers are likely to give to the practical and successful study of English in the various stages of the school course will be evident from even a cursory examination; and we should say that few pupils of ordinary intelligence will be willing to leave these books without desiring to know more of English literature.

TRADUCING THE PROFESSION.

THE unwarrantable, and it might seem almost wanton, attack on the teaching profession occurring in Mr. Charlton's Bill against Seduction, lately before Parliament, reminds us of the delicate satire of a recent writer in speaking of men "who think success means getting upon a Committee of the House, or carrying a Bill through the Legislature," forgetting the truer success of properly instructing the public mind, and of leading the sentiment of the community into wholesome and righteous channels. Mr. Charlton's indiscretion is the indiscretion of not a few of our public men, who, when they are bitten with the idea of setting the world aright, either lose their common-sense or the power of looking at things from all sides. To initiate legislation on social evils is a delicate undertaking, and the task of steering between the Scylla of unpunished crime and the Charybdis of popular prejudice requires the exercise of a rare judgment and an unerring tact. What judgment Mr. Charlton has shown is apparent when, in attempting to legislate against a heinous crime, he brands the teaching fraternity as before and above all men *the* offenders against chastity, and stigmatizes the profession as if it included the only possible culprits to be criminally dealt with by the provisions of his proposed Act.

The meeting of the Toronto teachers, to

take steps to have the offensive clause in the Bill expunged, very properly resented the slur cast at the profession by Mr. Charlton's heedless action. As was stated at the meeting, the seduction of minors by teachers was happily a rare occurrence; and while the mass of the profession, presumed, was in sympathy with legislation which would make the offence a criminal one, those present had the spirit to dispute Mr. Charlton's right to fasten upon teachers as a class the odium of a crime which was less chargeable to them than to others in the community whose opportunities and influence over women might, if at all, be more fairly considered a menace to virtue.

It may be said for the profession that its members want no privileges which are not reasonably granted to other classes of the community. They justly claim, however, a share in the comity recognized by the social code, and ask to be treated with the respect which is accorded to other reputable professions. It is their misfortune that legislation in connection with the schools has brought the fraternity more than its members care before the public; but he would be a reckless man who would presume upon this to pass a slight upon the profession, or make insidious attacks upon its morals. Instead of being the great violators of the law, teachers—need we say?—are its most intelligent mainstay.

MORE "SCHOOL JOURNAL" MIS-REPRESENTATION.

OUR readers will readily understand that we have something else to do than take up valuable space in the MONTHLY in noticing the jaundiced comments of the *School Journal* on editorial utterances in our columns. That with the issue of each number of THE MONTHLY the publishers of the *School Journal* should go through the spiritual exercise of cursing, instead of blessing, us, was quite to be expected. An independent organ of the profession, representing its higher interests, and the mouthpiece neither of publishing house nor of would-be toadies of the Department, is naturally enough a thorn in the flesh

of the Wellington Street firm. Hence the spiteful reference, which we reluctantly here notice, to this magazine in last month's issue of the *Journal*—a reference which, in its limping English, plainly came from the source of the orthographical chaos in a certain "Spelling Book" that some time ago received our attention. Hence, also, the pitiful misrepresentation, in the *Journal* for April, of what we had last month to say on the subject of a Headmaster's "renouncing the profession." The *Journal* would make it appear that our remarks on the indifferent status of the profession, and the regret we gave expression to at the general failure of the community to extend the proper meed of sympathy and encouragement to the teacher in his arduous work, were a consequence of some circumstances said to have occurred at Whitby, which, the *Journal* insinuates could not have been pleasing to us. To this slander we need but make the reply, that we were as ignorant as the child unborn of any and all circumstances connected with the appointment of the new master, to which the *Journal* alludes; and we may add, that if any intrigue took place, or if any clique-wirepulling was resorted to, in influencing the Board in making the new appointment, it does not astonish us that we should be in entire ignorance of the matter, and that Messrs. Gage and the *School Journal* should know all about it.

Our apologies are due to the new principal of the Institute in question, in our being compelled to make this frank statement, owing to the impertinence of the conductors of the *School Journal* in dragging us into discourteous notice in its columns. The late principal will also considerably excuse the liberty we necessarily had to take in making this personal allusion in our common defence. The *Journal's* own reference to him, he may not be able to control; but its malevolence falls to the ground when its object can point to the grand public and professional demonstration at Whitby, on the occasion of the recent leave-taking. The attack on ourselves we must bear as we may. Teachers have recently been made the objects of an

outrageous assault in an unexpected quarter. Editors of magazines, it would seem, thanks to the *School Journal*, are not now to be the only unstigmatized scoundrels.

MODERN TENDENCIES.—Is it not the tendency of our numerous conventions and institutes to lay too much stress on "fine handling" of material and too little on the "inspiration" which alone can give dignity to our work? When the same public sees yearly crowds of boys and girls passing from our schools into society and business with seemingly no impressions remaining on their characters from all the teachers through whose hands they have come—for the public cannot fail to see this—it must not be blamed for asking if the work of education has degenerated into "fine handling," while the "dignity of inspiration has vanished."—*Anna C. Brackett.*

A Spadina Avenue lady dropped in on her neighbour for an afternoon call. "How is your daughter?" she inquired. "Splendid. She has just got back from the Nominal School, where she ciphered clear through from ambition to chemical fractures, and then she took up pottery and jobbery, and he says she can speculate the internal calculations."

TEACHERS should do more studying of methods. Institutes are good, but institute instruction cannot take the place of hard study and hard thinking; it can only supplement them. The Institute ought to be to the teacher what the teacher is to the pupil, the helper. Thorough, careful preparation for the day's labour is just as essential to the teacher as it is to the pupil. To secure this preparation, which in time will amount to training, teachers ought to read more educational journals and study more educational books. There are teachers who have been teaching for years, who do not own a single book on education, who read no educational journals, and yet they wonder that they and their business are not held in a higher esteem. They don't deserve it.—*Educational Review.*