

Technical and Bibliographic Notes / Notes techniques et bibliographiques

The Institute has attempted to obtain the best original copy available for filming. Features of this copy which may be bibliographically unique, which may alter any of the images in the reproduction, or which may significantly change the usual method of filming, are checked below.

L'Institut a microfilmé le meilleur exemplaire qu'il lui a été possible de se procurer. Les détails de cet exemplaire qui sont peut-être uniques du point de vue bibliographique, qui peuvent modifier une image reproduite, ou qui peuvent exiger une modification dans la méthode normale de filmage sont indiqués ci-dessous.

Coloured covers/  
Couverture de couleur

Coloured pages/  
Pages de couleur

Covers damaged/  
Couverture endommagée

Pages damaged/  
Pages endommagées

Covers restored and/or laminated/  
Couverture restaurée et/ou pelliculée

Pages restored and/or laminated/  
Pages restaurées et/ou pelliculées

Cover title missing/  
Le titre de couverture manque

Pages discoloured, stained or foxed/  
Pages décolorées, tachetées ou piquées

Coloured maps/  
Cartes géographiques en couleur

Pages detached/  
Pages détachées

Coloured ink (i.e. other than blue or black)/  
Encre de couleur (i.e. autre que bleue ou noire)

Showthrough/  
Transparence

Coloured plates and/or illustrations/  
Planches et/ou illustrations en couleur

Quality of print varies/  
Qualité inégale de l'impression

Bound with other material/  
Relié avec d'autres documents

Continuous pagination/  
Pagination continue

Tight binding may cause shadows or distortion along interior margin/  
La reliure serrée peut causer de l'ombre ou de la distorsion le long de la marge intérieure

Includes index(es)/  
Comprend un (des) index

Title on header taken from: /  
Le titre de l'en-tête provient:

Blank leaves added during restoration may appear within the text. Whenever possible, these have been omitted from filming/  
Il se peut que certaines pages blanches ajoutées lors d'une restauration apparaissent dans le texte, mais, lorsque cela était possible, ces pages n'ont pas été filmées.

Title page of issue/  
Page de titre de la livraison

Caption of issue/  
Titre de départ de la livraison

Masthead/  
Générique (périodiques) de la livraison

Additional comments: /  
Commentaires supplémentaires:

This item is filmed at the reduction ratio checked below /  
Ce document est filmé au taux de réduction indiqué ci-dessous.

10X	14X	18X	22X	26X	30X
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12X	16X	20X	24X	28X	32X

# THE ONTARIO TEACHER.

A MONTHLY EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL.

Vol. 2.

SEPTEMBER, 1874.

No. 9.

## OUR NEW NORMAL SCHOOLS.

We have repeatedly through the columns of the TEACHER, called public attention to the importance of having our schools supplied with *trained* teachers. The great defect of our educational system is the inexperience of a large majority of those who undertake the training of others, without having received anything like a substantial training themselves. To expect them to be efficient and thorough teachers at once is to expect impossibilities. The art of imparting instruction is not to be learned in a day. The young novice fresh from a public school, with merely education enough to pass an examination for a Third Class Certificate, and without any higher ideal of the requirements of a school than that gleaned from the most superficial observation, is sure to work at a disadvantage, and that which the trained teacher possesses from the beginning, is only obtained by him after repeated experiment and failure.

We have also shewn, in a previous article on this subject, that the loss to the public from the necessity of employing untrained

teachers, through the difficulty often of obtaining any other, is two fold—pecuniary and educational. The pecuniary loss consists in the remuneration paid for services *not* rendered, and which under the circumstances could not be rendered. The educational loss consists in the lack of development and progress—the inadequacy of the means used to the end sought after, and those glaring and serious defects which are almost invariably found in the work of an apprentice as compared with a master mechanic. To remedy those defects we have urged the importance of additional Normal Schools, and in reiterating our opinions on this subject, we can only say, that we will never derive anything like an equivalent for our enormous expenditure upon Public Schools, until they are placed under the care of those who know something of both the “theory and practice” of teaching.

The provision made for training teachers in Ontario, as compared with some of the American States, is worthy of notice. For instance, Illinois has 9, Iowa 3, Kentucky 3, Massachusetts 7, Pennsylvania, 6, New

York 10 and Ohio 11. In regard to educational advantages for our children, we have long boasted of superiority to our neighbors, but in Normal Schools they have a decided advantage over us.

During the last year or two there has been a good deal said in our Local Legislature about the necessity of increasing the number of these training schools. Ottawa has one new building, to be ready for occupation probably next year. But what about our western school? Why this long delay about the selection of a site? We put this question on no political ground whatever. We do not say "give us a Normal School in the west, because they are getting one in the east." Not at all. We care not how many may be located in the eastern portion of the Province if they are required, but we do care a good deal about the educational interests of the people, both east and west. Therefore, we rather rejoice that the east is soon to have the benefit of addi-

tional training facilities for her teachers, and we only regret that the prospects for other parts of the country are not as good.

In delaying this matter we hope our government is not affected by the political exigencies which now apparently control almost every movement of the executive. We believe it is possible for a party and a people to look at matters too much from a political standpoint. There is a higher ground to take in the discharge of public duty than to make everything subservient to "politics." And while we do not for a moment believe the Executive of our Local Legislature would neglect the interests of the country for any purpose, we do feel that in a matter of such importance as the erection of a sufficient number of Normal Schools, there should be no delay on any grounds whatever. We await anxiously the next meeting of the Ontario Parliament, for the realization of long cherished expectations.

---

## READING AS AN ART.

### *Paper IV.*

BY RICHARD LEWIS, TORONTO.

**INFLECTION.**—Inflection is a modification of pitch. The variations of the pitch of the voice may be perceived by striking in succession the different keys of a piano. In passing the finger from one key to another there is not a continued sound; the previous note does not glide imperceptibly into the next higher or lower tone; but, between the two sounds there will be an interval of silence. This variation illustrates the pitch of the voice. Inflection is an application of pitch; but while there is a distinct rise or fall there is no interval of silence, and the nature of that variation can easily be shewn,

as was stated in the first paper of this series, by moving the stop finger up or down one of the strings of a violin, whilst the bow is drawn across it. In pitch the voice moves in distinct steps; but in inflection it moves in continuous slides. These slides are, however, of the utmost importance to give adequate expression to reading. Their right management not only makes all the difference between dull and senseless monotony and the most expressive and delightful utterance of the accomplished elocutionist, actor, public reader or orator; but excellence in this function of the voice is an admirable

interpretation of a passage, and will often convey the meaning better than an elaborate commentary upon it.

The tendency of school reading is to violate all the laws of inflection, and consequently to train pupils in habits of such expressionless and monotonous reading, that they cling to all through life, and disfigure the delivery of scholars and professional men, quite as much as that of the worst educated. That tendency is generally marked by an unvarying downward inflection which bears no reference to the sense of the passage, but is a habit expressive of the relief the voice finds when coming to any pause. It is either an indication of indifference, or of ignorance of the thought expressed; because when speaking his own thoughts, which, no doubt he understands, a man who reads in the most monotonous tone never vary his tones with correct and beautiful inflection. But the bad habit grows and ultimately affects the capacity to inflect at will so deeply, that in adult life few speakers or readers, however accomplished otherwise, are able to read with correct and musical inflections. Let us remember then that as it is school habits that really begin, establish, and confirm monotonous reading, school habits may give the discipline and culture, which shall endow every pupil with the faculty of reading in after life with truthfulness, expression and beauty. The *rules* for inflection are numerous and very perplexing, adapted as far as possible to the form of the sentence, but not always consistent, and subject to exceptions. The perplexity, however, lies more in the mind of the reader, than in the inadequacy of elocutionary principles to satisfy the judgment; and the inconsistency is always only apparent and superficial, and arises from the reader being governed by the letter, by the structure, rather than the spirit of a sentence. The principle of inflection is unvarying, as are in fact all the principles of just elocution. "There are

never two equally good ways of reading a sentence, though there may be half a dozen of writing it. If one and the same sentence is readable in more than one way, it is, because it has more than one passable meaning. 'Shall you walk out to-day?' is a question which may be asked with as many variations of stress and inflection as there are words in it; but every variation involves a variation of meaning."\*

It is a natural law of vocal expression, that in all unfinished and consequently all dependent thought, the voice turns upwards, that is, prefers the rising inflection; and, on the other hand, when the sense and thought are finished the voice takes a downward inflection. This is the law of speech, universal, common to all languages, and never violated until human beings are subjected to the unnatural and sense-destroying habits of school-room reading. It is very easy to insist that we should read as we speak. But in reading the scholar has difficulties to contend with that never afflict him when speaking his own thoughts. He has to speak thoughts which are not his own, and he has to form the words from arbitrary signs and combinations, which in every step demand skill and consideration. The natural tendency here then is to give the falling inflection to every difficult word, without reference to the thought or the general sense of the passage; and as each "stop" offers a momentary resting place in this laborious work, it is equally natural that the scholar should give, as he universally does, a falling inflection to the last word, without regard to the completion or independence of the thought. Sheridan, who wrote on the subject a hundred years ago, considered that the chief reason of these abuses of inflection and emphasis, "seemed to be that children were taught to read sentences which they did not understand." In the most advanced books no

\*North British Review on English Metre.

doubt this is the reason, for, although a pupil, reading a passage in the fifth book, may have some idea of the general sense of the passage, he has not always a clear conception of the logical relations of each phrase and clause. He feels a sense of relief when the stop appears, and to him that indicates finish and completion. Hence, it is of far greater importance that the teacher should explain, or better, elicit from the pupil, the relation of one clause to another, and the nature of the *thought* expressed, than attempt the herculean and really impracticable task of explaining every word, as many of our merely theoretical educators propose. Sheridan suggested that the way to prevent the abuse of inflection and emphasis was, "to put no book into the hands of children which was not suited to their slender capacities; and to take care that they should never read anything whose meaning they did not fully comprehend."\*

But this so far as practicable and desirable, has long since been done, at least in our lower class books. The abuse still exists, and it is due as I have stated, to the relief which the scholars seek in the downward inflection after overcoming a difficulty; while the application of emphasis or stress to every word is due to the fact, that the learner sees in every hard word a sign for an effort and a pause; and so, improper emphasis is as natural as improper pause.

Let us now consider the remedies and the application of principles. In the lower classes I would recommend two forms of exercise. The first should of course be the power to speak the printed forms of words. This is simple reading, not only without expression, but with all the drone and monotony that ring through the school-houses of every land. But the first step which leads to expression is to exercise the pupil in all the natural tones and inflections with which the sentence would be spoken. Every les-

son, therefore, should be read twice over, the first aiming at pronouncing the words correctly; the second aiming at correct expression. In both cases the teacher must give the finished example; finished not only as to a correct articulation and vocalization, but especially as to pause, inflection and emphasis. There is no guide equal to the living voice of the teacher; and hence the importance of teachers acquiring skill in the management of vocal inflection, pitch and emphasis, and the judgment to apply them with logical precision to the expression of thought. Until this shall become the rule and not the exception, bad reading in the household and the pulpit, and bad delivery on the platform will disfigure and disgrace the delivery of speech. The Second Reader presents ample means for practice in this method to the younger classes. Its simple dialogues, tales and poetry, afford exercises which demand all the inflection and emphasis of dramatic compositions; and the teacher, reading each clause aloud as if speaking, and not reading, would present as complete a model for expressiveness as possible. While this would be a purely imitative exercise, the teacher would have frequent opportunity for intelligent and useful questionings, as to what kind of inflection is given to certain clauses, and why it is given; and thus almost with the first lessons children would be studying the science of delivery, without the drudgery of learning rules or the formality of regular instruction.

The principles upon which all inflection are based, are the *completeness* or the *incompleteness* of the thought. In the higher classes the examination of a passage with the object of inflection in view, is an important analytical exercise. Keeping in mind the law, that the rising inflection, marked thus (´) over the inflected element, denotes the incomplete or dependent passage, and the complete falling inflection, marked thus (˘) the completed passage, let us examine a few selections from the Fifth

\*Lectures on the Art of Reading, 1775.

Reader for, illustration. The rhetorical pauses are marked by dashes.

"To the spirit and eloquence of the Chief—the Britons responded—with shouts of enthusiasm ; and each tribe bound itself —by the oaths it held most sacred—to stand its ground or fall—if it must fall!—*fighting.* (page 81.)

Here the words that end dependent and incomplete clauses, take the rising inflection. The first "fall" would demand a rising inflection, if it were not separated from the qualifying participle by the conditional sentence, "if it must fall." But all conditional sentences are dependent and take the rising inflection which marks the second "fall!" The falling inflection is given to the first "fall," because it is antithetical to stand and makes complete sense; and whatever reference it has to "fighting," is satisfied by the rising inflection on the second or last "fall."

The same laws apply to poetry and all impassioned utterances as to prose. But the inflections of passion embrace a wider range, that is have a greater compass than those of thought. This difference being noted, the following passage presents further examples of the law.

"At midnight—in his guarded tent,

The Turk was dreaming of the hour—  
When Greece, her knee in suppliance bent,

Should tremble—at his power.

In all the marked words the reader will see the application and appropriateness of the principle. The word "tremble" is, however, an exception. The sentence might close on this word, and the sense be sufficiently complete. But "tremble" is selected for special or arbitrary emphasis; and, as will be hereafter shewn, it demands the falling inflection. It is impossible

in the brief space of these papers, to give all the applications under their various rules of the law. The object of the writer is to suggest and stimulate to further inquiry. Briefly then it may be stated that all appeals, (1st), negative expressions, which infer their opposites or affirmatives (2nd,) interrogations satisfied with "yes" or "no," as the answer, (3rd), and finally all dependent clauses take the rising inflection. On the other hand, commands (1), interrogations not satisfied by "yes" or "no," (2) negations conclusive and not inferential, (3), and completed forms of thought take the falling expression. The following are illustrations of these rules, corresponding as numbered with the above rules.

*Rising.*

1. "But thou O Hope, with eyes so fair."
2. "It is not to small portions of time, not to a few years, not to a few generations, not to a few ages, that our speculations are here limited; they embrace eternity."

3. Hath not old custom made this life  
more sweet,  
Than that of painted pomp? Are not  
these words,

More free from peril than the envious court?"

*Falling.*

1. Bring me the captive now."
2. "I live with bread like you; feel want, taste grief,  
Need friends; subjected thus,  
How can you say to me, I am a king?"
3. "Though I should die with thee, yet I will not deny thee."

Besides these inflections necessary to all forms of expression, there are also their con-

binations as circumflex inflections, in which the voice whirls down and up, and up and down, in one unbroken slide, when the purpose of the mind is to express in the strongest form, emotions of love, admiration, irony, scorn, reproach, etc. The method of these inflections is simply the union of the rising and falling inflections; but as their application depends on every form of passion, and belongs more to the higher order of dramatic poetry and impassioned oratory, than to the needs of the school-room, they must be passed over for the present.

It is impossible to read or speak without some degree of inflection. In common conversation and reading, as the paragraphs of a newspaper,—the voice proceeds with a very slight upward inflection, not exceeding a second in music, until it reaches a pause. But when the composition is impassioned, the inflections range in extent of compass from a third to a full octave. Facility in making appropriate and truthful inflections is one of the marks of expressive reading, and is best acquired by the frequent practice of sliding the voice up and down from the smallest to the greatest extent of compass, using the vowel and the liquids for such practice first, and then applying the same practice to single words.

The last form of inflection is the most subdued. It is termed the *monotone*, because, when truthfully exhibited, the voice

presents the slightest degree of upward or downward progress. A perfect monotone becomes a musical sound and must be avoided; for delivery in that form would have the sound of chanting. This form of monotone, introduced for the delivery of prayer and all solemn and sublime passages of poetry and oratory, has a powerful impression on the mind; and as it always gives dignity and grandeur to the utterance of speech, its occasional practice is necessary. The speeches of Belshazzar and Daniel, Fifth Book, page 12, the speech of Richard IV, page 484, "Paradise Lost," the Psalms, the Book of Job, and the Prophecies, all abound in composition which demands solemnity of tone; and the teacher aspiring to secure excellence for himself and his pupils in this department of reading as an art, would secure the best results by leading his or her pupils in simultaneous exercises on the monotone. Hence, the teacher must present the living example and be the living model to attain excellence in the art. He must cultivate the imagination which creates poetry and fiction, and the voice which makes the true "action" of oratory enforced by Demosthenes. His reward will be not only the sure advancement of his pupils in an art second to none in its power for good, but the development and enlargement of his own faculties in the same direction.

## THE CLAIMS OF TEACHING TO THE RANK OF A PROFESSION.

BY MR. ROBERT M'CLELLAND, SECOND HEAD MASTER OF THE CENTRAL SCHOOL,  
ST. CATHARINES.

(The following article originally appeared in the *MISSIONARY MESSENGER*, St. Catharines, but having been forwarded to us for insertion in the *TEACHER*, we take the liberty of inserting it among contributions.)

Learned men have taught in schools and colleges; the cause of education has been commended by statesmen and philosophers;

legislatures, convinced of the necessity of intellectual and moral training, have made munificent appropriations to promote it; but notwithstanding all these things, teaching has never been regarded with that general favor which its importance would seem to demand; it has never been looked

upon as one of the professions. There have been teachers in ancient, as well as modern times—in Greece and Rome, as in Europe, the United States and Canada—but at no time, and in no country, has there been a regular constituted teachers' profession.\*

There are only three professions called learned: those of law, medicine, and theology. The task which I have undertaken in this paper is to consider the claims of teaching to a similar rank.

The origin of the word "profession," as at present used to designate a particular business, is somewhat obscure, and it would be difficult to give an exact definition of it. The etymology of the word is a much easier task, and no doubt you are all familiar with it. I need scarcely say that it is from the two Latin words, *pro* before, and *fateor*, to confess, and means to declare publicly one's skill in any business, in order to invite employment. From what is generally implied by the term, however, it is clear that before any business can assume the rank of a profession, it must be characterized by certain requirements, and conform to certain conditions. Among these are: 1st—It must have a noble aim. 2nd—Its operations must not be merely mechanical, but scientific in their nature. 3rd—It must require on the part of its members, a learned general education. 4th—Its nature must be such as to render special preparation necessary to success. 5th—It should be provided with an authority competent to decide upon the qualifications of its members, and those applying for membership. Admitting, for the sake of argument, that the professions of law, medicine, and theology, possess

\* Here I wish it to be distinctly understood that I do not mean to say that some teachers, nay, many, have not been styled "professors," and deservedly so; but, what I assert is, that teaching has not been looked upon as one of the professions—has not been regarded by the community as one of the "so-called" learned professions.

those requirements, and answer these conditions, I proceed to make the inquiry whether the same is true respecting teaching: and if so, then I say that teaching has a right to be ranked as a profession.

1st—Has teaching a noble aim? Teaching is the conducting of the process by which the organs of the body and the faculties of the mind are developed and trained: and surely, no human aim can be higher or nobler. "Man," says Pope, "is the noblest work of God," and He who knew man best, gave him "dominion over the fish of the sea, over the fowls of the air and over cattle, and over all the earth, and over every creeping thing that creepeth upon the earth." From this, it appears evident that man is considered by his Maker, as the head of the animal world, the crowning glory of creation, made last, though not least. It is honorable to labor on the farm or in the workshop, but, however necessary agriculture and the mechanical arts may be to the existence or well-being of the human family, the tilling of the soil, the modelling of machinery, or the construction of railroads, palaces, or pyramids, can hardly be compared in importance to the education of man himself, the agent by whom all these have to be performed, and upon whom their success depends.

The science of medicine is founded on the relations of certain mineral, vegetable, and animal substances to the human system; but, as the body is less important than the mind which animates it, it cannot be, that when properly understood, a science which includes both body and mind, should be considered inferior to one less expansive. It is not an object of less dignity to train, by judicious means, the body to a healthy growth, than it is by appropriate remedies to remove disease from the system; and, the training of the body is but a small part of the object of education.

The profession of the law is founded upon man's social relations, and its highest aim



seems to be, to secure, by the means of courts and juries, the proper observance of those relations. Teaching assumes to do more than this. It not only requires teachers to acquaint themselves with the relations which one man or one community of men bears to another, but it proposes to make such knowledge universal; and to secure obedience to the great commandment, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself,"—not by the verdict of a jury, the decision of a judge, or the counsel of men learned in the law, but by so cultivating the understanding, training the habits, and forming the character of youth, that the spontaneous impulses of their own hearts may dictate the right.

But, contrasts aside, what nobler object can there be than that of educating the whole people? The most perfect government would fail among ignorant and immoral men; the most perfect schemes of reform plauded by the philanthropist or the patriot, would prove fruitless, if not based upon awakened intelligence. Among a people devoid of education, governments become anarchy; reform, fanaticism; science, magic; religion, superstition. Shut up the schools and colleges of our country, and you at once paralyze all improvements; you cripple agriculture, manufactures, and commerce; you dam up the fountains of literature and science; you sap the foundation of our responsible government; you undermine the very fabric of society; you blast, as with mildew breath, the glorious religious fruit of the Reformation, and send men back to revel mid the darkness and superstition of the middle ages.

An artist stood before a rough block just from the quarry. None but his eye could detect the beauty which lay concealed within. He began his work. Chip by chip the rude mass was slowly chiseled away. Days and weeks, and years were spent in the toilsome task; but, behold, from the rough stone there appeared a beautiful statue,

whose veins swell as it were, with the coursing life-blood, whose lips all but utter words. "What the art of the sculptor is to a block of marble, education is to the human soul;" and so, the teacher, by labor as toilsome as that of the artist, would give grace, beauty, and intelligence to the too often rude material that tries his patience and tests his skill. His mission is to form the manners, to cultivate the taste, to awaken the slumbering intellect, to store the mind with useful knowledge, to kindle in the heart pure and lofty sentiments, and to expand the soul until it can form and entertain a just apprehension of nature, and of nature's God.

We now come to the second inquiry. Are the operations of teaching scientific in their nature, or are they merely mechanical? The term "profession," says Dr. Webster, "is not applied to an occupation merely mechanical." If teaching, therefore, be a mere imitative process, or a mechanical art, it has no claims to be called a profession. I acknowledge that some of the processes of teaching are in part mechanical. Such, is, to a considerable extent, the case with the teaching of drawing, writing, instrumental music, and painting; and perhaps to a limited extent, it may be true in the teaching of some other branches—but surgical operations are mechanical, as are likewise all legal forms; so that in this respect, teaching does not differ from medicine or law. A part from this, however, I claim that teaching is a science, and that he who would teach well, must teach according to fixed principles. The end proposed by education, is the training and development of the physical, intellectual, and moral powers of man; and this end, like other important objects, can only be attained by the systematic application of appropriate means. To attain it, the relation of man to circumstances, of the human mind to nature, as the subject of knowledge—must be known and applied. A farmer before he can cultivate his land successfully, must know the nature

of the soil, and means by which it can be improved; and this knowledge is called the science of agriculture. The physician, before he can skillfully practice his profession, should understand the structure and functions of the human body, and its relation to *Materia Medica*; and upon these principles the science of medicine is based. In a similar manner the teacher, before he can teach well, must acquaint himself with the educational capabilities of the human body and the human mind, and by the means nature has furnished for conducting the process of learning; and here, too, may be found principles, which when systematically arranged, are well worthy of being designated a science, and I hesitate not to say, the greatest and noblest of sciences—the science of man.

An additional reason why the teacher should study the constitution of mind and its phenomena, may be found in the fact that there is a natural order of the development in the mental faculties, which should be observed in teaching. First, the principle of curiosity prompts the child to look, to notice, to examine, to enquire; memory fills her store-house with words, things, facts, and phenomena, and then, reason mounts her throne to classify, to generalize, and to form inductions. The teacher who would reverse this order, or unskillfully follow it, will greatly mar his work. I remember, a good many years ago, when a mere novice in teaching, a bright, intelligent little fellow came up to get his first lessons in school. Having placed him in proper position, I pointed to the first letter in the alphabet, asking him if he knew its name. "No," said he, "do you?" I replied, "Yes." "Well," said he, "what is it?" I told him. "Ah!" said he, "but somebody told you." That boy is now one of the ablest lawyers in Toronto.\*

\*He is a partner in one of the greatest, if not the greatest, law-firms in the Dominion. He is a Registrar of the University of Toronto, and occasionally fills a professor's chair in the same institution.

There is likewise a logical order which should be observed in the teaching of any branch of study. There is a proper place to begin, appropriate steps to follow in succession, and a natural conclusion. Each branch of study is to the pupil a ladder, up which he is required to climb. This ladder the teacher should base upon the simple ideas the child possesses, and then allow him to mount, by easy, but sure gradations, upward. The logical order in study—this right method of teaching—is not merely mechanical, but deeply philosophical.

The government of a human being, in any circumstances, is a delicate and responsible task. Every thinking parent knows that without a system, he cannot govern his child, and, with his utmost care and study, his child is sometimes not well governed. An intimate knowledge of human nature, and of the motives which actuate human conduct, ability to detect the cause of the disorder, and to administer any appropriate remedy, a well arranged system of principles applicable to the government of children—these, and only these, will enable a teacher to secure good order in his school. In the knowledge the teacher requires of the constitution of mind and its relations, of the order in which its faculties are naturally developed, of the method to be observed in successful teaching, and in school government, he must base its principles upon the broad, solid foundation of science; and his teaching must be ill directed, and its results uncertain; who is not guided by the light of scientific truth.

It is true, however, and I acknowledge it even among teachers, with shame, that far too much of our teaching, both in the schools and colleges, has been mechanical—a mere routine of learning lessons and reciting them. Our teachers and professors have been far too regardless of the philosophy of education, and many have taught on, seldom questioning whether their methods were right or wrong. Happily, a

brighter day is dawning for the profession of teaching. Teachers are everywhere experimenting. Thinking men among them will systematize the results of those experiments, and teaching will eventually be ranked, where I maintain its scientific basis entitles it to be, among the learned professions.

This brings us to the 3rd inquiry, viz: Does teaching require a learned general education on the part of those who follow it? Lawyers, doctors, and divines are *expected* to possess, in addition to the special knowledge required for the practice of their profession, a learned general education. It may perhaps be true that teachers are not, at present, generally as well informed as the members of other professions; but, if it were fair to judge of the standing of a profession by the ignorance of individual members, it is feared that no profession could claim a very high standard of learning. Law has its pettifoggers, medicine its quacks, and theology its pretenders. We have known doctors who have bought their thesis at graduation, because of their inability to write them; and others who have bought their diplomas—lawyers who could not spell half the words in the English language, or write three consecutive sentences grammatically; and preachers who were almost entirely destitute of all literary or scientific information. I know a lawyer who told a teacher whom he was examining for a certificate, that there was no such word as "citron." I heard the same lawyer use the word "deteriate," in Court, instead of "deteriorate." I was once ill with bill fever, and my medical adviser prescribed "*anti-febrifuge*" mixture for me. Another medical gentleman directed his patient to take a "desert"-spoonful of his mixture; while a third, in conversation with myself, after an attack of sickness, told me that I needed a good deal of nutritious "*ail-ment*." I have also known doctors, lawyers and ministers who were deeply indebted to the

compositor and proof reader, for the spelling and dictation of their productions. I have either read or heard of a preacher, who declared from the sacred desk, that it was a remarkable instance of the wisdom of Providence, that "large rivers always flow by large towns." And no doubt you have all heard of the divine who took for his text that passage in which it is declared that man is "fearfully and wonderfully made." He read *mad* for "made," and proceeded to show, 1st—That man is fearfully mad. 2nd,—That man is wonderfully mad.

It is readily granted, however, that law, medicine, and theology, all require a learned general education on the part of those who would fully master their principles, and appropriately apply them; and this I claim, is equally the case with teaching.

A man cannot teach what he does not know; hence teachers should be acquainted at least with all the branches of study in which they are required to give instructions. I insist, further, that he or she who would teach even children, should possess extensive knowledge. It is a gross error to suppose that teachers in primary schools, require but a limited education. They need an intimate acquaintance with the youthful mind and character, and such a knowledge of literature and natural science, as will enable them to enliven every lesson with suitable illustrations, satisfy the active curiosity of the young, and awaken in them a love of study, and a thirst for knowledge. A teacher cannot know too much. The *staple* of his profession is learning. There is no event in history, no fact in experience, no sentiment in poetry, no principle in science, nothing that has ever been written, known, or thought, that cannot be made subservient to the purposes of teaching. Those who propose becoming members of the other professions, expect to obtain their general education from the teacher, and if it be required that this should be a learned education, teachers themselves should be

learned. All men look to our educational institutions, our public schools, our high schools, our colleges and universities, as the fountains from which issue streams of learning, and the thirst of those who seek earnestly for truth, cannot be slacked in shallow water. For those reasons, then, teaching *does* require a learned general education on the part of those who follow it.

We now come to the 4th inquiry. Is the nature of teaching such as to make special preparation necessary in order to success?

If a business requires no special preparation to fit those who engage in it, for properly discharging its duties, it is any or everyone's business, and cannot be called a distinct profession. If even all good scholars, or persons who have been well-taught, could teach, teaching would not be called a "profession," because, in that case, it would be a mere incident of good scholarship. Lawyers, doctors, and ministers, *should* obtain a general academical or collegiate education, and afterwards study their profession; and this special preparation, I am prepared to maintain, teaching also requires.

We, know, indeed, that certain enemies of the establishment of schools for the training of teachers, and consequently enemies of the profession, have asserted that there can be no special instruction to teachers, apart from the branches taught; and that anyone who is well taught according to a good method, will be a good teacher, if he can be induced to become one. Hence, it would follow that all colleges and universities, which have thorough, well-directed systems of teaching, must train good teachers, though they do not profess to make lawyers, doctors, or ministers. But we know that this is not so, for thousands of good scholars fail as teachers. I deny, most emphatically, the truth of this doctrine. It is a gross fallacy, and a libel upon the teachers' profession. I admit that there are those who have a

natural aptness to teach, as those who have a natural capacity for other kinds of business—and that such persons, after having received a good education, can teach well, but such exceptions do not invalidate the rule that special preparation is generally necessary, and always beneficial, any more than they would render unnecessary medical colleges, or military academies, because some men who had been trained in such institutions, have exhibited great skill in performing surgical operations, or in marshalling an army on the day of battle.

I admit, likewise, and have previously shown, that a teacher should possess a learned general education—the more thorough the mode in which he is taught, the better for him, and for those whom he instructs; but I maintain that, superadded to this, he should receive special preparation for the discharge of his duties, and that if teaching does not require this preparation, it has little claim to the rank of a profession.

Among the reasons which might be given why teaching should receive special preparation, is, that in general education, comparatively little attention is devoted to the study of the philosophy of the human mind, especially with reference to its capabilities, its relations to the means which may be employed to instruct and discipline it, and the natural order in which its faculties develop themselves, or assume a teachable condition.

Another reason why teachers should receive special preparation, is, that otherwise the philosophical method of presenting a subject to the mind of a pupil is apt to be overlooked—that in the eagerness to reach the result, the result only receives attention, and not the gradual development of the subject, or the mutual relations existing between its parts. A traveller whirls along in a car or steamboat, anxious only to reach the end of his journey; so the student, en-

gaged in acquiring a general education, struggles through his sciences, his languages, and his mathematics; careful only to secure the knowledge of which he is in search. The pilot or engineer, however, whose business it is to guide others, watches every turn to the right or to the left, and attends to every circumstance that happens by the way; so should the teacher acquaint himself with the path along which he would conduct the steps of his pupils, and with everything that can add interest to the journey.

Bacon in his Human Organization, immortalized his name by pointing out the true method of investigating nature. If Bacon's methods are philosophical and require special study, a like philosophy may be found, and a philosophy well worthy of special study, in the true method of teaching—the order of proceeding from the simple elementary ideas of a subject to those more complex, until the mind can grasp the whole.

Inseparably connected with teaching is school government; and a third reason why a teacher should receive special preparation is, that school government requires a special kind of knowledge which will not be gained from the study of the several branches of learning, and which cannot be acquired either at the College or the University. No one, it is presumed, will argue that good scholarship will qualify a person for governing a school, that school government does not depend upon principles that may be studied and successfully practised. It is freely admitted, that all persons, even with the most careful study, cannot govern well; but this does not invalidate the truth of the principle that study, even in this respect, is generally profitable.

For these reasons then, if a profession require special preparation on the part of its members in order to secure their success, I say that teaching has a right to that appellation.

The fifth and last inquiry is. Has teaching any competent authority for deciding upon the qualifications of candidates for membership? Authorities with competent powers for this purpose have been provided in the professions of Law, Medicine, and Theology; and there are obvious reasons why such should be the case in any profession.

The standard of a profession is generally judged by the qualifications and conduct of its individual members; hence, as a measure of protection from imposition, no persons should be admitted to membership in it, without having first submitted to a test of their qualifications. Suppose that any man at pleasure could assume the title of Doctor or Lawyer, and enter into the practice of either of those professions, how long, think you, would they remain respectable? Or rather, how long would they be recognized as professions at all? That business which anyone could follow, would not deserve the name of a profession.

Until the passage of the New Act, there was no competent authority in Ontario to test the qualifications of first-class common or public school teachers; for I hold that the Normal School teachers were *not* a competent authority to examine the students of that institution; and it is acknowledged on all hands that the old County Boards were nothing more nor less than a farce: witness the number who held first-class County Board certificates, and failed to take second, and even third, under the New Law. Perhaps I may surprise some when I say that the County Boards, as at present constituted, are not entirely free from objection. I shall give my reasons. Many of the old Local Superintendents, clergymen, doctors, and others, who received that appointment, because they were *supposed* to be qualified, have been appointed members of the present Boards, by virtue of their having held the former office for three years, whereas, to my certain know-

ledge, some of them to save their lives could not take a second-class certificate under the new law. On the whole, however, the present system of examining teachers is a decided improvement on the old one; properly qualified teachers have nothing to fear, and those who are not properly qualified must either become so, or abandon the profession. Under the old law, almost anyone was permitted to teach. The young farmer or mechanic, to whom the winter afforded a few months of leisure; the young man who was desirous of making a little money, which he might spend in amusement, or at college; the broken-down lawyer, doctor, or preacher, the halt, the lame, I had almost said the blind—the indolent, and sometimes those partly deaf, or nearly blind, found employment in teaching. In this state of things, teaching could not be called a profession,—it was not even a regular or respectable business.

But while what I have said is true of teaching as it *was*, it is not true of teaching as it *is*. Ontario has at length a competent authority for testing the qualifications of her first-class teachers, in the persons of the gentlemen comprising the Board at Toronto. Already some hundreds of incompetent persons have been driven from the teachers' ranks—others have been reduced to their proper level, much dead matter has been sloughed off, and a young but vigorous, distinct and independent profession is being organized. The success of this work, in a great measure depends upon the teachers themselves. If those who have been lowered in rank will only work themselves up to the standard, every teacher in Ontario will have the satisfaction of seeing combined with him, in the noble work of mental and moral improvement, a body of men of once courteous, honorable, and intelligent. What has been done, however, is quite sufficient to establish the profession as a matter of teaching, so far as it can be done by a provision for testing the

qualification of those who desire to become teachers.

The principal conditions that seem to be necessary to secure for any avocation the rank of a profession have been stated, and, I think, it has been shown that teaching answers these conditions. If so, an impartial public will award that rank to teaching which it justly merits, if teachers are only true to their profession and to themselves.

I might pause here, and conclude that the claims of teaching to rank as a profession have been established, were it not for certain objections which are sometimes urged against this conclusion. Among those are: 1. That teachers do not make the business of teaching permanent. It is granted that this is lamentably true, and that no other cause does so much to destroy the professional character of teaching. The members of the other professions, however, do not always follow that in which they engage. Changes, indeed, are quite frequent, and, if these changes do not affect the standing of the professions in which they take place, similar changes, even though they be more numerous, ought not to affect that of teaching.

The chief cause of these changes heretofore, has been the insufficiency of the salary paid teachers. Young men qualifying themselves for law, medicine, and Divinity, were glad to avail themselves of the business of teaching as a means of procuring the necessary funds for prosecuting their studies, and very good teachers they sometimes were; but now that none but properly qualified persons can engage in the profession, it is to be hoped that the remuneration will be proportionably increased, and that the changes will diminish in an inverse ratio. Besides, this practice of allowing others to make a stepping stone of teaching, is absolutely unjust to the few who are qualified, and who love their profession, and remain faithful to it. It is believed that this number is rapidly increasing, and

if I mistake not, in judging of the spirit that now actuates teachers, the profession of teaching must ere long have as united, as devoted, and as permanently organized a body of members as those of any other profession.

2. It is urged that teachers cannot support the dignity of a profession. "Teaching ought to be made a profession," said a lawyer in my hearing some time ago, "but," he added, "teachers are too poorly paid, they cannot support the dignity of a profession."

This was said more in sorrow than in anger, and the fact cannot be concealed or denied, that teachers receive less compensation than men engaged in any other business requiring an equal amount of labor, and equal qualifications. It is true that lawyers have received more money for the management of a single case than teachers of equal talents have earned in twenty years, aye, in a life time; and that physicians sometimes receive more for a single surgical operation, occupying one hour, than a teacher can earn in a month, on every day of which he may have exhibited as much scientific knowledge, and equal skill.\* But truthfull as these statements are, and shameful as the facts are which warrant them, should those teachers who are willing to labor on, actuated either by the love of teaching or influenced by the hope that they must eventually receive a just compensation for their services should these teachers, I say, be deprived, on that account, of the honor fairly merited by the importance of the office, and the qualifications required to discharge its duties? Are wealthy law-

\*The fees in the 'Tichborne suit' ranged from £6,000, (nearly \$30,000,) down, according to the rank of the lawyer. The fees of those engaged in the Geneva Arbitration, it is said, are £5,000, (nearly \$25,000 each; and Sir Roundell Palmer's fee alone is said to be \$150,000. Sir Wm. Gull, the eminent physician who attended the Prince of Wales in his recent illness, was lately called from London to Cork in Ireland, to visit an officer of the British Army, supposed to be afflicted with the same complaint as that of the Prince, and his fee was \$4,000.

yers and wealthy doctors alone recognized as belonging to the professions of law and medicine? Have not some of the high ornaments of both died poor? Take away all the property belonging to their members, and would not those professions still have a noble object, a basis founded on science, and whatever else is necessary to constitute them learned and honorable? A costly dress and gaudy equipage may be essential to give character to the haughty millionaire; stars and garters, and titles of nobility may be necessary to the existence of a privileged aristocracy; but science has always furnished an open field for distinction, and wealth can add no dignity to the true profession.

3. It is said that teaching does not enjoy that measure of popular favor to which a profession should be entitled. This may be true, but teaching is on that account no less noble in its aims, or scientific in its operations; neither does it require less learning or special preparation on the part of its votaries, nor should it therefore be less honored as a profession. If people were all so ignorant and wicked that they would refuse to listen to a minister, or reject the advice of the physician, would it render these professions less professional? If not, then no want of popular appreciation of the benefits arising from education, can make the profession of teaching less honorable, or in the least destroy its professional character.

4. It is alleged that teaching has little or no professional literature. If this allegation is admitted, does it follow that teaching is not entitled to the rank of a profession? I think not. A profession must exist before there can be a professional literature; the latter, indeed, is but the outgrowth of the former. Destroy the literature of Law and Medicine, and the professions will remain. Hence a purely professional literature is not essential to the existence of a profession. But is it true that teaching has no

pu  
cc  
es:  
wh  
pri  
bo  
the  
Th  
ple  
bod  
use  
kno  
Phy  
I  
appl  
the  
N  
liter  
of la  
com  
Medi  
all th  
with  
medi  
admit  
works  
subje  
bilitie  
of wa  
metho  
accour  
good c  
learn  
As t  
literatu  
others  
which t  
a part-  
ing cou  
into its  
ever pla  
ever chi  
ever sa  
ever disc  
prophesi  
dom of e

professional literature? Let us see: a few considerations will enable us to determine.

The literature of a profession consists essentially of two parts: first, of books which treat of the sciences upon which its principles are founded; and, second, of the books which treat of the application of those principles to practical purposes. The subject matter of Medicine, for example, consists in a knowledge of the human body and its relations to certain substances used as medicines, or in other words, in a knowledge of such sciences as Anatomy, Physiology, Chemistry, and *Materia Medica*.

The profession, as an art, consists in an application of such knowledge to Surgery, the practice of Medicine, and to Pharmacy.

Now by far the largest portion of the literature of medicine—and the same is true of law and theology—will be found to be composed of treatises on the subject of Medicine. A small library would contain all the books which have ever been written with reference purely to the practice of medicine, law, or theology. Suppose it be admitted, then, that there is a sad want of works which treat of the relations of the subject of teaching to the educational capabilities of the human mind,—a sad want of works which treat systematically of methods of teaching,—it cannot, on that account, be argued that teaching has not good claims to be ranked equal to the other learned professions.

As to its subject matter, teaching has a literature more comprehensive than all the others combined! The sciences upon which the other professions are based form a part—and only a part—of its all-embracing course of study. It boldly incorporates into *its materia medica* all that painter has ever placed on canvass; all that sculptor ever chiseled; all that poet or historian ever sang or wrote; all that philosopher ever discovered; all that holy men ever prophesied! The teacher only, has freedom of earth and sky. To-day, when he

would inspire youthful bosoms with adequate ideas of the majesty and sublimity of the creation, he selects as his subject, the stars of heaven; to-morrow, when he would prove to thirsting minds that the earth, too, has objects of interest, he points them to the curious flower, the strangely formed animal, or the buried fossil. Tell us not that teaching has no professional literature!

The teacher's profession embraces all facts, all phenomena, all art, all science. Every word in language, every event in history, every object in nature, every law of matter and of mind, may become the subject of his instruction. Even from the mystery that lies below and beyond the bounds of human knowledge, from the faint nebula which defies the penetrating glance of the mighty eye of the telescope, as well as from that world of life, the wonders of which the microscope can never reveal, he may glean deep lessons from the Infinite, which he can impart to countless and immortal listeners. Tell us not, then, that teaching has no literature.

All literature is the teacher's; and, though, perhaps from the greatness of the task, the preparation of works relating to the special application of the means of instruction nature so lavishly furnishes, has been too long neglected, the teacher's profession remains the same; and considering its comprehensive character, and the magnitude of the interests dependent upon it, I am tempted not only to claim for it the rank of a profession, but to style it **THE GREAT PROFESSION.**

Having considered the conditions and requirements necessary to any avocation, before it can be called a profession; having shown that teaching answers these conditions; and having proven that the several objections urged against the claims of teaching to the rank of profession, are either not well-founded, or lie equally against all professions—the task I undertook in this paper approaches completion.



Teaching not only claims to the rank of a profession, but if the signs of the times are not deceptive, they indicate that, ere long, if teachers are only true to themselves and to it, these claims will be generally recognized. I do not believe that there is any general public disposition to degrade the teacher. He has only to free his profession from the horde of intruders that have but disgraced it, and prove himself

faithful and efficient, and he will be properly rewarded and properly respected.

Let us, to-day, as Ontario teachers, adopt the motto: Be true to your calling, and resolve to live according to its spirit; and we will have the proud satisfaction of seeing it grow up into a profession, noble in its aims, great in its proportions, and honorable in the estimation of the public. So be it.

### CLASS RECORDS.

BY ALEX. MCQUEEN, TEACHER, DELAWARE.

Every Teacher I dare say, is fully aware of the great importance of some kind of record of class work in our schools. It is highly necessary to the Teacher as a guide, in promoting from one class to another, and affords an unimpeachable basis for the distribution of prizes, as the success of the pupil is thus made to depend, not on his cleverness at a final examination, but on his diligence and regular attendance during the whole term. Or if prizes are not given, by announcing at the quarterly examination the number of marks obtained by each pupil, the parents will be interested and the pupils excited to greater efforts.

Seeing then that it is of such great importance, how is it that so many of our schools are without this, the greatest aid to successful teaching? The answer, I think is to be found in the great amount of time and trouble required to keep a class book, according to the forms given in educational works. I therefore, venture to submit a simple form which I have used for some years, for the consideration of my brethren in the profession.

In the first place, I record the recitations but once a week. If we record them every day besides the greater amount of time required, we are apt to assign lessons with a

view to facility of questioning, and thus become mere class hearers instead of Teachers. Again, to be a successful Teacher one must not confine one's self to the subject matter of the text-book; but must explain and illustrate it by facts drawn from other sources. Such explanations and illustrations take up considerable time and often there will not be enough left to allow of questioning the class with a view to recording their proficiency. For these reasons I take one day in the week (Monday,) wholly for reviewing. On the other days I assign lessons to the classes to be prepared, giving them at the same time a few hints to assist them in maturing them, and during recitation explaining and illustrating to the best of my ability, questioning the members of the class separately if I have time, but on review day I test their knowledge of what we have been over during the previous week, questioning and cross-questioning, not only on the matter of the text-book; but also on the oral instruction they have received, and record the proficiency of each in my class book.

Monday is better than any other day of the week, as a review day in several ways. As we all know, schools are not generally in as good condition on Friday as on almost any other day. The pupils are tired by the

week's work, and the teacher himself will not question nor the scholars answer as well as they would on Monday, fresh from a two days rest; besides this, the effort required on the part of the pupils to remember what they have learned from one week to another will have a tendency to impress it more deeply on their minds and induce them to pay greater attention in the class and prepare their lessons more thoroughly, than it would to review on Friday.

Any blank-book or quire of foolscap answers for a class book, the pages of which are divided by perpendicular lines into spaces of about two inches in width. In the first space is written the names of the pupils in the class, in the others are entered the marks obtained by each pupil in the different studies, reading, spelling, arithmetic, grammar, geography, history, composition, &c.

The figures I use are 3, 2, 1 and 0, absence being denoted by an *a*. If a pupil answers all the questions asked, he is marked 3; if he misses one, he is marked 2; but if he misses two, he is marked 0. Perhaps this is rather severe, but I think it

promotes thoroughness in the preparation of the lessons.

In reviewing in arithmetic, I generally write questions involving the principles taught in the lessons during the week, on the black-board, and require the pupils to work them and bring the solutions on their slates to the class.

In teaching reading, I do not have a set day for marking. In commencing a new lesson in reading in any of the classes, I give them a page or half a page according to the ability of the class, to prepare, and drill them on it until they can read it with proper regard to pronunciation, pauses and inflection, and can spell and define all the words in it, then I give them another part, and so on until they have gone over the whole lesson. Having done this they read the whole lesson, and are marked according to their proficiency, whatever day it happens to be. Such is my plan for according class work, which, if not considered worthy of adoption by my fellow-Teachers may perhaps afford them a few hints for the preparation of a better one.

## MISCELLANEOUS CONTRIBUTIONS.

### HINTS ON TEACHING.

My only apology for penning this, is that as every Teacher has some plan of his own, if we exchange ideas we may all be benefited. There is one subject in particular, that I think a great many fail in teaching, not from want of knowledge, but from want of tact in teaching, I refer to Grammar. I do not presume to think that my plan is *the best* but I know that at least it makes Grammar interesting to the little folks, and you will own that it is one of our duties as well as privileges, to make the road as easy as

we can, without learning them to depend on us. As soon as my class can read easily in the second reader, I ask them to name me some person, place or thing, and tell them that that name is a noun. I then exercise them in naming all the nouns in the school-room until I see they understand it. If the school is large and I have not time to hear them orally, I ask them to write out all the nouns in their reading lessons; thus, giving them exercise in spelling, writing and grammar at once. I generally ex-

amine their work at intermission, although I occasionally get some of the larger scholars to do it. When I find that they understand the noun, I ask them to name me a noun the name of a thing, as book, and to give me some word that will tell what kind of a book it is, as a new book. These words I tell them are adjectives because they tell us something about the book. They are then exercised in the adjectives the same as in the noun, both orally and on their slates: orally by giving me examples of their own, and on their slates, by writing those in their lesson. The verb is next taken up and treated in the same manner. As soon as they understand what a verb is and can give examples by making sentences, we commence analysis, as I find that the earlier they commence, the easier it is to them; after, perhaps, a little trouble at first. One thing I would say is, by all means, teach them to say subject and predicate, as it is almost as easily learned and then there is no changing afterwards. I would never place a text-book in the hands of a child until he could point out and define all the parts of speech and analyze simple sentences, and then, only as a secondary help to him. In this manner I find that I can make grammar interesting to scholars in the second reader, and their mind not crammed with terms, which to them are meaningless, as is too often the case with those who study nothing but text-books. And another thing, the practice they have in making sentences is a great help to them in their composition.

REGULATIONS FOR HOLDING COMPETITIVE EXAMINATIONS OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN THE COUNTY OF LANARK.

1.—In each municipality where a grant of money has been made for the purpose, an Examination will be held in some central place, to which will be admitted delegates from all the Schools of said municipality.

2.—All pupils of Union Sections shall attend the Examination in the municipality

in which their School-House is situated—provided said municipality has made a grant—provided, nevertheless, that if one portion of said Union Section lies within a municipality which has not made a grant, the children of that portion will not be allowed to compete.

3.—Every Teacher shall be limited to TWELVE pupils—*three only* to be taken out of each of the 2nd, 3rd, 4th, and 5th Classes; and said pupils must have been in attendance at school for at least Fifty Days of the present year.

4.—No pupil examined at any of the Competitive Examinations last year will be allowed to compete again in the same class.

5. Every Teacher will be required to furnish to the County Inspector, on the *First July*, a certified list of intending competitors, specifying their names, ages, attendance at school for the present year, and the classes in which they are respectively to compete.

6.—There shall be THREE Examiners at each examination, *one* of whom shall be the County Inspector, and the other *two* persons selected by him for that purpose.

7.—The examination will be conducted in accordance with the "Programme of Studies" authorized by the Council of Public Instruction, and now in use in the Public Schools of this Province.

8.—The examination, as far as practicable, shall be conducted in writing.

9.—It will be considered as contrary to the spirit of these regulations, and to just and fair competition, that any Teacher should devote extra time in school to the preparation of candidates for examination.

10. The examinations will be held in the early part of July, at such time as shall be decided upon by the Inspector.

11. Each teacher shall contribute the sum of *Fifty Cents*, to be collected from the competitors or otherwise, to pay expenses incurred; such sums to be forwarded to

the I  
with 1

Le  
ONTA  
should  
weak  
pen in  
of your

Any  
has rea  
been st  
ideas :

meanin  
scriptur  
For  
daily b  
prayer-  
evening

sally tru  
stand th  
planet, a  
bread fo  
a day, so  
in prayi  
bread," j

Again,  
a man w  
what to  
to becom  
is when  
daily bre:

i. Add

x+3y

x—2y

the Inspector on the First of July, together with the return of the pupils.

HENRY LLOYD SLACK, M.A.

County Inspector.

Perth, May 30th, 1874.

PRAYER IN SCHOOL.

Lest the Article in the May No. of the ONTARIO TEACHER on the above subject, should prove a stumbling block to some weak one in the profession, I take my pen in hand to show the absurdity of some of your correspondent's notions of prayer.

Any person of ordinary perception, who has read Mr. Ireland's article, must have been struck with the crudeness of the writer's ideas respecting the force and extent of meaning contained in the generality of scripture passages.

For instance, "Give us this day our daily bread," the writer says, is a morning prayer. Now, the Jewish day begins in the evening, so that his assertion is not universally true in this respect. Again we understand that 24 hours constitute a day, on our planet, and we presume Mr. Ireland takes bread for physical uses oftener than once in a day, so that he would not be far wrong in praying, "Give us this day our daily bread," in the evening.

Again, your correspondent says, "to tell a man what to say and when to say that what to God, needs only to be mentioned to become ridiculous," yet he himself tells us when to say, "Give us this day our daily bread."

Christ said, "I am the Bread of Life," "I am the Bread which came down from heaven." How does Mr. Ireland explain the meaning of the word "Bread," in these passages?

We are sorry, that Mr. Ireland cannot conscientiously pray, "Forgive us our trespasses as we forgive them that trespass against us," because he holds a grudge against "somebody." We presume, that as he is so scrupulous in keeping the letter of the law, that he has actually forgiven "somebody" until seventy times seven, and his enemy having trespassed the 500th time, prevents him from using the "Lord's Prayer" as an exercise in opening or closing school. We confess he is the first man we have had the misfortune to meet with in such an "evil case."

If we live up to the christian standard as set before us in the teaching of our Great Master, and if we are in that condition of mind which the divine command that we should be, to pray without ceasing, we would find no obstacle in the way of asking heartily and conscientiously, a blessing on our doings, as expressed in the forms of prayer prescribed by the Council of Public Instruction.

Without discussing a subject so reprehensible in its object by the writer, I hope he may obtain more enlarged conceptions, and broader views of scripture meaning, before having such views and conceptions printed.

JOHN PIERCE, Teacher, Brinsley..

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

Continued from August No.

SECOND CLASS.

ALGEBRA.

1. Add the fractions,

$$\frac{x+3y}{x-2y}, \frac{3y-x}{x+2y}, \frac{x^2-4y^2+10xy}{x^2-4y^2}$$

expressing the result in the simplest form.

2. Reduce the fraction,

$$\frac{6x^2+5xy-4y^2}{6x^3-x^2y-17xy^2-3y^3}$$

to its lowest terms.

3. Find  $x$  from the equation,  

$$\frac{mx+9}{2-\frac{1}{4}} - \frac{mx-9}{x-\frac{1}{2}} - \frac{mx+10}{x+\frac{1}{2}} = 0$$

4. Find  $x$  from the equation,  

$$x - \frac{2x-3m+1}{5} + \frac{3-\frac{1}{2}(4x-5-8m)}{7} = \frac{39x+2m}{70}$$

5. Solve the simultaneous equations,  

$$3x+my=5,$$

$$mx-2y = \frac{5m-m^2-6}{3}$$

6. Solve the simultaneous equations,  

$$\frac{5}{x-2y} - \frac{3}{x+2y} + 2 = 0.$$

$$\frac{7}{x-2y} + \frac{17}{x+2y} = 0$$

7. A has a younger brother, B. The difference between their ages is  $\frac{1}{3}$  of the sum of their ages. By adding twice B's age to 5 times A's, we obtain the age of the father; and by subtracting twice B's age from 5 times A's, we obtain the age of the mother. Show that the age of the mother is  $\frac{1}{2}$  that of the father.

8. A speculator borrows a sum of money at the yearly interest of 7 per cent.; part of the amount he invests at  $8\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., and the remainder at 9; and, at the end of the year, he finds that he has made a profit of \$75; but, had the former part been invested at 9 per cent., and the latter at  $8\frac{1}{2}$ , his profit at the end of the year would have been only \$65. Find the whole sum borrowed.

9. (a) If  $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d}$ , prove that  $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{a+2c}{b+2d}$

(b) Find the value of  $\frac{x+7}{2y+13}$  when  $\frac{3x+7}{4y+8} = 9$

ARITHMETIC.

1. Find the quotient (expressed as a vulgar fraction) of,

$$1\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\frac{3}{10} \text{ of } 4\frac{1}{2}}{8} - \frac{5\frac{1}{3}}{\frac{3}{8} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{12} + \frac{1}{24}} - \frac{4\frac{1}{2} - 1\frac{2}{3} \text{ of } 1\frac{1}{3}}{1\frac{3}{8} - \frac{1}{4}} + \frac{1.25}{1.25}$$
  
 divided by,  $1\frac{1}{2}$  of  $3\frac{3}{4} + .016' + \frac{2\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{8}}{.08}$

2. If a number be increased 20 per cent., and the amount be increased 16 $\frac{2}{3}$  per cent., the result will be 280; find the number.

3. Twenty men can do a piece of work in 12 days; find how many men will do half as much again in one fifth part of the time, supposing that they work the same number of hours in the day, and that two of the second set can do as much work in a month as three of the first set.

4. A grocer intended to gain 8 per cent. on a stock of tea, and fixed his price accordingly; when he had sold two-thirds of the stock he was compelled to reduce the price 10 cents a pound, and so gained only half as much as he had intended. What was the original cost per pound of the tea?

5. Show that  $\frac{3\sqrt{8}-\sqrt{27}}{\sqrt{8}-\sqrt{7}} = 17.483 \dots$

6. A sells goods to B at a loss of 4 per cent., B sells them to C at a loss of 6 $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., C sells them to D for \$390.60, gaining 8 $\frac{1}{3}$  per cent.; find the prime cost of the goods.

7. A and B invest capital in the proportion of 3 $\frac{1}{2}$  to 4. After five months A withdraws one-half his capital, and B withdraws two-thirds of his. At the end of the year they have gained \$7,090; find each man's share.

8. A bankrupt has book-debts equal in amount to his liabilities, but on \$24,000 of them he realizes only 66 $\frac{2}{3}$  cents in the dollar, and the expenses of the bankruptcy are 5 per cent. on the book-debts; he pays 65 cents in the dollar; find the amount of his liabilities.

9. A merchant in Boston has 10,000 francs due him on account in Paris, he can draw on Paris for this amount, and negotiate the bill at 19 $\frac{1}{2}$  cents per franc, or he can advise his correspondent in Paris to remit a draft on Boston, purchased with the sum due him, exchange being at the rate of 5 francs 20 centimes per dollar. What sum does he save by adopting the more profitable course?

10. How many flag-stones, each 5.76 ft. long and 4.15 ft. wide, are required for paving a cloister 12.45 ft. wide which encloses a rectangular court 45.77 yds. long and 41.93 yds. wide?

11. When the 3 per cent. are at 96, how much stock must be sold out to pay a bill

of 63 read. per ar 12. allefor the lei and 2 the pil

1. I prepar peries may it elemen which i What is nitroge this pro

2. St atmospl mosphe and 15' burn co. the sam what is of wate. (One gr pressure space of

3. Hc monia bium? I the chen ion.

4 Ho the equ Describe stream of lime wate when th How wou really cor proportio.

5. Des ic acid.

A vitric niol of spe of acid: h ing 40 per purpose-bu the theore unburnt in difference acid?

per cent.,  
1679: per  
the num-

of work in  
1 do half  
the time,  
a number  
o- of the  
aur nom

per. cent.  
ce accord-  
ds of the  
he price  
only half  
hat was  
ea ?

F 4 per  
62 per  
gaining  
of the

proport-  
A with-  
drawn  
ie year  
h man's

qual in  
ooo of  
he dol-  
are  
ays 65  
of his

francs  
draw  
te; the  
advise  
draft  
e him,  
acs 20  
es he  
fitable

76 ft.  
r pav-  
loses  
, and

, how  
a bill

of £ 1,664 9 months before it becomes due, read discount being allowed at  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. per annum.

12. A pile of bricks in the form of a parallelepiped contains 3,000 cubic feet, and the length, breadth and thickness, are as 4, 3 and 2 respectively; find the dimensions of the pile.

## FIRST CLASS.

## CHEMISTRY.

1. Describe how pure nitrogen may be prepared, and give an account of the properties of that substance. In what cases may it be made to unite directly with other elements, and what are the products to which it gives rise in these several cases? What is the most characteristic property of nitrogen dioxide? For what purpose is this property made use of?

2. State generally the composition of the atmosphere. How many litres of dry atmospheric air at  $740$  millimetres pressure and  $15^{\circ}$  C. temperature, are required to burn completely one litre of olefant gas at the same temperature and pressure, and what is the weight of carbon dioxide, and of water produced by the combustion? (One gramme of hydrogen, at  $760$  mm. pressure and  $0^{\circ}$  C. temperature, occupies a space of 11.19 litres.)

3. How may an aqueous solution of ammonia be formed from chloride of ammonium? Describe the process, and represent the chemical action by means of an equation.

4. How is carbonic acid made? Give the equations representing the reaction. Describe fully what takes place when a stream of carbonic acid gas is passed into lime water to saturation; also what occurs when the liquid so produced is boiled. How would you prove that carbonic acid really consists of carbon and oxygen in the proportion stated in the formula?

5. Describe the manufacture of sulphuric acid.

A vitriol-maker prepares ten tons of vitriol of specific 1.4, containing 80 per cent. of acid: how many tons of pyrites containing 40 per cent. of sulphur must for this purpose be burnt? Suppose 5 per cent. of the theoretical yield of sulphur remained unburnt in the pyrites, what would be the difference in the production of the sulphuric acid?

6. A few grains of white arsenic are put into an ounce or two of soup, state as fully as you can how you would proceed to detect its presence there?

7. What are the sources of iodine? How is it prepared? Describe the properties of iodine. How would you proceed to detect the presence of a soluble (a) chloride, (b) iodide, (c), fluoride, present single in a liquid?

8. Classify the common metals according to their equivalency. Give the formula of the characteristic oxide, chloride, and sulphide of each.

9. What is the most important ore of tin, and how is the metal extracted therefrom? How is the presence of tin in a solution detected?

10. Give an outline of the Atomic Theory.

## ZOOLOGY AND PHYSIOLOGY.

1. Give an account of the distinctive characters and chief peculiarities of the *Amphibia*.

2. What are the distinctive characters of the class *Aves*?

In what respects do a humming bird, an ostrich, and a penguin differ?

3. Compare the modes of respiration and respiratory organs in Mammals and Reptiles.

4. What variations are to be observed in the metamorphoses of insects?

5. Fully describe the knee-joint in a human being.

6. Give an account of the anatomy and physiology of the vocal organs.

7. Exhibit by a diagram the course of the rays of light in passing from an object to the retina.

8. Give a full account of the constitution and mode of action of the muscles.

## HISTORY.

1. Explain briefly what is meant by the terms *Franklin*, *The English Pale*, *Investiture*, *Impeachment*.

2. It was not until the time of Edward III. that England began to recover from the shock of the Norman conquest. Show this to be true.

3. Give an account of the rise of the "middle class" in England.

4. State briefly when the following persons lived, and for what they were remarkable:—Sir Thomas More, Hubert de Burgh, Erasmus, Dr. Sacheverel, Sir William Temple, Lord Bolingbroke.

5. Trace the changes which the language spoken by the people of England has undergone since the Conquest.

6. Give a brief sketch of the reign of Charles II.

7. Write short explanatory notes on the Mad Parliament, Tyrone's rebellion, The battle of Naseby, The battle of Cape la Hogue.

8. What battles followed the invasion of Greece by Darius and Xerxes? Give the dates.

9. State what you know of the following persons:—The two Scipios, Belisarius, Charlemagne, Mahomet.

10. Give a brief account of Sir W. Phipps' expedition against Quebec, and its results.

11. Mention in order, with dates, the principal constitutional changes in Canada since its cession by France.

#### GEOGRAPHY.

1. Define briefly the terms: *Palæozoic*, *Silurian*, and *Oolitic*; and explain what is meant by the following: "With the chalk, we close, as it were, one great volume of animated creation."

2. What hypothesis is involved in the expression "The Glacial Epoch," and what phenomena are usually explained by that hypothesis?

4. State, and illustrate by diagrams and otherwise, Kepler's Laws of Planetary Motion.

4. Enumerate the Australian colonies: give their capitals, relative position, and chief productions.

5. What do you understand by Physical Geography? What topics, for example, would the physical Geography of the Maritime Provinces embrace?

6. Name the form of government, chief towns, and chief exports of Egypt, Syria, Thibet, Peru, Cuba, Sicily, Assam, and the Ionian Islands.

7. Name the localities of the cotton, woollen, linen, hardware, and earthenware manufactures in Great Britain and Ireland, and mention the most important towns in each district.

8. Define, as closely as possible, the pos-

ition of the following, and state for what each is remarkable:—Mouille, Dundee, Bristol, Strasbourg, Potsdam, Innspruck, Belgrade, Sadowa, Coomassie, Pittsburg, Funchal, Port Mahon, Jena, Tilsit, Fontainebleau.

9. Draw a map of that part of British America which lies north of Ontario and Quebec.

#### SCHOOL-LAW.

1. Under what circumstances may a Township Board of Trustees be formed, and how are such Trustees to be chosen?

2. What are the duties of Rural School Trustees in regard to—

(a) Obtaining School Moneys.

(b) The Compulsory attendance of absentee children?

3. What formalities are necessary for procuring or changing a school site?

4. What is required of Trustees in regard to the holding of the Annual School Meeting?

5. Enumerate the specific duties of a Public School Teacher.

6. Under what circumstances is an Inspector empowered (a) to suspend, and (b) to grant a certificate?

7. Specify the duties of the County Inspector as to—

(a) Apportioning the School Fund.

(b) Visiting Schools.

(c) Settlement of complaints and differences.

8. What does the law require of the Township Clerk in regard to—

(a) The Trustees?

(b) The Inspector?

9. Explain accurately the terms "Public School Fund," "Public School Section," "Public School Teacher."

#### ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

Any one of the following subjects may be taken:—

The Ashantée War.

"The worst misfortunes in life are those that never come to us."

The importance of a knowledge of Chemistry.

#### ENGLISH LITERATURE.

1. Sketch the literary careers of Shakespeare and Addison.

2. Who were the authors of "Night Thoughts," "The Merchant of Venice," "The Complete Angler," "The Seasons,"

of  
of  
of  
req  
atte  
furi  
2  
to s  
3  
cati  
pres  
4  
a ju  
ing  
5  
to p  
6  
intel  
your  
7  
the g  
your  
subje  
8  
differ  
Fract  
you w  
their  
9  
tiona  
1.  
cut c  
equal  
less.  
2.  
equila  
3.  
vo gi  
4.  
Write  
in the  
Wha  
Simi  
the du  
sides.  
5. I  
tilineal  
tending  
similar  
the side

"The Deserted Village," and "The Lady of the Lake?" Describe the plan of any of them.

3. Name the principal historical writers of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

EDUCATION.

2. Describe a school-house to answer the requirements of a School with an average attendance of 50 pupils, as to (a) size, (b) furniture.

2. Upon what would you chiefly depend, to secure order in School?

3. Give an outline of any work on Education which you may have read, and express your opinion of it.

4. What are the leading differences that a judicious teacher will observe in his training of boys and girls respectively?

5. Draw up a form of a monthly Report to parents.

6. How would you seek to promote an intelligent interest in Natural Science among your pupils?

7. State the arguments for and against the giving of prizes, and give the result of your own observation and experience on the subject.

8. How would you explain to a class the difference between Vulgar and Decimal Fractions? Give 12 questions of the kind you would put to a class in order to test their knowledge of this subject.

9. State what you know of the Educational labours of Pestalozzi.

EUCLID.

1. In equal circles, equal straight lines cut off equal circumferences, the greater equal to the greater, and the less to the less.

2. To describe a circle about a given equilateral and equiangular pentagon.

3. To find a mean proportional between two given straight lines.

4. What is meant by duplicate ratio? Write down two whole numbers, which are in the duplicate ratio of  $\frac{1}{2}$  to  $\frac{1}{3}$ .

What are similar rectilineal figures?

Similar triangles are to one another in the duplicate ratio of their homologous sides.

5. In any right angled triangle, any rectilineal figure described on the side subtending the right angle is equal to the similar and similarly described figures on the sides containing the right angle.

6. To describe a triangle, of which the base, the vertical angle, and the sum of the two sides are given.

7. From A the vertex of a triangle ABC, in which each of the angles ABC and ACB is less than a right angle, AD is let fall perpendicular on the base BC. Produce BC to E, making CE equal to AD; and let F be a point in AC, such that the triangle BFE is equal to the triangle ABC. Prove that F is one of the angular points of a square inscribed in the triangle ABC, with one of its sides on BC.

8. Let E be the point of intersection of the diagonals of a quadrilateral figure ABCD of which any two opposite angles are together equal to two right angles. Produce BC to G, making CG equal to EA; and produce AD to F, making DF equal to BE. Prove that if EG and EF be joined, the triangles EDF and ECG are equal to one another.

PHYSICS.

1. How would you cool a mixture in the absence of ice or snow? Give the theory of your process.

2. Describe the relation of the heat spectrum to the light spectrum.

3. What is the "Thermal unit" generally adopted? A pound of mercury at a temperature  $102^{\circ}$  C. is immersed in a pound of water at  $40^{\circ}$  C., how many degrees will the temperature of the water be raised, taking the Specific heat of mercury at  $-.03$ .

4. Apply the laws of reflexion of light to find the apparent position of a luminous point seen by reflection in a plane mirror.

5. If a small object on the principal axis of a concave mirror is gradually moved up to the mirror from a point at a considerable distance, shew what will be the simultaneous changes in the position and size of the image.

6. Explain by a diagram the compound microscope.

7. Describe an experiment to illustrate electrical induction. What is the phenomena known as the "return shock"? Explain it.

8. If the point of a fine needle in metallic connection with the prime conductor of an electrical machine in action, be brought near a candle, the light will probably be extinguished. Explain clearly the cause of this.



9. Describe in general terms a Magneto-Electric Machine.

10. If a plate of zinc and one of copper be placed in dilute sulphuric acid, and connected by a silver wire outside the acid, describe the action, both chemical and electrical, that ensues.

#### NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

*Statics.* 1. A uniform heavy rod AB, whose weight is 20 lbs., is kept at rest in a horizontal position by four forces (in addition to its own weight): a force of 10 lbs. acting at B in the direction BD at right angles to AB; a force of 10 lbs. acting at A in a direction AE which is such that EAC is  $\frac{1}{2}$  of a right angle; a force  $m$  acting vertically at C; and a force  $n$  acting horizontally at B. If  $AC=2CB$ , find  $m$  &  $n$ .

2. On AB, an inclined plane, whose base is AC, and which has the angle BAC equal to  $\frac{2}{3}$  of a right angle, a heavy body is kept at rest by two equal forces, the one acting in the direction of AB, and the other in a direction parallel to AC and towards the plane. Prove that the reaction of the plane on the body is equal to weight of the body.

3. Let ABCD, a uniform heavy square, be suspended by a string EB from a point E; and from A and C let weights P and Q be suspended by strings AP and CQ. Prove that, if P exceed the weight of the square by  $3Q$ , the direction of the string EB will bisect the line drawn from A to the centre of the square.

*Dynamics.* 4. A particle is shot vertically upwards in the direction AB from a point A on the earth's surface, its initial velocity being 385 feet in the second. Two seconds afterwards, another particle is let fall from B. When the particles come into collision, their velocities are equal. Find the length of AB.

6. Let ACB be a double inclined plane. When a heavy particle, descending along CB from rest at C, under the influence of the force of gravity, has reached D, another begins to descend along CA from rest at C, under the influence of the force of gravity. The particles arrive at B and A at the same time, AB being horizontal. If  $AC=x$ ,  $CD=y$ , and  $CB=z$ , prove that  $(z-x)^2=yz$ .

6. A particle is projected from A, with a velocity of 320 feet in the second, and in a direction which makes an angle of 30 degrees with the horizontal line AB. If it

had been allowed to continue its flight it would have struck the ground at B; AB being thus its horizontal range. But, 4 seconds after it left A, another particle was projected from B, with a velocity of 320 ft. in the second, and in a direction making with BA an angle of 30 degrees, so that its path is exactly that of the former particle reversed. If C be the point where the particles come into collision, find the vertical height of C above AB.

*Pneumatics and Hydrostatics.* 7. There are two liquids, whose specific gravities are in the proportion of 1000:1 to 1000:1. When immersed in the former, a body weighs one ounce less, and when immersed in the latter, it weighs one ounce more, than when immersed in water. Prove that the content of the body is  $t$  cubic feet.\*

8. A hollow conical vessel, open at the mouth, is sunk in liquid, with its mouth downwards, and its axis vertical, to such a depth that the vertex of the cone is coincident with the surface of the liquid. The air contained in the upper part of the vessel would exactly fill the vessel under a pressure (15 lbs. to the square inch) equal to that of the free external air. The vertical height to which the liquid has risen within the vessel is 7 inches; while the vertical height of the cone is 7 feet and 7 inches. Find the specific gravity of the liquid, the sp. gr. of water being 1. (See Note.)

#### BOTANY AND AGRICULTURAL CHEMISTRY.

1. What are the functions of leaves in plants?

2. Mention the principal cultivated plants belonging to the Rose Family; give its distinguishing characters; and botanical name and describe any wild plant you know belonging to it.

3. Define *Class*, *Order*, *Genus*, and *Species*, and explain the terms *syngenesious*, *monadelphous*, *capsule* and *radicle*.

4. Explain the constitution of the fruit of the strawberry.

5. Draw a crenate leaf, a pinnately lobed leaf, a raceme, and a spadix with its spathe.

6. Describe sodium and calcium; give the chemical composition of their principal compounds; and explain their value as constituents of soils.

6. Write notes on points to be attended

\*The weight of a cubic foot of water is 1000 oz.

to in the cultivation of beets, oats, and clover.

8. Describe the process of making cheese and state the action of the rennet on the different constituents of the milk.

ARITHMETIC AND MENSURATION.

1. A merchant sold  $\frac{1}{3}$  of a lot of tea, at a loss of  $12\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. one-half the remainder, at a loss of 15 per cent., but realized a profit of 40 per cent. on what he had left: if he had received \$25 more on this last sale he would have gained  $3\frac{1}{3}$  per cent. on the whole. Find the prime cost of the tea.

2. Shew how to find the G. C. M., and the L. C. M., of two or more fractions in their lowest terms.

3. An *ad valorem* duty of 15 per cent. is charged on a certain class of manufactured goods, yielding a revenue of \$210,000; owing to a clamour for "protection to our infant manufactures," the duty is increased to 25 per cent., in consequence of which the consumption of the class of goods in question is diminished in the ratio of 7:10, and the goods actually imported are entered at a diminished price; the revenue on this class of goods being now \$14,000 less than before the increased duty was imposed; find how much per cent. the entered value of the goods has been diminished.

4. 5 lbs. of coffee and 4 lbs. of tea, cost \$4.60; there is an advance of 25 per cent. on the price of the coffee, and a decline of  $13\frac{1}{3}$  per cent. on that of the tea, and 5 lbs. of the former and 3 lbs. of the latter still cost \$4.69. Find the price of each at first.

5. Show how to solve by analysis a question in compound proportion:

If 50 guns, firing 5 rounds in 8 minutes, kill 300 men in 90 minutes, how many guns firing 8 rounds in 10 minutes will kill 800 men in 50 minutes.

6. A owes B a sum of money payable at the end of 4 years: B accepts of A's offer of immediate payment of the amount, less mercantile discount, at the rate of 10 per cent. per annum; he loans the amount received at 10 per cent. interest, and finds that if he had waited for payment till the end of four years, he would have been \$160 better off. Find the amount of A's debt. The other conditions being supposed the same, what would he have lost had the debt been payable in two years? Eight years?

7. 5 men, all started together, to travel in the same direction, round an island 90 miles in circumference, and continued travelling till they all came together again: Their respective rates were  $5, 6\frac{1}{4}, 7\frac{1}{2}, 8\frac{1}{3},$  and  $10\frac{1}{4}$  miles a day. How many miles did the first man (whose rate was five miles a day) travel?

8. A person pays \$432 for the insurance of goods, at  $3\frac{1}{4}$  per cent.; he finds that if the goods are lost, he will receive from the insurance company the value of the goods, the premium of insurance, and \$40 besides. Find the value of the goods.

9. I borrow \$4,500, agreeing to pay principal and interest in four equal annual instalments. Find the annual payment, interest being calculated at 6 per cent.

10. (1) The length of a block of marble, containing 105 cubic inches is 7 inches, find the length of a similar block containing 22,680 cubic inches.

(2) A cone, whose slant height is 18 inches, and the circumference of whose base is 30 inches, is divided into two equal parts by a plane parallel at the base; find the height of the frustrum.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND ETYMOLOGY.

"It grew and grew

*From* the pine-trees gathering a sombre hue,

Till it seems a mere *murmur out of* the vast Norwegian forests of the past;

And it grew *itself like* a true northern pine,

*First* a little slender line,  
Like a mermaid's green eyelash, *and then anon*

A stem *that* a tower might rest upon,  
Standing spear-straight in the waist-deep moss,

Its long *roots* clutching around and across,  
As if they would tear up earth's heart in their grasp

Ere the storm should uproot them or make them unclasp."

J. R. LOWELL: *The Growth of the Legend.*

1. Parse the thirteen italicized words.

2. Divide the extract into propositions, state their connection, and analyse them.

3. Give the derivation of 'comfort,' 'epitaph,' 'paper,' 'executor,' 'save,' 'depose,' 'model,' 'serve,' 'paste,' and 'cover.'

4. Mention English words relating in

derivation to 'speak,' 'sorrow,' 'choose,' 'what,' 'bequeath,' 'death,' and 'barren.'

5. Give examples of the different cases which may arise in the application of the principle, 'A verb must agree with its nominative in number and person,' and state the special rule applicable to each case.

6. Give the best definition of gender you know, state why you consider it the best, and point out its defects.

7. Correct or justify the following, adding in each case your reason:—

'Every thought and feeling are opposed to it.'

'It was thought to be he.'

'Good order and not mean savings produce great profit.'

'He is arrived.'

'The chief magistrate is styled a president.'

'I am writing in the same room with an itinerant dentist.'

8. Scan the following lines, naming the feet that occur:—

'The proper study of mankind is man.'

'Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note.'

ALGEBRA.

1. Solve the following:—

$$(a). \begin{aligned} 11x^2 - 3xy + y^2 &= 2I, \\ x^3 - 7xy &= 15. \end{aligned}$$

$$(b). \sqrt{(2x^2 - 3x - 1)} = 6x^2 - 9x - 5.$$

$$(c). (x - a)^{\frac{1}{3}} - (x + a)^{\frac{1}{3}} = a.$$

2. Find in how many ways a sum of eighty pounds sterling may be paid in pounds sterling and guineas.

3. A watch which indicates true time at noon, is gaining uniformly, but when it indicates 6 o'clock, p.m. it meets an accident, in consequence of which it afterwards goes uniformly at such a rate as to lose in the hour exactly as much as it formerly gained in the hour. When it indicates midnight

$$\text{it is } 12 \left( \frac{60}{3600 + I} \right) \left( \frac{60}{3600 + I} \right) \text{ seconds slow.}$$

What was its rate before the accident?

4. If the equations,  $x^2 + xm + 2 = 0$ , and  $x^2 + nx + 1 = 0$ , have a common root, find  $n$  in terms of  $m$ .

5. Inquire what value must be assigned to  $m$ , in order that the sum of the roots of

the equation,  $x^2 + mx + 4 = 0$ , the sum of the squares of the roots, and the sum of the cubes of the roots, may be in geometrical progression.

6. Investigate a rule for finding the sum of a geometrical series, when the first term of the common ratio, and the number of the terms are known. The sum of the first 8 terms of a geometrical series is 10 times the sum of the first 4 terms; and the first term is unity. Find all the real forms of the series.

7. A party of men, and half as many boys, are employed together on a piece of work which they can finish in a certain number of days; 2 men doing as much work in a given time as 5 boys. After they have been at work for some time, 10 men and 10 boys are withdrawn from the work, in consequence of which the piece of work is 7 days longer of being completed than it would otherwise have been. If, after the 10 men and 10 boys were withdrawn, each of the remaining boys had done a man's work, instead of merely a boy's, the work would have been completed  $3\frac{2}{3}$  days sooner than it actually was finished. Find how many men and boys respectively were employed on the work at first.

8. Let the expansions of  $(1+x)^m$  and  $(1+x)^{m+1}$ , by the Binomial Theorem, which may be assumed, be—

$$(1+x)^m = 1 + mx + \dots + ax + bx + \dots + c.$$

$$(1+x)^{m+1} = 1 + \dots + cx + \dots + c.$$

Prove that  $a + b = c$ .

BOOK-KEEPING.

1. Exhibit correct forms of Promissory Note, Draft, and Bill of Exchange.

2. Journalize the following:

Toronto, January 1, 1874,

I have on hand, Cash ..	\$ 2000 00
Wine, 50 pipes, at \$350..	17500 00
	<hr/>
	\$19500 00

Feb. 1. Sold Williamson & Co.,	
for cash, 6 pipes, at \$375.	\$ 2250 00
" 10. Sold Jas. Allen & Co., for	
cash, 10 pipes, at \$377	3770 00
March 12. Bought of Wm. Adams	
for cash, 17 pipes, at \$366	6222 00

M  
A  
M  
Ju  
are  
or  
son  
mir  
the  
es  
the  
eve  
con  
I  
tan  
ion  
fully  
fect  
the  
stud  
Wha  
thes  
sult,  
will  
The  
ion  
men  
the  
more  
TI  
ough  
study  
be at  
quick  
and c

March 30. Sold to M. Sullivan & Co., for cash, 50 pipes, at \$375.... 18750 00  
 April 2. Bought for cash, from Jos. Staunton, 37 pipes, at \$375 13875 00  
 " 15. Sold for cash, to James Allen & Co., 3 pipes at \$406 ..... 1218 00  
 May 5. Sold for cash to Charles Thompson, 1 pipe, at \$410 410 00  
 " 26. Sold to Anderson & Co., for cash, 5 pipes, at \$320 1600 00  
 June 16. Bought of Wm. Adams, for cash, 18 pipes, at \$325 5850 00

5 do. \$355 1775 00  
 " 18. Sold Thos. Brett, for cash, 2 pipes, at \$365 730 00  
 " 30. Sold to M. Sullivan & Co., for cash, 10 pipes, at \$345.... 3450 00  
 7 do 375... 2625 00  
 July 1. Took Stock, and found on hand, cash..... \$9081 00  
 Wine, 20 pipes, at \$350.. 7000 00  
 do 13 do 365.. 6745 00  
 3. Open Ledger Accounts, and properly post the above transactions.

SELECTIONS.

SCHOOL INCENTIVES.

In every school, study and good conduct are secured by the use of incentives, good or bad. Every act or purpose springs from some motive, the character of which determines the influence of the act or purpose on the pupil's moral life. If the pupil's motives be low and selfish, his moral nature will thereby be debased, and this is true whatever may be the appearance of his external conduct.

This view discloses the paramount importance of right incentives in school instruction and government—an importance not fully recognized, and a subject very imperfectly understood. It is not enough that the teacher manages to secure diligence in study and good order. The vital inquiry is, What *motives* does he appeal to in gaining these ends? If these are wrong, the result, however fair in external appearance, will prove to be like the apples of Sodom. There is, in brief, an inseparable connection between school instruction and government and moral training. Every exercise of the school room enters into and affects the moral character of the pupil.

These statements show that it is not enough that the teacher secures diligence in study and good order. These results must be attained by an appeal to motives which quicken the child's sense of right and duty, and develop and nourish his higher moral

nature. Neither a temporary interest in study nor external propriety of conduct can compensate for the sacrifice of those higher principles of character, which are of slow growth, but of abiding potency and value. It is an easy thing to hedge in a child's conduct by punishments and to urge him forward by artificial rewards, but when the restraining hedge is broken down and the temporary incitement is wanting, then is seen the need of the power of self-guidance and self-impulsion—an indwelling monitor and a never-failing impulse. The most dangerous of transitions is that which carries a youth from the restraints of outward control to the non-restraints of a condition of untried liberty. The school life of the pupil should prepare him to be a self-governing being.

With these principles in mind let us try to distinguish between right and wrong incentives, and determine the relative worth of the former.

The first and most obvious classification of incentives is their separation into *natural* and *artificial*. Natural incentives are those which spring from the nature of the effort or acquisition, following success or attainment as a natural result, if not a necessary consequence. Artificial incentives are those rewards or incitements which are thrust between the pupil and the natural results of

his efforts. Their prime characteristic is, that they are artificial substitutes for those higher rewards which flow as consequences from all right action, and, as such, they become the immediate end of study and conduct.

Among the natural incentives are—

*The joy of duty done.*

*The pleasure of self-control.*

*The inward reward of obedience.*

*The satisfaction of success.*

*The hope of future good.*

*The desire of knowledge.*

*The pleasure of its acquisition.*

*The satisfaction of overcoming difficulties.*

*The desire to excel.*

*The approval of others.*

*The approval of conscience.*

*The approval of God.*

A little reflection will show that each of these incentives is the natural result or attendant of some duty or achievement of school life. The human soul is so constituted that every right act or possession brings with it a joy, a satisfaction, or an anticipation, and this is both a reward and an incitant. What is needed ordinarily to make this natural reward conscious and potent, is the assurance of full success or complete attainment. The child submits his acts or acquisitions to the superior judgment of parent or teacher. If approved, the assurance of success brings a conscious satisfaction, joy or hope. His reward is thus made sure. For the same reason men seek the approval of their peers or superiors. They desire to have their success tested by some standard without and above them. Such approval removes self-distrust, and makes rewards operative and satisfying, which might otherwise lack potency.

This view enables us to place among natural incentives all expressions of approval which furnish palpable evidence of success. Among these are—

*The expressed approbation of the teacher.*

*The attainment of an assigned standard.*

That these may be natural incentives, they must be signs or measures of actual success, and must be so awarded and so received. When they become the end of the pupil's efforts, when he ceases to look up from the shadow to the substance, then they are no longer natural rewards. In some of our graded schools the desire to reach high marks is the "ruling passion" of

the pupils. They study for "percents," and cram for "percents."

Among natural incentives we should probably also place—

*An advancement in studies.*

*A promotion to higher classes.*

These are the natural rewards of successful effort, and yet they may be so impressed on a school as to take the place of ultimate ends, thus becoming the most potent of artificial incentives, concealing or destroying those nobler rewards which border the path of duty.

Among artificial incentives may be included—

*Prizes of pecuniary value, as books, medals etc.*

*Immunities, as exemption from tasks, examinations, etc.*

*Privileges, as holidays, early dismissal from school, choice of seats, etc.*

It is evident that neither of these three classes of rewards is a natural consequence of the pupils' success or attainments. They are all artificial and temporary substitutes for those rewards which are worthier and more enduring. But they do not lack power. They may be so incorporated into a system of school management as to become its very life—the all-absorbing end of effort and desire.

It will be noticed that we have not included punishment among school incentives natural or artificial. Its office is to restrain to impel; it does not incite. It is the reserved force which is brought up when incentives fail.

This simple classification of incentives prepares the way for a consideration of their relative worth and proper use.

It will be generally conceded, we think, that natural incentives are intrinsically superior to artificial. They nourish and strengthen the higher principles of character and, at the same time, act through life, springing up spontaneously in the path of duty and success. If made potent in childhood, they usually remain effective in after life. Artificial incentives, on the contrary, are transient and treacherous. They allure in youth, but fail in life's needs and conflicts. The child always incited to duty by some prize, immunity or privilege, depends in vain on such helps in manhood. When school days are over, if not before, knowledge must be sought for its own sake or for

its uses; and neither integrity nor virtue holds in its hands a bribe.

These facts not only indicate the superior worth of natural incentives, but they show the importance of their use in the instruction and control of children. The teacher should appeal to motives that have an abiding power and value; and, through such motives, he should strive to quicken the pupil's sense of right and duty. Certainly, so long as natural incentives can be made effective in securing study and good conduct, they should be relied upon.

This suggests the proper use of artificial incentives. They are to be resorted to, if at all, as temporary expedients to lift up a pupil or a school to the plane of higher motives. A teacher placed in charge of a badly demoralized school, dismissed all pupils whose conduct was good a half hour before the regular time for closing school. This was done at first each half day, then once a day; but, as soon as she had the school well in hand, the practice was wholly dropped. We have seen whispering and

tardiness checked in the same manner, the incentive of an early dismissal or a half holiday being used to prepare the way for better motives. It is evident that a dismissal before the close of school as a reward will prove, for such a purpose much more effective than a detention after school. But to use such means when natural incentives can be made effective, is needlessly to sacrifice the higher principle of moral training. Incentives intrinsically wrong are, of course, never to be used.

It may be stated as a general principle that lower incentives are always improperly used when the higher would be equally effective. Lower incentives may be necessary and proper in controlling a school of savages, but as fast as the savage nature is overcome, the higher should be appealed to. The use of lower incentives should be temporary, and they should be made preparatory to those which are higher and nobler. Of two motives equally effective, the higher should always be placed before the pupil.—*National Teacher.*

### BOSTON KINDERGARTENS.

"Kindergarten, or no kindergarten" is a question likely to be much discussed during the coming summer, not only by mothers, anxious to know how best to rear and tend their human flowers, but by School Commissioners, and those in authority generally. As Boston is the headquarters of the kindergarten movement in America, perhaps some account of the theory and practice here will not be uninteresting. In my researches on this subject I went first to that dear old patron saint of the movement—herself a wise, blessed, grown-up child—Miss Elizabeth Peabody.

"There are just four true kindergartens in Boston," she said, "all the rest are spurious." I have learned since that she ought to have included two more, recently established under the auspices of the North-End Mission, with trained teachers, and conforming to the ideas of Froebel as far as possible. Miss Peabody seemed to regard Miss Garland's, in Chestnut street, as rather the model establishment; so I spent there one entire forenoon this week, in

order to see, as thoroughly as might be, what it is to be a human flower in a kindergarten. Miss Garland's hours are from 9.30 A.M. to 12.30 P.M. Her school-year is thirty-six weeks in duration, and her terms are eighty dollars per annum. To have a longer school-year, she said, was of no use, because such families as sent their children to her never returned to town before October, and some of them had even already gone into the country. Three hours a day she found quite long enough to keep her little people systematically busy; for busy they are every moment of the time.

She takes children from three to seven years of age. She would like to have them the entire four years. It is a fundamental theory of the kindergarten that no child should even begin to learn to read until it is seven years old; and the progress of some children taught on this system, when once they began to study, has been truly marvellous. Miss Garland has an assistant, and a second school-room, where a few of those who have been under her care until they

were seven are now devoting a small portion of every morning to learning to read, and they are so trained in habits of minute observation and close attention that they seem to learn almost at sight. Her maximum number is twenty-two; but she admits so many only because among such little ones there is seldom a day when all would be present. One has a cold another the measles, or an anxious grandmother, who thinks the weather is too inclement; so that not more than sixteen or eighteen are likely to be in school at once, and that is as large a number as the true kindergarten ought to contain.

I wish I could make a picture for you of this room and the little people in it. There are pictures on the walls, such as Cheney's crayon of the Sistine Madonna on brackets; bouquets are in pretty vases; but, above all, there is a wealth of green things growing, potted plants, in large variety and in a very thrifty condition. This idea of growing plants, you must understand, is one of Froebel's essentials. It is good for the body, he thinks, to tend them; it is good for the soul to love and watch them. Each child has one or more. His plant is as much his own as his cap or mittens. He waters it—he picks off the dead leaves—he turns it toward the sun—he is proud of it beyond measure. The children who are present each day are allowed, as a favour, to tend the plants of the absent; and they do this faithfully and with great delight.

Imagine, in this picture-adorned, blossoming room, a dozen little totts, more or less—girls and boys being about equally represented. Fancy them seated in little chairs, so as not to tire their tiny legs, before long low tables, just about as high as the seat of a grown up person's chair, made of light polished wood, divided by black lines into square inches, by which the eyes of the children presently become accustomed to measure objects. Here they sit for half an hour, busy perhaps at building with blocks, perhaps a modeling in clay, perhaps at folding paper, or drawing, or embroidering on cards; for no John or Richard who has been trained in a kindergarten will be necessarily dependent on his wife's caprices as regards his buttons. This work goes on for half an hour, and then there is half an hour of play. But, first, I must tell you about the "occupation," as they call it.

Building with blocks sounds like mere fun, doesn't it? but, really, it exercises these little minds very actively. They were given, when I was there, a cube, which in Froebel's list of "Gifts" is numbered the fourth. It is composed of eight wooden oblongs, two inches in length, an inch wide and half an inch thick. These little oblongs are shaped like bricks, you perceive, and with them the children are instructed to build. Each one must have his own idea, and plenty of room is thus given for invention. One built a bridge, with steps leading up to it, suggested by the one in the Public Garden. Another made a summer-house and explained his notion of its construction. Another made what he called an engine, with the gate to shut when the bell rings, and the sign-board over it. He had a spare oblong, and he sat it up on end and said it was the man to tend the gate. Another little fellow full of fun and brightness, made a school-house and set a solitary oblong in front of the door. "Who is that?" asked Miss Garland. "That is Elise, coming all alone, as she did this morning," he said, laughing. Elise was a small maiden, with bright eyes and many ruffles, who was usually escorted by her nurse, but who had surprised them that morning by coming, with the utmost dignity, quite alone.

After this half hour's 'occupation' was over, there came half an hour of play. The plays are set to music, and are the most admirable system of gymnastics imaginable. Let no one aspire to teach a kindergarten who can not sing tolerably, for the amusement is all accompanied by singing. They play mostly ring plays, so contrived as thoroughly to exercise the muscles, to teach grace of motion, and to prepare the little folks for future dancing. After half an hour's play comes another 'occupation.' Perhaps it is drawing. For this purpose they have peculiar slates, grooved into little squares a quarter of an inch each way. This aids them to be accurate in their lines. As they go on the slates are changed, the grooves becoming less and less deep, until at last they can draw as accurately on plain slates as they could at first on grooved ones. Or perhaps they weave paper, choosing their own combinations of color. Or they model; and one little boy had shaped out of clay a surprising good turtle. Their leaf impressions in clay were extreme-

I  
is  
c  
s  
a  
th  
th  
in  
m  
de  
  
at  
sp  
en  
of  
It  
be  
or  
scl  
  
2  
Val  
Abc  
ers'  
was  
Mes  
Can  
gusc  
dent  
Trea  
Secr  
tee  
Lac  
Hoy  
inter  
  
O  
annu  
ers'  
13th,  
mal  
tenda  
Profe  
chair.  
In th  
Smith  
ed an  
dial v  
the cl

ly delicate and pretty. All their attention is alert; their habits of close and accurate observation are forming, and they are so interested in what is going on as to know no weariness. They wait on themselves, and put away all their implements as soon as they have finished using them, with a careful orderliness which is in itself an excellent training for the future man or woman. They learn to be independent and self-helpful.

There is only one public kindergarten at present in Boston, but there is a widespread desire that there should be others—enough to accommodate the whole city full of little folks. The one object is the price. It is the most expensive of public schools, because, while one teacher can and does ordinarily attend to the instruction of fifty scholars or more, the utmost number which

can be taught with advantage in a single kindergarten is twenty-four. Miss Garland, in her private school, would not admit so large a number as this; but it would be the maximum number of the public kindergarten. The single public one already established is at the corner of Allston and Sumersét street, under the charge of Miss Symonds, a teacher trained by Miss Garland. The outlay for the necessary working apparatus for the first year is not less than \$150, and the city hesitates to pay a teacher a full teacher's wages to instruct two dozen babies, and to add \$150 more to buy them scientific toys. But the kindergarten advocates trust to the success of this one experiment to prove their system so useful, and indeed so necessary, that the public can not afford to do without it.—MICHIGAN TEACHER.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

CANADA.

A Convention of Teachers was held at Vankleekhill on Monday the 10th August. About 40 Teachers were present—A Teachers' Association for the County of Prescott, was formed, T. O. Steele, I.P.S., President, Messrs. Knight, Maxwell, Wellwood, Gamble, Waddell, Armstrong, Cook, Ferguson, Lightfoot and McIntosh, Vice-Presidents, James Hay, Esq., Secretary and Treasurer. The President, Vice-Presidents, Secretary and the following to be a Committee of management, viz: Messrs. Lemery, Lacroix Sprowle, Waddell, McCann and Hoystead—The exercises were lively and interesting. (Com.)

ONTARIO TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The annual Convention of the Ontario Teachers' Association was held August 12th, 13th, and 14th, in the theatre of the Normal School Buildings, Toronto. The attendance of teachers was not very large. Professor Goldwin Smith occupied the chair. Mr. McCallum offered up prayer. In the evening of the first day Professor Smith delivered an able address to a crowded and deeply interested audience. A cordial vote of thanks was tendered him at the close. The Convention resumed at 2

P. M. next day. Dr. Kelley then read a paper entitled "Where we stand." The paper was well composed, containing many fine thoughts and illustrations, was listened to with pleasure, and a vote of thanks was tendered to Dr. Kelley. The Treasurer's statement showed a balance of \$110 on hand, a very favorable exhibit. After several reports from Teachers' Associations, Mr. R. McQueen read a lengthy and able essay on "The antiquity and dignity of the Public Teacher." In the evening Dr. Wilson gave an address, speaking with his usual ability on "The place of Science in Modern Education." He received a hearty vote of thanks. The Convention resumed next day at 2 P. M., when the President called on Mr. J. C. Glashan, County Inspector for Middlesex, for his paper on "Certain Theories of Education and the methods founded thereon." Mr. Glashan excused himself in a perfectly satisfactory manner.

Mr. J. M. Buchan, of Brantford, read an able paper on the co-education of the sexes. Considerable discussion followed.

The Committee on nomination of officers had their report ready, which was presented by the chairman, Mr. McIntosh. The following were the nominations:—



For President, Professor Goldwin Smith; Vice-Presidents, Dr. Kelly; D. J. Johnston, Coburg, James Turnbull, Edward Scarlett, Coburg; Wm. Watson, Weston; Dr. Thorburn, Ottawa; Cor. Secretary, Thomas Kirkland, M. A.; Recording Secretary, A. McMurchy, M. A.; Treasurer, S. McAllister. After some further business, votes of thanks, &c., the Convention closed by singing the National Anthem.

COUNCIL OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.—  
The following is the official statement of votes cast at the recent election:

*High School Masters.*

Professor Wilson..... 125  
Mr. J. H. Hunter..... 54

*Public School Teachers.*

	Smith.	Sangster.
Counties.....	1389	1144
Cities.....	89	79
Towns.....	234	142
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	1612	1335
Majority for Smith.....	277	

*School Inspectors.*

Mr. S. C. Wood, M. P.....	30
Mr. H. S. Macdonald.....	21
Mr. David Mills, M. P.....	17

EDITOR'S DRAWER.

READING AS AN ART.—We give in this issue, another of Mr. Lewis' valuable series of papers on this subject. The next will appear in the November No.

TEACHER'S DESK.—In consequence of other pressing demands on his time, Mr. Glashan has been unable to furnish the usual "Teachers' Desk" this month. Next month we expect he will more than make up for it, by giving in addition to the "Desk" solutions to Examination Questions.

We have received from the Publishers Adam Stevenson & Co., Toronto, a copy of "Wood's Grammar School Texts." The volume before us is "Virgil's *Æneid*, Book II." The design of the work, as the author, Mr. Samuel Wood, M. A. Rector of Kingston Collegiate Institute, says in the

preface, is "to afford every facility for pupils to acquire a complete and accurate knowledge of the grammatical construction of the language." We can only say that the work displays great care on the part of the author, and by the repeated references to the authorized grammar must very materially aid the student in mastering the difficulties of the dead languages.

We have also received from the New York Publishing Co., a section of a new work entitled "Our First Three Hundred Years," to be published directly. The design of the work is to show the progress of the American Republic during the first hundred years of their existence. The work is well got up, neatly printed, and deserves to command an extensive sale.