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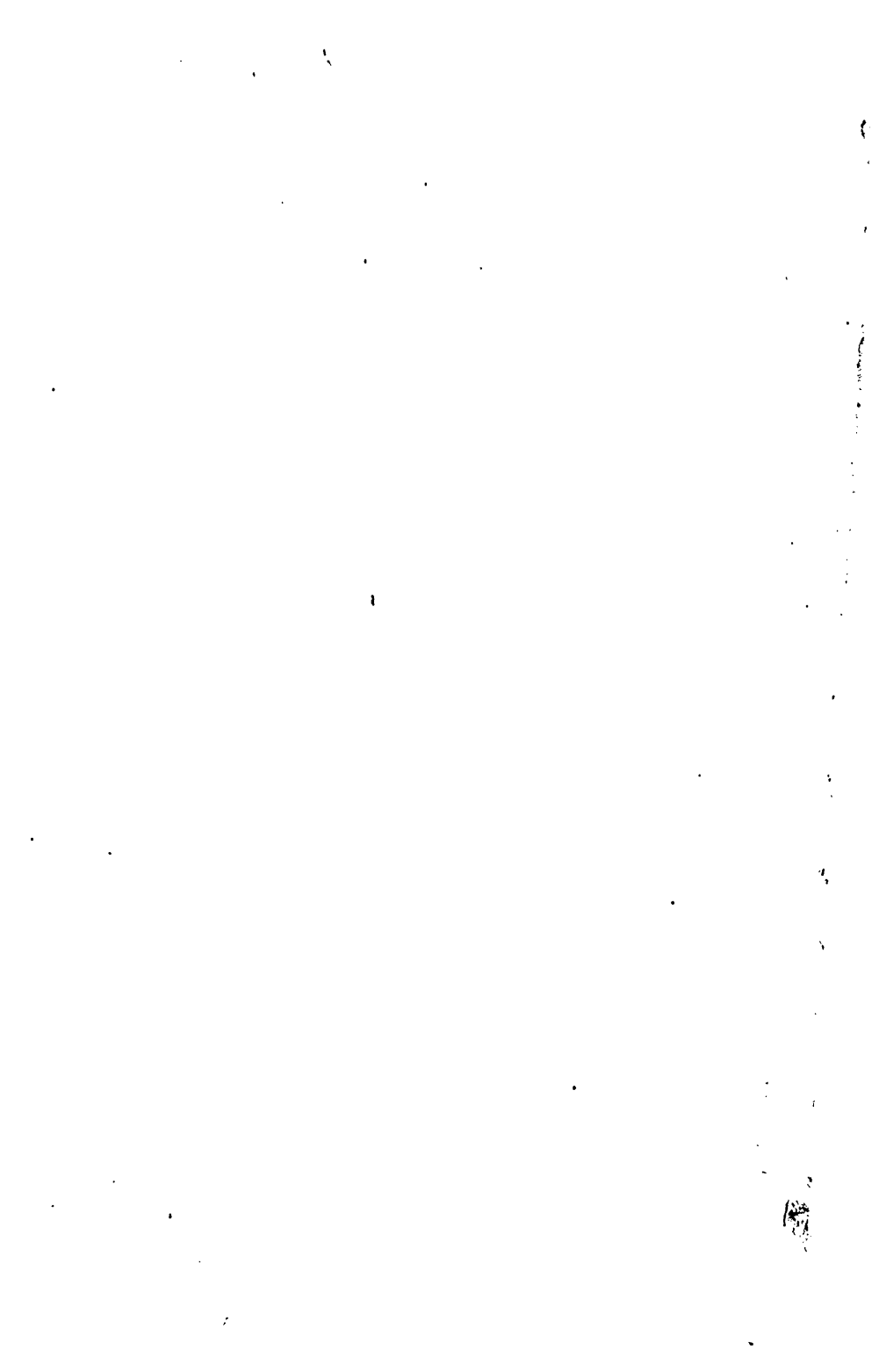
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THE CANADA

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY

AND SCHOOL MAGAZINE.

JANUARY, 1885.

WOMEN AS TEACHERS.

IN the present day, when the profession of teaching is ranked so much higher than it used to be, and when there are so many openings in that line for women, it may be worth while to consider what are the qualifications necessary for a good teacher, and whether most women can possess those qualifications if they will. The subject has been pretty well exhausted, as far as the purely technical training goes; but useful or necessary as this technical training is, it is not the most important part of teaching; it is well to keep another side of it in mind. There can be little doubt that teaching will always rank among the highest branches of employment for women, however useful other branches may be, just as intellectual work must always be classed above manual; for, in spite of increased facilities for study, it does not seem likely that any large number of women will ever make their living by entering the medical or legal professions. As regards teaching, there is an idea, rather popular in the present day, that you

are either "born a teacher," or not. This idea is doubtless quite true, exactly as it is true that in every branch of every art or science you will find individuals naturally endowed with an amount of capacity in that line, at which less gifted people must only wonder and admire. But this idea is not true in the sense in which it is often taken, that a woman with no strong natural gift cannot make herself a good teacher if she will. To judge of the truth of what may seem a startling proposition, one must consider what are the necessary qualifications for a good teacher. First, then, there are three great ones—patience, sympathy, and a thorough knowledge of what she teaches. Then come a series of smaller ones, such as method, punctuality, and a certain facility for organization; more or less wanted, according to the nature of her teaching. And here it seems to me that all the necessary qualifications cease, though, of course, there are others, such as brightness of manner, readiness in speech, etc., that are all

helpful to the teacher who possesses them. Still, of all these necessary qualifications, I maintain there is not one that any woman cannot attain if she will, for the simple reason that they are much more moral than intellectual. It is a point not always sufficiently recognized, that in every calling or profession the success depends really infinitely more upon the moral character than the intellectual gifts. Of course, a perfect success requires the union of both; but intellect, or "cleverness," as people rather vaguely term an indefinite amount of brains, is far from being the absolute necessity most people seem to think. A woman, therefore, who thinks her *métier* is teaching, should consider very seriously, first, whether she has the patience to go over and over her subject, never wearying, and never losing temper, till she is certain her pupil or pupils thoroughly understand it; and then, whether she has further the patience, a fortnight later, to find that they have entirely forgotten her carefully-worked-out explanation, and so to go back again and reiterate as much as is necessary, still without losing temper or heart. If she cannot do this, her teaching will not be of the enduring kind. She may introduce her pupils to much knowledge, but she will not fix it in their minds; and the result, unless they work it out in later years for themselves, will be the vague half-knowledge of a subject against which every one nowadays calls out. Next, the sympathy. By this I mean a capacity for seeing what the pupil's difficulties are; and this, I am inclined to think, is the necessary qualification for a teacher, though I have put it second. It is simply a question of observation, and this ought not to be so very difficult to most women; but it is so to a great many, from the habit we all have of thinking more of ourselves than of others. "A heart at leisure from itself" is what is

wanted here, and difficult as it often is to turn away one's thoughts so as to see with another person's eyes instead of our own, it is not impossible to those who really try to do so. It is the want of sympathy that often prevents a teacher knowing whether the pupil has really understood the explanation or not. The explanation may be an excellent one in itself, but if it does not touch the particular stumbling-block in the pupil's way it is a mere dead letter to him. He is bewildered, and both he and the teacher think him hopelessly stupid, when it is not really a case of stupidity at all. As to method, punctuality, and organization, all given above as necessary to a good teacher, I am quite aware that many, perhaps most, women are born devoid of these qualities, but there is no reason why they should die equally devoid of them. They have simply got to make up their minds that they will learn them and learn them they can. I do wish more women would see that they can make themselves what they choose; that it is a matter of their own will, and not of circumstances, or "my peculiar temperament," or "my unfortunate tendency," whether they are capable, self-reliant, and efficient, or indolent, dawdling, and untrustworthy. Of course, health has something to do with this, but much less than is commonly supposed. A really delicate woman may not get through as much in the day as a strong one, but there is no reason that what she can do should not be as well done; and here organization can work wonders. Under organization I include the sort of wise forethought that will make a teacher time her instruction judiciously, arranging it to the best advantage; and, when she has the power, so dividing it as to be the least strain upon herself or the pupils. I have left to the last the one intellectual qualification I consider necessary to a

teacher—thorough knowledge of her subject; because this has been so fully treated of already, and belongs so much more to the technical side of the question, that I have really very little to say about it. Only I would say—Let no woman think that, because she was badly taught in any subject when young, therefore she can never now ground herself thoroughly in it in later life. This is seldom, if ever, true; but here again the moral qualities of patience, humility, and perseverance come into play, and are far more needed than intellectual ones; always, of course, supposing, as

I have supposed throughout, that my would-be teacher is not exceptionally deficient in body or mind. And as the object of this paper has been to establish the superiority of moral gifts over intellectual in a line of work where the intellectual are generally ranked much the highest, may I close by reminding my readers that moral gifts are to be had “for the asking,” though intellectual ones may not be, and that He who “gives good things to them that ask Him,” is as ready to do so now as when those words were spoken nearly 1900 years ago.—*From Work and Leisure.*

DAY SCHOOLS vs. BOARDING SCHOOLS.

BY MR. OSCAR BROWNING.

WE are often told that English public schools are both the outgrowth and the parent of the English character. The battle of Waterloo was won in the playing-fields of Eton, and Tom Brown is the fittest lad to tame the wilderness of Tennessee. By public schools are of course meant public boarding-schools. A public school, according to the English model, is located in a rural district, and surrounded by plenty of open fields. The central buildings are encircled by a number of picturesque villas, in which the masters receive boarders. The education given in these establishments, although supposed to be classical, is mainly “naturalistic.” It follows the teaching of Montaigne, Locke, and Rousseau, and aims at training the body and the character rather than the intellect. Those who vaunt the superiority of our system scarcely realize how very modern it is. Throughout the seventeenth century Westminster was the first English public school; yet its

position could never have lent itself to the open-air life which we now deem essential; nor does Cowper, who paints it in his “Tirocinium,” give us an exciting picture of the pastimes of his boyhood. At Winchester, the custom of walking two-and-two to “Hills” scarcely suggests a group of “young barbarians at play,” and the insistence of John Lyon on shooting with the bow and arrow would not have formed the theme of a copious body of school songs. Thirty years ago Eton collegers were obliged to wear their gowns within bounds, except when actually engaged in playing, and their movements were sadly hampered thereby. If Locke had conceived a public school as we conceive one, he would not have failed to mention a system which satisfied so much of his theory. Muscular Christianity, the governing idea of the modern public school, is just twenty-four years and a-half old. Gray’s “little victims,” and even the youthful Arthur Wellesley, bore a

very faint resemblance either in occupations or aims to their successors of to-day. Whence, then, comes the idea of the modern public boarding-school? It is a product mainly of the wealth, but also of the manliness, of modern society. It has been largely affected by the career of Arnold, but it has grown into something which Arnold, certainly, did not encourage, and of which it is doubtful whether he would have approved. The greatest service which Arnold rendered to education, was in showing that a man of first-rate calibre mentally and morally, a man fit for any position in Church and State, would not be thrown away in the career of a schoolmaster. During the half century or more, which has followed his appointment to Rugby, the public schoolmaster has come into existence as a distinct type. Probably, no profession, can boast of so high a standard of intellectual and moral qualities, in proportion to its numbers. Yet the modern public schoolmaster, is very different from the prototype whom he reveres. Arnold was not a man of sympathetic character; he opened himself only to a few. His best pupils, have confessed, that their predominant feeling towards him was terror. His strongest interest lay in intellectual and moral questions, and these formed the strata of his conversation even with boys. He had little or no sympathy with art. He went beyond the custom of his time, in watching a football match in the school close; and acknowledged that games were an essential part of school life. But he never joined in them himself, and he would have recoiled from the appointment of a "cricket" or a "river" master. He developed at Rugby, the "prefectial" system, which he had learned at Winchester. He strained it almost more than it would bear. He was a stern master, sometimes accused of injustice; the

life in his house was rough, even to coarseness. The most momentous changes in school society during the last generation, the sympathy and close intercourse between masters and boys, the admission of games into the accepted curriculum of study, the assimilation of school to home life in its elevating and softening influences, the development of a taste for art, all these were certainly not part of Arnold's practice and probably even not part of his dreams.

Again, he ruled over a school of manageable size. He knew, or was supposed to know, every boy placed under his care, his habits and his companions. There must be some limit to the embracing power of a head master's vision. To know three hundred boys is difficult, to know five hundred is impossible. Yet in these modern days we have not only transformed the public boarding-school until it is quite unlike the pattern of its quiet originator, but we have suffered it to grow, until its effective maintenance as a place of education seems impossible. A mass of five hundred boys, collected together, between the ages of fourteen and nineteen, are in a most unnatural condition. To keep them quiet, and to check vicious habits, it is necessary that they should be constantly employed. Hence, it comes, that in a well-conducted school, the whole life of the boy, is subject to compulsion. The master keeps record of the duties of every day and hour, and sees that they are accomplished. These duties include, indiscriminately, work and play; and play, being placed by the master on the same level as work, is naturally, placed far above it by the boys. Compulsory work is further degraded to the level of compulsory play. It is done not from love of knowledge, but from a sense of duty. The lesson is learned, the notes are taken, they are committed to mem-

ory, are reproduced, and the place in school or the certificate is gained. But the mind remains unenlightened, no habit of independent thought has been formed, no desire of intellectual acquisition. The boy thus educated, cannot move a step, when left to himself.

Thus, starting from a place in which the highest governing classes were trained for public life on a classical foundation, the modern public school, has gradually become a pleasant home, for eight months in the year, a good school of character for the ordinary boy, a copious reservoir of air and exercise, but a place where a high moral standard is not likely to be found, and where the highest intellectual life would find no room to develop. The old ideal is pictured in undying verse :—

“To follow greatness with supreme desire ;
The beckoning peaks of glory to admire ;
In youth's clear dawn to gaze with sober eye
On the chaste splendours of the classic sky ;
True praise to love, false vulgar praise to flee ;
Such were the lessons that I learned from thee.”

The modern ideal still remains unsung. Such being the condition of our modern public boarding-schools, it is a misfortune, that efforts for supplying the deficiencies of middle-class education, should still aim at reproducing this type, and should not prefer the older, the more wholesome, the cheaper, and the more workable type of day school. A day-school must be cheaper than a boarding-school, because a boy can live with less expense at home. The difficulties of morality and discipline are far less, so that there is no need of that elaborate drilling into occupation, which presses on the conscience of a boarding-school head master ; the teaching staff is not overworked, but has time for self-improvement. The boys in consequence drink from a running brook, and not from a stag-

nant pool. Athletics do not assume that rank in the curriculum, which in some schools almost attains the level of a national calamity. The love of growth and acquisition natural to a healthy mind is not crushed by the tyranny of public opinion, or spoiled by a Procrustean curriculum. Above all, the family life is not broken up. It is indeed, a strange delusion, which forces parents to part with their children, just at the time when their interest in them must be closest, and their influence over them is most desired. A boy sent first to a preparatory and then to a boarding-school, knows little of his sisters and his home. During his holidays he lives an abnormal life, as that time is often chosen for the family flitting. The companionship of the sexes, the provision of nature for sweetness and purity of life, is ruthlessly broken through. What wonder, if nature avenges her violated laws ?

It is true, that all homes are not fit for children to grow up in, but the presence of children benefits and exalts the home. To follow the education of the child, is a new training for the parents, who live over again the experience of their youth. Facilities of communication make it easier than it once was, for a day school to draw from a large area. London is girt with a circle of day schools whose resources are far from exhausted. Westminster, St. Paul's, Dulwich, the City of London School, Merchant Taylors', the schools of University College and King's College, are a sufficient provision for a very extended population. Let those who admire the special type of modern public school education continue to patronise them. But let us free ourselves from the tyranny of superstitious reverence. When so large a proportion of the best boys in England go to public schools, it is no wonder that so many of the best men are produced

by them. Let us convince ourselves, that the education which we agree to admire, is after all, of very new manufacture. Let us fall back on the older habits of Englishmen, on the general practice of other nations, and

on the common-sense conviction, that the purity, the simplicity, the healthy intelligence and industry, of a promising lad, are best preserved, in the sanctuary of a well-regulated home.—*Pall Mall Gazette*.

ENGLISH SONGS: ANCIENT AND MODERN.

BY CHARLES MACKAY.

THE poetical literature of England is the richest and noblest of modern time—superior in some respects to that of the Greeks and Romans, as all will confess who have studied it, and who remember Shakespeare, Spenser, Milton, Wordsworth, Shelley and Byron, and all the glorious galaxy of the poets from the age of Chaucer to the present day. But many who acknowledge the claims of English literature to the highest poetical pre-eminence deny that in one great department of poetry, popular song, it can rank on an equality with other nations. The late Thomas Davis—one of the young Irishmen who conferred honour upon the literature of his country—declared that the songs of England were the worst in the world. "How can a nation have good songs," said he, "when it has no music?"

"English music is execrable," said the great Napoleon, when he dis-coursed to his faithful Las Casas, in the mournful days of his exile, on all imaginable subjects—of war, policy, philosophy and literature. "The English have no music; or, at all events, no national music. They have, in fact, but one good tune." And to show his qualifications for the office of musical critic, he declared that tune to be "Ye banks and braes o' bonnie Doon"—an excellent tune certainly, only it happens to be one

that the Scotch have borrowed from the French. The emperor did not stand alone in his ignorance. Even now we hear of English ladies and gentlemen who not only know nothing of the beautiful melodies of their native land, but who actually deny that such melodies have any existence. Not content with shutting their ears against the sweet sound, they affirm that there is no such thing as music in British, or at all events, in English nature. In days when the popular melodies of England had not been collected, as those of Ireland had been by Sir John Stevenson and Thomas Moore, or as those of Scotland had been by George Thomson and Robert Burns, there was some excuse for Englishmen who did not know their own wealth in this respect. But now, when their melodies have been collected by Mr. William Chappell, and shown to be equal to any in Europe, there is no excuse for an ignorance of which patriotism ought to be ashamed. "What a beautiful melody," said Rossini to an Englishman (who agreed with him), "is 'The girl I left behind me'! It does honour to Ireland." But Rossini was wrong. That beautiful melody is pure English—published in England long before it was first played in Ireland by the soldiers of William the Third. "How sweet," said an English lady, "is the air of 'My lodging is on the

cold ground ' ! England has no tunes 'so tender and so touching." In this case also, the fair critic was as much at fault as Napoleon and Rossini. The tune is old English ; and Ireland has no other claim to it than the assertion of Thomas Moore, unsupported by a tittle of evidence.

As songs are compositions that may be sung, it is necessary to show that a people have good melodies before it can be admitted that they have good songs. So far from being an unmusical, the English are pre-eminently a musical, nation. Long before the invention of printing, long before the age of Chaucer, England, from her love of singing and music, was called "Merry England ;" and to hear the minstrels sing, and to join in their choruses, was the favourite amusement both of the nobles and the people. Chaucer, in his "Canterbury Tales," makes frequent allusions to the love of the English of that period for music and song. At and before Chaucer's time, the education of an English gentleman was held to be incomplete if he could not read music at sight ; and in the public schools it was compulsory on every boy, and a necessary portion of his studies, to learn part-singing.

The English glees, catches, rounds, canons and madrigals are thoroughly national, and are admired by musicians of every country for their graceful complications both of melody and harmony. The English dance music is equally spirited, and her country jigs and sailors' hornpipes are known all over the world. Some of the most ancient popular melodies of the English are fortunately preserved in a little manuscript of the age of Queen Elizabeth, called "Queen Elizabeth's Virginal Book," containing airs that are still popular among the peasantry—such as "The Carman's Whistle," or "The Jolly Miller," and Shakespeare's favourite melody, of which

he makes honourable mention, "Sing it to the air of 'Light o' Love.'" Those exquisitely pathetic tunes sung by Ophelia in Hamlet are admired by all musicians, and are far older than history can trace. So famous were the English for their proficiency in singing, that before the Reformation the churches of Belgium, Holland and France sent to England for choristers ; and one of the most valuable collections of popular English music that exists was published in Amsterdam at the commencement of the seventeenth century.

Such noble tunes as "The King shall enjoy his own again," "Cropped Roundheads," "The girl I left behind me," "Farewell, Manchester!" "Balance a straw," "Packington's pound," "The British Grenadiers," "Drink to me only with thine eyes," "Down among the dead men," "The Vicar of Bray," "The man who will not merry be," "The miller of Dee," "Begone, dull care," "'Tis my delight on a shiny night," and others, may be cited as fair specimens of English popular and traditional music. Its general characteristics are strength and martial energy. It has a dashing, impulsive, leaping, frolicsome spirit, occasionally overshadowed by a touch of sadness. It has not the tender melancholy of the music of Ireland, nor the light, airy grace, delicate beauty, and heart-wrung pathos of the songs of Scotland, but it has a lilt and style of its own. In one word, the music of England may be described as "merry ;" and her national songs partake of the same character, and are jovial, lusty, exultant, and full of life and daring.

There are no authentic records of the earliest song-writers of England. It is known that among the ancient Britons, the bard was next in rank to the Druid, and that his character and functions were invested with a high degree of veneration, if not of sanctity.

He was held to be a seer and a prophet, as well as a bard, as indeed true poets are in all ages. The compositions of the British and Celtic bards were either hymns or chants of devotion—like the Psalms of David—or celebrated the great deeds of the heroes, who were first in and last out of the battle. They aroused the patriotic enthusiasm of the living by glowing recitals of the achievements of the dead. But never having been committed to writing, their ballads and songs, or epic poems, if they produced any, have either perished altogether, or only exist in fragments, such as James Macpherson discovered among the peasantry in remote districts of the Highlands of Scotland, and gave to the world as the poems of Ossian, the greatest bard of the Celtic nations. The Danish skalds and Saxon gleemen, who succeeded to the British bards, drew from their predecessors many materials for popular song. The adventures of King Arthur and the knights of the Round Table, the loves of Guinever and Sir Lancelot du Lake, the pranks of the boy with that wonderful mantle described in Percy's "Reliques," the merriment of King Cole, and the enchantments of Merlin—all traditions of the Celtic period—were embalmed in Celtic and afterwards in Saxon song, and found as much favour among the newer people who took possession of the British Isles as the legends of the Mohicans, the Cherokees, or the Creek Indians, when enshrined in the classic pages of Cooper or Longfellow, find among the English and Americans of the present day. King Arthur, his court, his queen, his Round Table, and his knights were for a thousand years the great themes of the minstrels in England and Wales, and have not yet lost their hold over the imagination of the people. King Arthur and King Cole are cited in nursery rhymes, and

the earliest songs of children; though Mr. Chappell, in his excellent work on English music, is heterodox enough to suggest that the King Cole of song is not the King Cole of history, but a mere public-house king or good fellow of the seventeenth century. Of the same period as King Arthur, though a generation or two later, were King Lud and King Lear, mere names and shadows of names, except for poetry, that has made them immortal. The King Arthur of history is less than a dream. The King Arthur of song is a living reality. The Lear that reigned in Britain has left no record on which the historian can build; but the Lear of the poet, the foolish, fond old man, sightless, and not in his perfect mind, stands out in Shakespeare's history, hallowed in the light of poetry, a man whom we know more intimately than we do many persons whom we met yesterday and talked to in the streets.

During the Saxon and early Norman period the minstrels played an important part in social life. They were the welcome guests of all ranks and classes, from the monarch's palace and the baron's hall to the tavern of the town and the cottage of the peasant.

'Twas merry in the hall
When beards wagged all;

when the minstrels set the beard in motion by singing their last new ballads of romance or adventure. The minstrels united in their persons, not only the functions of the song-maker and musician, but those of the newspaper editor and reporter of the present day. Although they sang songs of the olden time, they did not confine themselves to the past, but detailed the freshest news from the court or the camp, or put into verse the circumstances of the last horrible murder or desperate love-tragedy.

Of these minstrels, as of the bards

who preceded them, few genuine remains have come down to us; although the tunes and modernized versions of many of the ballads which they sang have been preserved, such as the famous "Ballad of Chevy Chase," the mournful story of "Fair Rosamond," the adventures of the mythical "Robin Hood," who was not one but many, the doleful ballad of "The Babes in the Wood," a legend of unknown antiquity, of which it may be said that it has made the robin redbreast a sacred bird in England, and touched with compassion the heart of the roughest clothopper. The English boy will rob the nest of any bird that sings, or that cannot sing; but to disturb the nest of the robin, "the bold beggar with the glittering eye and scarlet bosom," is held, not only to be cruel and ungenerous, but unlucky. If the robin redbreasts could only but know how many of their lives have been spared for the sake of "an old song," and the pity which it has inspired, they would hover around the graves of poets as they did over the unburied bodies of the "children in the wood," and strew them with leaves in grateful remembrance of the power and tenderness of poetry.

In the days prior to the invention of printing, when the wealthy classes thought it no shame to be unable to read and write, the ballad-maker was a power in the State. Richard the First, the great Cœur-de-Lion (whose name is still invoked to frighten unruly children in Syria and Palestine) was unable to sign his name, but he was familiar with the poetry of the troubadours. He knew nothing of the songs of Celtic or Saxon Englishmen, but had committed to memory the choicest effusions of the Norman muse. And, indeed, if kings and other high personages, to say nothing of the gentry and trading classes, would not derive all their knowledge

of the affairs of this world from the priests, who possessed the keys of learning, or from actual observation with their own eyes, which was always difficult, and sometimes impossible, they were glad to gather information, combined with amusement, from the minstrels, who travelled all over the country, mixed with all classes, heard all the news, and learned all the opinion that was current. But the invention of printing gradually operated a change. The minstrels, who by this time had lost their original and honourable appellation, and were called "crowders," or "fiddlers," were thrown out of bread. They ceased, by degrees, to be the favourites of the wealthy, and found their only refuge among the poor and illiterate, and became of scarcely more repute than the mountebanks and merry-andrews of country fairs. An Act of Parliament of the thirtieth year of Queen Elizabeth classed them as "rogues, vagabonds, and sturdy vagrants," a legal definition which still applies in England to strolling actors and singers, and which might, with a little stretching, be applied to a *prima donna* on a provincial tour. King Henry the Eighth, notwithstanding the cares of State, his love-making, his wife-killing, and his quarrels with the pope, Cardinal Wolsey, and his great nobles, found time to write songs, one of which was entitled "Pastime with Good Company." In a MS. still in existence, and known to be of his reign, are two songs, in pure, though quaint, English, which may be quoted as among the earliest songs remaining in the language:—

Ah, my sweet sweeting
 My little pretty sweeting,
 My sweeting will I love, wherever I go.
 She is so proper and pure,
 Full steadfast, stable, and demure,
 There is none such, you may be sure,
 As my sweet sweeting.

The other, entitled "The Loyal Lover," is equally smooth and vocal:—

As I lie sleeping
 In dreams fleeting
 Ever my sweeting
 Is in my mind.
 She is so goodly
 With looks so lovely,
 That no man truly
 Such one can find.

There seems to be little or no authority for the statement that King Henry the Eighth himself wrote these songs; or, if he did, whether they were in celebration of the charms of the "sweetings" whose heads he cut off, or of those whose heads he spared. But, whoever was the author of them, these and similar songs were like the first faint radiance that precedes the dawn. The dawn and the daylight were yet to come. Among the singing birds of the twilight, the most melodious were Sir Thomas Wyatt, whose son was beheaded on Tower Hill, and the unfortunate Earl of Surrey, who himself suffered on the block for alleged complicity in the treasons of an age when it was difficult to know what was treason and what was not. At length, as political affairs became somewhat more settled, the full daylight of poetry burst forth. The Elizabethan dramatists, with Shakespeare at their head, and Edmund Spenser, chief of the non-dramatic poets, inaugurated the new era. It was then that English poetry and song entered into the golden age. In the blaze of that sudden glory the inferior compositions of the ballad-mongers were left entirely to the lower rank of the people; many of them are still in existence, and still sung, such as some of the famous ballads to be found in Percy's "Reliques"—the poacher's song, "'Tis my delight, on a shiny night," "Women are best when they are at rest," "Sweet Nelly, my heart's delight," "Full merrily sings the cuckoo upon the beechen tree," "The frog came to the mill-door" (since modernized into "The frog he would a-wooing go"), "I'll ne'er get drunk

again," and the mariners' glee, "We be three mariners"—probably the oldest sea-song that England can boast. The only two names of note that have reached the present age in connection with this early song-literature are William Tarleton and Martin Parker—both somewhat later than the time of Shakespeare. Martin Parker deserves especial notice as the man who wrote the well-known song "Ye gentlemen of England"—a song, not only excellent in itself, but entitled to double gratitude for having served Thomas Campbell as the model on which he built "Ye mariners of England," one of the noblest songs ever written in any language. Martin Parker's song sets itself to music:—

Ye gentlemen of England
 Who live at home at ease,
 Ah, little do you think upon
 The dangers of the seas!
 Give ear unto the mariners,
 And they will plainly show
 All the cares, and the fears,
 When the stormy winds do blow.

It used to be the fashion of the English peasantry to paste these songs in cupboards, on the lids of trunks, or on the backs of doors—a custom which has been one great cause why so many of them have been lost without hope of recovery. Could they have been preserved, they might have thrown the light of contemporary poetry on the history of manners and afforded us glimpses into the every-day life of our forefathers at a period particularly interesting, when the art of printing was bringing forth its first flowers and fruits, operating important changes in the national character, and preparing the way for the final triumphs of the Reformation. Similar songs are still printed for the use of the rural districts, and sold—humiliating thought to the pride of song writers!—at a halfpenny or a penny a yard.

The song-writers of the age of

Shakespeare were many and excellent. Among his contemporaries, or those who preceded and followed him, were two or three who wrote songs almost as well as he did—none who wrote better. The associated dramatists, Beaumont and Fletcher, Ben Jonson, Thomas Heywood, Christopher Marlowe, Robert Herrick, George Wither, Thomas Carew, Sir Walter Raleigh, John Donne, Sir Henry Wotton, Richard Lovelace, and George Herbert are but a few out of a long list of poets of whose works any fair criticism would occupy a volume, so full are they of heartiness and beauty. Some of Ben Jonson's songs are exquisite in their delicacy and grace. Every one has read (or heard sung) the delicious song—better than anything attributed to Anacreon or any Greek or Roman writer whatsoever—"Drink to me only with thine eyes," a paraphrase from the Low Latin of a nameless poet in the Middle Ages, and a great improvement on its original—a song sufficient for fame if its author had written nothing else. Most people have read or heard the song of Sir Henry Wotton, worth a whole library of inferior compositions:—

You meaner beauties of the night,
That poorly satisfy our eyes
More by your numbers than your light,
You common people of the skies
What are you when the moon shall rise?

Who does not know the songs of George Wither? The chorus of one of them has passed into the select family of familiar quotations:—

Shall I, wasting in despair,
Die, because a woman's fair?
Or make pale my cheeks with care
Because another's rosy are?
Be she fairer than the day,
Or the flowery meads in May,
If she be not so to me,
What care I how fair she be?

Robert Herrick wrote many songs of the highest merit, and particularly distinguished above those of all his

contemporaries by the fluency of their melody, and the luxuriant charm of their phraseology.

But Shakespeare was the prince of all the song-writers of his age. It may be said of him that, had he not been the greatest of epic poets, the greatest of lawyers, the greatest of anything great to which it pleased him to direct the energies of his great mind, he would most certainly have been a great song-writer, for the songs which he has scattered through his plays are all of them models either of wit, or grace, or tenderness, or of a nameless beauty comprising all these. Every one, at some time or other in his life, must have rejoiced over the frolicsome little song redolent of the green fields and flowers of England:—

Under the greenwood tree,
Who loves to lie with me,
And tune his merry note
Unto the sweet bird's throat?
Come hither! come hither! come hither!
Here shall he see
No enemy,
But winter and rough weather.

Every one who reads knows the two charming pictures of spring and winter sung in "Love's Labour Lost," both of them full of humour and of accurate painting from nature, and both of them adapted to such excellent music by Dr. Arne—who lived a century afterwards—as to make every listener regret that Shakespeare himself never had the felicity of hearing the manner in which great composers can render the meaning of great poets. One other song of Shakespeare has been the favourite of successive generations of musicians, from the age of Milton to our own, who have striven with each other to do it justice:—

Take, oh! take those lips away
That so sweetly were forsworn;
And those eyes, the break of day,
Lights that do mislead the morn.

—From *Nineteenth Century*.

(To be continued.)

THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT IN ENGLAND.

BY. D. NASMITH, ESQ., LL.B.

GOVERNMENTS are of two kinds — domestic and political. Political governments may be roughly divided into three classes — monarchies, mixed governments, and democracies.

Though it is equally far from my province and intention to deliver a political party lecture. I shall endeavour to establish three propositions, viz.:—I. That some form of government between Monarchy on the one hand, and Democracy on the other, is, when possible, better than either. II. That our own form of government is second to none. III. That by our present Constitution the Crown, the Lords and the Commons are the three trustees of the national interests, each and all being as such bound, when they cannot conscientiously agree, to act independently the one of the other, and to trust to the nation for its support when so doing.

For this purpose I propose to offer for your consideration a few observations on some of the fundamental principles of government, upon some of the leading features of our own system, and to conclude my paper by indicating what appears to me to be the chief landmarks in the history of the growth of constitutional government in England.

When in 1783 our fellow-countrymen in America—irritated, and not unnaturally, at the treatment received by them at the hands of the ill-advised ministers of George III.—declared their independence, for which they had fought as few but Britons could fight, they adopted the public and the private law of England, and so far as possible the principles of our constitution. In its integrity they

could neither adopt nor imitate the Constitutional Government of England, for they lacked two of its essential elements—royalty and a nobility.

That no human institution is or can be perfect is a proposition not likely to be questioned. The closer, however, that we keep to nature, the nearer we shall get to perfection. The family is a natural institution. The parents and their children constitute the first social community of which man has any knowledge. Nature in the family circle gives us the first notion of superior and inferior, of government and of its necessary modifications. When we were young our parents, guardians and schoolmasters did their best to instil into our juvenile minds their notions as to the difference between the elder and the younger, the superior and the inferior, and the duty of the inferior to obey; now that we have grown older and tried our hands at government, we see the matter from a different point of view. We used to think that the governor had the best of it. We are not quite so sure of that now. There is one thing about which we have never doubted—that is, when governor and governed are agreed, each conscientiously doing his part, there are happy times. There is one thing about which we doubted much and still doubt—that is, where to draw the line between the respective duties of the governor and the governed, whose relative position is ever changing. It is not every one who can keep the eye so steadily and the hand so gently yet so firmly on the break as to pull up at the right moment without a jar. There is the age of blind obedience, when the parent knows, but the child

does not know, what is good for the child. There is the stage of intelligent, but equal if not more implicit obedience, when parent and child alike know—for both reason—that happy social existence is impossible without a well-balanced and well defined relation between the two. Adult obedience to parental authority is possibly the finest trait in human character.

To lose sight of the notion of a family is, in my opinion, to miss the spirit of growth of Constitutional Government in England; to fail to appreciate the relation of the Crown, the Lords, and the Commons, the one to the other, and of the Church to all.

That man is not the author of his own being, has never been disputed; hence, in one sense at least, every thinking man has a religion, and consequently no community can be without one or more creeds.

Most admit that it is the duty of the parent not merely to maintain and defend his non-self-supporting children, but to train them and teach them, among other matters, the Divine will, *i. e.*, the Divine will as it has been revealed, or at least as understood, by him; that it is his duty to take them when young to the church of his choice; to suffer them, when of riper years, to go to the church of their own choice. In like manner, in most states, whether ancient or modern, there has been and is a national church to which, during the infancy of the nation, all were compelled to go; but as to which, at a later date, they have been left more or less free. As constitutional lawyers we have nothing to do with religious creeds or practices, save those of the national church and our own, should they happen not to be those of the national church; but we have much to do with the creeds and practices of the national church, whether it is the church of our choice or not, for re-

ligion has been and can be made an engine of social ill. As British subjects, we say that it is the duty of the sovereign power in England to make religious persecution impossible, and that that can only be done by granting and securing full liberty of conscience; that it is the duty of the sovereign power to secure, if possible, due respect for religion, and that history has taught us that that can best be done by attaching one form of religion to the State in order that, by being attached, religion in some form may have dignity, and by being controlled by the State it may be kept from extremes—Fetishism on the one hand, and vulgar familiarity with God and things divine on the other.

Our forefathers found by experience that Romanism was objectionable as a state religion, for independently of creed the Roman clergy professed allegiance to a foreign potentate, and thus subverted the very foundation of national sovereignty, and, by enforcing celibacy on the clergy, rendered it difficult for them to have interests in common with the people. Hence the substitution of the Anglican Church, which admits of no superior to the State but God, as being the author of all authority, and which permits and encourages its clergy to marry that their sympathies may be at one with those of the people.

I make allusion to the Church first that it may, as far as possible, be dismissed from the general question without the possibility of any supposing that as a part of the constitution its value is underrated. In my opinion the Crown, the Church, and the Lords are inseparable, and I feel that the glory of England could not endure without them.

No child is presumably indifferent as to his parentage. Those whose good fortune it is to have had parents of whom they may be justly proud

obey laws, both divine and human, when honouring their fathers and their mothers. It is almost inconceivable that the British subject who is curious as to the history and doings of his father should, unless grossly ignorant and apathetic, be indifferent as to the history and doings of his national ancestors, to whom, and not to his immediate parents, he is indebted for liberties, rights and privileges equal to, if not greater than, those enjoyed by the subjects of any other nation, whether ancient or modern.

British sovereignty is now vested in the Crown, the Lords spiritual and temporal, and the Commons as assembled in Parliament. Regarding the Crown as one unit, the Lords as the second unit, and the Commons as the third unit, it may be said that individually each is powerless, collectively they are sovereign. It was not always so. It was not so under our early Norman and Plantagenet kings, for they were feudal lords.

Stated roundly, the essence of feudalism as introduced into this country by William I.—for it is at that point that we must start—was nothing more nor less than secular monarchy, properly so called. The sovereignty was assumed to be in a single individual, the king; to him the entire territory was declared to belong, by him it was parcelled out to his feudatories, in such quantities and on such conditions as he thought fit. I use the expression "secular monarchy" advisedly, and emphasize it, for at that period the sovereign spiritual power was admittedly in the Pope. There was an *imperium in imperio* which lasted till the reign of Henry VIII. The influence of the Church in 1066, in matters temporal as well as spiritual, may be gauged by the fact that of the 62,215 knights fees into which the country was divided, 28,015 were in its hands.

It is not possible to understand the history of England preceding the Tudor period, to comprehend the legislation of the reigns of Edward I. and Henry VIII. and the final abolition of feudal tenure in England in 1660, without thoroughly realizing the original theory and effect of feudality, the gradual decay of the system, and the cause of that decay. The study of the history of real property in respect of its alienability brings together a series of legislative enactments extending at distant intervals over hundreds of years, which collectively expound each other, whereas individually to the modern Englishman they are barely intelligible. The preamble to the Statute of Uses throws a strong light upon some matters as they then stood.

In my opinion, the quickest and best way of studying any species of a genus is to contrast it with another or other species of the same genus. Correct views concerning anything can only result from comparison of that thing, be it what it may, with some other *ejusdem generis*. To know what English constitutional government is, and its value, we must contrast it with Monarchy on the one side and Democracy on the other. Good and evil, right and wrong, are relative terms. We cannot say that Monarchy is good and Democracy bad, or *vice versa*. Circumstances may make Monarchy the best form of government, or indeed the only possible form of government, at a given period for a given people. So with Democracy. But, as these two forms of government are the extremes, each must necessarily have advantages and disadvantages.

An intermediate form, one that combines the advantages of Monarchy and Democracy, and at the same time avoids the disadvantages of each, is obviously, when possible, better than either. Such a form of govern-

ment may be developed from Monarchy; it cannot be developed from Democracy.

It is said that, that system is the best which secures the greatest good to the greatest number. Possibly; but what is intended by the assertion? I do not pretend to say, nor should I have alluded to it were it not to direct attention to the fact that there are many captivating phrases and terms which sound well enough, but which, when considered, tested, or applied, prove worthless and delusive. Nothing, for example, sounds better than the phrase, "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity." It is not difficult to imagine the effect of that cry on a down-trodden and oppressed people, to whom liberty and fraternity are as strange as equality. We know what the cry accomplished in France in 1792; but when we reflect on the horrors of that bloody revolution, when human beings were slaughtered like vermin, we realize to the full the meaning of Hobbes, when he said, "Whosoever thinking sovereign power too great will seek to make it less, must subject himself to a power which can limit it, that is to say, to a greater." "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity" may sound more pleasing than "Liberty, Inequality, and Fraternity," but the difference is simple—the one is possible, the other is not. The one "Liberty, Inequality, and Fraternity," faithfully represents institutions both divine and human; the other, "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity," expresses a state of things that never did and never can exist in fact. Communism, except in theory, is an impossibility.

Monarchy on the one hand, and Democracy on the other, appear to me alike incapable of fully satisfying the wants of a political community that has attained its majority. The father, his elder and his younger sons are the natural prototypes of Kings,

Lords, and Commons. If the union of King, Lords, and Commons is true to nature, whereas other systems are not, then that union must possess advantages which other systems do not. Does it? I contend that it does. In all the stages of our history, the tendency and effect of the union has been to level up, and that was never more so than at present. There is not a British child, however humble, of whom it can confidently and with reason be said—He will not die a peer.

To hear some talk, one might conclude that peers were unlike other mortals; that, once in the House of Lords, a man and his posterity lived for ever.

Those who entertain such notions would do well to reflect on the fact that more than two-thirds of the present peerage are creations of this century—a fact which, reduced to figures, simply shows that upwards of 300 commoners have been created peers within the present century; and why? Not, we may be sure, by reason of their having been drones in the British hive. The peerage, as we all know, is the highest reward in the gift of the Crown for services rendered by the British subject to his country; and we do well to reflect on the fact that it is a reward that is not and cannot be in the gift of the president of any Democracy, that it is a reward that has and does secure to the country the active services of her best men, to whom money would be no incentive to labour. The Crown being the national fountain of honour, the peerage the recipients of its highest favours, and the Commons the source whence—with the sole exception of Royalty—the peerage must be derived, if one may so express it, a steady flow of honourable aspiration is kept up throughout the life-blood of the entire community.

One must be blind indeed who

cannot see that the mere fact of the Upper House being composed of the peers gives to the Lower House a status it could not otherwise enjoy. Should any one doubt the truth of that proposition, he may profitably occupy his leisure in the solution of the question—Is it or is it not the fact that in the United States, and in France, and in short in every other Democracy where there are two Chambers, seats in the Lower House are not coveted as in England, and are not sought for by the same class of men? But need we go abroad? Though our national basis is not Democratic, we are by no means ignorant as to, or wanting in, Democratic institutions. We have our civic Corporations with their head, the Mayor, and their two Chambers—Aldermen and Common Council. We have also our Vestries.

Let us assume that some existing institution or practice is alleged to be objectionable.—It is obvious that one of three courses is open:—The matter may be left alone; it may be modified; it may be abolished. The fact that the matter can be dealt with in one of three ways almost necessarily brings into existence four parties, viz.:—those who deny the allegation; those who admit it, but decline to interfere; those who suggest modification or substitution; and those who advocate simply abolition. As no two persons can see any material object from the same point of view, it may be reasonably assumed that no two persons can regard an alleged fact from exactly the same point of view. There may be those who do not believe the allegation, who do not credit the evidence or appreciate the arguments adduced in support of the alleged defect. There must be those who believe the existing institution to be good; the mere fact that it has long existed goes far to prove that it was at one time good, *i.e.*, in the

sense of having been suitable to the wants of the particular community. It is not unreasonable for such to argue—If it was at one time adapted to the wants of the community and consonant with its notions, it cannot have become unsuitable and in consonant at a given moment. Another may say—Assuming it to be admitted that the institution had ceased to be as well adapted as formerly, that of itself is not sufficient reason for change; it may still be equally consonant with the notions of the general body. Another may say—Assuming it to be admitted that it is less adapted and less consonant than formerly, the double admission is not necessarily sufficient to justify change, for that to which we have become accustomed has to us advantages not lightly to be disregarded. Another may say—Though I am satisfied that the old has ceased to be suitable, is it clear that your suggested substitution warrants the change?—Is the suggested substitution suited, not merely to the moment, but to a future of such duration as to warrant the change; and with no small force might argue that change in the case of national institutions, creeds, or laws demands the most careful deliberation, and can never be justified by anything short of necessity.

As the result of the labour of ages, our forefathers have built, brick by brick, for and have bequeathed to us a system which provides ample checks to sudden political impulses and premature action, whether on the part of the Crown, the Lords, or the Commons. To explain them, reference must be made not merely to the struggle between the Crown and the Nobles, and between the Crown and the Commons, but to the origin and effect of party government.—*Educational Times.*

(To be continued.)

LETTERS TO YOUNG MEN AT COLLEGE.—II.

BY D. A. O'SULLIVAN, M.A., LL.B., BARRISTER-AT-LAW, TORONTO.

COLLEGE OR NO COLLEGE.

I ADDRESS myself to the boy at college, and whether he cares about the question or not, suppose I ask him: What business has he to be in a college? If he is not very smart he will probably say that is none of my business; but if he is sensible he will know that such a reply is not worth the trouble of saying it, and is beneath his dignity. He can be smarter than that when the occasion arises. One answer may be that his father is able to send him to college; that it is customary for boys to go to college to learn something; that he could learn no more at school; and that he wanted to be a *student* and not a *school-boy* any longer. Or he may say I want the training that a college is supposed to give. I want to enter the learned professions—go to a university—study for the Church, or the Bar, or other pursuit in life. I want to make a living by my brains and not by my hands. Or some one may be disposed to say, “I am going to have a good time. I needn’t concern myself about my living, as my father is all right, and can set me up in business any day, where it won’t matter if I couldn’t translate the first line of Cæsar. Lots of people make heaps of money without knowing the difference between a quadrant and a hydrant. I will have a good old time, and I can pull through easier than if I were at some school where my father would be inconveniently near to see how I got along.”

There are numbers of young fellows who should never have been a day

within college walls; and there are many who would be better off if they knew something of a rudimentary education before they were sent to college. A parent or guardian gets rid of his young boys or wards for two-thirds or more of the year by shipping them off to college, and so avoids the personal responsibility of bringing them up. They are off the street, he says; they will be well looked after; they will learn their religion; they will get a taste for something better than they see around them. And so he can have his conscience at rest and his evenings in quiet. I suppose that college authorities are not to blame—if blame there be in it—for taking hold of these young children of tender age, and for turning their institutes into boarding-houses for the young, where attention is paid to morals and education, and where no one able to pay is refused admittance. However, it is not with colleges I have to deal; it is with persons who go there to study; and the question here and now is not whether the college is fit for the boy, but is the boy fit for college, and what brings him there at all?

I do not believe that it is a good thing for a child to be brought up in a college, and so I think that children who have homes of their own ought to stay there and be looked after by their parents. There is a home education even before one in a class or a lecture-room. A child is not fit for a college—he should be in the nursery or at a school that is within reach of his father’s roof. I think that Lamb wrote sound advice about this. But

our young boy would be indignant were he classed as a child; if he belong not to that most beautiful and most loving of human groups, then we may dismiss that part of our enquiry.

Being no longer a child he has learned and has not forgotten the things every child should know. He knows the first principles of religion; reverences the name of God; can say his prayers and repeat the Commandments; knows his catechism, and has respect for God's house and God's ministers. He need not be instructed in his behaviour toward his superiors, or in his demeanour in church and before things holy; he has seen at home how gentlemen act at table, and the little courtesies of everyday life have already become as matters of course to him toward his companions at school. Further than this, he reads and writes well, need not be put at the first part of every book in the lowest class, and has some habits of order and industry about him. He is the sort of boy to whom you would expect to hand a prize at school, and he has that self-respect for himself which, when not carried too far, is one of the most promising traits in a young boy.

Every boy is not fit to be sent to college, because it is not every one for whom a college education is beneficial. Properly applied, a college training is a sort of polish that adheres only to material of fine grain. Culture does not adorn every nature, and except with the wealthy, for whom we are not concerned, the expensiveness of a college course should plainly indicate an expectation of some substantial return. Money should not be wasted in turning basswood into clockwork machinery. "You can't

fill any cup beyond what it will hold," says James Payn, "and the little cups are exceedingly numerous." There is a homely proverb ascribed to a homely queen to the effect that a silk purse cannot be manufactured out of a pig's ear. When the article is unquestionably of the pig's ear type, then a rich man may spend a fortune if he choose endeavouring to make something superfine out of it, but the sensible man will devote it to other uses. The professional man, the artist, or the scientist must have some of the elements of success in such professions—there must be some groundwork of ability to rest upon before he enters into an elaborate course of study fitting him therefor.

And so, if a boy has no fair expectation, that the result of a college course would help him to make a living, why, in the name of common sense, should he be found within the walls of a college, or what benefit is an attempt at superfine finish to his inferior abilities? It is as improvident to spend money in this, as it would be for a London shop-boy, to invest his earnings in a Windsor uniform. Even if the thing fitted, what prospects would he have, of being presented at a Royal drawing-room. The proverb of the Royal spinster, might be invoked afresh, to crush his plebeian insolence.

However, I am not going to fall out with anybody, and so, my clever young reader, fit as you are to be in a college, and with brains and capacity to make your living out of what they are going to teach you here, we will not raise any doubts about the propriety of your presence. What has been said, is intended more for fathers and mothers than for you. Your case is decided, and your appearance in college the best evidence of it.

EDITORIAL.

UNIVERSITY CONFEDERATION.

THE question of the federation of the Colleges of the Province, long hinted at and undoubtedly desirable, has during the past few months made notable progress. At recent gatherings of the representatives of the colleges interested in the scheme, most of the objections raised against federation were cleared out of the way. Whatever weight was attachable to these objections, the objectors themselves seemed to have vanished in presence of the strong and widely diffused feeling in favour of federation, and the general conviction that the step proposed to be taken was in the right direction. For a time, it was charged, that those who were moving in the matter had no definite plan in view beyond the rather hazy and sentimental idea of reproducing in Toronto the state of things that obtained in the great educational centres of Oxford and Cambridge. If this were ever true, the nebulous period soon passed away, and the well shapen, fully matured plan began to appear with its adjunct of cogent argument and weighty illustration of the benefits likely to accrue from putting the scheme into practical effect. That sentiment was, and probably still is, largely mixed up with the matter, need not be denied. As a mere matter of sentiment it is of no little moment that a cluster of colleges, each doing its own special educational work, and using in common the examinational system and degree-granting machinery of a great central university should be concentrated in the Provincial Capital. Here is the great intellectual centre of the Province, and here, if anywhere

within the region, are the conditions most favourable for obtaining the fullest advantages of university education. The impetus the scheme will give to the Provincial University, together with the increased prestige, is a matter not for jealousy but for mutual gratification, for, if all come into the scheme, all must derive advantages from the increased efficiency of the central institution; share in the benefits of the higher standard of examinations; and each institution receive a portion of the lustre that must fall upon its alumni who are distinguished by the degrees conferred by the great Provincial University. The setting apart of the Central Institution for its special functions of conducting examinations and granting degrees, must have no indifferent effect in raising the general standard of educational work done by the colleges that come into the university scheme. This of itself is no mean gain; and the general gain will be added to in the increased equipment of the Arts' Course in the proposed arrangement of professional work, and by what is sure to follow—a general invigorating and quickening of the educational pulse throughout all the Federating Colleges. The result of the scheme, moreover, must ensure the growth of an academic system more economical and efficient than is possible under the present plan of isolation. It will effect much if it secures this, and succeeds in enlisting a greater degree of lay interest and pride in the work of higher education. What University College has particularly suffered from is lack of popular interest in its aims and work. The federation scheme will rouse the public from its supineness, and edu-

cation, in all its grades, will be likely to receive a helpful and ever-increasing impetus, and a more intimate identification with the ambitions and aspirations of the national life.

There is, we believe, doubt of the scheme embracing Queen's University of Kingston, though decision on this point has not as yet, we understand, taken ultimate shape. Centralization can only effectively draw over a given area. There comes a point where its influences must lose their attracting power. When you get as far east as Kingston, the attracting influences of centres on the further side begin to draw, and you have two forces in operation of conflicting interest. The problem becomes difficult to solve, and other considerations arise, which carry increased weight in shaping the course of action. Just here is the *crux* for Queen's. More than any other outside college, has she local interests at stake, which demand serious deliberation before she commits herself to a decision. Like Toronto, Montreal, and other centres, she, from her geographical position, becomes a centre of her own, and to the area immediately about her, she owes the educational service which a vigorous, healthy, and long-established institution has in the past rendered, and in the present is still actively and efficiently rendering.

SCRIPTURE IN THE SCHOOLS.

THREE years since the President of the Ontario Teachers' Association took for the subject of his paper at the Annual Convention, the results of the various systems of education in the English-speaking communities in Europe and America. He examined more particularly those of the system in the United States of America as bearing directly on our own. The following year he took up the same theme, and pointed out the

unsatisfactory fruits of the school system in the United States, and also that these results would inevitably show themselves in Canada, the conditions being almost the same in the two countries. On both occasions, the members of the Association recognized the correctness of the sketch and the accuracy of the reasoning, passing resolutions affirming in cogent terms the danger impending, and asking that provision should be made to avert the evil, and secure a more healthy state of instruction in our Public Schools, especially in the important part of Bible reading.

The country responded. Many letters appeared and likewise many articles in the influential newspapers, most of them acknowledging the importance of the question under consideration, and urging the duty of having the Bible in all our schools without curtailing the reasonable liberty of any parent or scholar.

The matter was pressed on the attention of the Government in various ways, by deputations, resolutions of Synods, Conferences and General Assemblies. Apparently, on the part of the Government, there was reluctance to deal with the subject, for it has taken nearly three years to come to a decision. That decision we announced in the pages of this magazine last month. In this decision, though not all we wished, nor what the country asked for, we take much satisfaction. First, because the Ontario Teachers' Association took the initiative in the matter; and in the second place on account of the decision itself.

Every one who wishes true prosperity to this British Dominion, prays and labours for its permanent welfare, must rejoice in heart and spirit that the Government had to step out and affirm, at the request of the Christian people of this country, that the schools shall be opened with Bible reading and prayer. There is no mistake in

the word "shall;" and we feel most confident that the followers of Jesus—the true teachers and patriots—will take care that this law is obeyed in all our schools and schoolrooms. We take this decision as an omen for good, a sure and certain indication of the mind of our people on this most vital question for the upbuilding and moulding of the character of scholars and children. We congratulate the Government that they had the good fortune of passing such a law.

With the plan recommended for giving effect to this regulation, we do not agree in these particulars. 1. Apparently the scripture reading is to be in the evening, it should be in the morning. The work of the school should begin with an acknowledgment of dependence on our Master and Saviour by reading of Holy Scripture and prayer. This has been the general custom hitherto where this part of school duty has been attended to. Then, the scholars and masters are not worried with the school business, every one is fresh and in the best frame of mind to give proper attention to this pleasant part of the day's work.

2. "Where a teacher claims to have conscientious scruples against opening and closing the school as herein provided, he shall notify the trustees to that effect in writing." And what then? The trustees dismiss such a person from the school? Can any such be a teacher? How can he get his certificates of character? We hope no such teacher will be found in any of our schools.

3. The books of extracts to be provided by the Department for reading by the master in the schools. This to us appears a most humiliating arrangement. Surely teachers can be trusted with the Bible in the schools. Is the open Bible to be denied to the schools of Ontario? The Minister of Education must know the plan followed in Great Britain for Scripture

reading. A list of passages to be read is sent to the master, and he can use his Bible and his scholars theirs, and read as we do now in our Sabbath Schools. Ontario wants the same plain sensible mode of doing honest work, and we are mistaken or Ontario will have it. However, these are matters of detail and can easily be remedied; the principle has been affirmed, and the other necessary parts to make the work natural and effective will follow in due time.

JOHN WYCLIFFE.

1330—1384

PATRIOT, POLITICIAN, SCHOLAR AND
TEACHER.

DURING the past few weeks, Christendom has united to do honour to the memory of John Wycliffe, and the English speaking race has recalled with pride, the facts of his personal history, and dwelt lovingly upon his noble career.

Wycliffe's training for his great life work, was received at Oxford University, competent authority stating that at least twenty-five years were spent in preparatory work there in Arts, Theology and scientific study and research. His intellectual supremacy seems to have been unquestioned, and his religious opinions from first to last a continual growth and development; he alone in England, in his day, pointed out the anti-national tendency of the claims put forward by the Church of Rome, and in his first writings, boldly declared that "Dominion" belongs to God only. In thus publicly taking this stand and in his subsequent denial of transubstantiation, he became the first Protestant, and began the Reformation in England one hundred and fifty years before it appeared in Europe, and keeping the purity of the Church steadily in view, he supported John of Ghaunt in his

work of spoliation, believing that it would eventually, result in a gain of spiritual power to the Church.

In all his efforts, he was steadily opposed and persecuted by the ruling ecclesiastics of that time, but throughout, he received the continued support of his own Alma Mater, where he held positions of dignity and usefulness, first at Balliol and afterwards at Canterbury Hall.

During these days he wrote stirring appeals to the English nation, and trained "Simple Priests," who went through the country preaching and teaching and scattering the truth everywhere. His greatest work was the translation of the English Bible, a translation which has never been surpassed, and which justly entitles him to the high honour of being called "The Father of English Prose" and the first Schoolman of his day.

When past middle life, through the influence of his friend John of Ghaunt, he obtained the Curacy of Westbury, and still later, the Rectory of Lutterworth, where he remained till his death.

The unfortunate complications in connection with the rising of the Lollards (for which he does not appear to have been responsible) and the steady opposition of Archbishop Courtenay, increased as the end drew near, but confident that the truth would at last prevail, he passed away, and with his removal, religious freedom and intellectual life became extinct, at Oxford, to appear again, after many days, under Colet and Erasmus.

FORWARD !

THE six thousand teachers of Ontario are by this time busily engaged in their classes : from the experienced master, to the young teacher just from the County Model School, eager to enter on the trying and important work, of guiding the

sons and daughters of our Dominion in the ways of truth and virtue.

These toilers are found in the beautiful, substantial and well-appointed school buildings, of the cities and towns of Canada ; found in homely but comfortable school-houses, in many sections of broad Ontario ; these earnest workers are also found in the rude, ill-ventilated and poorly equipped school-houses, on corner lots, surrounded by snake fences, and near a wood for shelter from the biting north and north-west winds.

Glorious woods ! Breezy and exhilarating fresh winds ! how your memories cheer the spirit and rejoice the heart, tho' now remote.

THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY greets all these co-workers in the noble calling of enlightenment, sympathizes with them in their work, whether this is done in the more prominent positions, or in the quiet and obscure corner of the ever-widening field of educational work in our great Dominion. We hope the schools will continue to improve in organization, and take a firmer hold on the heart of the people, that the parents will manifest their deep and living interest in the true welfare of the country, by making a more ample provision for the comfort of teachers and pupils.

There is danger at the present time, that the best teachers will leave the profession and seek other engagements in which more money can be made. The interests of teachers are sadly neglected. If any economy in public expenditure is to be practised, the easiest and quietest way, is to cut down the teacher's salary, though already a mere pittance. The dearest of all saving is that obtained at the expense of the teacher.

Farmers, let the teachers live at your side in some comfort, let them have salaries on which they can live and lay by a little for the rainy day. Such treatment on your part is the

very best investment for the country and for your children. It will yield a hundredfold, bring back a rich harvest of intelligence and good manners. Try it; practice it.

Every encouragement should be offered to promising young men and women, to enter the teaching profession. We hopefully look to the Government to set the country a good example, by its just and even generous treatment of those who are, in an important sense, public servants. Let this be as it may, the duty of masters and teachers is plain. Forward! doing heartily and thoroughly the work that is intrusted to them, for the increase of honour, honesty and patriotism. Our sentiments are so truly voiced, in the following verses, that we print them as our watch-word:—

Courage, brother! do not stumble,
Though thy path be dark as night;
There's a star to guide the humble—
"Trust in God and do the right."
Though the road be long and dreary,
And the end be out of sight;
Foot it bravely, strong or weary—
"Trust in God and do the right."

Perish "policy" and cunning,
Perish all that fears the light
Whether losing, whether winning,
"Trust in God and do the right."
Shun all forms of guilty passion,
Fiends can look like angels bright;
Heed no custom, school, or fashion—
"Trust in God and do the right."

Some will hate thee, some will love thee,
Some will flatter, some will slight;
Cease from man, and look above thee,
"Trust in God and do the right."
Simple rule and safest guiding—
Inward peace and shining light—
Star upon our path abiding—
"Trust in God and do the right."

—Rev. Norman MacLeod, D.D.

Good Words.

THE CITY OF VANCOUVER.

THE place selected by the Canadian Pacific Railway Company as the Western Terminus of their Railway is situated on Burrard Inlet, about four miles from the entrance, and is at present known as Granville, the harbour being called Coal Harbour. It forms part of a small peninsula south of the Inlet and north of False Creek, distant about thirteen and a-half miles from New Westminster to the North-West. The Company having with some care made this selection propose to lay out a city and seaport there, and to name it Vancouver, after the great navigator who has given his name to the neighbouring island. The depth of water in Coal Harbour varies from eighteen to fifty-four feet; it is just past the first narrows, and in this respect has the advantage of Port Moody, the place originally selected, which is past the second narrows, and in whose harbour in the winter of 1883-4 ice of great thickness remained. A correspondent of the *Mail* of January 5th supplies many interesting particulars about the coast and the various places which might lay claim to consideration in the selection of a Terminus, pointing out the exceptional nature of all, but giving the preference to Granville. He quotes from a recent publication by an English traveller who gives a pleasing picture of the Inlet and its surroundings in sailing across at this point: "Our evening's row was charming. It was just like an Italian lake. The colour of the water was nearly, though not quite as blue, and everything looked perfectly calm and still. There was not a ripple on the water and the mountains all round were covered with forest from top to bottom. It was a grand sight to look fifteen miles down the Inlet."

The climate of Burrard Inlet is spoken of as being as delightful and

healthy as that of Victoria, the capital of Vancouver Island, which is so favourably known. The frontage of Coal Harbour is extensive and the advantages for draining excellent, the land gently undulating. Coal formations of the Tertiary Age are known to exist in the immediate neighbourhood. Timber consisting of maple, Douglas fir, hemlock and spruce is

abundant, and the advantages for future settlement are of no ordinary character.

The public will watch with some interest the opening up of this new outlet for Canadian Commerce and enterprise destined to form the connecting link on the west between the Old and New Worlds under British sway.

SCHOOL WORK.

MATHEMATICS.

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

SOLUTIONS.

SEE SEPTEMBER NO.

By W. J. Loudon, B.A.
U. C.

1. To show that $12n+5$ cannot be a perfect square.

1. $12n+5$ is an odd number, and to be a square must be the square of an odd number. Hence we would have, if $12n+5$ be a perfect square:—

$$12n+5 = (2p+1)^2 = 4p^2 + 4p + 1,$$

$$\text{or } 12n+4 = 4p^2 + 4p,$$

$$\text{or } 3n+1 = p(p+1).$$

That is, the product of two consecutive numbers would be of the form $3n+1$. But the product of two consecutive numbers can take only the forms:—

$$(3n-1)3n, \text{ or } 3M,$$

$$3n(3n+1), \text{ or } 3N,$$

$$(3n+1)(3n+1-1), \text{ or } 3P-1,$$

and can never take the form $3n+1$. Consequently, $12n+5$ can never assume the form $(2p+1)^2$.

SEE NOVEMBER NO.

2. If the circumference of one circle pass through the centre of another, any two chords of the second drawn from the points

of intersection so as to cut one another in the said circumference will be equal.

2. Let the two circles cut in A and D , the centre of the one C being on the circumference of the other. AB and DE cut in H , which lies on the arc ACD ; join DC , produce to meet circle in F and join FE ; join BC , produce to meet circle in G and join AG ; join AC . $\therefore$ angle CDH = angle CAH = angle CBA . $\therefore$ in the two triangles ABG , DEF , angle FDE = angle ABG , and angle BAG = angle DEF , also $DF = BE$, $\therefore AB = DE$.

3. A straight line meets the produced sides of a triangle ABC in A' , B' , C' , respectively; prove that the triangles ABB' , ACC' , $A'CC'$, $A'B'B'$ will be proportionals.

3. In triangle ABC , AB is produced to C' , AC to B' , BC to A' , and A' , B' , C' lie in the same straight line. Join BB' , CC' .

$$\therefore \frac{AB}{AC} = \frac{\sin C}{\sin B}, \quad \frac{AB'}{AC'} = \frac{\sin C'}{\sin B'}$$

$$\frac{A'C}{A'B'} = \frac{\sin B'}{\sin C'}, \quad \frac{A'C'}{A'B} = \frac{\sin B}{\sin C}$$

$$\therefore \frac{AB \cdot AB'}{AC \cdot AC'} = \frac{\sin C \sin C'}{\sin B \sin B'}$$

$$\text{and } \frac{A'C \cdot A'C'}{A'B' \cdot AB} = \frac{\sin B' \cdot \sin B}{\sin C \sin C'}$$

$$\therefore \frac{AB \cdot AB'}{AC \cdot AC'} = \frac{A'B' \cdot A'B}{A'C \cdot A'C'}$$

$$\therefore \frac{AB \cdot AB' \sin A'}{AC \cdot AC' \sin A} = \frac{A'B' \cdot A'B \sin A'}{A'C \cdot A'C' \sin A}$$

$$\therefore \frac{ABB'}{ACC'} = \frac{A'B'B'}{A'CC'}$$

4. Solve the equations—

$$\left. \begin{aligned} y^2 + z^2 + yz &= a^2 \\ z^2 + x^2 + zx &= b^2 \\ x^2 + y^2 + xy &= c^2 \end{aligned} \right\}$$

4. In these equations it will be found that the solution can be made to depend on r , where $r^2 = 3(a+b+c)(a-b+c)(a+b-c)$

x will have the value

$$\frac{3(b^2 + c^2 - a^2) + r}{3\sqrt{2(b^2 + c^2 + a^2 + r)}}$$

and y and z analogous values.

7. Solve the equation— $\tan(\cot x) = \cot(\tan x)$.

$$7. \tan(\cot x) = \cot(\tan x)$$

$$\therefore \tan(\cot x) = \tan\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \tan x\right)$$

the general solution of which is

$$\cot x = n\pi + \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \tan x\right)$$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{\tan x} = \frac{(2n+1)\pi}{2} - \tan x$$

$$\therefore \tan x + \frac{1}{\tan x} = (2n+1)\frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\therefore \frac{1 + \tan^2 x}{\tan x} = (2n+1)\frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\text{or } \frac{1}{\sin x \cos x} = (2n+1)\frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\therefore \sin 2x = \frac{2}{(2n+1)\frac{\pi}{2}}$$

$$x = \frac{1}{2} \sin^{-1} \left\{ \frac{2}{(2n+1)\frac{\pi}{2}} \right\}$$

$$\text{or } x = \frac{1}{2} \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{4}{(2n+1)\pi} \right).$$

8. If $x \cos(\phi + \theta) + y \sin(\phi + \theta) = a \sin 2\phi$ and $y \cos(\phi + \theta) - x \sin(\phi + \theta) = 2a \cos 2\phi$, then $(x \sin \theta - y \cos \theta)^2 + (y \sin \theta + x \cos \theta)^2 = \frac{4}{3}$.

$$\begin{aligned} 8. \therefore (x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta) \cos \phi - (x \sin \theta - y \cos \theta) \sin \phi - a \sin 2\phi &= 0. \\ (x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta) \sin \phi + (x \sin \theta - y \cos \theta) \cos \phi + 2a \cos 2\phi &= 0. \\ \therefore \frac{x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta}{2 \sin^2 \phi} - \frac{x \sin \theta - y \cos \theta}{2 \cos^2 \phi} &= \frac{a}{1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta = 2a \sin^2 \phi$$

$$x \sin \theta + y \cos \theta = 2a \cos^2 \phi$$

$$\therefore (A)^2 + (B)^2 = (2a)^2 (\sin^2 \phi + \cos^2 \phi = 1) = (2a)^2.$$

10. If a, b, c , the sides of a triangle, be in $H. P.$, then

$$\frac{\sin \frac{A}{2}}{\sin \frac{C}{2}} = \sqrt{\frac{\cos B - \cos A}{\cos C - \cos B}}$$

$$10. \frac{\cos B - \cos A}{\cos C - \cos B}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{c^2 + a^2 - b^2}{2ac} - \frac{b^2 + c^2 - a^2}{2bc}}{\frac{a^2 + b^2 - c^2}{2ab} - \frac{c^2 + a^2 - b^2}{2ac}}$$

$$= \frac{(a-b)(a+b+c)(a+b-c)}{(b-c)(b+c+a)(b+c-a)}$$

$$= \frac{a-b}{b-c} \cdot \frac{a+b-c}{b+c-a} = \frac{a-b}{b-c} \cdot \frac{s-c}{s-a}.$$

$$\text{But } \frac{\sin^2 \frac{A}{2}}{\sin^2 \frac{C}{2}} = \frac{s-b}{bc} \cdot \frac{s-c}{ab} = \frac{a}{c} \cdot \frac{s-a}{s-c}$$

and since a, b, c , are in $H. P.$, $\frac{a}{c} = \frac{a-c}{b-c}$,
 $\therefore$ etc.

11. Find for what values of a and c the expression $(a+c)^{\frac{1}{2}} + (c+a)^{\frac{1}{2}} > 2^{\frac{3}{2}}$.

$$11. a + \frac{1}{c} > 2 \sqrt{\frac{a}{c}}, \quad c + \frac{1}{a} > 2 \sqrt{\frac{c}{a}},$$

$$\therefore (a+c)^{-\frac{1}{2}} + (c+a)^{-\frac{1}{2}} > 2^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\sqrt{\frac{a}{c}} + \sqrt{\frac{c}{a}} \right)$$

$$\text{and } \therefore > 2^{\frac{1}{2}} 2^{\frac{1}{2}} \sqrt{\frac{a}{c}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{c}{a}} \\ > 2^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot 2^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

$\therefore (a+c)^{-\frac{1}{2}} + (c+a)^{-\frac{1}{2}} > 2^{\frac{3}{2}}$ for all values of a and c .

13. Show that the square described about a circle is $\frac{4}{3}$ of the inscribed duodecagon.

13. The area of one of the twelve equal triangles into which the duodecagon may be divided by lines drawn from the angular points to the centre of the circle will evi-

dently be $\frac{1}{2} r^2 \sin 30^\circ$, r being the radius of the circle.

$\therefore$ area duodecagon $= 12 \times \frac{1}{2} r^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} = 3r^2$, and area of circumscribed square $= 4r^2$. These areas are in ratio of 4 to 3.

PROBLEMS.

NEW SERIES.

1. Divide

$$3^m + 3^{m-1} + 1 - 3^{m-1} + 3^{n-1} + 1 \text{ by } 3^{m-1} + 3^{n-1} + 1.$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} 2. \text{ If } ax+by+c=0 \\ \quad bx+cy+a=0 \\ \quad cx+ay+b=0 \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{then } a+b+c=0, \text{ or} \\ a^2+b^2+c^2= \\ ab+bc+ca. \end{array}$$

$$3. \text{ If } p^2+q^2+r^2=6(s-p \cdot s-q+s-q \cdot s-r+s-r \cdot s-p) \text{ and } 2s=p+q+r,$$

$$\text{then } \sqrt{s-p} \pm \sqrt{s-q} \pm \sqrt{s-r} = 0.$$

4. The bisectors of the angles formed by the opposite sides of a quadrilateral inscribed in a circle are at right angles to one another.

5. If, through a given point within a circle, are drawn two perpendicular chords, the sum of the squares on these lines has a constant value.

6. A sphere is circumscribed by a cylinder, and an equilateral cone s' if S, s, s' be the total surfaces of the cylinder, sphere and cone, and V, v, v' be the volumes of the same three taken in order,

then $V = \sqrt{vv'}$ and $S = \sqrt{ss'}$ or, in other words, V and S are mean proportionals between v, v' and s, s' .

Solve the equations—

$$\begin{array}{l} 7. \quad x+2y+3z+4v=A \\ \quad x+2^2y+3^2z+4^2v=B \\ \quad x+2^3y+3^3z+4^3v=C \\ \quad x+2^4y+3^4z+4^4v=D \\ 8. \quad x+2y+3z+4v+5u=A \\ \quad x+2^2y+3^2z+4^2v+5^2u=B \\ \quad x+2^3y+3^3z+4^3v+5^3u=C \\ \quad x+2^4y+3^4z+4^4v+5^4u=D \\ \quad x+2^5y+3^5z+4^5v+5^5u=E. \end{array}$$

MODERN LANGUAGES.

Editors: { H. I. STRANG, B.A., Goderich.
W. H. FRASER, B.A., Toronto.

EXERCISES ON CHANGING AND COMBINING SENTENCES.

Selected from "Chittenden's Elements of English Composition;" published by S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago.

I. Change the infinitive or participial phrases in the following sentences to dependent clauses:—

1. I believed him to be perfectly honest.
2. Having regained the main road, we thought ourselves out of danger.
3. The Earl of Murray was recalled from banishment to accept the regency of the realm.
4. The general horror excited by the massacre of St. Bartholomew completed the ruin of the Catholic cause.
5. They brought her crosses and chaplets to be blessed by her touch.

II. Change the dependent clauses to words or phrases:—

1. He caught the wretch by the neck with a force that could not be resisted.
2. The first twenty years that Elizabeth reigned were a period of suspense.
3. As our friends are absent, we cannot come to a decision.
4. Those who were looking on broke forth into a shout in which every voice joined.
5. They decided that the attack should be postponed till the reinforcements that were expected had arrived.

III. Change the following simple sentences to compound ones:—

1. Stretching myself out upon the moss in the shade, I waited to see the result.
2. Sir Roger, being landlord to the whole congregation, is able to keep them in very good order.
3. Behind this wood, and separated from it by a high stone wall, was a fine orchard.
4. Many times she went to the door, watching and listening in vain.
5. On this cloth was a massive silver waiter with a decanter on it.

IV. Change the following compound sentences to simple ones:—

1. He started to his feet, and gazed bewildered at the child.

2. The birds alighted on the walks, and hopped about with perfect tranquillity.

3. A black veil was carefully adjusted over the crown of her cap, and fell in sharp contrast on the white folds about her neck.

4. The clock struck eleven, and the duke with his body-guard rode out of the castle.

5. Philip pressed the matter, and then Lord Burleigh took on himself to answer for his ministers.

V. Combine each of the following groups into one simple sentence:—

1. He passed in at the central door. He slipped softly over the floor. He knelt. His companion was with him. They knelt at the little altar of the Virgin. The altar was upon the left.

2. A priest passed out of the temple gates. He did this ten days before the festival. He was dressed in the livery of the god. He bore a bunch of flowers in one hand. He had a little flute of clay in the other.

3. The huntsman was brave. He was flushed with victory. He boldly dared the stranger to appear. He dared him to maintain his claim to the Queen of the Valley. The stranger wore a white jerkin. The beautiful Clothilde was the Queen of the Valley.

SENTENCES FOR CRITICISM AND CORRECTION.

1. In this way books are folded and stitched without being scarcely handled.

2. I pay freight on all machines I ship both ways myself.

3. Information wanted of one John Smith, whose mind is a little weak, but quite harmless.

4. Though small, the book contains a host of valuable information.

5. He said for us to leave it at the office if he wasn't at home.

6. It had been previously arranged that Mr. A. would occupy the chair.

7. Each of you are entitled to your share of the property.

8. The judge sentenced him to jail for disorderly conduct for ten days.

9. He had ought to be ashamed of himself for what he done yesterday.

10. The pupil must be trained to carefully note the difference between the adjective and adverb in such cases.

11. Mr. and Mrs. L., formerly a teacher in this vicinity, were visiting friends in F. last week.

12. I wish to impress on you that to repair a sewing-machine or any kind of machinery must be sent to the shop, where we have lathes, forges, and other articles required for the repairing of them.

NATURAL SCIENCE.

H. B. SPOTTON, M.A., Barrie, Editor.

QUESTIONS IN PHYSICS: BASED ON "HUXLEY'S INTRODUCTORY PRIMER."

D. F. H. WILKINS, B.A., B.Sc., Math. and Sc. Master, Mount Forest High School.

1. Explain the difference between *Inductive* and *Deductive*, giving examples of both from Algebra, Geometry, Arithmetic and Chemistry.

2. "Laws are not causes." Explain fully.

3. What are the principal Forces of Nature?

4. State the principal properties of water.

5. Shew that when a body is wholly immersed it displaces its own bulk of water, but when partially immersed, its own weight.

6. Explain "specific gravity."

7. If a body be at rest, is it so because no forces are acting on it, or because it is acted on by balanced forces, *i.e.*, forces in equilibrium. Explain by reference to two or more examples.

8. What are the three states of matter? How may we pass from state to state?

9. What is meant by latent heat, condensation, evaporation, solidification, sublimation?

10. If a body be at rest (*A*) on a smooth (*B*), on a rough, inclined plane, point out

the forces acting thereon, and draw coloured lines to represent their "lines of action."

11. "Evaporation produces cold, condensation heat." Give some facts in explanation of the above statement.

12. Explain fully what takes place when (A) alcohol and water (B), sulphuric acid and water are mixed; when (C) water is poured upon dry lime (D); a paste of "plaster of Paris," and water "sets" or hardens.

13. Give some illustrations of the difference between solution and fusion.

14. "In solidifying, a body condenses." What remarkable exception to this is presented by water?

15. What is meant by "the Conservation of Energy," "the Dissipation of Energy," and "the Indestructibility of Matter?"

16. What facts can be given to show that water is not an element?

17. Give some illustrations in proof of the statement that "heat is a mode of motion."

18. What is the present view regarding the Constitution of Matter?

19. "Heat and cohesion are antagonistic powers." Explain this statement.

20. Mention some facts which prove that "condensation evolves, and evaporation absorbs heat."

21. If five pints of alcohol be added to five pints of water, the mixture grows hot, and finally measures nine pints. Why?

22. If one pound of salt be dissolved in a gallon of water the mixture becomes cold and its density is changed. Explain fully why these take place.

23. Some solids which do not dissolve readily in bulk, do so readily when powdered; some which are insoluble in cold, are easily soluble in hot water. Explain these assertions.

24. "Water of crystallization." What, and why so called?

25. If a gallon of sulphuric acid weighing 18.46 lbs. be poured into a gallon of water weighing 10 lbs., the mixture will weigh 28.46 lbs., but will *not* measure two gallons. Why? What additional phenomenon will be noticed?

26. Copper dissolves readily in nitric acid

evolving heat, while it *absorbs* a large amount of heat in melting. Why?

27. Give as many familiar illustrations as possible of two, of three and of four forces acting on a body and keeping it at rest.

28. Distinguish between "water of crystallization" and ice.

29. What are the more important distinctions between living and non-living bodies?

30. Into what two great classes may the carbonaceous materials of organic bodies be divided?

31. State the relation between the vegetable and the animal kingdoms.

32. Tell as fully as possible what is known regarding "germination," or the growth of the plant from the seed.

33. Albumen, fibrin, casein, syntonin, protoplasm, chlorophyll, cellulose. What, and how distinguished?

34. Give some facts to prove that water presses equally in all directions.

35. Illustrate the statement "There is no such thing as chance."

36. Distinguish between mental and physical phenomena.

37. Hypotheses. What is their use?

38. Distinguish between gluten and vegetable albumen.

39. If a cork of a bottle containing ammonia solution be brought near an open bottle containing hydrochloric acid, white fumes of ammonium chloride are found in the air. What is the physical nature of these fumes?

40. If gum mastic or gum olibanum be dissolved in alcohol, and if to the clear solution water be added, a milkiness or cloudiness results. Why? Compare with the preceding question.

41. What organic constituents of the fowl and of the wheat are of similar composition?

42. Distinguish between "mass" and "weight."

43. Mention some illustrations of the "energy" of moving water.

44. Illustrate the growth of mineral bodies by the formation of crystals of alum, of sugar-candy ("rock-candy" of our own shops), and of ice.

45. "Water always seeks the same level." Illustrate this and mention an apparent exception to this law.

46. What effect on the boiling point of water is produced by adding salt thereto, and what effect on the freezing point by addition of alcohol?

47. Account for the presence of perpetual snow at high altitudes under the equator.

48. "The denser a liquid the slower the evaporation." Why?

49. How are "Laws of Nature" discovered?

50. (a) A glass of cold water being brought into a hot room has its surface covered with moisture.

(b) On a certain clear, starry, cold and dry night in winter, thermometer at 28°, the windows of a heated ball-room being suddenly opened, clouds formed near them.

(c) On some occasions clouds will be noticed hanging round the sides of mountains, while the top and the bottom are clear.

(d) The lower surfaces of clouds are invariably flat.

Explain fully the above phenomena.

NOTES.

Few people can have any notion of the tremendous effects produced by what is known as the "bore" of the River Amazon. Up to the present time, all that we have known of this extraordinary phenomenon is derived from the account given by the French astronomer, Condamine, who visited Brazil in 1735. In 1881, however, Mr. John C. Branner, of the Geological Survey of Pennsylvania, happened to be travelling on the Amazon, and availed himself of the opportunity to make some personal observations, as well as to obtain information from persons dwelling near the mouth of the great river. He has embodied the results in a paper of unusual interest in a recent number of *Science*. The natives, it appears, have a wholesome dread of the *pororoca*, as the "bore" is designated in the vernacular, and every sug-

gestion, on the part of Mr. Branner, of a desire to witness the *pororoca* in actual operation, was received with the liveliest demonstrations of horror. "God forbid," said the boatmen of the Amazon, "that we should ever see the *pororoca*." Mr. Branner, however, found a man who had been face to face with it, and certainly his experience was sufficiently exciting to satisfy the most adventurous spirit. The Araguay is a river which empties by a wide estuary into the Atlantic, immediately north of the mouth of the Amazon; the mouths of the two rivers may, in fact, be said to form but a single estuary. This man, who was a Brazilian soldier, had, with several companions, gone down the Araguay in an open boat, and as the tide went out they found themselves just inside a sand-bar which lies across the mouth of the river. They then proposed to avail themselves of the next incoming tide to carry them over the shallows and up the Amazon. We give Mr. Branner's words as to what followed. "Shortly after the tide had stopped running out, they saw something coming toward them from the ocean in a long, white line, which grew bigger and whiter as it approached. There was a sound like the rumbling of distant thunder, which grew louder and louder as the white line came nearer, until it seemed as if the whole ocean had risen up, and was coming charging and thundering down upon them, boiling over the edge of this pile of water like an endless cataract, from four to seven metres high, that spread out across the whole eastern horizon. This was the *pororoca*! When they saw it coming the crew became utterly demoralized, and fell to crying and praying in the bottom of the boat, expecting that it would certainly be dashed to pieces, and they themselves drowned. The pilot, however, had the presence of mind to heave anchor before the wall of waters struck them; and, when it did strike, they were first pitched violently forward, and then lifted, and left rolling and tossing like a cork on the sea it left behind, the boat nearly filled with water. But their trouble was not yet ended; for before they had emptied the boat two other

such seas came down on them at short intervals, tossing them in the same manner, and finally leaving them within a stone's throw of the bank. They had been anchored near the middle of the stream before the waves struck them, and the stream at this place is several miles wide." Mr. Branner then goes on to say: "But no description of this disturbance of the water can impress one so vividly as the signs of devastation seen upon the land. The silent story of the uprooted trees that lie matted and tangled and twisted together upon the shore, sometimes half buried in the sand, as if they had been nothing more than so many strings or bits of paper, is deeply impressive. Forests so dense that I do not know how to convey an adequate idea of their density and gloom are uprooted, torn, and swept away like chaff; and after the full force of the waves is broken, they sweep on inland, leaving the *debris* with which they are loaded heaped and strewn through the forests. The most powerful roots of the largest trees cannot withstand the *pororoca*, for the ground itself is torn up to great depths in many places, and carried away by the flood to make bars, add to old islands, or build up new ones. Before seeing these evidences of its devastation, I had heard what I considered very extravagant stories of the destructive power of the *pororoca*; but, after seeing them, doubt was no longer possible. The explanation of this phenomenon, as given by Condamine, appears to be the correct one; that is, that it is due to the incoming tides meeting resistance in the form of immense sand-bars in some places and narrow channels in others." The rapidity of the changes produced in the conformation of the region is little short of miraculous. Old islands are swept away and new ones formed in an incredibly short space of time. A case is mentioned of an island ten miles long and three miles wide which was not only formed but covered with a dense forest in less than six years! Mr. Branner is impressed with the conviction that the geological agencies at work in this region are well worth study and consideration.

CLASSICS.

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

ANTIBARBARUS.—(Meissner.)

(Continued.)

Day, before day, daybreak = ante lucem, not diem; at daybreak = prima luce. Day is breaking, *lucescit*; *illucescit* (dies), not lux fit.

Dear. Carus, or possessive pronoun, not amatus or delectus.

Debts, aes alienum, only used in sing.

Declamation (oratorical delivery). Pronuntiatio, not declamatio, which = an oratorical exercise for practice. So to declaim. Pronuntiare, not declamare, means to practice oratory.

Declaration of war. Belli denuntiatio, or through bellum indicere, denuntiare, not belli indictio.

Declare. Dicere, not declarare, which means make clear or evident by act. Declare war. Bellum indicere, not bellum declarare.

Deem worthy, dignum habere, ducere, judicare aliquem aliqua re, not dignari (which, by Cicero, is used only passively—e.g., *toli honore dignati sunt*).

Deep, figuratively, magnus, summus, et al. e.g., deep peace, summa pax; deep night, multa nox; deep (profound) learning, subtilis, exquisita doctrina, not profundus, which is used only of space.

Defunct, mortuus, not defunctus, as defungi in classical prose is not used absolutely for mori, but defungi vita means to end a life which has been full of trouble.

Deify, referre in numerum deorum, not in numero.

Depart to the war, proficisci ad bellum, not in bellum.

Depend on. Pendere ex, not ab; also not dependere (post-class., and unusual, only once in Livy).

Desire (greediness for). Cupiditas, not cupido, which is not used by Cicero.

Discontented. Sorte sua non contentum esse, also fortunae suae paenitere, not incontentum esse, which is not Latin,

Disdain to, nolle, non curare, *not* aspernare with inf.

Disobedience = immodestia, contumacia, *not* inobedientia (post-class.).

Disobedient, non oboediens, dicto non audiens, et al., *not* inoboediens (post-class.).

Dispute for and against. Disputare in contrarias partes, *not* pro et contra.

Dissertation. Disputatio, *not* dissertatio (which is post-class.).

Dissuasion. Dissuasio, *not* dehortatio (late Latin). But we may use dehortare aliquem ab aliqua re or ne.

Do we not see? Videmusne? *not* nonne videmus? so videsne? viditisne?

Doubt, without any doubt, sine dubio, *not* sine ullo dubio. On the other hand, sine ulla dubitatione, without any hesitation.

Dream, in a dream, per somnium, in somnis, per quietem, in quiete, *not* in somnio.

The East. The west as country, orientis, occidentis (solis), terrae, partes, regiones, gentes, *not* simply oriens, occidens. Eastward, westward, qua or ea pars quae ad orientem, occidentem (solem) vergit, *not* orientalis, occidentalis (post-class.).

Educated, vir or homo doctus, *not* doctus alone. While "a wise man" is sapiens (may be used without the homo), the wisest man, sapientissimus.

Election, to assemble for election, comitiis (ablat.) convenire, *not* ad comitia convenire.

Emigration, migratio, demigratio, *not* emigratio (post-class.). Emigrare may be used, however. Emigration or cessation of the Plebs, secessio in montem sacrum.

Emotion, animi motus, commotio, perturbatio, *not* affectus.

Employed, to be employed in something = occupatum esse in aliqua re, *not* aliqua re.

End, the end of the book. In extremo libro, *not* in fine libri. The end of life, finis vitae. To end, finem facere alicuius rei, conficere (bellum), *not* finire, which = limit or hem in.

Endowed (gifted). Bona indole (always in sing.) praeditus, *not* praeditus alone.—*Latine*.

SCHOOL WORK.

DAVID BOVLE, Toronto, Editor.

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT, ONTARIO.

DECEMBER EXAMINATIONS, 1884.

Admission to High Schools.

GEOGRAPHY.

Examiner—J. E. Hodgson, M. A.

1. Name and state the situation of the cities in Ontario. By what two railway routes may one proceed from Toronto to Ottawa? From London to Toronto? From Toronto to Woodstock? [16]

2. Name six countries of Europe and indicate their relative positions. Give the name and the situation of the Capital of each of them. [12]

3. Name the Zones and state the extent of each in degrees. Mention some of their respective natural products. [15]

4. Where, what, and for what noted are:—Manchester, Pittsburg, New Orleans, Chicago, Quebec, Washington, Champlain, Amazon, Superior, Pr. Edward? [15]

5. What are the principal exports of Canada? In what parts of Canada are they found? To what countries are they sent? [14]

COMPOSITION.

1. Give in your own words the substance of the following fable:—

A rustic saw an eagle in the snare,
And, as he much admired its beauty rare,
He loosed it from its fetters forth to roam:
Thence did the eagle a warm friend become
To its preserver. For, to avoid the heat
And catch the breeze, it saw him take his seat

Beneath a wall. It snatched, as o'er it flew,
A burden from his head, and this it threw
Far off. The rustic, eager to pursue
His pack, made for it. Down the walling fell,

And thus the rustic was requited well. [21]

2. Write a short note to a cousin, or friend, in Toronto, inviting him to spend a day with you. [14]

3. Combine the following sentences so as to form a connected story:—

There was once a sculptor. The sculptor's name was Bacon. Bacon, when a boy of five years, fell into a pit. The pit was the pit of a soap-boiler. A workman entered the yard. The workman observed the top of Bacon's head. The workman immediately rescued Bacon. [20]

4. Contract each of the following complex sentences in a simple sentence :

(a) When Cæsar had crossed the Rubicon, Pompey prepared for battle.

(b) As I had nothing else to do, I went away.

(c) If you remain here, you will suffer from cold. [9]

5. Correct the following :—

(a) It is equally as good as the other.

(b) There are but a few other similar places.

(c) Whenever he sees me he always enquires after my health.

(d) He does not know you better than John. [8]

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Examiner—John Seath, B.A.

1. *Having soon fallen under the King's displeasure for refusing to comply with his desire, the aged chancellor at once resigned his office and its many emoluments.*

(a). Analyze the above sentence. [4]

(b). Parse the words printed in italics.

2. Explain and illustrate the meaning of the following terms:—Part of Speech, Conjugation, Phrase, Clause. [7]

3. Construct sentences to show that each of the following words may be used as different parts of speech :—

dream, Canadian, what, more. [10]

4. Give all the inflected forms of each of the following words :—

man, he, this, love. [7]

5. Change, when possible, the form of each of the following adjectives, so as to express different degrees of the quality :—*cruel, white, dry, proper, gay, admirable.* [6]

6. Define "Transitive Verb," and show that, according to your definition, the verb in each of the following is transitive:—

James struck John, John was struck by James, and The tree was struck. [5]

7. Give the other principal parts of *spell, burst, froze, spread, lay.*

Why are they called "principal?" [8]

8. Distinguish the meanings of—*I wrote the letter, I have written the letter, and I had written the letter; I will go to-morrow, and I shall go to-morrow; He came late, and He came lately.* [7]

9. Correct, when necessary, the following, giving the reason in each case :—

(a). It is long since I have spoke my mind.

(b). I heard the man and woman's voice.

(c). James is taller than me and you.

(d). Don't he look the ugliest of his three brothers?

(e). Safety-matches will only take fire upon the box.

(f). Can I go to-morrow.

(g). Sit quiet in your seats.

(h). The school-board is in the room.

(i). Neither of us was there.

(j). The river has overflown its banks.

(k). He had'nt ought to do it.

(l). He feels some better. [24]

FOURTH BOOK AND SPELLING.

Ontario Readers.

1. Ruin seize thee, ruthless king;
Confusion on thy banners wait!
Though fanned by Conquest's crimson wing.

They mock the air with idle state,
Helm, nor hauberk's twisted mail,
Nor e'en thy virtues, tyrant, shall avail
To save thy secret soul from nightly fears,
From Cambria's curse, from Cambria's tears!

(a). Who is the king here addressed? Why is he called "ruthless" and a "tyrant?" [4]

(b). Explain "confusion," "banners," "mock the air," and "idle state." [5]

(c). As what is Conquest represented here? Why is the word spelt with a capital? Why is "Conquest's wing" described as "crimson?" [8]

(d). Write brief notes on "helm," "hauberk" and "twisted mail." [4]

(e). What "virtues" are meant? Why does the bard say "*even thy virtues*," "*secret soul*" and "*nightly fears*?" [10]

(f). Give the meaning of "*Cambria*" as used here. [3]

(g). What feelings should we express when reading the stanza? [3]

2. A little after midnight, the joyful sound of *Land! Land!* was heard from the *Pinta*, which kept always ahead of the other ships. As soon as morning dawned, all doubts and fears were dispelled. From every ship an island was seen about two leagues to the north, whose flat and verdant fields, well stored with wood, and watered with many rivulets, presented the aspects of a delightful country. The crew of the *Pinta* instantly began the *Te Deum* as a hymn of thanksgiving to God, and were joined by those of the other ships with tears of joy and transports of congratulation. They threw themselves at the feet of Columbus, with feelings of self-condemnation, mingled with reverence. They implored him to pardon their ignorance, incredulity and insolence, which had created him so much unnecessary disquiet, and had so often obstructed the prosecution of his well-concerted plan; and passing in the warmth of their admiration from one extreme to another, they now pronounced the man whom they had so lately reviled and threatened, to be a person inspired by heaven with sagacity and fortitude more than human, in order to accomplish a design so far beyond the conceptions of all former ages.

(a). Give for each of the following a meaning which may be put for it in the foregoing passage: "as soon as morning dawned," "aspects of a delightful country," "transports of congratulation," "obstructed the prosecution of his well-concerted plan," "sagacity and fortitude more than human," "in order to accomplish a design." [16]

(b). What had caused these doubts and fears?" [6]

(c). How had the crews shown their "ignorance," their "incredulity," and their "insolence?" Why did they now revere Columbus? [8]

(d). State in your own words how the foregoing passage explains "from one extreme to another." [6]

3. Under the following heads give an account of the destruction of Pompeii: The appearance of the city before its destruction; The sudden calamity; What excavators have discovered. [17]

CANADIAN READERS.

1. There was a sound of revelry by night,
And Belgium's capital had gathered there
Her Beauty and her Chivalry, and bright
The lamps shone o'er fair women and
brave men;
A thousand hearts beat happily; and
when
Music arouse with its voluptuous swell,
Soft eyes looked love to eyes which spake
again,
And all went merry as a marriage bell.
But hush! hark! a deep sound strikes like a
rising knell!

(a). Under what circumstances did the events here narrated take place? [5]

(b). Explain the meaning of "Beauty" and "Chivalry." Why are "Beauty" and "Chivalry" spelt with capitals? What is meant by saying that Belgium's Capital *had gathered*, etc.? [12]

(c). Explain "thousand," "voluptuous swell," "spake" and "again," as used here. [8]

(d). Why is "strikes" present tense while the verbs in what goes before are past? [4]

(e). What different feelings should we express when reading lines 1-8 and line 9? [4]

2. The Duke of Wellington left to his countrymen a great legacy,—greater even than his glory. He left them the contemplation of his character. I will not say his conduct revived the sense of duty in England. I would not say that of our country. But that his conduct inspired public life with a purer and more masculine tone I cannot doubt. His character rebukes restless vanity, and reprimands the irregular ebullitions of a morbid egotism. I doubt not that, among all orders of Englishmen, from those with the highest responsibilities of our society to those who perform the humblest duties—I dare say there is not a man who in his toil and his perplexity has not some-

times thought of the Duke, and found in his example support and solace.

(a). Give for each of the following a meaning which may be put for it in the foregoing passage: "revived the sense of duty," "inspired public life," "masculine tone," "irregular ebullitions," "morbid egotism," "found in his example support and solace." [16]

(b). Distinguish between "contemplation" and "sight." [4]

(c). Illustrate the meaning of "highest responsibilities of our society" and of "the humblest duties." [6]

(d). Why does the author not say that the Duke's conduct "revived the sense of duty in England?" [7]

(e). What lesson may *we* learn from the "contemplation of the Duke's character?" [6]

(f). Quote the lines from "A Psalm of Life" suggested by the above passage. [4]

3. Under the following heads give an account of Tom Brown and Arthur: Rugby School; Who Tom and Arthur were; What happened at school the first evening; How Tom felt when he went to bed; His determination, and the great lessons he had learned. [17]

Royal Readers.

1. What would *we* give to our beloved!
The hero's heart to be unmoved,
The poet's star-tuned harp to sweep,
The patriot's voice to teach and rouse,
The monarch's crown to light the brows?
"He giveth His beloved sleep."

What do *we* give to our beloved?
A little faith all undisproved,
A little dust to overweep,
And bitter memories, to make
The whole earth blasted for our sake:
"He giveth His beloved sleep."

(a). How in each stanza is the last line connected in sense with what goes before it? [4]

(b). Explain "our beloved," "star-tuned," "to light the brows" and "sleep." [6]

(c). State in your own words what we would give to our beloved? [8]

(d). Explain "all undisproved" "to overweep" and "blasted for our sake," [4]

(e). State in your own words what we give to our beloved. When are the gifts received? [7]

(f). Name the words in the first and the last line of each stanza that are to be emphasized. [4]

2. "The most beloved of English writers,"—what a title that is for a man! A wild youth, wayward, but full of tenderness and affection, quits the country village where his boyhood has been passed in happy musing, in fond longing to see the great world, and to achieve a name and fortune. After years of dire struggle, of neglect and poverty, his heart turning back as fondly to his native place as it had longed eagerly for change when sheltered there, he writes a book and a poem, full of the recollections and feelings of home—he paints the friends and scenes of his youth, and peoples Auburn and Wakefield with remembrances of Lissoy. Wander he must; but he carries away a home-relic with him, and dies with it on his breast. His nature is truant; in repose it longs for change, as, on the journey, its looks back for friends and quiet. He passes to-day in building an air-castle for to-morrow, or in writing yesterday's elegy; and he would fly away this hour, but that a cage and necessity keeps him.

(a). Give for each of the following a meaning which may be put for it in the foregoing passage: "Wayward," "happy musing," "to achieve a name and fortune," "the recollections and feelings of home," "paints," "His nature is truant," "building an air-castle," "elegy." [18]

(b). Distinguish between "longing" and "wishing." [5]

(c). Why is the "title" the author quotes a very great one? [4]

(d). Name the book and the poem referred to. [2]

(e). What is here meant by "a home-relic?" Explain "dies with it on his breast." [6]

(f). As what is Goldsmith represented in the latter part of the sentence? Why is he so represented? [5]

3. Under the following heads give an

account of the battle of Crecy: When the battle was fought; Why it was fought; How it was won; What was the result. [17]

4. Correct any errors in the spelling of the following, and divide into syllables the correct forms of the last two: lessen, watery, wintery, preceed, conceed, accommodate, parallel, Wednesday. [10]

COUNTY OF PEEL PROMOTION EXAMINATIONS.

Sixteenth Series.—December, 1884.

GRAMMAR.

Third Class to Fourth.

1. Divide the following into subjects and predicates, underlining the verb:—

- (a) What did he say?
- (b) May some kind angel clear thy path.
- (c) Give me that, Mary.
- (d) To what school do you go? [12]

2. Parse:—Milton, the English poet, wrote "Paradise Lost." Grapes that grow in France are delicious. [18]

3. Decline:—Ox, deer, city, I, she and which. Compare:—Ill, late, well, good, numerous and merrily. [12]

4. Define:—Case, Relation, Pronoun, Antecedent, Transitive Verb, and Infinitive. [10]

5. Write a sentence containing:—

- (a) A Verb in the Passive Voice.
- (b) A Noun in Apposition.
- (c) An Adjective Phrase.
- (d) A Predicate Nominative. [20]

6. Correct where necessary:—

- (a) I have got to finish this sum.
- (b) The railroad is forty mile long.
- (c) It was a wonderful kind act.
- (d) My right hand is the largest of the two.

(e) We mourn a brothers' death.

- (f) There was a man broke his arm last week.
- (g) He don't know nothing.
- (h) Was you there when he done it,
- (i) No; but I seen him when he run off.
- (j) There was only two in our class yesterday. [28]

READING.

(Note emphasis, expression, inflection, distinction of articulation, etc.)

Senior First Class to Second.

1. Page 52—"When George — brought him home," [30]

2. Page 66—"Who taps — snug rest" [20]

Second Class to Third.

1. Page 47—"Would you like? — he said." [35]

2. Page 207—"You don't know — see him do it." [40]

Third Class to Fourth.

1. Page 28—"Dear Master — to swing in." [35]

2. Page 287—"You have slept — her and you." [40]

WRITING.

Senior First Class to Second.

1. First Reader, page 44—Write seven lines at the beginning of the lesson.

Second Class to Third.

1. Second Reader, page 176—Copy exactly:—"Why, what's — attention to it." [20]

2. The teacher will mark for last ten pages in candidate's copy. [30]

Third Class to Fourth.

1. Third reader, page 272—Copy exactly:—"Midas shook — perfectly happy," [20]

2. The teacher will mark for last ten pages in candidate's copy. [30]

SPELLING.

First Class to Second.

(Value of Spelling Paper in each class, 100; four marks to be deducted for each error in spelling and one mark for each error in punctuation.)

(DICTATION—SLATES.)

Florence loved to sit and string roses and leaves into wreaths.

Each living creature bind.

Henry Bell's clothes were torn.

The sun gladdens all we see.

She could walk only with the aid of a crutch.

Gipsies and tinkers mend tea-kettles.

When I was in France I saw a full-grown bear.

The cobbler mended Mary's shoes.

Robert was too sick to stay, so he bade his aunt good-bye.

Sleigh, squirrel, pearl, lion's whelp, Mr. Carp, knife, sincere, nutshell, chose, minutes.

(To be continued.)

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

THE HUMAN BODY AND ITS HEALTH.
By William Thayer Smith, M.D. Ivison
Blakeman, Taylor & Co.: New York and
Chicago.

THIS is an elementary text-book intended for use in schools. The author never loses sight of the Hygiene of his subject, and his method of tabulating important facts as he proceeds will prove a valuable help to both teachers and scholars. He supplies an appendix containing concise and useful instructions in some cases of accident. The style of the book is suited to the capacity of ordinary scholars, and its mechanical execution is all that could be desired.

PHYSIOLOGY, HYGIENE AND NARCOTICS.
By Charles K. Mills, A.M., M.D., etc.
Eldredge & Brother: Philadelphia.

THE plan and style of this work does not differ materially from that of the preceding one. Its hygienic character however appears more at the end, where we find one chapter devoted to valuable hints on "Hygiene, Accidents and Poisons," and another to the effects of alcohol, tobacco and other narcotics upon the human frame. A unique feature of the book, and one that will greatly aid in its systematic study, is the syllabus that follows each chapter, giving a summary of its contents.

COMPREHENSIVE ANATOMY, PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE. By John C. Cutter, B.S., M.D., etc. J. B. Lippincott & Co: Philadelphia.

THE author of this work is a son of Calvin Cutter whose book on the same subject did valuable service in Ontario for many years. It is altogether of a higher character than the two preceding works, and as an elementary text-book on physiology stands in our estimation second only to Huxley's. The author shows himself master of his subject, and deals with it as only a master can. In anatomy he gives valuable directions to those who wish, by dissection, to become practically acquainted with the subject. The

latest and most reliable information is given in physiology, and when reliable information with regard to the function of any organ cannot be given, the author inspires the student with confidence in his teaching by frankly admitting the fact. In regard to hygiene he never loses an opportunity of giving valuable health hints, and his remarks on alcoholism are as much a special feature in this as in the two preceding works. The chapter at the end containing instructions how to act in "the care of sick and emergent cases," is by its excellence and copiousness quite in keeping with the other parts of the book. While the two previous works are well fitted to be put into the hands of scholars in our public schools. Mr. Cutter's book is more suited for teachers, and students in our high schools. Like the two previous ones it is copiously illustrated and carefully printed. One mistake we noticed which evidently has escaped the author's attention. It occurs in the following sentence at the top of page 101: "But now, passing from the left ventricle, and flowing through the capillaries of the system at large, it (the blood) returns to the left auricle." It should be *right* auricle.

FIRST LESSONS IN MINERALS. (No. xiii. of the Guides for Science-Teaching, Boston Society of Natural History). By Ellen H. Richards, Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co., 1884.

THIS admirable pamphlet of fifty pages is well adapted for use in the higher classes of our Public Schools and junior classes in High Schools. The first half is devoted to a brief and simple discussion of the more commonly occurring elementary bodies, both mental and non-mental, and the latter part to compounds of two and three elements. The lessons are given in nearly the same form as that found by experience in the schools of Boston to be most advantageous. It would be difficult to improve upon them. They form an excellent introduction to any of the ordinary works on Mineralogy.

LESSONS IN CHEMISTRY. By William H. Greene, M.D., Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1884.

THIS is one of the very best text-books on Elementary Chemistry with which we are acquainted. The author is evidently a man of experience in the work of science-teaching, and the soundness of his views thereon may be judged from the following extracts from his preface: "The object of a limited course in chemistry is not to make chemists of the pupils, but to teach them what chemistry is, what it has accomplished, and what it may accomplish. No greater mistake can be committed than to endeavour to make the facts of chemistry dependent upon its theory. Chemistry is peculiarly a study of observation, and it should be taught as it has been developed, first by the careful examination of facts, then by the theoretical explanations suggested by those facts." The common sense views thus laid down have been steadily adhered to throughout the book, the literary style of which is, by the way, exceedingly good.

A noticeable feature of the work is the very considerable space devoted to the carbon compounds, the treatment of which, though not by any means exhaustive, is sufficiently full to give the young student a very fair conception of this important field which is now engaging the attention of so many practical men.

The practical suggestions in the appendix, in regard to the preparation of experiments, will be found very useful to the teachers.

A TREATISE ON ELEMENTARY TRIGONOMETRY (new edition revised).

A TREATISE ON HIGHER TRIGONOMETRY. By the Rev. J. B. Lock, M.A. MacMillan & Co., 1884.

Of the former of these two works we have already had occasion to speak favourably when noticing its first edition. In the present edition, "a short course has been indi-

cated for the use of students who wish to reach the solution of triangles as early as possible;" there is added also a good and brief selection of questions on the solution of triangles.

The more advanced treatise completes the subject, as it is usually read in our schools and colleges. The author is to be congratulated on the compact and comprehensive manner in which he has presented the subject, combining the best features of Colenso and Todhunter in their similar works; giving and also explaining several terms lately introduced, such as the hyperbolic sine and cosine. Geometrical illustrations are happily introduced, and the reader will find quite a number of fresh problems for solution.

STORIES FOR YOUNG CHILDREN. By Elizabeth A. Turner. Ginn, Heath & Co., publishers: Boston, New York, and Chicago.

THIS little book, like all the work of Ginn, Heath & Co., is beautifully printed and gotten up. It is intended as a kind of supplement to the ordinary reading books in primary classes.

CLASSICS FOR CHILDREN, The Water Babies, A Fairy Tale for a Land Baby. By the Rev. Charles Kingsley. Edited and abridged by J. H. Stickney. Ginn, Heath & Co.

SIX volumes of the "Classics for Children" have already been published, including "Robinson Crusoe," "The Merchant of Venice," and "The Lady of the Lake." We sympathize very strongly with the object of the series—to introduce school-children between the ages of nine and fifteen years to good English literature, and thereby to cultivate their taste and give them a love for the best kind of reading. It is just what we all want. No words of ours are needed to praise the work of Canon Kingsley. "The Water Babies" is a fine story; and, though we do not altogether like the editor's "abridgments," after all they are unimportant.

SAND PLAINS ON THE OTTAWA RIVER.—It may be new to some of our readers to hear that in the northern part of the Ottawa Valley there are many sand plains, varying in extent from half an acre or even less to

an immense area measured by miles. These plains have probably been formed in the course of ages by the washing down of sand which is constantly accumulating on rocks and in the beds of rivers.—*Exchange*.

NOTES.

CANON LIDDLE is at work on a biography of Dr. Pusey, from which much is expected.

WE enter hopefully upon the New Year. We commend THE EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY—the teachers' magazine—to the profession. We endeavour to supply such reading matter as will be useful to the teacher, not only in the class, but in daily life, and we confidently rely on their support and patronage.

PLANETS IN JANUARY.—“Mercury, Venus and Uranus are morning stars during the month. Saturn, Neptune and Mars are evening stars, but Mars is so near the sun as to be hidden in his rays. Jupiter rises in the north-east about nine in the evening, appears very bright and is visible the entire night.”—*Exchange.*

SOME time ago efforts were made to do something by way of commemorating the life and labours of the Rev. Dr. Ryerson, but of late the whole affair seems to have dropped out of sight. Was not a committee formed to solicit subscriptions? Who were those that composed that committee? What have they done? How much money have they collected, and what are they going to do about it? Speak up, gentlemen.

BRITISH EDUCATION.—The result of the Queen's scholarship examinations, qualifying candidates for admission into training colleges or for the office of teacher, has just been made known by the Education Department. 2,197 males presented themselves for examination in England, Wales and Scotland, of whom 393 were placed in the first class, 829 in the second, and 217 in the third, while 758 failed. Of the 3,515 female candidates examined; 714 were placed in the first class, 1,372 in the second, and 318 in the third, while the failures amounted to 1,111. These results show that about one-third of both male and female candidates failed to pass the Government examination.

THE teachers of Hamilton at their last general meeting, held on the 18th of December, unanimously passed the following resolution in regard to Mr. Smith's resignation of the City Inspectorship:—

“Moved by Mr. G. W. Johnson, seconded by Miss Emma Daville, that we, the teachers of the Hamilton Public Schools, having learned that the City School Inspector, Mr. J. H. Smith, has resigned that position, avail ourselves of this opportunity to tender him our sincere thanks for the generous aid and valuable advice with which he ever cheerfully and promptly responded to all our appeals, and to assure him that we shall always cherish pleasant recollections of his visits, and to wish him abundant success in all his future career.”

A CORRESPONDENT in Virginia favours us with some interesting information about the “Old Dominion.” “There are large areas of fertile soil in the Old Dominion, but the State and perhaps most of the Atlantic slope may be divided into three belts, viz.: tide water, intermediate, and piedmont or mountainous, the first being particularly adapted to corn, melons, potatoes, peanuts and sweet potatoes, but unhealthy though productive; the second more adapted to wheat and grass, and generally not fertile; the piedmont unsurpassed anywhere for grazing and growing grain. We had a very dry, open season until last Thursday, when the mercury went down nearly to zero at one bounce; that is one unpleasant feature of this climate, the changes are so sudden and violent. I am satisfied from my experience in Virginia that even farther south a person would suffer almost as much with cold as in Canada; the mercury fell to 22° below zero during the last days of December in 1880.”

A COMMISSION of five gentlemen, citizens of the State of New York, was appointed some time ago to make arrangements for establishing the Niagara Falls Park. Every one will be interested to hear that their

labours are so far advanced that the Legislature of the State of New York is to be asked, at its next session, to set apart \$1,400,000 as compensation to the property-owners for the land to be expropriated in order to form the Park. The State of New York does itself great honour by taking up the project in the way it has done, not only wishing to preserve one of the wonders of the world from desecration, but to make it free to others besides rich tourists. It is said that most of the property-owners are satisfied with the proposed compensation, although they claimed more than three times as much. We hope that our own legislators will not allow the project of an International Park at Niagara Falls to drop. Every year that passes will add to the necessity for it and the difficulty of carrying it out, and it will be not only a graceful and public-spirited act, but a real benefit to the country.

At the December meeting of the Board of Education for Hamilton Mr. J. H. Smith tendered his resignation as Inspector of the Public Schools of the city, and Mr. W. H. Ballard, M.A., Mathematical Master in the Collegiate Institute was appointed to the vacant Inspectorship. This change was chiefly brought about by a strong feeling entertained by certain members of the Board that the whole time of an Inspector should be devoted to the work of the Public Schools. With this view we are cordially in sympathy, as we believe that in a large and prosperous city like Hamilton there is work enough in the Public Schools to occupy the entire time of an Inspector. The change thus made is a change of system and not simply of men. In 1879, at the death of the late Mr. Macal-lum, it became necessary to appoint an Inspector. Certain leading members of the Board, thinking the time favourable, prepared a scheme by means of which it was proposed to put the entire school system of the city practically under the management of one person. To accomplish this purpose, the city was divided into four districts with a Head Master over each district; the Principal of the Collegiate Institute was made

Principal of the Public Schools as well, and to meet the requirements of the school law an Inspector was appointed who was required to devote a specified time in each half-year to the inspection of the Public Schools of the city. This plan has been in operation for upwards of five years, and while it has much to commend it, it has not proved satisfactory to many of the citizens of Hamilton, and hence the change.

In Mr. W. H. Ballard, the newly-appointed Inspector of Public Schools for Hamilton, the Board have secured the services of an eminent educator, and one whom we have every reason to believe will render valuable service in his new field of labour. For many years past he has been Mathematical Master in the Collegiate Institute, and the record of that school shows conclusively that in the department of mathematics he has few equals as a teacher. During a number of years in succession the pupils trained by him have won the highest honours at the Senior and Junior Matriculation at Toronto University. Though a specialist in mathematics, he has not neglected other departments of our educational work. He has taken an active part in all the Teachers' Conventions that have been held in Hamilton, and in some of those held in the adjoining counties as well. We have, therefore, every reason to believe that he will make a successful Inspector, and congratulate the Board upon their judicious choice and Mr. Ballard upon entering his new field of labour.

WE often feel great professional sympathy for the isolated country teacher, who has perhaps from twenty to fifty pupils, from those who can hardly speak plain to those who can do questions in Interest. Teachers who have charge of one graded class, though they have their difficulties, have much to be thankful for. It is often in the classes reading in say the Second and Third reading books that the trouble of introducing a proper course of study begins. Nevertheless, do not let yourselves be discouraged, even though some of your precious pupils do not

want to study grammar, and "pa" or "ma" say they need not, because it will be no use to them. You know what ought to be done and how a school ought to be managed, and if you only make the attempt in the right way you will get support in carrying out the course of study which your experience and knowledge of your profession will enable you to frame. Written examinations sometimes help, and written work of various kinds. Music and Drawing are not to be forgotten—the change of work is grateful, and they will interest the children. If the teacher takes an active, pleasant interest and pride in his work, so will the children—he can help them to be better and more useful men and women; they can help him in many ways, and in spite of difficulties and disadvantages they will not go without their reward.

OBITUARY.

During the past year the inevitable messenger, Death, has summoned more than one scholar from the scene of his earthly labours.

Among these none was better known to Canadians than Dr. Howe, lately of Newington College and formerly of the "Old Grammar School," now the Toronto Collegiate Institute. Those who knew him will remember his amiable and truthful disposition and the high principle which characterized all his acts—in college days at Dublin his fellow-students used to call him "the Israelite in whom there is no guile."

The degrees of M.A. and LL.D. were bestowed on him by his Alma Mater in 1859, when he visited Ireland for that purpose, accompanied by Dean Boomer. He also obtained an honorary degree in Sydney. We are fortunately able to present our readers with the following sketch of Dr. Howe's life:—

Michael Callanan Howe, LL.D., was born in Tipperary County, Ireland, and adopted at an early age by his mother's brother, Dr. Callanan, who held the high position of President of the College of Surgeons at the time of George the Fourth's visit, and declined knighthood at the hands of that prince.

His uncle being unmarried, a rigid martinet, and at the head of the medical profession, his house was the resort of the talented and rising men of the city, who, under no social restraints, often set a bad example to the lonely country lad. Galled by the harsh treatment of his relative and ambitious to be independent of him, he ran away and entered Trinity College, Dublin, as a sizar, for which he was disinherited, and in place of £100,000 sterling, was cut off with his uncle's watch and a few classical books. He obtained his scholarship in due time, and left college to study medicine, for which he had an inherited taste; he had almost finished his medical studies when he offered himself for the position of Classical Master in the Royal Belfast Academical Institution, and was appointed out of forty candidates, of which the late Dr. Connors, of Upper Canada College, was one. During his residence in Belfast he married in 1851, and four months after resigned his lucrative and honourable position in consequence of the fees of the classical pupils being lowered.

He sailed for Canada, May, 1851, and was appointed to the Cayuga School, which he retained six months, and was then offered Galt School, where he remained one year, having been requested to take the Toronto Grammar School, on the demise of Mr. Crombie. On leaving Toronto in 1866 he went to Australia, where he filled the position of Head Master of Newington College, Parramatta, for many years till obliged to resign from ill-health, which resulted in his death on the 3rd of August, 1884.

EXAMINATION HUMOUR.

NATIONAL Exchequer is the person who collects all the cheques which belong to the nation.

HABEAS Corpus Act enacted that no woman or descendant of a woman should sit on the throne of France, 1679.

THE Declaration of Rights is that any man can vote for whoever he wants to without its being known.

OLIVER CROMWELL was protector, he was found to be extravagant and he was executed.

NATIONAL Exchequer is the person who attends to the money matters of the nation.

EXCHEQUER means cashier of all Britain's money.

The above are selections from answers given by pupils at the recent Entrance Examination for High Schools.