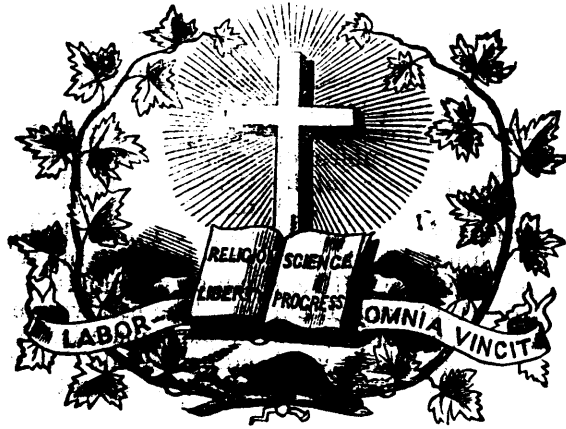


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Examination Papers.

Read by the Revd. R. H. Quick before the College of Preceptors.

In one of Artemas Ward's wildest burlesques, there is an account of the "Pirate of the Canal," who struggles against modern improvements and increasing centralization, till, like another Götze von Berlichingen, he falls in the unequal combat, and dies exclaiming, "We are over-governed!" Similarly, in these days, the professional existence of a schoolmaster must often close with a similar cry, giving the main conviction which is the outcome of many years of suffering, "We are over-examined." In the future, perhaps, if not already, examinations may be regarded as the final cause of existence, and the human race may be conveniently divided into two classes, the examined and the examiners. This growing passion for examinations has often been discussed, and its dangers pointed out, by men who are

sure to command, attention, and I do not to-night propose adding my feeble voice to theirs. I shall accept the prevalence of examinations as I accept the prevalence of east winds during the "ethereal mildness" of our English spring. But as some prying persons have thought of getting behind the east wind, so I should like to get behind the examiners.

One of the most remarkable things about our system of examinations is our implicit trust in the examiners.

In Prussia, if much depends on the examination, there are all kinds of checks and counter-checks. The marks and papers are sent to a superior authority, and hostile criticism from this authority is, I believe, not uncommon; so carelessness, or even want of system, is impossible, for the examiners are themselves examined, and their decision may be set aside. But here it is not so. The examiner shuts himself up with a mass of papers, brings out his list, and sells the papers at so much a pound. At times we may be astonished at the amount of the labour knocked off, and we may be tempted to exclaim with Hamlet (though, of course, without the irreverent mind which could see any similarity between the mole and the examiner),—

"Can't work in the earth so fast?"

But the results, whatever they may be, are never questioned and any English examiner would think himself insulted if he were called upon to justify his decisions. In one way this implicit confidence in our examiners is a very healthy sign. It is proof positive that we can trust the English gentleman to do what is fair between man and man without the slightest bias of any kind of favouritism. But although our confidence in the perfect integrity of our examiners is most assuredly not misplaced, I think the art of examining—a very difficult and an increasingly important art—would make much greater progress if there were more consultation among examiners, and more discussion and comparison of the different ways by which they arrive at their conclusions.

A most valuable contribution has lately been made to our knowledge of the art of examining, by the publica-

tion of Mr. Henry Latham's book on Examinations. I wish other examiners would work in his spirit, and tell us about aims and methods of examining as he has done. His work so interested me, that I thought the subject of it, even when treated in a very inferior manner, might interest you; but one's time both in preparing and giving a lecture, is necessarily very limited, and I must this evening confine myself to a few hints which suggest themselves to me from my own experience. If I am to say anything useful. I must talk about what I am practically familiar with. Now I have for many years been teaching and examining boys below 16. Beyond that age I have had a little to do which them, so I wish you to consider my remarks as referring to the examining of young boys or girls only.

I said just now that I should like to get behind the examiner. This is sometimes impossible, but there is one examiner we may know a good deal about if we will take the trouble, viz., ourselves. Every teacher spends a great deal of his time in examining; and, in fact, his skill in teaching depends to some extent, to a large extent indeed, on his skill examining. Our subject to-night does not include *vicâ voce* questioning, but only examination papers; and these are set, or should be set, from time to time by the person who gives the instruction. At the end of every stage in the journey—before the holidays mostly—there is an examination by writing. In some schools the masters examine each other's forms; in some cases, an external authority is called in; and occasionally; though very seldom I should hope, the labour is divided,—the instructor does not to set the papers, but only marks the answers. I do not think I ever heard of the teacher setting the questions and some one else marking the answers. It is thought, I suppose, that in this case the master would set only those things which he knew the boys to be familiar with. But I am inclined to maintain that, if the questions are set by one man, and the answers looked over by another, the teacher should set the questions. Whatever the subject, the area of possible knowledge is always too great for the young to be familiar with every part of it, and nothing is more vexatious and discouraging, both to teacher and taught, than for some one who knows nothing of the teaching given, to come and propound a set of questions which lie just outside those portions of the subject that have been specially dwelt upon. There is, I admit, a grave objection to one man's asking the questions, and another looking at the answers. No one takes proper interest in the answers except the proposer of the question; and yet it seems to me so important that the questions should follow the teaching, that, in all cases where the examiner is not the teacher, I would have him procure from the teacher a set of questions, and choose from them about as many questions as he sets out of his own head. In this way he will get some notion beforehand of the main lines of the teaching, and if he finds a very strongly marked difference between the answers to the teacher's questions and the answers to easy questions of his own, he will be able to pronounce that the teacher has worked too much in a groove.

But whether, the final examination is in his hands or not, the teacher should from time to time give his pupils a paper on the subject they are studying. But papers must be set, and for the most part looked over, out of school; and here comes in the obstacle of laziness, (or, to use the objective rather than the subjective name, want of time,) which teachers, as far as I have observed, are not more exempt from than others mortals. The day for the paper is fixed long beforehand, but the teacher persuades himself he can go to work and set it at some

odd time before it is wanted. So he puts off till he can put off no longer, and then he sits down and dashes off a paper, asking just what comes into his head at the moment. I think I have got behind the examiner here. Certainly I must plead guilty to having often and often under-estimated the time it would take me to set a paper so that I have had great difficulty in finishing it, and then have left in my hurry some portions of the subject which my pupils certainly ought to have been examined in. The best way to avoid the danger is, I believe, to prepare material for the paper although one's teaching. To do this properly, we must have made up our minds what sort of questions we are going to ask; we must have arranged our different types of questions, and we can then collect good questions under the various headings. I shall perhaps explain my meaning best by taking a particular subject. Suppose we are reading a foreign book with our pupils. We have several objects before us. First, we wish to exercise our pupils' intelligence; secondly, we want to confirm and advance their knowledge of the grammatical construction of the foreign language; thirdly, we wish to fix in their minds all the important words or idioms that occur in our author; fourthly we must see that they enter into the meaning of the book they are reading, and can give a clear account of every passage, even of passages difficult in expression or allusion.

This is by no means an exhaustive account, but some such scheme of objects we should always settle beforehand. Our examination paper is to test, as far as may be, our success in each of these particulars. The intelligence of our pupils will be tested by questions of very different kinds; though how far we have contributed to its development, must always remain undecided. Questions will occur to us from time to time which cannot be answered by mere memory, and such questions we should carefully treasure up till they are wanted. Other questions will occur to us in great numbers, and well should enter them in a note-book under various heads, either when we are preparing to give a lesson, or, perhaps better still, when we have given it. I may say in passing, that if the teacher mark his own book, this will often save his time in thinking of *viva voce* questions, and will also enable him to ask the same question again and again—a most important point in teaching. But it would be unwise to mark in a book which must be left about, the pieces especially good for setting in the examination; and besides, our questions had better be registered under their proper categories. How should we test our pupil's knowledge of the grammatical structure of the foreign language? Not, most assuredly, by asking, as examiners are too prone to ask, about some anomalous words which are seldom seen except in grammars or examination papers—the use of the regular plural of the French word *œil*, *e. g.*, or the gender of *teges* in Latin, a word which some old grammarian has done a disservice to the human race by mentioning as a feminine, though it does not occur with an adjective in any extant author. The tendency to ask what nobody should try to remember,—to ask, *e. g.*,

“How many notes a sackbut has,
And whether shawms have strings,”—

is the besetting sin of examiners. In history, geography, and kindred subjects, a defence of this practice has been attempted. If, it has been argued, the examinee knows unimportant things, he must *à fortiori* know the important. But, allowing this to be true, the practice is still utterly unjustifiable. We want to encourage intelligent study, and the examiner has no right to ignore results,

and to ask questions which throw all study into confusion, give a factitious value to trifles, and thus injure the student's power of selecting what is really important. But, in examinations on language, not even this miserable defence can be set up for asking about mere eccentricities. These things are often better known to school children than to scholars who can use the language. As I have said, a piece of knowledge considered essential for schoolboys, viz., the knowledge of the gender of *teges*, would not be acquired in reading through the whole of the Latin classics. Of course I admit that "*exceptio probat regulam*"—not indeed in the ridiculous meaning, or no-meaning, sometimes attached to those words by people who are foolish enough to suppose that a rule is established by the production of instances in which it does not hold; but *exceptio probat regulam* is true in this sense, that by the statement of an exception as such we show the rule. If we say, "There were 10 sheep in the field, and one of them was black," this saves us the trouble of asserting fully that nine of them were white, and one black. Thus the mention of exceptions as the rule. In the same way the learning of exceptions as such is often a good way of learning a rule, and it is probably easier to remember that *arbor* is the only feminine word ending in *or*, than it would have been to remember that no feminine ended in *or*. I would therefore by no means exclude questions about peculiarities; but they should not be made much of, and they should always be given in such a way as to test the pupil's knowledge of the important thing, viz., the usual. If we set the declining of *domus* in Latin, or of *Hertz* in German, we find whether the pupils have learnt about those special words, but we do not test their knowledge of anything beyond. Failure in this case is of little importance. But if we take words which belong to a large class, say *amicus* or *Freund*, a breakdown here will be a very different matter. Our chief rules should be, as in other subjects—first, to ask about things really important, and next to put the greater part of the questions in such a form that the ordinary candidate may be likely to answer them. If the examination be a pass examination, all the questions should be of this kind; but where the relative position of the pupils must be determined, some more difficult questions may be necessary. The easiest questions, however, will often scatter the pupils more than the inexperienced would believe.

In arranging beforehand for good grammatical questions, we should make a collection of typical questions. These typical questions should refer mainly to classes of words, and only to such special words as are essential, e. g., the pronouns and the auxiliary verbs. Our questions must always test the foundations as well as the superstructure, or we shall find that pupils who have been two or three years at a language, make blunders which would have been almost impossible at the end of the first six months.

Let us now consider another heading under which we should prepare for the examination. I very often take up examination papers on foreign books, and see nothing but two or three long pieces set for translation, and a few questions which these pieces suggest. If these are good papers, there can be no such thing as an art of examining, and you and I this evening are looking for a mare's nest. But these papers are sometimes set in a hurry by examiners who know the language in which the book is written, but do not know the book itself. No doubt a good long piece should be set to test the pupils' style as well as accuracy of translation: but in many cases, when the subject has been thoroughly prepared, the pupils will lean almost entirely on their memory for these translations. Mr. Bourne, of Bedford, has lately

pointed out with great force that the translations in the Oxford and Cambridge Locals are very much over-prepared, and that pupils are kept for a whole year reading and re-reading a few pages, till they can go on with the English without getting more than a star from the original. Similarly in the elementary schools, children can sometimes "read" with the books shut quite as well as with them open. The remedy proposed by Mr. Bourne, is this, that the subject should not be announced till six months before the examination. I would suggest another possible remedy, which may be applied more generally. Do not set the piece exactly as it is in the author. The pupils should be warned that variations may have been introduced, or, at least, some words or clauses omitted, so that they will fail if they merely translate from memory. Besides the piece taken with slight alteration from the author, I would also set a piece of condensed narrative written by the examiner nearly in the author's words, and containing only such words and idioms as the author's narrative supplies. This will be far easier than "unseen" passages, but it will be a test of the kind of construing to which the pupils are accustomed, and will give better play to their knowledge and intelligence than the piece which they have construed, or heard construed, many times before. Besides, a piece of this kind can be made to embrace words and idioms and illusions which lie far apart in the original. Such a piece, too, can be made very easy indeed at the beginning, and more difficult as it goes on.

We will now consider the tests of knowledge of special words and idioms in the book. The teacher, as I said, should mark his own book, and in the case of peculiar words and all but the most common idioms he should put cross references in his margin, and should make his pupils do the same. In marking words and idioms for special attention, we must be guided partly by the nature of the language, partly by the stage of learning at which our pupils have arrived. The area of possible knowledge in studying a few pages is really of vast extent; we should therefore determine beforehand which points are to be especially attended to; and our marked book, and our collection of questions for examination, will be our safeguard against the besetting sin of all teachers interested in their work—the sin of desultoriness, of dwelling on one thing to-day, another thing to-morrow, and supposing that they instructed, *i. e.*, built up, when they have merely heaped together a quantity of heterogeneous material, which has no power of adhesion, and is, in fact, scattered to the four winds nearly as fast as it is collected. For idioms, I think a number of short sentences should be selected and set for translation and explanation. Suitable sentences must be noted as they occur in our study of the author.

For words, some of those that have been marked may be given either for the meaning out of the context (and, for the study of the language, it is very important to know a word out of the context as well as in), or for analysis, or for the peculiarities of a class to which they belong. But, in thus attending to the language, we shall run a risk of missing altogether the meaning of our author. I was myself a long time in discovering this. I seem to have been especially struck with it when I had been teaching many years. May I read you a note I took after an examination in *Cæsar*? These notes, taken at the same time, express one's notions with a freshness which is afterwards unattainable:—"Unless I am very much pressed," says my note-book, "I always enjoy looking over examination papers, at least when I have set the paper, and boys whom I have taught have been examined. One gets an insight into boys' minds which seems a revelation. Often we find that what we

supposed everybody knew as well as ourselves has really been known to two or three only out of twenty or thirty. At other times we are startled by a spark of intelligence, or get a glimpse of knowledge, which we little expected. An odd thing has happened in this Cæsar paper. Some little while before the examination, finding that the boys would not have time to read to the end of the book, and must omit the siege of Gergovia, I told them the story of it, I knew it none too well myself, and have no faculty for story-telling; but, to my surprise, it came out in the paper that this was the only bit of the history they knew anything about. The history they had read in Cæsar they had hardly taken in at all. When the attention is fixed on the construing, the meaning of the whole seems to escape notice. To test the boys' general knowledge of the subject, I set a number of short sentences from the Cæsar, which were to be translated and explained for remembrance of the context; but very few boys could do anything with them." Now it is true that many great classical works which boys read are above their understandings; and while the readers' knowledge of the original language is small, he would probably get far more knowledge of the work from a translation than from the author's own words. Still, one of the objects in reading must always be to understand the book read, and I think the examiner should not be satisfied without convincing himself that the learners have not regarded the book merely as a collection of examples to illustrate the rules of grammar. This, then, should be one of our headings.

I have said that boys' written answers are often a revelation to a teacher. He finds that his pupils are wholly ignorant of many things which they once learnt, and were therefore supposed to know. He sees that his teaching has been defective in this or that particular, and he resolves to remedy these defects as soon as possible. But the examination comes at the end of the term, and when it is over, the teacher has, perhaps, not even energy enough left to put his impressions and resolutions into his note-book. What is the consequence? Holiday thoughts and interests partly obliterate the traces of the examination, and when, at the end of a month or six weeks, he sets to work again, he unconsciously moves along the old groove. I should strongly recommend the setting of very short papers—say of 15 or 20 minutes, or, if the form is a large one, of a 10 minutes' paper—now and then during the term. These papers would give a hint of the kind of thing going on in the boys' minds, and would often lead to important changes in the teaching. Perhaps an examination by short papers at the middle of the term would be good, and the marks might count with the marks at the final examination.

But when the number of boys examined is large, the labour of looking over examination papers becomes very severe. I have known a very rapid worker, but a thorough examiner, confess that it took him on an average 20 minutes to mark each boy's papers; and this 20 had to be multiplied by 60, so that the marking of a single set of papers took 20 hours. Inferior workers who are at all thorough will spend 10 hours in correcting the simplest 2 hours' paper set to a form of five-and-twenty. But then comes in a difficulty. The master arranges his marks beforehand; and if the paper be carefully set, he will be able to apportion the marks to the several questions with little difficulty. But how is he to keep a fixed standard in his mind? He comes fresh to the work in the morning, and we will suppose the first papers he looks over please him. He accordingly gives nearly full marks for everything that is substantially right, though there may be some small defects in form. But the next set proves very much better, and yet he cannot mark

them much higher without going beyond the maximum. Then he gets a bad paper, which, by contrast, seems to him exceedingly bad; and after a run of bad papers, in looking over which he is tempted to make each examinee suffer for his predecessor's blunders as well as his own, he comes to a middling paper, which again, by contrast, seems exceedingly good, and is marked accordingly. As hour after hour passes, he gets harder and harder to please; but then comes lunch, and possibly a walk, and on his return the examiner sits down again in a much better temper than he was in when he rose. The fortunate who are awaiting him profit considerably by the examiner's lunch and the good effect of a walk in the open air, though these things can hardly be said to give them any preferential claim on the examiner's indulgence. Some men therefore, for fear lest their standard should be altered by a break, go on continuously till the set of papers is finished; but few can work continuously from 8 to 10 hours without getting jaded, and quite unable to judge towards the close in the same spirit as at the beginning.

A fairer way would seem to be to look through the papers question by question; but when there are ten or a dozen questions set in the paper, and the number of the candidates is anything over 20, there are great practical difficulties in carrying out this plan. When I was an undergraduate, we had certain rules given us by our "coaches" for our guidance in examinations. One was, to read over the paper as soon as it was given out, to mark the questions which suited us best, and to do them first; and I see these are just the directions given in the Oxford Locals, although in the Cambridge Locals the candidates are required to keep as much as possible to the order in which the questions are set. But whether the Oxford plan is recommended by the examiners or no, it is sure to be partially adopted. A candidate is puzzled by a question, and passes it over: by-and-by he goes back to it, sees its meaning and does it. So the answers are sure to be scattered about in the papers, and if the examiner has to hunt for a particular answer in each set of papers, the inevitable loss of time and temper will seriously endanger his doing the work well. I would suggest a kind of compromise between the plan of looking each paper straight through and the plan of taking it question by question. I have said the different things the examination paper is to test may be arranged under certain heads. This will divide the "tester" (if I may invent a short name to take the place of the seven syllables involved in "examination paper")—this will divide the tester into four or five parts; and where the subject does not fall into these natural divisions, it may be divided arbitrarily. These divisions are called A, B, C, D, E, respectively. Under each heading there may be several questions—A1, A2, B1, B2, &c., &c. The examinees must put at the head of each sheet the letter they are doing, and must always begin a fresh sheet when they begin a fresh letter. This may seem a simple thing to require from them, but I must admit that no amount of written directions will secure all the candidates beginning a fresh sheet when they begin a new letter. I have found this even in the case of adults, and it will be *à fortiori* true of children. But the directions are more likely to be attended to if they are given *vis à* voce.

If the papers are headed as I have described, the examiner can readily arrange them in different piles—a pile of A's, of B's, of C's, &c. The papers should have been collected in the order in which the examinees sat. It is, of course, best to prevent copying, but the next best thing is to detect it. In many examinations the order of sitting is the alphabetical; but the order of

previous performances is better, for the examiner's judgment is confused by the great gaps in knowledge or attainment when he has to go straight from the good to the bad (from the strong to the feeble, as the French more aptly express it), or *vice versa*.

The papers then, by the plan I have suggested, are divided into four, five, or six piles. The examiner can take one of these piles and mark it at a single sitting. If he marks the first pile working downwards, he should take the following pile in inverted order. Thus his freshness of spirits will not always be given to one set of boys, and his jaded sleepiness or impatience to another set. In looking over his papers in this way, he will have no difficulty in remembering exactly what he has set, and the maximum mark he was awarded for each question. It is, moreover, an easier and more interesting task to intimate answers to the same question when one gets the answers altogether, than when they come mixed up in a crowd of other answers to other questions. One can work more quickly also; and this is a tremendous gain in the estimation of all examinees. Another great advantage to the teacher is this: he can ascertain how his pupils do in each division of the subject, and see by the marks registered under A, under B, under C, &c., whether they are weak in construing, or in grammar, or idioms, or in general knowledge of the subject. Another advantage is this: it sometimes happens that school arrangements compel a master to set a longer paper than is on other grounds desirable, and the pressure of work may be so great that time fails for proper correction of the whole paper, and yet the list must come out by a particular day. I should very much like to get behind the examiner and see what he does in such an emergency as this—an emergency which is by no means imaginary, but has arisen often, and will arise again. I have heard of conscientious examiners working away literally all night to make out a list which had to be published the next morning; and when I hear of feats of this kind, I cannot help reflecting that perhaps some examiners have not such highly-developed consciences, and moreover that the biggest conscience ever known could not have performed the functions of the nerves, or made its possessor as fit to judge of the merits of composition at the end of the twentieth hour's labour as he was at the end of the second. So I should like to see some safeguards provided against this tremendous stress of work at the end. If it were clearly announced on a paper that a certain division of it would not be marked as highly as the rest, and was not to be attempted till the examinee could do no more in other divisions, there would be no unfairness in leaving out this part altogether in looking the paper over. Where everyone has had time to do all he can, of course any part may be selected for omission without unfairness; but where there has been any hurry we can cut nothing out, for if we did we should not unfairly to a candidate who had written the answer to that question carefully, and had thus been prevented from doing better in a part of the paper to which we assigned marks.

In awarding marks, a question arises whether negative marks might not fitly be given for answers showing great stupidity or ignorance. Such marks are not usually given. As soon as the examinee has convinced himself that the answer is good for nothing, he passes on, and does not attempt any measurement in the negative direction. The consequence is, the examinees take shots, sometimes get marks they do not deserve, but more often expose their ignorance. By our ordinary method, the more dashing style of the boy who writes fast and covers plenty of paper is more successful than that of a careful boy who gets through much less writing, but

does his little well. Mr. Latham considers this point, and the conclusion he arrives at is, that if negative marks were given, a nervous student, fearing to damage himself by a bad blunder, might be prevented from attempting questions in which he would show himself to advantage. But Mr. Latham still thinks that bad spelling, bad grammar, and guesses which show utter ignorance, ought to involve some positive loss. But examiners, I should say, especially young examiners, are much too easily shocked by blunders, and infer too much ignorance from them. Some students have a nasty knack of blundering even in things they are quite familiar with (I speak feelingly here), and in some cases genuine knowledge may exist side by side with genuine ignorance that to an examiner seems totally inconsistent with it. Boys are familiar only with such parts of a subject as they have been carefully drilled in, and their knowledge in that area does not connote a knowledge of anything beyond; and when we reached the age of tolerance which may be said to begin at forty, we know too much of the blunders of grown people to be surprised at the mistakes of schoolboys. "*Notres ennemis*," for "*nos ennemis*," seems a very bad mistake to a teacher of French, and yet this blunder has been made by a man who was at all events the superior of the schoolboy—Sir Archibald Alison.

I would here point out the importance of our keeping a copy of every paper we ourselves have set. If these papers are arranged chronologically, they will afford us a rough autobiographical sketch of our teaching. We shall see the kind of thing that used to interest us, and then how our interests and our efforts changed. Perhaps an odd examination paper will remind us of an error of which we have fortunately got clear. But I am speaking now of examination papers set with such care that they are, as it were, the shadow of our teaching.

No time remains to discuss, as I had intended, the best way of setting papers in some other subjects. I have not had so much to do with the teaching of history and geography as I have with the teaching of languages, and I have not set many papers, or "testers," in these subjects. But when I look at the papers set by other people, I am sometimes a good deal perplexed. I cannot make out how the examiner settles the question of marks. Here, for instance, is a question from one of the Oxford or Cambridge Junior papers—"Draw outline map showing coast line of Europe from the mouth of the Danube to the Rhine, and mark the chief rivers and chief ranges of mountains between those two rivers and the coast." The last words—"the coast"—do not very clearly convey the examiner's meaning; but, putting the fault of ambiguity aside, I can't help thinking that some boy or girl might spend half the time allowed for the whole paper in drawing this outline map of Europe, and yet probably not more than one-eighth or one-tenth of the total marks would be awarded as the maximum for it.

Let me read you a History paper, set at this same examination, for the junior candidates. The time allowed for the paper was one and a-half hours. The period that had been specially prepared was 1483 to 1600:—

"1. Give dates of the deaths of the sovereigns of England from Henry VII. to Charles II.

"2. Determine as nearly as you can the dates of following events, and give names of the persons principally connected with them: Martyrdom of Ridley, Bishop of Worcester; trial and execution of Strafford; Assassination of Buckingham; completion of authorised version of the Bible; Capture of Montrose.

"3. What were the most important events in the reign of Elizabeth?

"4. Write a short life and character of Cranmer and of Oliver Cromwell. (What, by the way, is a *short* life? As a long life would fill a large volume, I suppose a short life might fill a small volume. Anyhow, "shortness" must be relative, and the examiner gives no scale to fix its meaning here.)

"5. Who were the principal literary persons who lived in this period? State for what they were each remarkable. (There's an easy question for you, anyhow. Full marks, I suppose, would be given for such answers as this: "Shakespeare, remarkable for plays; Bacon, remarkable for philosophical works and for taking bribes; Milton, remarkable for writing poems and for being blind.")

"6. Describe one of the following events:—Guy Fawkes's Plot; Battle of Naseby; Trial of Charles I.

"7. Mention any facts and dates which particularly struck you in the study of the history of this period.

"8. Discuss the causes and results of the Great Rebellion, or the differences of English life of manners at the present time from what they were at any period from A. D. 1488 to 1660."

The last question at the end of an hour and a-half paper for young people under sixteen, almost taken one's breath away. "Discuss the causes and results of the Great Rebellion; you have at least five minutes left yet!" What remarkably clever young people must go in for these examinations! I heartily wish one of them were here to-night, and at my place. He or she might then discuss, in the five or ten minutes, more during which you might consent still to remain listeners, all that I should like to discuss with you—the best way of discouraging cram; the best system of marks; and (difficulty of difficulties) how to equate marks in such a way that each subject may have its fair share, and no more, in settling the result of the examination. But young people now-a-days must be much cleverer than we were, or we must have sadly degenerated. Anyway, I despair of discussing even the easiest of the subjects I have now named, so I must leave the matter in your hands; and if I have, in legal language, "made out a case for inquiry." I trust that some one also will inquire, and that I shall have the pleasure of coming some other Wednesday and listening to the results.

Mr. Mast quite agreed with the lecturer, that in the setting of examination papers too much stress was generally laid on trivialities and examinations; whereas what was wanted was to see that the essential parts of the subject were understood and remembered; in language, the main rules of grammar, rather than the little used exceptional forms. For the award of the prizes, &c., in the school, he thought it best that the teachers themselves should examine, rather than an outside examiner, who could hardly be expected to be able to follow closely the lines of the teaching, and determine the extent to which individual pupils had profited by it. In regard to the proposition to set the special book only a comparatively short time before the examination, he was of opinion that there was little enough time already allowed to thoroughly master the books prescribed for the University Local Examinations, and that to curtail the time would tend directly to encourage "cram." In translating he had found it a good plan to give the pupils at the outset an idea of the subject matter.

Mr. Belcher expressed some surprise that mathematical papers had not been touched upon by lecturer, for if there was a subject in which knowledge could be fairly tested by paper work it was mathematics. As to the time it took to revise and mark the pupils' answers,

he considered that an experienced examiner could get through a great deal of work in a comparatively short space of time, and without risk of doing injustice to the examinees. He did not himself see the utility of dividing the papers into sections and subsections as a means of preserving uniformity in the standard.

Mr. Thorpe observed that the remarks of the lecturer had been confined to school test examinations, and that the subject for public examinations for certificates had not come under consideration. The examiner, he thought had a higher function than that of a mere tester; good papers could teach something to the teachers themselves. In the answers of candidates at a large public examination there was often found a singular concurrence of error, showing that false methods were employed in many schools. The lecturer had given some good hints respecting the setting of papers, such as the advisability of jotting down what were found to be effective questions, as they were met with in the course of teaching; and time and thought were undoubtedly required in the construction of an examination paper. Catch questions were in all cases to be deprecated, the object being to test the pupil's knowledge of essentials.

Mr. Langler thought that the complaints against the working of examinations were often due to the employment of young and inexperienced examiners, who had little sympathy with children, and an imperfect estimate of their capacity of acquiring and retaining knowledge. In setting a paper regard ought to be had to the antecedent conditions; where special portions of a book or subject had been prepared, the questions would naturally be of a more minute character, than if the whole subject had to be tested. Attention would also be given to the form and order of the questions. At certain examinations the paper was divided into a number of sections, each containing several questions, one only of which was to be answered. Uniformity in the method of marking was hardly to be expected. One examiner would assign a different proportion of marks to different questions, another would distribute the marks equally; one would mark simply for knowledge, another would lay more stress on the form. His own plan was to allow extra marks for the style of the answers.

Mr. Spratling had found that in school examinations the younger masters almost invariably set too difficult papers; apparently deeming it necessary thereby to impress their pupils with a due sense of their own superior knowledge. He thought that where the examiner assigned more marks to one question than to another, it would only be fair to give notice of the fact, by stating at the end of each question the number of marks it would carry. Thus the examinee would not waste too much time on the less important questions, and would give his answers more in accordance with the ideas of the examiner. The earlier questions in a paper might be on the groundwork of the subject, and these should be made compulsory. It would obviate some difficulties in the awarding of marks, if the questions were broken up into portions, which would require separate answers.

Mr. Magnus said that in the case of an inspectional examination of a very large school, where, as was usually the case, but a very short time could be allowed for the report, it was usual to employ the teaching staff in the revision of the papers. He could not say that the results were altogether satisfactory, but it could hardly be avoided. In regard to the setting of the papers, he was disposed to recommend that the teachers should furnish a number of questions from which the outside examiner might select, and add to at his discretion. In order to secure a uniform standard in marking the papers, it would be well to look over a certain number before

beginning to mark them at all; and, in the case of a competition for prizes, to look over the best papers a second time. Some examiners, on the contrary, made it a rule never to look at a paper twice, conceiving that the first impression would be the true one. He could not say that he approved of this plan. As to the principle of awarding negative marks, *i. e.*, deducting marks for very ignorant and absurd answers, he thought that most examiners would unconsciously be led to do this.

Professor Foster thought that examination papers should be short, so as to allow time for full answers; whereas a long paper, affording much latitude of choice, would tempt the pupil to "nibble" at a number of questions to very little purpose. In drawing up a paper, the examiner should always formulate for himself the answer he would expect to each question. He was not in favour of giving the marks assigned to the separate questions, as it ought to be apparent from the questions themselves, which would carry most marks. For preserving the standard, it would be found useful to note certain types of answers, and to keep them in view during the revision.

Mr. Storr said that the question of who should be the examiners was certainly a very difficult one. His own experience of the working of the plan of setting the masters of a school to examine other than their own forms was not very satisfactory; and he gave some instances where an absurd system of marking by an outside examiner produced the most fallacious results.

The Chairman was inclined to recommend a dual examination, by the teachers of the school as well as by outsiders, and considered that *vivâ voce* questioning was essential to bring out a true result. Uniformity in the marking might be secured by selecting certain papers as standards of reference.

After a few remarks from Mr. Quick in reply to the different speakers, a vote of thanks to the lecturer concluded the proceedings.

Heroines.

Read at the Convention held on the 12th June, 1878, before the Stanstead Wesleyan College.

In thinking of heroines I recall a beautiful old legend which Mrs. Browning has given of the Bride of Linteged. This lovely lady of fiction has been pronounced by no less an authority and critic than Ruskin to be the finest character in literature since the days of Shakspeare.

There was in feudal times a certain Duke who, dying, left his only child, a little daughter, to the care of his brother, a neighboring Earl. When the child was but twelve years old the uncle betrothed her, for the sake of her broad lands and dowry gold to his wicked son Lord Leigh. But as the little May ripened into gracious womanhood, her proud spirit rebelled against this hated union, and on a certain day she made an oath that she would never wed Lord Leigh,—but Sir Guy of Linteged. Indifferent alike to the haughty incredulity of the father and the angry threats of the son, that very night in the old ivy-covered chapel, had the priest blessed her,—Sir Guy's bride. Then the bridal train swept into the night, flying fast and faster still, until at length the mighty towers of Linteged are reached, and the cries of "Live the

Duchess and Sir Guy," arise from the deep court yard. Then comes a description of the grand old castle, of the beautiful bride, and of a brief honeymoon,—“a three month's joyance,” when again the scene grows wonderfully dark. Five hundred archers besiege the castle wall to slay Sir Guy and recapture Lady May, and Lord Leigh is at their head. The brave young bridegroom leans sadly against the strong grey walls which yet cannot save him. He sees the archers. On and on they come! They have almost sapped the wall! If with his followers he meets them at the breach they must all perish one for one; but if he alone dies, his girl-bride, his shy young sister, his faithful followers will all be saved.

The resolve is made! He will order his red-roan steed to be saddled and goaded up the stair to the lofty tower below which yawns the dark and awful gulf of one hundred feet. Mounting he will take the fatal leap which will result in certain death below. Blessing with his last words his fair young bride, he will “ride alone to God.” As the Duchess May hears this desperate purpose from the frightened attendants, she takes the bridle of the panting horse and with gentle words and kind caresses leads him up the dark and winding narrowness of the turret stair until the high east tower is reached. She kneels at her husband's feet, deaf to all commands to retreat.

If he has need of his red roan steed he has also need of her.

“What, and would you men should reck that I dared more for love's sake,
As a bride, than as a spouse?” [sake.

“What, and would you it should fall as a proverb before all,
That a bride may keep your side while through castle-gate you ride,
Yet eschew the castle-wall?”

Sir Guy mounts! In vain he wrings her hands apart and tries to force her back.

In agony the true wife clings to the stirrup. Her fair hair sweeps the ground!

He calls to his companions to save his wife “for God's sake.” Then as if up breathed by the sacred name she springs to the saddle. By her love she overcomes! For a moment there is breathless silence. The mighty steed, upbearing lord and noble lady stands upon the brink of ruin.

“They have caught out at the rein, which Sir Guy threw loose, in
For the horse in stark despair, with his front hoofs poised in air,
On the last verge rears amain.” [vain—

“Now he hangs, he rocks between, and his nostrils curdle in!
Now he shivers head and hoof, and the flakes of foam fly off,
And his face grows fierce and thin.”

“And a look of human woe from his staring eyes did go,
And a sharp cry uttered he, in a foretold agony
Of the head long death below.”

“Then back toppling, crashing back, a dead weight flung out to
Horse and riders overfell.” [wrack,

Fiction teaches us another phase of heroism in the story of “Elizabeth,” the Exile of Siberia who travelled on foot the whole breadth of Russia—2000

miles—to beg for the pardon of her parents. And when we think of her encounters with storm, and snow, and forest, and plunderers by the way, until foot-sore and weary she reaches her journey's end, can we help reverencing the filial love which prompted such an action. How we rejoice in her triumph, when the Czar of all the Russias recognizing the nobility of the act, pardons the exile and sends the rejoicing Elizabeth back over the long dreary way in a government coach to bring her aged parents to their long lost home. Shakspeare has created Ophelia and Desdemona not that we might admire in them daring adventure, but a patient endurance of wrong and suffering which is one of the noblest though most obscure forms of heroism.

Yet these fictitious heroines whose woes we pity and in whose triumphs we rejoice are fully equaled by real characters of whom we have all heard. Look for a moment at Jean d'Albret, the Queen of Navarre, as she carries her son Henry into the camp and presents him to the troops as the head of the Protestant party. Think also of Agostina, the Maid of Saragossa, who risked her life for her king and country in the bloody siege of 1808. The Spanish forces although numbering fewer troops than the French, and laboring under other disadvantages are fighting valiantly when one of their number, bribed by French gold, betrays them. As he gives the signal the French troops advance, and thereupon ensues one of the most horrible massacres.

The Spaniards completely give way under the unexpected attack of the enemy, and the courage of the surviving soldiers is entirely gone. At this critical moment an unknown maiden is seen to issue from a certain church, clad in white and bearing the sacred emblem of the cross upon her bosom. Her dark hair is dishevelled, and the fire of inspiration shines in her eyes. Quickly traversing the city she mounts to the breach and snatching a match from the hand of a dying cannoner fires the cannon which he had been unable to manage. The soldiers at the sight of such a vision hail it as a divine omen of success, and are filled with redoubled strength. With one accord they cry "Forward, Forward, we will conquer." In the terrible battle which follows Agostina is indefatigable. She runs from rank to rank her heroic courage lending new inspiration to the soldiers who fight with such success that they gain an almost incredible victory.

In London, at no great distance from the magnificent monuments which an adoring nation has raised to the memory of Nelson and Wellington, stands the figure of a woman in pure white marble. She bears shining laurel wreaths, and is crowning the bravest officers of the Crimea. It is Florence Nightingale, whose name though so familiar can never become trite, and whose works will prove her best and most lasting monument. It is a favorite theory among many that heroism is a thing of the past. If we believe this we can have no faith in human nature, and we must despise the age in which we live.

What then have we left? True we see no Boadicea rise to lead thousands on to glorious victory.

The times do not demand this. But many mothers noble as the renowned Cornelia may be found.

It seems to me that human nature can not have so entirely changed that the world does not contain some brave woman who, if occasion arose, would give her life in the service of her country as nobly as did Joan of Arc, whose ashes floated down the Seine.—That another, like St. Agnes would perish to maintain her christianity. Shall we not then rather thank God, that in his providence he has so dealt with the world that such sacrifices are not now necessary, than blame human nature because they are not made. There remains one class of heroines of whom there are multitudes in our land. A class unnoticed and unknown, whose recognition comes not in this world. Of these, one representative woman may be given.

Our heroine is a swell faced little woman, whose frail form seems scarcely fit to weather the gentlest breezes of life. But hers has been no easy lot. The eldest of six children whose mother was a confirmed invalid, heavy cares fell upon the young shoulders, and she very early commenced her career of self devotion. Hers was a nature of great possibilities. She was endowed with the rich gifts of genius and perseverance which are the forerunners of success.

She thirsted for knowledge as the flowers for dew; she longed to develop the great faculties which God had given her, that her love for her fellow beings might find vent in a larger field of usefulness than would otherwise be hers. Her highest gift was painting, and it was a purpose cherished from childhood to devote her life to its study. How she would toil night and day gathering inspiration from every glorious sunset, every lofty mountain, and every snowy lily slumbering on the calm bosom of the lake below, until she should create upon her canvass a work which would command the admiration of men and place her name high in artistic record. Thus would she bring honor and needed help to her family, and open for herself the gates of that broader deeper culture which she so craved. Such were the brilliant dreams which flashed through the busy brain and which by constant repetition became so much a part of her being that it seemed that nothing less than death could wrench them from her. But the will of Providence and her own feeble will although agreeing in the end that she should be a heroine differed vastly in the means. While she thought to show the world what industry and faithfulness and a brave spirit can do to overcome the obstacles to rising genius, Fate had willed that she perform a more heroic deed in yielding her own wishes and highest hopes to what she knew to be present duty. While she had thought by her exertions to raise her dear ones from drudgery to ease, Fate had decreed that she share with them this same drudgery and by her heaven-born gifts of helpfulness and cheerfulness make life bright for them. And so it came to pass that when she saw the hard working father and the patient mother straining every nerve to make the ends meet as the year came round, and the brothers and sisters to be cared for

and educated, she had grace to cast aside her long cherished plans and devote herself with such a will and such a ready heart to lightening the home cares, that no one suspected that this brave young girl—the light of the house,—was undergoing the keenest disappointment of her life. As years roll on she is not released from her self-imposed cares, although she does not despair that at some future time she may achieve something of that for which she has so hoped. But the way never opens. At length she marries an honest man who though he loves, does not fully understand her. As children are added to the little home, one by one until they number five, the noble traits of her character seem to shine with redoubled loveliness. In her are blended faith, hope and unbounded charity. Never complaining she toils for her children over obstacles so rugged one would think human endurance could never surmount them. She is their comfort in sorrow, their joy in gladness. I have never known anything more beautiful or touching than to enter that home, in nothing elegant, but made pleasant by the work of loving hands, and see the brave patient little mother surrounded by the boys and girls who have risen up to call her blessed. They know something of her life and try to compensate for her bravely borne disappointments by the wealth of their love, and to smooth the remaining paths of life for the weary feet. And the mother is happy in her children. She looks to them to carry out the early purposes of her own life in which she failed,—but failed so nobly. Where she has lost, they will succeed. As this thought fills her mind she cannot regret that she submitted her own will to the Divine, and a happy look crosses the weary face as she thinks that it is God who knoweth what is best.

“ And she smiles to think His greatness flows around our incompleteness,
Round our restlessness, His rest.”

ATTY L. COLBY.

Stanstead, 1878.

On Book Learning *versus* Oral Teaching.

In the early days of the pupil-teacher it was thought by those who superintended its working on the part of the Government, that the only instruction worth anything in the elementary schools was that which was given in form of oral lessons. The direct contact between the minds of the teacher and his pupils, when the instruction given without the intervention of text-books was considered of such paramount importance as to put all other forms of instruction and means of learning and of account. Thus a royal road to learning had been formed, for the pupils under this system had no hard work to do in silent solitude; they were always working under the influence of excitement from class rivalry, or else listening to an oral lesson in which the lion's share of the work fell on the principal teacher, who was expected to spend most of his time in oral instruction, the classes coming to the gallery in rotation for that purpose. Had this system long

continued it is probable that only a few teachers who were its victims would still survive. But its hollowness was soon perceived, and the necessity of private study with the aid of a suitable text-book, reasserted itself, whilst the special advantages of the oral lesson system, were not forgotten; and thus in time has grown up a system in which are combined the advantages of silent study from books and oral instruction in class.

The proportion to be observed between these two modes of getting instruction, varies with the age and standing of the pupil; the more advanced he becomes in age and attainments, the more he should be required to do by his own individual exertions with the aid of his silent teacher—the text-book. In this way he will gradually acquire the power of carrying on his own education; but if he has been accustomed when at school to get every idea direct from his teacher, he will be in a poor position for educating himself when his school days are ended. It should be the aim of every teacher “to make himself *useless* to his pupils,” that is, to train them to dispense with his help. The Press is the great educator of the age, and they are the best trained at school who are the best able to profit by the instruction awaiting them in the works of eminent authors, both past and present. Hence the most important thing in the instruction of young pupils is to teach them to read with facility; for reading is the key of knowledge, and a key that will certainly rust for want of use, if the pupil does not acquire the easy mastery of it before his school-days are over. And next to this in importance, is instruction and guidance in the art of acquiring knowledge from a book, such as can only be obtained by questioning its pages as to their meaning, analysing, comparing, and criticising its several propositions and arguments.

It will thus appear that as a pupil advances in his school career, the oral teaching he receives should bear more directly on the subject matter of his text-books, and thus help him by degrees to acquire knowledge for himself from their pages. The oral-lesson in school should either prepare the pupil for the intelligent study of his text-book, or else serve to vivify and impress the information already obtained therefrom from private study. If the subject is one that requires the elucidation of principles and the explanation of rules and definitions, then the oral lesson should precede the study of the text-book, and *vice versa*, if it is one on matters of fact chiefly.

Oral lessons, pure and simple, that is, such as are given without the intervention of books at the time of the lesson, and without reference to any particular lesson in the pupils' text-book, are, it will be seen, chiefly of use in the instruction of young children, who cannot read with sufficient ease and intelligence to gather knowledge from books. With pupils, however, of all ages, such lessons are very valuable as a means of introducing them to the study of some subject quite new to them. A series of oral lessons should always be given preliminary

to the methodical study of any science, by way of giving the student some general acquaintance with his new field of study, and thus preparing him for the intelligent study of its parts; for it is often impossible to appreciate the nature and bearing of any particular part of a subject without some general knowledge of its nature as a whole. Other weighty reasons might be offered in favour of a preliminary course of oral lessons before requiring the pupil to study the subject from his text-book. It is certainly the easiest way of making a beginning; for in studying from a text-book, either with or without a teacher's assistance, there is in most cases not only the difficulty of acquiring new ideas, but of understanding the language used as a vehicle of these ideas; whereas in getting knowledge from the *viva voce* instruction of his teacher, the pupil is spared this difficulty and has presented to him the first elementary notions of the subject in the form and manner most easy for him to appropriate. In this preliminary course of oral lessons the teacher is also able to introduce those parts which are most easily understood and best serve to enlist the interests of the learner. An author cannot do this as he is necessarily obliged to begin at the beginning—which is often the most difficult to understand—and to proceed methodically without deviating from the course which is logically suggested by the nature of the subject.

But when the pupil has been prepared for the methodical study of any branch of knowledge it is highly desirable to give him the opportunity of studying the subjects with the aid of suitable text-books. The knowledge which is obtained solely from verbal instruction is generally superficial and often inaccurate. The learner must see as well as hear if he would have clear and precise ideas, he must be able to exercise his mind upon a statement until he has got to the bottom of it, and this he can do with much greater effect when he has it clearly in print before his eyes. And hence the knowledge that a pupil acquires by reading is more likely to be methodical, clear, accurate, and thorough, than that which he obtains in the more pleasant form of oral instruction.—*The Scholastic World.*

Successful Teaching.

Success! who does not desire it? The young lawyer dreams of judge and jury entranced by his eloquent pleadings; the merchant, of well-filled counters and crowds of eager customers; teachers, too, have their aspirations. Wielding an influence that cannot be estimated, charged with responsibilities that mortals cannot measure, dealing with natures impressible and delicate, what wonder is it that the longing heart of the earnest teacher cries out "Give me success!"

But what constitutes success and what are its requisites? Success does not consist merely in obtaining good order. While it is true that "order is

heaven's first law," yet it is possible for a teacher by physical force and will-power, to reduce his pupils to the condition of serfs—to rob them of all independance of character. There are teachers who lay more stress on good order and military precision than on rapid progress and thorough instruction.

Such teachers are failures. Better, far better, a busy hum and industry than death-like stillness and inactivity. It does not consist merely in causing pupils to memorize text-books, solve problems, and write legibly. These are all necessary; but he who in his teachings, aims not at more than these, need not expect to have his brow crowned with the laurels of success.

School is generally defined to be a place for instruction; but, to the true teacher, the word has a fuller meaning. It is a place for the development and discipline of the powers of a child as well as for instruction. And, in accordance with this view, teaching is developing, training and instructing. "Education is helping a child to help himself." Our work is to prepare pupils for work—to give them an *impulse* in the right direction; and he is the most successful teacher who arouses to the greatest extent in the minds of his pupils an ambition to do life's work well, who sends them forth, persevering in all that they undertake, with powers trained and tried, with truth on their lips and with hope in their hearts.

The first qualification of the teacher which is necessary to his complete success, is an exalted conception of the teacher's work. "As a man thinketh in his heart, so is he," is true in teaching as in everything else; and the teacher who feels that his work is a noble one, will, other things being equal, be far more likely to succeed than he who regards it only as a business to be followed until something more lucrative presents itself. Fellow-teachers, let us magnify our office. The world will never estimate it highly until we set the example.

Another qualification is the power of gaining the attention. A failure in this respect is fatal. Scenes of beauty awaken no delight in the mind of him who is asleep, strains of melody entrance not him whose ears are closed, and the words of a sage are disregarded by him whose attention is pre-occupied.

The teacher must be thoroughly prepared for his work, knowing not only all that he is required to teach, but far more; no limit can be assigned as the point where his knowledge should cease. Teaching lays under contribution all branches of knowledge, and the more he knows, the better teacher he will be.

He should also have a knowledge of the laws of thought, the operations of the mind—in a word, of human nature. He comes into contact with the timid and the forward, the well-disposed and the vicious, and unless he is able to understand the dispositions of his pupils, anarchy will ensue. Like the skilful engineer, he must know when and where to tighten the machinery or to give it more play; when to apply the oil and when to use the hammer and file.

He must have a knowledge of educational methods.

He may be a Solon in wisdom, so far as a knowledge of the different branches is concerned, and yet for want of proper methods of instruction may fail utterly. The opinion is entertained by some that no special preparation for teaching is necessary. Should a man desire to become a workman in wood, in stone or in iron, an apprenticeship of three years must be spent in learning to shove the plane, handle the trowel, or blow the bellows; but no such preparatory training is deemed necessary to fit him to deal with immortal minds. May the time soon come when he who shall presume to teach without special preparation will not be countenanced. The teacher should have *his* Blackstone as well as the lawyer.

But while the teacher must understand educational methods, he must be superior to them. We hear much now-a-days of different methods of teaching, of object lessons, the lecture method, etc. Wickersham and Page, Holbrook and Ogden, Hart and Herbert, are conned and quoted. This is as it should be; but he who would attempt to apply any particular method to every instance will just as surely fail ingloriously. We must be able to use this or that, as our judgment may decide; or, failing to find a method suited to the case in hand, must, have the ingenuity to invent one for the emergency.

Again, the teacher must be ambitious—must aim at eminence in his profession. Our course in life is constantly retarded by adverse influence; we always fall a little short of reaching our aim. Hence, he who would succeed well must aim to succeed best.

Another requisite is good common-sense. The school-room is a place where cases full of difficulty are constantly occurring, for which human foresight can provide. To decide these, "administer justice and promote the general welfare" of the school, "he must rely upon his own judgment, and a large share of common-sense is necessary in order to provide for the highest good of the greatest number."

He must also have good eyes. Says Dr. John S. Hart: "Good eyes are to the teacher in the government of his school, worth more than the rod, more than merit or demerit marks, more than keeping in after school, more than scolding, reporting to parents, suspension, or expulsion, more than coaxing, premiums and bribes in any shape or to any amount."

The teacher must have a strong will. School is a place where mind comes in contact with mind, and will with will, and here as elsewhere, the weaker must yield. The pupils must feel that opposition is useless, and that when a command has been given there is nerve enough in the ruling power to secure obedience. Power resides in the will; having strength of will, he will possess that quality which boys admire so much, and which they so aptly name "grit," "backbone," "pluck." What steam is to the locomotive the will of the teacher is to the school; it makes it "go."

Another requisite is love for the work and devotion to it. The poet has aptly said,

"The toil you hate,

Fatigues you most, and brings no recompense."
This is emphatically true of teaching. Dislike it,

and nowhere else on earth can be found so dreary dull, detestable a place as the school-room; nothing can be conceived by mortal more troublesome, provoking—I had almost said Satanic—than a troop of schoolboys. But let the heart be enlisted, and each bright-eyed girl and laughter-loving boy becomes a friend; the "silken cord of love," stronger than bands of iron, binds together teacher and pupils, and gloom gives way to cheerfulness. Let Johnny and Emma feel that you love them, and at once an influence over them is secured. But devotion to the work, as well as love for it, should characterize the teacher.

A kindred qualification is sympathy with child nature, enabling the teacher to gain the affection of his pupils. Children's love is easily won. Their natures are confiding and they long for some one on whom to lavish the wealth of their affection. Let us be careful in this matter. A forbidding aspect, treating lightly their little troubles or joys—real to them—or a sanctimonious drawl may, like withering frost, blight the opening buds of their love.

The teacher must be able to control his temper, Anger is contagious, and when the flashing eye of the teacher is answered by the sullen look of the pupil, all hope of influencing the latter for good may as well be abandoned.

The teacher must be progressive. This is a day of improvement. Steam and electricity have revolutionized men's ideas. Thought flashes around the world. Old and long-cherished opinions are being closely examined, former methods carefully scrutinized. The spirit of improvement has entered the school-room and is driving out the barbarous punishments and unnatural methods of teaching which have long prevailed there. A brighter day is dawning upon our common schools. To prepare for this, the teacher must scan carefully every so-called improvement, accepting the good and rejecting the bad. He must go forward.

He must be self-reliant and patient. "Teaching is like fighting. Self-reliance is half the battle." Children are quick to discern any halting or hesitation in their instructors: and he who would succeed in impressing truth upon their minds, must not only know that truth, but must know that he knows it—must be master of the situation in every respect. "Line upon line, precept upon precept" must be constantly given; impatience and fretfulness must be banished. They destroy confidence and pave the way for rebellion. The schoolroom is no place for him who can make no allowance for youthful thoughtlessness.

The successful teacher is earnest and enthusiastic. Metals weld only at a white heat. The hearty cheer of a regiment sweeping onward to the bayonet charge makes each individual soldier, for the time a hero. Earnestness and enthusiasm enter into every great undertaking. They send a Livingstone to the wilds of Africa and a Kane and a Hayes to seek the Frost King seated on his icy northern throne.

Current Mistakes in Teaching English Grammar.

Paper read by Mr. C. P. MASON before the College of Prec ptors.

The subject of the following remarks has, unfortunately, no pretensions to the charms of novelty. Most of you have probably been hammering away at English Grammar for years, and some perhaps will have to do so for several years to come. My humble endeavour will be to help such to make their strokes as telling as possible, by showing them where and how effort is commonly wasted. For several years past I have had a good deal to do with the examination of pupils in schools, and candidates who have not long left school, more particularly in the department of English Grammar, in which subject many thousands of sets of answers have, from first to last, come under my scrutiny; and, considering how important a part examinations play in our modern system, (whether they are to be looked upon as a great good, or as a necessary evil.) I thought that it would not be uninteresting to those who, to a greater or less extent, are engaged in preparing pupils for the ordeal, if I gave them some of the results of my experience, by setting before them the kind of mistakes which candidates most commonly make, and the way in which they come to make them. In doing this I shall not be able to avoid criticising a good deal that is very commonly taught, and showing that the unfortunate bunglers have not merely gone astray, but have been led astray by what they have been made to learn.

I need hardly say that the teaching of English Grammar is something widely different from the teaching of, say, Latin or French grammar,—at least, to English boys. In Latin, and even in French, (as far as the verbs are concerned), you have to get your pupils to commit to memory a great apparatus of inflections, rules for forming genders, rules for various concords, rules for the cases to be put after prepositions, &c. All this is material of a very concrete character, and, though troublesome to master, does not, in the first instance, call for much beyond observation, comparison, and memory. English Grammar is quite different. We have hardly any inflections; a mistake about the agreement of an adjective with a noun is impossible, as adjectives do not mark gender, number, or case; and, as regards such inflections and concords as we have, the learners know them already. You never really have to teach a boy or girl to form the plural of *brother* or *man*, or the past tense of *be* or *go*. In teaching English Grammar you introduce pupils at once to the most abstract conceptions, the functions of words, the nature of the parts of speech, the import of inflections, the relations of words to one another, and so on. You begin at once a logical training of the most refined character, the main object of which is, or should be, to discipline the faculties in habits of clear and close thinking, and the perception of the relations of ideas one to the other: and so, through the medium of English Grammar, you put, if I may so say, a grammatical soul into that bodily organism of forms and inflections to which you mainly direct

your attention in the grammars of other languages. English Grammar is from the first a system of logical analysis and definition.

Now I am sure I should be wasting time if I set myself to prove at length that, if work of this kind is not done well, it had better not be attempted at all. It is not merely useless if done ill, it is positively injurious. Nothing but harm can come of slovenly analysis and inexact definitions. The mind gets inured to habits of loose and inaccurate thought, which when once acquired, are most difficult to eradicate. No doubt it is difficult to be accurate, but it is not impossible. Even young children may be led to grasp the elementary ideas involved in grammar with perfect precision, provided those ideas are presented gradually, simply, and exactly; and I protest most earnestly against the notion that it is fussy and pedantic to strive after this scrupulous accuracy, and that rough-and-ready definitions do well enough to begin with, and will be gradually shaped into what is more accurate as the pupil gets on. You would not expect that to be the result of giving loose and inaccurate rules in arithmetic, or of allowing a beginner in geometry to prove his propositions by means of a pair of compasses. And I assert, as a matter of fact, that the result of letting pupils learn loose and inaccurate definitions betrays itself at every large examination by a plentiful crop of answers from candidates who have been at English Grammar for five, six, or even seven years, which exhibit not merely abject and contemptible ignorance but (so to speak) a sort of general *sloppiness* of mind and an utter incapacity for writing English in an intelligible, coherent, and grammatical form.* On the other hand, I have invariably found that clear and exact answers about grammatical definitions go along with clear and grammatical English composition.

My special purpose at present, however, is to point out some of the commonest errors which vitiate much of the grammar teaching that goes on in our schools, and appear in such ludicrous forms at every examination. I hope none of you will think that I am "poking fun" at you when I say that the greater part of these mistakes would have been obviated, if the writers of the grammars which are most widely used had been able to grasp the not very recondite truth, that *words* are not identical with *what they stand for*—that the noun 'book' (for instance) is not the article made up of printed leaves fastened together, which we buy at the bookseller's and that when we buy one of these articles, we do not purchase a part of speech. Is any one present disposed to dispute this? If so, I hope no feeling of bashfulness will hold him back from having a tussle about it, as soon as I have finished my paper. It would

* Here is a specimen of what I see a good deal of:—"Adjectives are words used with nouns to denote some quality or attribute about which the noun stands for, and clearly shows whether we wish to denote its superiority, or deteriorate it above or below the standard of which we are speaking about." I dare say that ingenious youth had been learning grammar for five or six years. Obviously no clear grammatical idea had ever filtered into his mind during the whole time.

take much too long to chase this really childish blunder out of all the grammatical nooks and corners in which it lurks. I shall content myself with giving you a few typical instances.

Did any of you, when very little boys and girls, ever learn some rhymes about the parts of speech, written with the view of aiding the budding intelligence of infant minds, and some of which run somehow thus—(I am not sure about one line) :

“ First comes the little particle
Grammarians call an Article,
And then the mighty Noun.
A noun, it may be anything,
A tree, a castle, or a king.
A person or a town. ”

Here you see the absurdity above referred to in full force. The ghost of this innocent little effusion still haunts the examination room. I have a dreary presentiment that within the next six months I shall be told hundreds of times, as I have been told during the last, that a common noun is “some *thing* that belongs to a class,” and that “an abstract noun is some *thing* that you can't see or hear or feel.” This last wonderful absurdity has been rather a favourite of late. When it has been given *vivâ voce*, a little colloquy of the following kind has sometimes ensued between myself and the examinees. “Is *goodness* an abstract noun?”—“Yes.” “Did you hear the word?”—“Yes.” “But you told me just now that an abstract noun was something that you *couldn't* hear.” Puzzled silence for a moment or two. Then, from some child a little sharper than the rest, and not impossibly a little sharper than the teacher,—“An abstract noun is the *name* of something that you can't see or hear.” “Very well, let us try. Is *brightness* an abstract noun?”—“Yes.” “Can you see the brightness of the sun?”—“Yes.” “Then how can *brightness* be the name of something that you can't see? But now, did you ever hear of a quality?”—“Yes.” “Tell me a quality of sugar.”—“*Sweetness*.” “What quality makes me call a man *good*?”—“*Goodness*.” “Very well, *sweetness* and *goodness* are abstract nouns. What are they names of?”—“Qualities.” “Now name to me some action.”—“*Jumping, motion, flight*.” “Those too are abstract nouns. What are they names of?”—“Actions.” “Now tell me a noun that denotes a state in which a person or a thing may be.”—“*Sleep, life, death*.” “Good, those also are abstract nouns. Now put all that together, and tell me what an abstract noun may be the name of.” The answer will come promptly from a dozen at once—“An abstract noun is the name of a quality, or an action, or a state.” Is not all this within the comprehension of the youngest child who should be learning grammar at all? If so, is there any excuse for cheating the intelligence of a beginner, with the rubbish that I quoted before?

While on this point I cannot refrain from pointing out the worthlessness of a definition of abstract nouns which is more frequently given at examinations than any other; namely, that “an abstract noun is the name of anything which we only conceive of in our

minds as having a real independent existence.” Now, as *only* is not a negative this definition involves the assumption that we do conceive of that for which the abstract noun is a name as having a real independent existence. But this is palpably absurd. You *cannot* conceive of *motion*, for example, as having a real *independent* existence apart from something that moves. You would contradict yourself in the attempt. That which has an independent existence of its own cannot be an *attribute* of something else. We may fix our attention upon the attribute without thinking about that in which it is inherent. But we cannot *abstract* an attribute in the complete manner in which a thief might *abstract* my watch. The definition is lame enough as it stands. But confusion gets worse confounded when examinees leave out the word *only*, or, reproducing that irrepressible blunder about words and things, tell us that an abstract noun is “*something* that we conceive of as having a real independent existence.

Of course this blunder is extended from nouns themselves to their accidents. I suppose most children might be made with a little pains to comprehend that sex (male and female) is a distinction between classes of animals, and that gender (masculine and feminine) is a distinction between classes of words. At present any question on the subject is sure to elicit in abundance such replies as the following, which I quote *verbatim* :—

“Sex is the difference between animals, gender is the difference between things.”

“Gender is applied to one individual person, and sex to a collection of persons.”

“Sex is applied to living beings, and in a singular sense; gender in a plural sense, and also to inanimate objects.”

“Gender is the inflection of a noun as regards things, sex is the inflection of a noun as regards living beings.”

“Sex is the distinction between male and female persons, gender between male and female animals.”

“Gender is the distinction of sex,” or, as I was recently told, “there is no difference between sex and gender, they both mean the same.” There is a sort of courage about that answer which greatly commends it to my liking.

With how little reflection the usual lists of masculine and feminine nouns are often committed to memory and repeated, you may judge when I tell you that, along with the orthodox, *uncle, aunt; bachelor, spinster, &c.*, I have had masculine *hill* feminine *valley*; masculine *church*, feminine *chapel*,—a view of the relation between Churchmen and Nonconformists which might suggest some curious reflections, and is at any rate worthy of a boy in a well-known suburban college, who in interpreting a certain passage of poetry, explained “music that the *meeting soul* doth pierce,” to mean, “music suitable for a dissenter.”

As regards the case of nouns, I am afraid that many hundreds of unhappy children are still taught that the nominative does something, the possessive owns something, and the objective has something,

done to it. If, as I fondly hope, I have carried your judgments with me when I insist that when I say, "Tom kicked Harry," I do not mean that the noun or name, Tom, administered the kick, *a priori* you will agree that a mere *form* of a noun, a *case*, cannot do that which the "mighty noun" itself is incapable of achieving. Only fancy the *form* of a noun, a possessive *case*, being the owner of a house or a dog. No doubt the inventor of this wonderful specimen of definition plumed himself upon having turned out something remarkably neat and telling. He deserved to be turned into an objective case himself, that he might experience, not in word only, what it was to have "something done to him."

One of the most egregious and exasperating instances of this never-ending confusion between words and what words stand for, is still to be found in one of the most largely used English grammars (I don't wish to mention names, but see p. 31 of the last edition), and in scores of grammars based upon it, especially those little twopenny "dreadfuls" which simplify grammar for small children. It comes up in hundreds and hundred of answers at examinations. We are told that "adjectives express the qualities of nouns," *i.e.* of names. So that "a tall man" means that the noun or name, "man" is tall; "red rose" means that the word "rose" is red. There is no possibility of wriggling out of this conclusion, absurd as it is, if you accept that precious definition. I can fancy the writer saying, "Oh, you make such a fuss about trifles; of course, I meant that the man was tall, not the noun." I could only reply, "Then, if you meant what is right, why on earth did you say what is wrong? And what but harm can come of setting children to learn what is palpably and ridiculously wrong? It is but a variation of the same confusion when we are told that "an adjective is a word added to a noun in order to mark or distinguish it more accurately." Distinguish the noun? From what? You can only distinguished a word from a work; from what other word is the noun *rose* distinguished by the adjective *red*? Mark the noun? Pray how? Does it give a peculiar shade of meaning to the noun? What logicians know as the *connotation* of the word *rose* is not affected in the slightest degree; the adjective does not mark the noun, it denotes the *quality* that marks the *thing*. In trying to refine upon a definition which is radically bad, Dr. Abbott, in his, "How to tell the Parts of Speech," and "How to parse," makes matters still worse. * He tells us that an adjective is a word that can be put before a noun either to distinguish it or to enumerate it, that is, to point out its number or amount." What? the number or amount of the noun—the name? In *three men* how does *three* enumerate the noun *men*, when there is only *one* noun? "Why, it tells you how many *men* there are, doesn't it?"—"Certainly, but I was told that it enumerated

the noun." "Well it's the same thing."—"Ah, that's where you make the mistake."

Naturally, this confusion between *word* and *thing* appears in force when definitions of the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives are attempted. Here are some samples of a good deal that I have seen of late:—

"Comparative is one of two things, and superlative is one of three things."

"Superlative degree is the highest an adjective can go."

"Comparative degree is when the adjective is more so, and superlative most."

"The superlative degree expresses the greatest superiority an adjective can have."

"Superlative degree is the adjective extending the noun to the highest degree of comparison above every degree."

Questions about transitive and intransitive verbs always bring out a plentiful crop of mistakes, based upon this all-pervading confusion between words and that which they denote. The unfortunate examinees have been led astray by their grammars. I fancy no one present will dispute the accuracy of what I am going to say. In the sentence, "John struck the horse," we have *word*, a transitive verb, which denotes an action; we have a *word* "John," which denotes the doer of the action, and forms the grammatical subject of the verb; and a *word* "horse," which denotes the object of the action, and forms the grammatical object of the verb; the verb is a word, its subject is a word, and its object is a word. Well then, it must be sheer nonsense to say that the subject of the verb—the word John, mark you—is the doer of the action. It must be nonsense to talk of "the action of the verb." Verbs, words, have no *action*; they do not walk, or strike, or kick. They *denote* action, but that is quite another thing—the action is the action of the agent, not of the verb. The blow proceeded from the person John, not from the word "struck." Lastly, the action is directed not to the word *horse*, which is only the grammatical of the verb, but to the animal denoted by the word *horse*. It is the animal which is the object of the action, not the noun. It is unfortunate that the word *object* is used in this twofold sense—for the *thing* which is the object of the action, and the *word* which is the grammatical object of the verb, — but we cannot now help ourselves. Is it possible to dispute the truth of these statements? But how do our common grammars put the matter? One already quoted says,— "When the subject of the verb is the doer of the action; but when the subject of the verb is the object acted upon, the verb is passive." So that a word, a part of sentence, can be either the giver of a blow, or the receiver of a blow. Now for the same blunder put the other way. "Verbs which take two objects in the active voice, one of the person and the other of the thing, can be put into the passive voice, with the person as the subject, and the thing as the object." Only think of a *person*—a man or a boy—being part of a sentence, and forming the subject of a verb! Is it not irrational

* In this paper I have striven, as much as possible, to avoid mentioning names. If I depart from this rule in the present instance, it is only because this author's great reputation might lead many, who do not care to think for themselves, to attach undue importance to what is doubtless simply the result of inadvertence.

to call this grammar, and what but muddle and confusion can come of learning such stuff? Do you wish to see how the thing works? Take the following, which I quote, not as exceptional blunders, but as typical specimens of answers that I have had by hundreds within these few months:—

“A verb is in the passive voice when the object of the verb is really the subject, and the subject of the verb is really the object.”

“Active voice is the agent passing to the object, passive voice is the object passing to the agent.”

“A transitive verb is one that passes over to an object.”

“A verb is transitive when the subject passes to the object.”

“An active verb is a verb which does something; a passive verb is a verb to which something is done.”

“A verb is in the passive voice when it acts upon the subject.”

“A direct object is that which acts immediately on the object from which the action proceeds.”

“All intransitive verbs show that the subject does nothing.”

“A verb in the active voice is one in which the subject makes the active verb act upon the object; a verb in the passive voice is one which makes the object act upon the subject.”

Let me, in passing, call attention to another exceedingly common mistake. Learners are often incautiously told that a transitive verb must always have an object,—the very important condition of its being in the active voice being lost sight of. Of course, a transitive verb may be in the passive voice, and then there is no grammatical object of the verb, though of course the subject stands for the real object of the action. When I have given a list of verbs to be classed as transitive and intransitive respectively, I have usually found three candidates out of four put all the passives among the intransitives. In the last list that I gave, there happened to be only one transitive verb (*lay*) in the active voice. A candidate pounced upon this, and informed that *lay* was the only transitive verb in the list, because you can lay an egg.”

I must give you one other illustration of the all-pervading confusion between words and things, which I have been trying to expose. In parsing the words, “full many a flower is born to blush unseen,” a candidate recently wrote, “*is* a preposition, showing the relation between *flower* and *born*.” Could anything be more preposterously wrong? Hold, however; perhaps he was only making a strictly logical application of the definition that he had learnt. Very likely he had used one of our commonest school grammars which says that “a preposition is a word which shows the relation of a noun or pronoun to some other word in the sentence.” Well, does not *is* show (in a sort of way) the relation of *flower* to *born*? Then, according to the definition, it is a preposition. If not, why not? Why, because the ordinary definitions of a preposition are totally wrong. Everybody admits that prepositions show relations of some kind. Of what

kind? Here again, there is absolutely no dispute. Primarily, relations in space, rest in, motion to, motion from—*in, at, to, towards, from, &c.* Secondly, relations of time—*at, before, after, &c.* Thirdly, by a metaphorical use, the relations of *cause, effect, &c.* Now I put it to any one’s common sense, do these relations subsist between the words of a sentence? If I talk of a bird in a cage, is the word *bird* in the word *cage*? Of course not. The preposition *in* shows the relation in space of one thing to another. Can any one point out any conceivable relation between the word *bird* and the word *cage*, which is expressed by *in*? Yet a grammar, which bears a very distinguished name on the little page, lays down broadly that “preposition is a word which shows the relation of one noun to another.” But these writers cannot even be consistent with themselves. In the same book we read, a few lines further on, that, “when a preposition connects noun with noun, the relation is between one object and another.” Both statements cannot be correct. Still, when a man has made a blunder, it is better to correct it than to stick to it; and nothing could be more accurate than the statement just quoted, and what the writer goes on to say, “When it (*i. e.*, the preposition) connects a noun with an adjective, the relation is between an object and the quality expressed by the adjective (as *red* with *weeping*); when it connects a noun with a verb, the relation is between an object and an action (as *broken* with *storms*).” But a paragraph like this is a veritable *rara avis* in those sections of English grammars which treat of prepositions. The definition which is given by three examinees out of four is the thoroughly erroneous one that I quoted before, namely that “the preposition is a word which shows the relation of a noun or pronoun to some other word in the sentence,” to which the writer adds a paragraph, which for confusion of thought is perhaps unrivalled. He says, “Sometimes the preposition shows the relation of one substantive to another, as, ‘the wisdom of Solomon is renowned’; sometimes it shows the relation of some person or thing to a given action, as ‘he fell against the wall’; sometimes it shows the relation of a substantive to some quality, as ‘bread is good for food.’ These facts may be thus expressed: ‘prepositions relate nouns or pronouns to other nouns or pronouns, to verbs, or to adjectives.’” I presume that “to relate one noun to another” is meant to express the same idea as “to show the relation of the one noun to the other.” If not, the second definition contradicts the first. But look, I pray you, at that intervening expository paragraph. It contains three different and absolutely inconsistent accounts of the functions of the preposition. First, the preposition shows the relation of one substantive to another, *i. e.*, of a word to a word. This is the old story—the word *bird* inside the word *cage*. Next, the preposition shows the relation of a person or thing to an action,—no longer of one word to another. Here the writer has accidentally deviated into sense, but it is only for a moment. In the next sentence he goes more ingeniously wrong than ever,

for now he mixes the two contradictory notions together, and speaks of the preposition showing the relation of a substantive—not to an adjective, as we might expect, and as he actually says in the sentence that follows,—but to a *quality*. So in *good for food* 'for' expresses the relation of the word *food* to the *quality* of goodness that exists in the *thing* 'bread.' Is it to be wondered at that learners whose heads have been muddled with this sort of thing, when they come to parse a sentence make the wildest confusion with their prepositions? You have seen *is* called a preposition. Repeatedly, I have seen *cannot* called a preposition, *suddenly* a preposition, *full* a preposition, *many* a preposition, *that* a preposition, *as* a preposition, and so forth.

I am greatly mistaken if by this time I have not succeeded in showing that a very large amount of the grammar teaching that is current in our schools is radically vitiated by the neglect of a distinction so simple and obvious that to mention it is to secure assent for it. The primary definitions, upon which everything in the shape of syntax or the explanation of constructions must be based, are in consequence confused, illogical, and misleading,—absolutely worthless for any purpose, whether practical or scientific.

Matters are improving, however. Not so very long ago there was not a single English grammar for schools which did not contain all, or nearly all the mistakes I have just been pointing out, along with a good many more. Now there are several which are nearly, or altogether, free from them. Even the Potential Mood is dying out, though, like other creatures of low vital power, it takes a good deal of killing. Is it not marvellous that teachers, who, in their Latin classes, never dream of telling their pupils that *possum scribere* is the potential mood of *scribo*; and when they give a German lesson, never insist that *ich kann schreiben* is a potential mood of *schreiben*; or in Greek, that *graphein dunamai* is a potential mood of *graphein* or in French, that *je puis écrire* is a potential mood of *écrire*,—still hanker after that blessed potential mood in English? Be consistent. Have it in all the above languages, or have it in none. Besides, if *I can sing* makes a potential mood, surely *I may sing* makes a permissive mood, *I will sing* makes a volitional mood, *I must sing* makes a necessitarian mood, *I ought to sing* makes a morally obligatory mood. What right has *can* to this pre-eminence of modality? If you take one take all. We used to be told that *of a man* was a genitive case, *to a man* a dative case, *by a man* an ablative case, and so on. Horne Tooke long ago pointed out that, if you went to work in that way, you must have as many cases as there are prepositions. I think it will be hard to show that it is not just the same with the moods.

I now ask your patient attention to a few remarks in which I shall endeavour to remove some very prevalent and mischievous misconceptions as to some other moods:—a task the more necessary and the more difficult, because some very eminent names have lent weight to the views that I have to combat.

In doing so, I shall have to appeal to other languages, such as German and Latin. I insist on the right to do so, because, whatever may be the differences in details between, say, Latin and English, there is an identity in the *cardinal grammatical ideas* on which each language is based. Number, person, case, voice, mood, tense, are based upon the *same fundamental conceptions* in both languages. If you look at the pronoun, for example, you will see that we have come to assign to one case—the dative—the functions that were originally, even in English, distributed amongst three—the dative, the accusative, and the instrumental. Here is an important piece of difference in detail,—we have not so many cases as the Latins had. For all that, it still remains true that the fundamental functions of case-endings are common to both Latin and English. In like manner, though there are differences of usage, a subjunctive mood is fundamentally the same thing in English, German, and Latin, and no *definition* of it is valid for English which will not apply to the other languages.

First, let us emancipate ourselves from the tyranny of names. Our common grammatical terms are very insufficient, and often quite misleading. They have come down to us from times when grammar was most imperfectly understood, through Latin writers, who added blunders of their own to the imperfections that they found. Witness their translating *ptōsis genikæ* by 'casus genitivus (from *genitus*, instead of *genus*). Nothing of value is to be got out of the mere etymological meaning of a grammatical term. "Accusative" is a very stupid name for the case of the direct object; and *ablative* is still worse for that which denotes an instrument or an attendant circumstance. So you will never get to know what a subjunctive mood is by merely translating the word *subjunctive*. But unfortunately the name has led many to suppose that there is some essential and invariable connection between *subjunctive* and *subjoined*; and, more and worse than this, to confound a *subjoined clause* with a *verb in the subjunctive mood*. You may have a verb in the subjunctive mood in a principal clause, (as in "If 'twere done when 'tis done, then *it were well* it were done quickly,") and you may have an indicative in a subjoined clause, as after *ubi* or *when* or any relative in Latin or English.

Now the first point that I insist upon is this,—that a verb in the subjunctive mood is not simply a verb employed in a subjoined clause, but a *particular kind of verbal-form*, such as *sim, sis, sis*, in Latin; *sey* or *wäre*, in German; *I were, he were*, in English; and that the forms *sum, bin, am est, ist, is*, are indicative wherever they are found. You may find Latin sentences by the score in which *est* follows *si*; but *si est* is not a subjunctive mood; the conjunction is no part of the mood. *Est* is indicative wherever you find it. Yet I have seen a school grammar in which *if I am* is deliberately set down as the subjunctive of *to be*; and matters are not much mended when such combinations are termed (as by Dr. Abbott) *indicative-subjunctive* forms. A 'horse-

marine' is nothing in comparison with this wonderful compound, for a marine might bestride a horse; but by no possibility can an indicative ever be any kind of subjunctive. You might as well talk of a genitive-accusative?

I next proceed to consider how far there is any essential connection between the idea of conditionality and the subjunctive mood. Let me ask your attention to the following quotation from Professor Bain. He says,—“Some circumstances in the manner of an action have also been embodied in the changes made in the root verb. For example, when an action is stated not absolutely, but conditionally, the verb is differently modified, and a series of tenses is formed for present, past, future, complete, and incomplete, of the conditional verb. This is the *Subjunctive Mood* which exists in full force in the old languages, but is a mere remnant in ours. The machinery is too great for the occasion; we find that conditionality can be given by a conjunction, *if* or *though*, and need not be repeated in the verb.”

If language means anything, this passage means that a special form or mood—the Subjunctive—was invented to express conditionality, that it is the appropriate form for the purpose; and that in the old languages (Latin, for example) it was regularly employed (“exists in full force”), but has been almost entirely dispensed with in our language, because we have found that we can get on without it.

Dr. Abbott, in his “How to Parse,” echoes Mr. Bain’s statement. He says,—“Every verb has a certain mode or mood for expressing condition. This mood is called the subjoined or Subjunctive.” But Dr. Abbott goes farther than Mr. Bain. The latter seems to be under the hallucination that the Subjunctive regularly follows *si* in Latin. On that point one must simply refer him to his Latin grammar. Still he allows that clauses in which *if* or *though* is followed by the Indicative mood are *conditional* clauses; though he evidently thinks that it is the proper function of the Subjunctive to express conditionality, and that it might be rightly used in all cases, only we have found out that we can manage to get on without it, and so content ourselves without the Indicative. But Dr. Abbott is too good a scholar not to know that the Indicative is as common as possible after *si* in Latin, just as it is after *weil* in German and *if* in English. Nevertheless he stands to it that “every verb has a certain mood for expressing condition, called the subjoined or Subjunctive.” “Yes, but the facts are against you; a palpable Indicative is often found in conditional clauses.” “So much the worse for the facts. The clauses are not conditional.” There is a sort of cheerful courage about this way of going to work which is quite refreshing. “*If*,” says Mr. Abbott, “is sometimes used not in its ordinary conditional sense, nor, on the other hand, exactly like *since*, but rather in the sense of ‘assuming as a fact.’ In such cases it is followed by a true Indicative, as. ‘If he says that, he is more indifferent than I supposed.’ This must not be confounded with the true Subjunctive.”

Here at last we come to close quarters. I reply that to assume something as a fact before making some other assertion, is to make a conditional assertion. When I say, “The man deserves to be hanged,” I make an absolute, unconditioned assertion. When I say, “If the man is guilty, he deserves to be hanged,” it is incomprehensible to me how anyone can deny that I make a *conditioned* assertion—an *assertion under conditions*, depending for its truth upon something else about which I am uncertain. I assert that the man deserves to be hanged only *on the assumption* that he is guilty; and if the clause expressing this assumption, which is the condition of my making the assertion in the main clause, is not a *conditional clause*, the word *conditional* must be derived, not from *condition*, but from some other word with which I am unacquainted. The fact is, it is entirely erroneous to suppose that conditionality and the subjunctive mood are essentially connected. Conditional assertions may be made with equal propriety with the use of each mood according to circumstances. The difference depends upon a point with Professor Bain appears to me not to see at all, but which I fancy Dr. Abbott had in his mind, though unconsciously, in making the statements that I am criticising. It is this. The old talk about mood expressing the mode or manner of an action is all rubbish. When I say, “John, shut the door,” what in the world has the Imperative mood got to do with the “*manner* of the action”? Every proposition in every finite mood, Indicative, Subjunctive, and Imperative, involves the connection in our minds of a predicative idea with that denoted by the subject. The mood expresses the *attitude of our minds in relation to this predicative connection*. When, in making it, we have in our minds the idea that the connection established relates, actually or possibly, either as assertion or as hypothesis, to something *actual*, outside or thought about it, we use the Indicative. When we express our *will* that the connection made in thought should be realised in the actual or objective world, we use the Imperative. But when the predication remains a mere *matter of conception*, without being contemplated (so far, at least, as the purpose in hand is concerned) as corresponding, actually or possibly, to what exists outside our thought, we use the Subjunctive; we thus get the Indicative as the mood of reality, or of objective predication; the Subjunctive mood of conception, or of merely objective predication; and the Imperative as the mood of volitional predication.

We have now got a definition which is free from the shackles imposed on us by the words “subjunctive” and “conditional,” and shall be able to see how, amongst others, conditional sentences are related to the Indicative and Subjunctive respectively. “*Nisi hoc est, frustra laboramus.*” “If this is not the case (actually and really), we are troubling ourselves to no purpose.” Here, in both clauses, we are dealing with external realities. “*Tu si hic sis, aliter sentias.*” “If you were in my position, you would think differently;” obviously a mere matter of conception. I do not set before myself, as an alter-

native, that you either will or will not be in my position; and this, please to observe, is not the same thing as *denying* that you either will or will not be in my position. Only I do not go so far as to contemplate either alternative in its actuality. The matter goes no farther than being matter of conception. Accordingly the Subjunctive Mood is employed. Again, "Si epistolam ad eum scripseras, ad te rescribere eum oportuit;" "If you (actually) wrote to him, it was his duty to write back to you" (Indicative). But "Si scissem in quo periculo esses, statim ad te advolassem," "If I had known in what danger you were, I would have flown to you." A mere matter of conception, I *did* not know, and *did* not fly to you. Now, to see how absurd the name *Subjunctive* is. The mood thus called is as appropriate in the *main* clause, as in a subjoined clause, provided the predication has the merely *conceptive* character that I referred to. It would require a special lecture to discuss this subject at full length. I shall not accept that task now. I will simply say that you will find the explanation of constructions in which the subjunctive appears wonderfully simplified by carrying the question at once to the fundamental conception denoted by the *class of forms* that bears this unfortunate name. Thus, for example, this primary characteristic of the mood shows why it is the proper one in Latin and English to express *purpose*. A purpose, as such, cannot possibly be anything more than a conception. The Romans also use this mood to denote *consequence*, even in cases where in Greek, in German, or English we should have the Indicative. They took simply a *conceptive* view of the relation of cause and effect, just as in English instead of saying "He was so famished that he gnawed his boots," we may stop short of *asserting* the actual fact by saying, "He was so famished as to gnaw his boots," where, you will observe, the *form* of the expression gives merely a *conceptive* relation between the ideas, just as is the case in "He was too grieved to speak." I have not time to pursue the matter in detail, but you will find that most of the difficulties in the use of Subjunctive in Latin vanish when we get rid of the effete old notion of its being *governed* by conjunctions or relatives, or being the mood for expressing condition, and deal with it on its own proper footing, as the mood of merely *conceptive* predication. To take a single illustration. Most beginners are puzzled to tell when to use an Indicative mood after *quod* or *quo* (meaning "because"), and when the Subjunctive. The principle is simple. If the writer is alleging what he regards as an *actual* reason, use the Indicative. If the reason is not avouched by him as matter of fact, but brought forward only as matter as conception, use the Subjunctive. Here is a sentence that illustrates both uses. "Succensui ei magis quod me consilii sui certiore non fecerat, quam quod consilium ipsum inivisset," "I blamed him more because he did not inform me of his design (real reason—Indicative) than because he formed the design itself (imaginare—because rejected—reason—Subjunctive).

The view that I have just set before you in outline is nothing new or strange. It is enforced by all the best German grammarians. You will find it in Madvig's or Roby's, or the Public Schools' Latin Grammar, in Matzner's "Englische Grammatik," and elsewhere.

I must somehow have failed to make myself understood, if I have not carried your judgment with me as to these points.—1. That the verb in a subjoined clause is not, as a matter of course, in the Subjunctive mood; while, on the other hand, a Subjunctive mood may be found in the main clause of a sentence. That we may speak about that of which we are uncertain by means of the Indicative mood ("If he *is* at home," "If the prisoner *is* guilty," "Si hoc est," &c.) 3. That we may use the subjunctive when we are speaking of that of which we are quite certain (Si scissem in quo periculo esses ad te advolassem—there is not the slightest doubt that I *did not* know, and *did not fly*). † 4. That the Subjunctive mood is not essential for the expression of a condition, and that therefore *conditional* is a bad name for it. The fact is that *certain* and *uncertain absolute* and *conditional*, have been confounded with *actual* and *conceptive*. I recommend you to examine, in the light of these ideas, the deliverances of some of our common grammars on the functions of the Subjunctive mood. If you find them definite, full, satisfactory, or philosophical, all I can say is that you show a remarkable aptitude for being thankful for small mercies. Be pleased also to bear in mind that I have not attempted to deal with more than the broad outlines of the subject, and that I have not had time to show how the view I have given you of the *fundamental* functions of the Subjunctive mood is not invalidated by the fact that anomalies have been introduced by two opposing tendencies. On the one hand there is a very natural tendency to speak of contingent or uncertain *future* events as though they were merely matters of subjective conception, so that in English we say (or rather used to say), "If it *rain* to-morrow," "If he *come* in time," (where a Latin writer would have used the future indicative,)—and even to extend the usage to what is merely *uncertain*, a tendency which must not be confounded with that strictly proper use of the Subjunctive, when the supposition we are making is put, not as a possible *individual fact*, but as a *general case*. On the other hand there is a tendency to discard fine grammatical distinctions, and use the Indicative mood where the subjunctive would be more correct. Now-a-days one often has the skin taken off one's ears by hearing such sentences as "If he was wise," instead of "If he were wise." But an Indicative so used is not an Indicative-Subjunctive, but merely an Indicative used where a Subjunctive ought to have been used. It is not a "false Subjunctive," because, although subjoined, it does not pretend to be a Subjunctive at all, but

† Dr. Alford gives the contrary as the rule.—Vide "The Queen's English" Page 211.—(Ed. J. of Ed.)

simply intrudes its honest Indicative face where it has no business.

There is something to be said for those who would use the name Conjunctive instead of Subjunctive. From the very nature of their primary function, those forms which are called "subjunctive" are incapable of being used in a *simple* declarative or interrogative sentence. A predication made in thought only in meaningless, except as related in thought to some other predication. It follows that, if we except optative sentences, which may be treated either as expressing volitional predication, or as being elliptical, subjunctive forms can only be used in *complex sentences*, that is, in sentences where there are more than one clause joined together. But there still remains the objection that the name is misleading, because conjoined clauses may have their verbs in the Indicative mood.

This brings me to a point which I would gladly have discussed at greater length. I maintain that the Subjunctive has not disappeared so thoroughly as some suppose. The obliteration of distinguishing marks is not quite the same thing as the annihilation of the difference which the marks once denoted. Identity of form is not identity of function. There are those who say that in such a sentence as "If I had a shilling, I will give it to you," *had* is in the Indicative mood, because it is the same in form as in "I had a long walk yesterday," who yet have no hesitation, when parsing "I went," in saying that *went* is in the singular number, and in parsing "*we went*," that it is in the plural; and speak of some nouns being in the nominative and others in the objective case, though they are alike in form. You do not say that *regnum*, in Latin, has lost two of its cases, because the nom., acc., and voc. are alike. And this right, because the distinctions are maintained elsewhere. So in English. So long as we distinguished "If I was" and "If I were," we are entitled to treat *had* in "If I had" as being sometimes in the Indicative and sometimes in the Subjunctive.

I know very well that to secure accuracy and clearness in what is learnt costs a good deal of trouble, and takes a good deal of time; but it does not consume one quarter of the time that is wasted over the profitless slip-slop work that often occupies school-hours. There is no real difficulty if teachers will only go on slowly. But the average boy can take in very little at a time of what requires accurate thought. If you hurry him, his mind becomes a chaos of muddle and confusion. I have known teachers take a class of beginners, and set them to learn the definitions of all the parts of speech for a single lesson. Naturally when they brought it up they were apt to say that prepositions denoted the qualities of nouns, and that verbs denoted anything that had a real independent existence, and so on. Pupils taught in this fashion may be kept at grammar for six years, and will know little more at the end of the time than they did at the beginning. But let each step be made sure before the next is taken; let the pupils, if necessary, spend a month in learning

what a noun is, a month in mastering gender, another over number, and another over case, and let them go through all the parts of speech at the same rate. In two years they will be masters of the essentials of English grammar, and have more to show for the labour expended than vast numbers ever acquire in the whole of their school course.

Let me make one other practical suggestion on a point of detail. When you ask questions, always insist upon it that the answer shall be a complete sentence, and in grammatical sequence to the question. For instance, if the question be "What is the objective case?" do not allow such an answer as "Transitive verbs and prepositions govern the objective case"; but require the answer to be "The objective case is the case in which a noun or pronoun is put when it is governed by a transitive verb or a preposition;" sad so on.

Now I am quite unaware whether in any of my remarks I have been treading on anybody's grammatical corns. If, however, any one present has an uneasy misgiving that, through going on without due heed in a certain rut, he has inadvertently suffered his pupils to waste their time in learning what is wrong, I can only wish him a fit of deep penitence, while I remind him of the words of a little "moral song" which he probably learnt when he was a small boy:

"Tis not enough to say
We're sorry and repent,
And still go on from day to day,
Just as we always went."

—*Educational Times.*

McGill University.

CONVOCAION OF THE FACULTIES OF ARTS AND APPLIED SCIENCE.

The annual Convocation of the Arts and Science Faculties of the McGill University took place in the William Molson Hall yesterday afternoon at three o'clock. As usual, there was a very large attendance of Professors, graduates, students and spectators, among the latter many ladies. The Hon. C. D. Day, L. L. D., D. C. I., President and Chancellor of the University, presided, and the following members of Convocation were present:—J. W. Dawson, M. A., LL. D., F. R. S., Principal and Vice-Chancellor; A. Robertson, M. A., Q. C.; Hon. C. Dunkin, M. A.; Peter Redpath, Esq., Governors; Ven. Archdeacon Leach, D. C. L., LL. D., Vice-Principal and Dean of Faculty of Arts; G. W. Campbell, M. A., M. D., LL. D., Dean of Faculty of Medicine; Henry T. Bovey, M. A., C. E.; Alex. Johnson, M. A., LL. D.; Rev. Henry Wilkes, M. A., D. D., LL. D.; Rev. D. H. McVicar, LL. D.; R. A. Ramsay, M. A., B. C. L.; John Reddy, M. D.; Rev. John Jenkins, D. D.; J. R. Dougall, M. A.; J. J. McLaren, M. A., B. C. L.; Rev. J. Clarke Murray, LL. D.; Geo. E. Fenwick, M. D.; Rev. Charles Tanner, Principal of St. Francis College, Richmond; W. C. Baynes, B. A., Secretary and Registrar; Professor Wm. F. Scott, M. D.; Rev. A. De Sola, LL. D.; Charles F. A. Markgraf, M. A.; P. J. Borey, M. A., B. C. L.; Robert Craik, M. D.; B. J. Harrington, B. A.; Ph. D. T. G. Roddick, M. D.; Wm. Osler, M. D.; C. H. McLeod, Ba. App. Sc.; Arch. Duff, M. A., Lecturers, etc., etc.

Before the public meeting, the members of Convocation met in the library, and elected Fellows in the respective Faculties for the ensuing year:—Messrs. Brown, M. D., and John Reddy, B. A., M. D., in Medicine; Messrs. A. Ramsay, M. A., B. C. L., and J. Redpath Dougall, M. A., in Arts; Messrs. Torrance and McLeod in Applied Science.

After prayer, Dr. Johnson, Professor of Mathematics, read the pass and honour lists in Arts. The medals, prizes and honours were then awarded. The capping of the new graduates followed, the Principal, Dr. Dawson, conferring the degrees Mr. Guerin, B. A., then read the valedictory, which was followed by an address from Professor Johnson, L. L. D., who made an able answer to the recent strictures of Goldwin Smith upon Canadian Universities, and pointed out that the requirements for a pass were far more in Canada than in England.

The pass and honour lists in Applied Science were then read by Professor Bovey, M. A., C. E., Professor of Engineering and Applied Science. The degree of Bachelor of Applied Science was then conferred on the successful candidates by the Principal. The Valedictory was read by Mr. Boulden, Ba. App. Sc., who was honoured at the conclusion of his address by the presentation of a basket of flowers from, evidently, some fair friends. Professor Bovey made a good address, pointing out the wide range of engineering science and the peculiar necessity at the present time for its application to the industrial resources of the Dominion. The degree of Master of Engineering was then conferred on Mr. C. H. McLeod, Ba. App. Sc., Lecturer in the School of Applied Science.

The Earl of Dufferin's medal was then conferred upon Mr. E. W. P. Guerin, after which the Vice-Chancellor's report on the session of 1877-78 was read.

Dr. Dawson stated that the number of students in attendance in the classes had considerably increased. The total number in the Faculties of Arts, Medicine and Law had been 421, besides 46 in Morrin College, Quebec. At the several meetings of Convocation there had been conferred 26 degrees in Law, 27 in Medicine, and 25 in Arts in all 78, or 17 more than last year. Only one honorary degree had been given, but that was a memorable one, which might well stand by itself—the degree of Doctor of Laws conferred on the Earl of Dufferin, on the occasion of his visit to the University in February last. To-day we award the last of the medals so generously offered by Lord Dufferin for studies in History; but, by His Excellency's permission, we offer next session a prize for a similar competition in his name. The award of exhibitions and scholarships read to-day, bears testimony to the continued liberality of friends of education in this city in providing those aids to deserving young men. We have, in the past year, lost a benefactor to the University and to the cause of science, education and sanitary reform, in the lamented decease of Dr. Philip Carpenter, who, however, leaves an appropriate monument in the College, in the magnificent collection which bears his name. Our library has received considerable additions by purchase and by large donations from Peter Redpath, Esq., and the McGill College Book Club, and smaller gifts from many other friends. The total number of volumes is now over 16,000. Its usefulness has been largely increased by an improved classification of the books, and by the formation of a card-catalogue of subjects. Our school examinations for certificates and the title of Associate in Arts have been more than usually successful, and a new feature of the last examination was the admission of young women for the first time to these examinations. It is to be hoped that the examinations for the present year, to be held in a few days, will show a still further advance in the numbers and qualifications of candidates. The question is now being asked if we cannot provide higher examinations for young women, leading up to the University degree, as is now done by some of the Universities in the mother country. On this subject, I may say that there seems no good reason why young women may not be admitted to higher University examinations, provided that the means of training for such examinations can be provided. It remains for those interested in this highly important work to make some adequate provision for a college for women, affiliated to the University. So soon as this can be done, we shall be ready to give all the assistance in our power.

It is a fact much to be regretted that, while our history of the past year shows an increase of appreciation of the value of University distinctions on the part of the more intelligent portion of the public, the Legislature of this Province has thought fit to show an opposite tendency in the matter of the relation of training in literature and science as introductory to learned professions. For a long time the preliminary examinations in Law have paid no respect to degrees in Arts, and now the new Medical Act allows no such exemptions in favour of graduates in Arts, as are usual in most civilized countries, and subjects a Bachelor of Arts to an examination such as he

ought to have passed at the entrance to his four year's course of study. This apparent ignorance of the difference between a University training and a mere cram for an examination, which would seem to exist not only on the part of the Legislature, but apparently also of a majority of the medical profession, is something which could scarcely have been expected at this stage of the world's progress; and independent of its injustice and anti-educational tendency, and the insult which it offers to our Royal charters and to the liberality of educational benefactors, deserves investigation as a most strange and unexpected phenomenon, indicative of a density of ignorance or an antagonism to sound learning, of a somewhat portentous character with reference to the future of this country.

The most important addition to our University system in the past year has been the erection of our Department of Applied Science into a separate faculty. This, I feel confident, will be looked back upon in the time to come as a landmark in the growth of the University. In a country like Canada, nothing can be more important than the scientific training of young men for the professions of civil engineering, mechanical engineering, mining, assaying and the application of chemistry to the arts. If we are to open up successfully our Western Territories—if we are to compete with other nations in arts and manufactures, we must have men trained in practical science, and we cannot trust to the importation of such men from abroad, even if we were prepared to condemn our own young men to exclusion from the higher positions in such work. To the hundreds of graduates of such schools annually going forth in the United States and in all the countries of Europe those countries look for the highest development of their material resources, and surely Canada, with its surplussage of undeveloped riches, is in no less need. The course offered in our announcement now issued, is, I may safely affirm, one not hitherto equalled in this country, and admitting of not unfavourable comparison with those in older countries, and if, as I hope, we should see in a few years the new Faculty numbering as many students as any of those previously established, the fact will afford one of the brightest auguries for the future of our country. I must confess, however, that the erection of this Faculty is, to some extent, an act of faith. A number of liberal friends have come forward with subscriptions in its aid, a list of which will be published in our new calendar; but we must hope for more, and also for the means to erect a suitable building for the new Faculty, now sheltered under the roof of the Faculty of Arts.

An address by the Hon. Justice Dunkin concluded the proceedings, and, after a benediction, the Convocation dispersed.

The following are the Pass, Honour and Prize Lists:—

FACULTY OF ARTS.

PASSED FOR THE DEGREE OF B. A.

In Honours—First Rank: James T. Donald, Edmund W. P. Guerin, Charles S. Pedley, James Ross, William S. Stewart, Hastewell W. Thornton, Second Rank; Rankine Dawson.

Ordinary—Class I.: Jarvois A. Newnam, Clarence A. Lyman, John H. Graham, Class II.: Frederic W. Torrance, A. M. McFadeyn, Malcolm D. Blakely. Class III.: Ronald McKillop, D. C. McLaren and Edward T. Taylor, equal; James Wellwood, William Ewing, James F. Sweeny.

PASSED THE INTERMEDIATE EXAMINATION.

(1) McGill College.—Class I.: Darcy Hunton, McKenzie, Currie, Bull, Keays, Lafleur. Class II. Raynes, Roberts, Molson, Cunningham, Ogilvie, Larivière, Bayne (G. D.), Pillsbury, Bennett, Craig, Scriver. Class III.: Muir, (A.C.), McIntyre.

(2) Morin College.—Class I.: Hemming, Class II.: Ferguson, Walker.

PASSED FOR THE DEGREE OF BACHELOR OF APPLIED SCIENCE.

Course of Civil and Mechanical Engineering.—C. Boulden, John Swan, R. Hall, P. D. Ross.

Course of Practical Chemistry.—Frank Adams.
Bachelor Applied Science taking additional standing of Mining Engineer.—R. B. Rogers, Bac. Ap. Sc.

Bachelor Applied Science proceeding to the degree of Master of Engineering.—C. H. McLeod, Bac. Ap. Sc.

GRADUATING CLASS.

B. A. Honours in Classics—W. S. Stewart, first rank honours and Chapman gold medal.

B. A. Honours in Natural Science—James T. Donald, first

rank honours and Logan gold medal; Hastewell W. Thornton, first rank honours.

B. A. Honours in Metal and Moral Philosophy—James Ross, first rank honours and Prince of Wales gold medal; Charles S. Pedley, first rank honours; Rankine Dawson, second rank honours.

B. A. Honours in English Language, Literature and History—Edmund W. P. Guerin, first rank honours and Shakspeare gold medal.

THIRD YEAR.

William McClure, first rank honours in Mathematical Physics and Molson prize; first rank general standing.

Alexander S. Ross, first rank honours in Mental and Moral Philosophy and Prize; first rank general standing.

Richard G. McConnell, first rank honours in Natural Science and prize for Collection of Plants; first rank general standing.

Robert Eadie, first rank general standing; prize in Classics.

William D. Lighthall, first rank honours in English Literature, Literature and History and prize.

William H. Stevens, first rank honours in Natural Science.

Robert J. B. Howard, first rank honours in Natural Science and prize.

PASSED THE SESSIONAL EXAMINATION.

McClure, Cross, McDonnell, Eadie, Lighthall, Stevens, Howard, Robertson, Lane, Wood, McKibbin, Redpath.

SECOND YEAR.

Sidney W. Hunton, Ottawa Collegiste Institute, first rank honours in Mathematics and prize; first rank general standing. J. Heabert Darey, High School, Montreal; second rank honours in Mathematics, first rank general standing; prize in German.

William A. McKenzie, Upper Canada College, first rank general standing; prize in English Literature.

Dougald Currie, Galt Collegiate Institute, first rank general standing; prize in Botany.

Hurtcourt J. Bull, High School, Montreal, first rank general standing; prize in Logic.

Paul T. Lafleur, High School, Montreal, prize in French.

PASSED THE SESSIONAL EXAMINATION.

Darey, Hunton, McKenzie, Currie, Bull, Keays, Lafleur, Raynes, Roberts, Molson, Cunningham, Ogiivie, Larivière, (G. D.), Pillsbury, Bennett, Craig, Scriver, Muir, McIntyre.

FIRST YEAR.

Alexander Falconer (High School, Montreal), first rank honours in Mathematics and second prize; first rank in general standing; prize in English, prize in Classics, prize in Chemistry, prize in German, prize in French.

William A. Ferguson (High School, Richibucto), first rank honours in Mathematics and first prize; first rank general standing.

John E. Jones (Digby Academy, N. S.), first rank general standing.

Archibald McLeod (Prince of Wales Colloge, Charlottetown, P. E. I.), prize in Classics.

G. Robertson, (Douglas School, Garafraxa, Ont.), prize in Hebrew.

Frank Weir (High School, Montreal), prize for English Essay.

PASSED THE SESSIONAL EXAMINATION.

Falconer, Ferguson, Jones, McLeod (Archibald), Powell, Elder, Lyman, Robertson, Ami, Bracq, Rutherford, Macpherson, McLeod (Alvan), McGibbon, Scott, Rogers, Weir.

DEPARTMENT OF PRACTICAL AND APPLIED SCIENCE.

GRADUATING CLASS.

Frank Adams, first rank honours in Natural Science; prize in Chemistry.

Chs. M. Boulden, Skelton prize in Engineering.

Philip D. Ross, prize in French.

MIDDLE YEAR.

John O'Dawyer, prize in Engineering.

William F. Cockrane, second prize in Engineering.

Richard G. McConnell, prize in Zoology; prize in Blowpipe Analysis.

PASSED THE SESSIONAL EXAMINATION.

Civil and Mechanical Engineering—O'Dawyer, Cockrane, Smith, Skaife.

Mining Engineering—McConnell.

JUNIOR YEAR—PASSED THE SESSIONAL EXAMINATION.

Archibold, Richard, Busted Collins.
Earl of Dufferin's Medals for a Prize Essay in History—Edmund W. P. Guerin (fourth year student), silver medal.

At the examinations in September 1877, the following Scholarship and Exhibitions were awarded:—

Third Year.—McClure and McConnell and Cross and Eadie : W. C. McDonald Scholarship

Second Year.—Hunton and Darey and Bull :—W. C. MacDonald, Exhibitions. McKenzie; The Jane Redpath Exhibition.

First Year: Falconer and Ferguton.—W. C. MacDonald Exhibitions. Jones :—Jane Redpath Exhibition. Ami (H. M.)

—The Governor's Exhibition. Rogers :—The T. M. Taylor Exhibition.

The Annual Report of the McGill College.

Printed by permission of His Excellency the Governor General.

To His Excellency the Right Hon. the Earl of Dufferin, Viscount and Baron Clandeboye, &c., K.P., K.C.B., K. C. M. G., Governor-General of the Dominion of Canada, &c.

May it please Your Excellency :

The Governors, Principal and Fellows of McGill University, Montreal, beg leave to present to Your Excellency, as visitor on behalf of the Crown the following report on the condition and progress of the University and its affiliated institutions, in the year ending December 31st, 1877, beginning as usual with the statistics of the educational year.

The number of students in McGill College in the present session is as follows :—

Students in Law.....	100
Students in Medicine	160
Students in Arts.....	165
Total.....	425

or deducting four students entered in more than one faculty, in all 425:

The students of the Morrin Colloge, Quebec, are 11 in the undergraduated course and 35 occasional.

The teachers in training in the Normal School are 125. The pupils in the Model School of the Normal School are 350.

The total number of persons thus receiving educational benefits from the University is 946.

Of the students and teachers in training in McGill College and the Normal School, about 340 are persons not resident in Montreal, but attracted to it by the educational advantages offered by the University and its affiliated institutions.

At the meeting of convocation in March and May last, the following degrees were conferred :—

Doctors of Laws.....	1
Doctors of Medicine.....	19
Masters of Arts.....	2
Bachelors of Civil Law.....	20
Bachelors of Arts.....	13
Bachelors of Applied Science.....	6
Total.....	61

One of the silver medals offered by Your Excellency for competition in history, was awarded to J. W. Spencer, Bachelor of Applied Science, for his essay on "The Fall of the Republic of Florence."

At the close of the session, the following University Gold Medals were awarded to successful candidates:—The Elizabeth Torrance medal in law, the Holmes medal in Medicine, the Chapman medal for Classics, the Prince of Wales medal for Mental and Moral Philosophy, the Shakespeare medal for English Literature, and the Logan medal for Geology and Natural Science. The Anne Molson Medal for Mathematics and Physical Science was not awarded, there being no competitor.

At the close of the session of the McGill Normal School, in July, the following diplomas were granted by the Hon. the Superintendent of Education:—

For Academies.....	4
For Model Schools.....	30
For Elementary Schools.....	41
Total.....	75

In the school examinations of May last, thirty-one candidates were successful, of whom twenty-five passed as associates in Arts, and six for the Junior Certificate.

From the foregoing statistics it appears that the number of students in the University is a little larger than in any previous session, the excess above last year being 14. The increase is in the faculties of Law and Medicine, the number in Arts being about the same as last year. In this faculty, however, the number of undergraduates has reached 87, which is greater than ever previously. This is in addition to 24 students in the Department of Applied Science. The number of degrees granted is considerably larger than last year, though not above the number in some previous years. The total number of diplomas granted to students of the Normal School now amounts to 1,087. The classes in the present session are larger than heretofore, and the work is being carried on with the additional faculties afforded by the enlargement of the building.

The number of certificates granted to pupils of high schools has considerably increased; and of those who took the certificates, fifteen are young women, who were for the first time admitted to these examinations in the past year. Candidates also presented themselves from Ontario as well as from Quebec, and a local centre was established in the Collegiate Institute at Hamilton.

Mr. C. H. McLeod, Bac. App. Sc., has continued the meteorological observations, in connection with Prof. Kingston and with the Department of Marine and Fisheries, and has furnished regularly information to the press. He has also given instruction to students, of whom seven obtained certificates at the close of last Session. In his last report he again urges the importance of supplying the Observatory with self-recording instruments.

At the beginning of the session, sixteen Scholarships and Exhibitions in Arts, ranging in value

from \$100 to \$125, were awarded to successful candidates, as well as one Scott Exhibition in the Department of Applied Science, of the value of \$66. Our warmest thanks and those of the many meritorious students who have derived the benefit of these aids, are due to the liberal donors, and especially to W. C. McDonald, Esq., who has given ten scholarships annually since 1871. The others donors are Mrs. Redpath of Terrace Bank, Charles Alexander, Esq., T. M. Taylor, Esq., the Caledonian Society and the Board of Governors.

We have much pleasure in stating that Mrs. Sutherland, the widow of the late Prof. W. Sutherland, M. D., of this University, has estimated her intention to provide for competition in the Faculty of Medicine a gold medal for the subject of Chemistry, in memory of her late husband, and to be named the Sutherland Gold Medal.

Another gratifying donation of the permanent endowment of the Neil Stewart prize in Hebrew, by Neil Stewart, Esq., of Vankleek Hill, who has given the prize of \$20 annually for two years. The prize was originally given by the Rev. Colin C. Stewart, a graduate of this University, and on his death was assumed by Mr. Neil Stewart, who now endows it as a permanent prize in his own name.

The Library has received several important donations. The largest of these in the library of the late Frederick Griffin, Esq., bequeathed by him to the University, and consisting of 2,692 volumes and 559 pamphlets. This collection is especially valuable in consequence of the large number of works relating to Canadian history contained in it. Other valuable donations have been given by Peter Redpath, Esq., the McGill College Book Club, Mrs. Carpenter, and Miss Rimmer. That of Mr. Redpath is especially remarkable, as containing some rare and costly works relating to English and American History. The whole number of books in the library is about 16,000.

The Catalogue of Authors completed and printed a year ago has proved extremely useful, and a Catalogue of subjects is now in progress, and will be completed this year; Messrs Eugene Lafleur, B.A., and Wm. McLennan, having been engaged to assist the Librarian in the work. The plan adopted is that of a card catalogue, with sufficient analysis of the subjects of the books to give all necessary facilities for ascertaining what the library contains on any given subject.

Some additions have been made to the Museum by donations and purchase; but the want of space for arranging the Geological Collection is now much felt. Additions have also been made to the Philosophical Apparatus in the department of Acoustics; and the remainder of the Mining Models, referred to in last report, have been received.

We are glad to state that the Rev. Dr. DeSola has been enabled, by the restoration of his health, to resume the duties of the professorship of Hebrew, and the Prof. Bovey, M.A., whose appointment to the chair of Civil Engineering and Applied Mechanics was announced in last report, has entered on the duties of his professorship.

The University, and the cause of Science and Education, have sustained a serious loss in the death of Dr. Philip P. Carpenter, in May last. The arrangement of his large and valuable collection of shells had made great progress before his death; and what remains to be done is happily rather in the nature of the mechanical work of mounting than in that of scientific determination. An effort will be made as soon as possible to have the remainder of the collection arranged for study and exhibition.

It is to be regretted that the property leased by the University to the late Board of Arts, and resumed by the University on the failure of that Board to carry out the work in Art and Industrial Education, for which it was established, has, owing to vexatious litigation, remained unproductive of benefit to the University, whose efforts in the cause of education in the application of science to the arts of life have thus been much hindered. In consequence of this it has become necessary to ask a renewal of the subscriptions of our friends in aid of the Department of Applied Science, and we have already received some encouraging promises of assistance, which will be made public as soon as the subscription lists are completed. For the same reason, along with the continued commercial depression, the University has been unable to take any steps toward the erection of separate class-rooms and work-rooms for this Department.

The University was much concerned by the proposal discussed in last session of the House of Commons, for the removal of the museum of laboratory of the Geological Survey to Ottawa. Such removal, we think, is to be deprecated in the interest of education. Should the removal take place, it will become imperative on the part of the University to extend its museum, more especially in the department of economics, and to endeavour to supply through the staff of its school of science the want which will be created in Montreal. As an aid in this, it will be glad to receive into its keeping any portions of the collection of the Survey that may be left in this city, and to make these as useful as possible to the public. It is hoped, however, that the benefits derived by all parts of the Dominion from the maintenance of the Museum in a great commercial and educational centre, may continue undisturbed.

We have to thank Your Excellency's Government for its prompt action with reference to the regulation of the Board of Trade affecting the rights of Canadian surgeons in steamships trading between Great Britain and Canada. It is a ground of much satisfaction that the grievance complained of in this respect has been so speedily removed, and it is hoped that the discussion which has taken place may lead to the full recognition in England of the medical degrees of Canadian Universities.

Signed on behalf of the corporation of McGill University.

CHARLES D. DAY, LL.D.,
Chancellor.

Statement of the Revenue and Expenditure of the Royal Institution for the advancement of Learning, for the Year from 1st August, 1876, to 31st July.

RECEIPTS.		
<i>Rents.—</i>		
Being balances due in 1875-6-7, as per balance, 41st July, 1877.....	\$14,601 96	
Received on ditto.....	6,813 32	
	<hr/>	
Balance due 31st July, 1877.....	7,788 16	6,813 32
<i>Interest.—</i>		
Being balances due in 1875 6-7.....	21,555 56	
Received up to 31st July, 1877.....	19,248 56	
	<hr/>	
Balance due 31st July, 1877.....	2,307 00	19,248 56
Provincial Government Grant.....	2,500 00	
Superior Education grant.....	1,540 48	
Dominion Government grant to Observatory.....	500 00	
	<hr/>	
		4,640 48
<i>Scholastics Fees.—</i>		
Department of Arts fees.....	1,911 00	
Botany and Zoology fees.....	215 00	
Department of Practical Science.....	710 00	
	<hr/>	
		2,846 00
<i>Diplomas.—</i>		
Printing fees for same.....	398 60	
School Examinations.....	63 00	
	<hr/>	
		461 60
<i>Annual Donations.—</i>		
Practical Science.....	800 00	
Model Apparatus, &c.....	50 00	
Scholarships.....	1,470 00	
Medals and Prizes.....	279 00	
Endowment interest.....	330 00	
	<hr/>	
		2,929 00
Interest on Protestant Board of School Commissioners' Bonds.....	1,500 00	
College grounds for admissions.....	234 00	
Sundries.....	104 35	
Law charges recovered.....	231 61	
	<hr/>	
		2,069 96
Cash on hand on 31st of July, 1876 being total balance in the bank of the several current accounts, 31st July, 1876.....	5,446 17	
Total balance of the accounts of medals and prizes with interest on same, 31st July, 1876.....	931 33	
Balance of capital account for reinvestment in hand.....	4,220 48	
	<hr/>	
		10,597 98
		<hr/>
		\$49,607 40

Verified

JOHN McDONALD,
Auditor.

Montreal, 14th December, 1877.

DISBURSEMENTS.

<i>Administration.—</i>	
University account salaries of Principal Secretary and Clerk.....	\$3,145 00
Vice Dean of Faculty of Arts.....	366 74
Office expenses.....	39 91
Librarian.....	550 00
Porters.....	1,047 96
	<hr/>
	\$5,149 61

<i>Salaries.—</i>	
Department of Arts.....	15,793 06
Department of Law.....	1,701 89
Department of Practical Science.....	3,636 85
University Examiners.....	810 00
	22,241 80
Scholarships and Exhibitions.....	1,445 00
Sir Wolter Scott Exhibition.....	66 00
Hannah Lyman Memorial Fund.....	80 55
Medals and Prizes.....	360 20
Schools Examinations.....	297 05
	2,248 80
Library.....	286 10
W. Molson Library Fund.....	135 83
Museum.....	395 27
Observatory.....	994 92
Philosophical apparatus.....	926 26
Books.....	357 00
Stationery.....	239 44
Laboratory and Chemicals.....	20 56
Natural Philosophy Class.....	58 51
Gymnastic account.....	206 67
	3,720 56
Law charges.....	370 98
Charges.....	586 28
Printing account—Calendar and Diplo- mas.....	987 36
Advertising.....	420 39
Insurance.....	6 50
Fuel account.....	215 26
	2,586 79
College Buildings.....	840 00
College Repairs.....	1,568 84
College Lodge.....	25 00
Fixture and Furniture, including new hot water heating apparatus.....	2,515 27
College Grounds, new drain, &c.....	633 74
	5,522 85
Gibson annuity.....	399 96
Assaying Model Apparatus account....	876 31
	1,276 27
Interest.....	12 53
	\$42,759 21
<i>Total disbursements.....</i>	
<i>Cash on hand being :</i>	
Total Balances in the Bank of the several current accounts 31st July, 1877.....	5,895 34
Total balance in the Bank of the several accounts of Medals and Prizes, 31st July, 1877.....	952 85
	6,848 19
	\$49,607 40

W. C. BAYNES,
Secretary and Bursar.
McGill College.

POETRY.

Quoth the Raven.

We find the following clever parody on Edgar Poe's Raven in "the Schoolmaster," for April 13, it is suggestive.

—The "Yearly Returns to Local Authority" is a sore point just now amongst your numerous readers, especially as the immense extra work it entails is, at any rate in the great majority of cases, unremunerated. Although we are

becoming, year by year, accustomed to additional burdens in the way of clerical work, this last instalment of Government requirements appears most unreasonable; and of all the duties which the teacher has to perform, certainly deserves adequate payment. I confess, when I received the "Annual Register" in December last, I felt it was "the last straw which breaks the camel's back." However, it had to be done and done it was at length. Many a weary hour it cost me, and the night I completed it I had a dream, caused, I suppose, partly by the irksome task itself, and partly by having read that some school boards had paid the teachers under them for the extra labour involved. On awaking, I jotted down the principal points of this dream in a few verses, which may not be out of place in your columns. I may say that I had lately been perusing Edgar Allan Poe's well-known poem, "The Raven." I mention this to account for some slight similarity of construction! and hope your readers will not pronounce me *ravin' mad!*

I.

Once upon a morning dreary, whilst I laboured weak and weary,
Teaching many a young idea fragments of scholastic lore;
Just as I had caught one napping, suddenly there came a rapping,
As of some one smartly tapping, tapping at the schoolroom door;
" 'Tis some traveller," I muttered, "rapping at the schoolroom door."
Only this, and nothing more."

II.

Ah! distinctly I remember, it was in the bleak December,
When I saw the School Board menial, enter bringing papers more!
And I thought upon the fable, how the camel was not able
To regain his welcome stable, when that last straw knocked him o'er.
" 'Tis the last straw, this," I murmured, feeling indignation sore;
And I very nearly swore.

III.

"Menial," said I, "ruthless menial" (and my accents were not genial),
"Dost thou call it labour venial, over endless forms to pore?"
"Will the coming generation, thus be plagued with registration,
Adding fuel to vexation? Tell me truly, I implore,
"Is there, is there no cessation? Tell me truly, I implore."
Quoth the menial, *There'll be more!*"

IV.

"Villain," cried I, "heartless villain, think you teachers can be willin'
"Forms like these to keep on fillin', and no recompense obtain?"
"Go and tell your wretched master that some terrible disaster
Follows fast, and will come faster, if we do not justice gain;
"All the teachers in the country will rebel with might and main."
Quoth the menial, " 'T will be vain!"

V.

Not another word he uttered, for he noticed I was fluttered,
And of vengeance deeply muttered, quick the door closed on the man;
When I saw that he departed, I felt somewhat lighter-hearted,
And although the wound still smarted, bethought me of a plan,
To obtain remuneration for this extra registration;
So the work we all began.

VI.

Many an hour we spent about it; not a teacher here will doubt it,
Till at length the task was ended, and the "Form" lay there complete;
Then I to the teachers beckoned, and between us all we reckoned
How much time, unto a second ('twas a calculation neat),
We had worked upon the "Form," which every year will now repeat.
As the Teachers' *Annual Treat.*

VII.

Next a bill I made out duly, with a letter signed "yours truly."
Though I felt somewhat unruly, when I thought upon this task.
To the School Board then I sent it, wondering if they would resent it;
For, although I really meant it, 'twas a waste of time to ask;
Well we know that School Boards seldom think teachers out to ask.
Extra pay for extra task.

VIII.

And I'm waiting, still am waiting, not one jot of claim abating,
 Whilst the School Board keeps on prating of economy and rates!
 But of hope there is no glimmer, for the prospect waxes dimmer,
 Well may indignation simmer at our dire, unhappy fates;
 And in futura we may reckon on becoming addled-pates.

Echo answers "addled pates."

Boltbn.

WM. J. FORSTER.

OFFICIAL NOTICES.



Department of Public Instruction.

Notice of erection, annexations, &c., &c., of school municipalities, under the 5th section of the 41st Vict., chapter 6.

1. To erect into a distinct school municipality under the name of Saint-Laurent de Matapédia, in the county of Bonaventure, all the territory bounded on the north by the limits of the township of Ristigouche, on the east by river Ristigouche from Hugh Fraser's mill, on the west by the boundary of the township of Ristigouche, on the south by the river Matapédia, including therein lots Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10, of the range on the river Matapédia.

2. To annex to the municipality of Saint Georges d'Aubert Gallion, in the county of Beauce, all that part of the first two ranges of Shenley, bounded as follows, to wit: on the north by the seigniory of Aubert Gallion, on the south east by the Chaudière river, on the south west by the line separating lot No. 15 from lot No. 16 for the 1st range, and in rear by the line separating No. 24 from lot No. 25 for the second range.

3. To annex to the municipality of Jersey, in the county of Beauce, all the remainder of the lots of the first and second ranges which are not annexed to Saint-George d'Aubert Gallion, and all the third range of the said township Shenley.

4. To annex to the school municipality of Saint-Joseph de Levis, in the county of Levis, that part of the territory of the village of Lauzon, in the same county, bounded as follows, to wit: on the north and west by the limits of the municipality of the said village of Lauzon, on the south by the second range of the parish of Saint-Joseph de Levis, and on the east by the limits of the school municipality of the said parish of Saint-Joseph de Levis.

5. To detach from the township of Nelson, in the county of Megantic, all the parish of Sainte-Anastasia, such as civilly erected by proclamation of the 25th September, 1877.

Extract from Minutes of Proceedings of a Meeting of the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction held in the Education Office Quebec on Wednesday the 29th May 1878 years

EDUCATION OFFICE, QUEBEC.

29th May, 1878.

Which day the quarterly meeting of the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction was held in the Education Office:

Present: Dr. Cook, the Lord Bishop of Quebec, the Hon. Judge Day, the Hon. Judge Dunkin, the Hon. James Ferrier, R. W. Heneker, Esq., and the Hon. G. Ouimet, Superintendent of Public Instruction.

In the absence of the chairman, the Hon. Judge Day was requested to take the chair.

The minutes of former meeting were read and confirmed.

The Committee consisting of the Hon. Judge Day, the Hon. James Ferrier and Dr. Dawson appointed at last meeting to confer with the authorities of the Colonial Church and School Society Montreal regarding the withdrawal of the Grant from the Superior Education Fund from said school gave in the following report:

"Your Committee have had conference with the Committee of the Colonial Church and School Society Montreal, and the Protestant School Commissioners of Montreal, and understand that arrangements are being made to aid the said school through the Commissioners."

It was resolved, "That action be not presently taken in filling up the vacancy in the committee, but that representation be made to the Government that in the opinion of this Committee it is advisable that section 15, of act 39 Victoria, chapter XV be amended by the substitution of the word eight for the word five as settling the number of Committee men to be named on the said Committee."

There was also read a letter from Dr. Cornish, President of the Board of Examiners, Montreal, stating that in consequence of the death of the late Dr. Philip Carpenter, and the removal from the city of the Rev. Principal Lobley, there are at present two vacancies in the said Board of Examiners Montreal, and that the said Board respectfully suggest that the following gentlemen be appointed to fill these vacancies, viz: The Rev. John Empson, B. A., Minister of the Church of England, and Robert Bell, Esq., M. D.

The committee agreed to request the Hon. The Superintendent of Public Instruction to bring the names of the said Rev. John Empson, B. A., and Robert Bell, Esq., M. D., under the notice of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council with the respectful recommendation that the said gentlemen be appointed members of the said Board of Examiners Montreal.

There was laid before the meeting a letter from Elias Tuzo, Esq., Secretary, Board of Examiners, Gaspé, in which he states that there was no quorum of said Board on the 7th May last, that there were several candidates for examination, that the meeting was adjourned to the 4th June next, and that the sealed parcels of questions were unopened and would remain so for the examination of the 4th June. Under the circumstances the committee approved of the action of the Board of Examiners, Gaspé.

The Hon. The Superintendent of Public Instruction laid before the committee a letter from A. H. Chandler, Esq., President Board of Examiners for the District of Bedford, in which he expresses his desire to resign as a member of said Board, and recommends as his successor as a member of said Board Sydney A. Fisher, Esq., of Knowlton. The committee agree to accept Mr. Chandler's resignation and instructed the Secretary to request the Hon. The Superintendent of Public Instruction to lay the name of Sydney A. Fisher, Esq., of Knowlton, before

the Lieutenant-Governor in Council with the respectful recommendation that the said Sydney A. Fisher, Esq., of Knowlton, be appointed a member of the Board of Examiners for the district of Bedford.

Letters were also read from H. Hubbard, Esq., Secretary Board of Examiners, Sherbrooke, William Gibson, Esq., Secretary Board of Examiners, District of Bedford, and C. A. Cleveland, Esq., Secretary Board of Examiners Richmond, all on points connected with the recent examinations for School Diplomas, but requiring no action on the part of the committee.

The minutes of the proceedings of the recent meeting of the Joint-Committee for framing examination papers were read, in which some suggestions were respectfully made to the committee, and explanation asked on some doubtful points.

The following memoranda drawn up by Dr. Dawson in regard to the matters referred to by the Joint-Committee were "read and approved and directed to be sent to the *Journal of Education* for insertion along with the Regulations for the Examination of Candidates for Teachers Diplomas,—also with a request to the Superintendent of Education that a thousand extra copies be given to the secretary for circulation, and that space be allowed in *Journal of Education* for occasional publication of examination questions."

1. "It appears that some Boards give full marks for reading. Others find the candidates very defective in this important subject. It is recommended that much attention be given to accuracy and style of reading.

2. Boards of Examiners will observe that it is imperative that the fees should be prepaid. The Examiners are authorized to expend so much as may be necessary of the fees for stationery and books, and for hiring examination-room, if necessary, and for travelling expenses of Examiners from a distance,—any surplus to be transmitted by the Secretary of the Board with an account of expenditure, and number of candidates entitled to re-examination without Fee to the Secretary of the Committee on or before December 1st in each year.

3. Under the Head "2 special (a)," "Elementary Diploma,"—the two thirds required is the aggregate of Art of Teaching, History of England and History of Canada. It is also understood that candidates for French certificates are held to pass in the English Branches. Should Candidates offer knowing French only without English, these may be examined, but such cases must be regarded as altogether exceptional, and their acquaintance with French only, must be specially mentioned in their Diploma. It is understood that all French Teachers of Protestant Schools are expected to know English as well, and that the French in the Model School and Academy Examination is imperative on all. Teachers, however, may be allowed to answer the questions in French, and may have the questions translated to them at the discretion of the Examiners, Further "in the (b) Model School Diploma," "use of Globes, or Linear

Drawing" should be number 9, and "in (c) Academy Diploma" "Natural Philosophy" or Scientific Agriculture" should be number 7, and Art of Teaching number 8.

4. Special attention is directed to the requirement on the part of Elementary Teachers of an examination in the Art of Teaching, and in Canadian and English History, and it is suggested to republish the regulations with these explanations in an early number of the *Journal of Education* to be sent to all schools, and to each member of the Board of Examiners. It is also requested that a thousand extra copies be placed in the hands of the Secretary for distribution.

5. It is suggested that specimens of the Examination-Papers might be occasionally published in the *Journal of Education* for the information of Teachers and intending candidates, and that copies remaining over after the examinations be circulated by the Secretary."

"On the reading of the Report of the Joint-Committee of Examiners, the secretary was directed to convey to them the thanks of this committee for their efficient action in the matter, and to inform them that attention will be given to their suggestions."

After the Secretary had read some notes on his recent inspection of Academies and Model Schools, it was moved by Dr. Cook, seconded by Dr. Dawson, and unanimously resolved:—

"That the Superintendent be requested to pay the travelling expenses of Mr. Weir and Mr. Emberson in addition to the salary of two hundred and fifty dollars previously voted."

It was further moved by Mr. Heneker, seconded by Judge Dunkin, and unanimously resolved:—

"That this committee having had satisfactory proof of the value of Inspection as regards the schools of the Province, under their care beg to urge on the Government the desirability of increasing the grant for this purpose with the hope that no modification of the Grant will be made without consultation with this committee.

A memorandum submitted by Dr. Dawson on School at Esquimaux River, Labrador, asking a grant from Elementary Education Fund was referred to the Superintendent of Education with a request for favourable consideration.

The Hon. James Ferrier stated that, as requested, he had an interview at Ottawa with Mr. Langton in regard to the arrears of the Marriage-License money but that all action in reference thereto was refused except through the Quebec Government. The Committee consisting of the Hon. James Ferrier and Dr. Cook was continued with the request that they urge the Quebec Government to press the attention of this matter on the Dominion Government at Ottawa.

There being no further business, the Committee adjourned to meet on Wednesday, the 28th August, or sooner, if necessary, on the call of the Chairman.

GEORGE WEIR,
Secretary.

Amended Regulations relative to the Examinations of Candidates for Teachers' Diplomas.

" 1. Article V of the Regulations to be amended as follows :

" Candidates shall be examined by written or printed papers on every subject, except *Dictation, Reading, and Mental Arithmetic*, with additional oral examination in such subjects as may require it, and the work shall be so arranged that the oral examinations shall be going on simultaneously with the writing of answers to the Papers.

" 2. Articles VII & VIII shall be considered as modified by the change of Article V, and the Book to be used for Reading and Dictation shall be some ordinary school text-book at the discretion of the Examiners.

" 3. The Examination Papers shall be prepared by a Joint-Committee, of which the Examiners of Montreal and Quebec shall appoint each two members, and those of Sherbrooke and Three Rivers each one, with the Secretary of the Protestant Committee, who shall act as Convener and Secretary, and the questions shall be circulated under seal to the different Boards to be opened by them on the days fixed for Examination and in the presence of the Candidates. The answers shall be read and decided on by the Local Boards, and sent to the Secretary of the Joint-Committee, who shall report thereon to the Committee of Council, three members of the Committee to be a quorum.

" 4. The place for the holding of the meetings of Examiners shall be fixed by themselves ; but shall be as central as possible ; shall be, if possible, an education building ; and, in no case where this can be avoided, a hotel or tavern.

" 5. Every candidate for examination for an Elementary or Model School Diploma shall pay, before the examination, to the Secretary of the Examiners, in addition to his fee of \$1, the sum of \$1, and every candidate for an Academy Diploma \$2. These sums shall constitute a fund for paying the necessary expenses of the Boards of Examiners. The fees of the unsuccessful candidates shall not be returned, but they may come up a second time at a subsequent meeting of the Examiners without further fee.

" 6. The Schedule of Subjects for Examination shall be as follows :

1. PRELIMINARY.

" All candidates for any grade of Diplomas must pass in the following subjects :—

	Marks.
1. English Dictation (including Hand-Writing)	50
2. English Reading.....	50
3. English Grammar.....	50
4. Arithmetic (ordinary rules).....	50
5. Geography (4 Continents and British North America).....	50
6. Sacred History (An Epitome of the Old Testament and one of the Gospels).....	50

" No candidate shall pass unless he shall have obtained one third of the Marks in each of the above, except Dictation and Reading in which two-thirds shall be required.

" Candidates for any Diploma, who have already passed in these subjects, may be exempted from further examination in them."

2. SPECIAL.

(a) *Elementary Diploma.*

	Marks.
1. Art of Teaching as in Abbott's Teacher and Morrison's Art of Teaching.....	100
2. History of England and of Canada.....	100
3. French, Dictation, Grammar and Reading, in the case of those who desire a certificate in that language.....	100

" Candidates must take at least two-thirds of the aggregate of the Marks to pass for a first class, and at least one third for a second class Diploma. Candidates in French taking two-thirds of the Marks shall be entitled to special mention of the subject in the Diploma.

(b) *Model School Elementary.*

	Marks.
1. English composition (a short Essay).....	100
2. Advanced Arithmetic & Mensuration.....	100
3. Geometry, Euclid, Books I, II and III.....	100
4. Algebra including Simple Equations.....	100
†5. French, Dictation, Grammar and Reading..	100
†6. History of England and of Canada.....	100
†7. Art of Teaching, as above.....	100
8. Book-keeping.....	100
9. Use of the Globes, or Linear Drawing.....	100

" Candidates must obtain at least, one third of the marks in each Subject. If only partially successful they may be awarded Elementary Diplomas

(c) *Academy Diploma.*

1. Greek, Xenophon, Anabasis Book I and Grammar.....	100
2. Latin Cæsar, Bel. Gal. Book I and Grammar..	100
3. French, Grammar, Reading and Composition	100
4. Euclid, Book I, II, III, IV and VI.....	100
5. Algebra, including Quadratics.....	100
6. History as above.....	100
7. Natural Philosophy, or Scientific Agriculture	100
†8. Art of Teaching.....	100

" Candidates must obtain at least one-Third of the marks in each subject.

" Teachers of French Schools may be examined in French, instead of English.

" No teacher shall receive a Diploma of the first class for a Model School or Academy unless he shall have obtained two-thirds of the total number of marks in the special examination for the Diploma.

† As in Elementary Examination.

REGULATIONS FOR DIPLOMA EXAMINATIONS :

1. The examination-papers to be forwarded by the secretary to the presidents of the boards.
2. At the meetings of the several boards, on the morning of the examination, the president or chairman of the meeting, to open the papers, and cause them to be distributed to the candidates.
3. If there be no candidate for any diploma, the papers set for that diploma to be returned unopened to the secretary.
4. The times and places of meeting of the several boards for holding the examinations to be advertised by the secretary of each board.
5. No omissions or alterations to be made by the examiners in any of the questions printed.
6. The examiners to take due care in the placing of candidates, &c, to prevent copying or communication of any kind.
7. Pens, ink and paper to be provided for each candidate, and no other paper than that provided to be allowed to be used.
8. Writing to be on one side of the paper only.

1. "It appears that some Boards give full marks for reading, others find the candidates very defective in this important subject. It is recommended that much attention be given to accuracy and style of reading.

2. Boards of Examiners will observe that it is imperative that the fees should be prepaid. The Examiners are authorized to expend so much as may be necessary of the fees for stationary and books, and for hiring examination-room, if necessary, and for travelling expenses of Examiners from a distance,—any surplus to be transmitted by the Secretary of the Board with an account of expenditure, and number of candidates entitled to re-examination without Fee to the Secretary of the Committee on or before December 1st in each year.

3. Under the Head "2 special (a)," "Elementary Diploma,"—the two thirds required is the aggregate of Art of Teaching, History of England and History of Canada. It is also understood that candidates for French certificates are held to pass in the English Branches. Should Candidates offer knowing French only without English, these may be examined, but such cases must be regarded as altogether exceptional, and their acquaintance with French only, must be specially mentioned in their Diploma. It is understood that all French Teachers of Protestant Schools are expected to know English as well, and that the French in the Model School and Academy Examination is imperative on all. Teachers, however, may be allowed to answer the question in French, and may have the questions translated to them at the discretion of the Examiners. Further "in the (b) Model School Diploma," "use of Globes, or Linear Drawing" should be number 9, and "in (c) Academy Diploma" "Natural Philosophy" or Scientific Agriculture" should be number 7, and Art of Teaching number 8.

4. Special attention is directed to the requirement on the part of Elementary Teachers of an examination in the Art of Teaching, and in Canadian and English History, and it is suggested to republish the regulations with these explanations in an early number of the *Journal of Education* to be sent to all schools, and to each member of the Board of Examiners. It is also requested that a thousand extra copies be placed in the hands of the Secretary for distribution.

5. It is suggested that specimens of the Examination-Papers might be occasionally published in the *Journal of Education* for the information of Teachers and intending candidates, and that copies remaining over after the examinations be circulated by the Secretary."

MISCELLANY.

What our Boys are Reading.

By Prof. W. G. SUMNER.

Few gentlemen, who have occasion to visit news-offices, can have failed to notice the periodical literature for boys, which has been growing up during the last few years. The increase in the number of these papers and magazines, and the appearance from time to time, of new ones, which, to judge by the pictures, are always worse than the old, seem to indicate that they find a wide market. Moreover, they appear not only among the idle and vicious boys in great cities, but also among school-boys whose parents are careful about the influences brought to bear on their children. No student of social phenomena can pass with neglect facts of this kind,—so practical, and so important in their possible effects on society.

The writer was confirmed in the determination to examine this literature, by happening to observe, last summer, the eagerness with which some of these papers were read, and the apparent familiarity with which they were discussed, by a number of boys, who seemed to be returning from boarding-school, and to belong to families which enjoy good social advantages. The number of copies examined for the present purpose was not large, but they were taken at random and from all the different periodicals to be found.

These periodicals contain stories, songs, mock speeches, and negro minstrel dialogues,—and nothing else. The literary material is either intensely stupid, or spiced to the highest degree with sensation. The stories are about hunting, Indian warfare, California desperado life, pirates, wild sea adventure, highwaymen, crimes and horrible accidents, horrors (tortures and snake stories), gamblers, practical jokes, the life of vagabond boys, and the wild behavior of dissipated boys in great cities. This catalogue is exhaustive. There are no other stories. The dialogue is short, sharp and continuous. It is broken by the minimum of description, and by no preaching. It is almost entirely in slang of the most exaggerated kind, and of every variety,—that of the sea, of California, and of the Bowery; of negroes, 'Dutchmen,' Yankees, Chinese, and Indians, to say nothing of that of a score of the most irregular and questionable occupations ever followed by men. When the stories even nominally treat of school-life, they say nothing of school-life. There is simply a succession of practical jokes, mischief, outrages, heroic but impossible feats, fighting and horrors, but nothing about the business of school, any more than if the house in which the boys live were a summer boarding-house. . . . All the teachers, of course, are sneaks and blackguards. In this same story, one of the assistant teachers (usher, he is called) gets drunk and insults the principal, whereupon the latter holds the nozzle, while he directs some of the boys to work a garden pump and throws water on the assistant, who lies helplessly drunk on the grass,—all of which is enforced by a picture. There is not a decent good boy in the story. There is not even the old type of sneaking good boy. The sneaks and bullies are all despicable in the extreme. The heroes are continually devising mischief which is mean and cruel, but which is here represented as smart and funny. They all have a dare-devil character, and brave the principal's rod as one of the smallest dangers of life.

Another type of hero who figures largely in these stories is the

vagabond boy, in the streets of a great city, in the Rocky Mountains, or at sea. Sometimes he has some cleverness in singing, or dancing, or ventriloquism, or negro acting, and he gains a precarious living while roving about. This vagabond life of adventure is represented as interesting and enticing, and, when the hero rises from vagabond life to flash life, that is represented as success. Respectable home life, on the other hand, is not depicted at all, and is only referred to as stupid and below the ambition of a clever youth. Industry and economy in some regular pursuits, or in study, are never mentioned at all. Generosity does not consist even in luxurious expenditure, but in wasting money. The type seems to be that of the gambler, one day 'flush' and wasteful, another day ruined and in misery.

There is another type of boy who sometimes furnishes the hero of a story, but who also figures more or less in all of them. That is the imp of mischief—the sort of boy who is an intolerable nuisance to the neighborhood. The stories are told from the standpoint of the boy, so that he seems to be a fine fellow, and all the world which is against him is unjust and overbearing. His father, the immediate representative of society, executes its judgment with the rod, which is again an insult to the high-spirited youth, and produces on his side either open war, or a dignified retreat to some distant region.

These stories are not markedly profane, and they are not obscene. They are indescribably vulgar. They represent boys as engaging all the time in the rowdy type of drinking. The heroes are either swaggering, vulgar swells, of the rowdy style, or they are in the vagabond mass below the rowdy swell. They are continually associating with criminals, gamblers, and low people who live by their wits. The theatre of the stories is always disreputable. The proceedings and methods of persons of the criminal and disreputable class, who appear in the stories, are all described in detail. The boy reader obtains a theoretical and literary acquaintance with methods of fraud and crime. Sometimes drunkenness is represented in its disgrace and misery, but generally drinking is represented as jolly and entertaining, and there is no suggestion that boys who act as the boys in these stories do ever have to pay the penalty for it in after life. The persons who are held up to admiration are the heroes and heroines of bar-rooms, concert saloons, variety theatres, and negro minstrel troupes.

From the specimens which we have examined we may generalize the following in regard to the views of life which these stories inculcate, and the code of morals and manners which they teach:

The first thing which a boy ought to acquire is physical strength for fighting purposes. The feats of strength performed by these youngsters in combat with men and animals are ridiculous in the extreme. In regard to details, the supposed code of English brutality prevails, especially in the stories that have English local color, but it is always mixed with the code of the revolver, and, in many of the stories, the latter is taught in its fullness. These youngsters generally carry revolvers, and use them at their good discretion. Every youth who aspires to manliness ought to get and carry a revolver.

A boy ought to cheat the penurious father who does not give him as much money as he finds necessary, and ought to compel him to pay. A good way to force him to pay liberally, and at the same time to stop criticising his son's habits, is to find out his own vices (he always has some) and then levy black-mail on him.

Every boy who does not want to be "green" and "soft" ought to "see the elephant." All fine manly young fellows are familiar with the actors and singers at variety theatres, and the girl waiters at concert saloons.

As to drinking, the bar-room code is taught. The boys stop in at bar-rooms all along the street, swallow drinks standing or leaning with rowdy grace at the bar. They treat and are treated, and consider it insulting to refuse or to be refused. The good fellows meet every one on a footing of equality—above all in a bar-room.

Quiet home life is stupid and unmanly. Boys brought up in it never know the world or life. They have to work hard and to bow down to false doctrines, which parsons and teachers, in league with parents, have invented against boys. To become a true man, a boy must break with respectability and join the vagabonds and swell mob.

No fine young fellow, who knows life, need mind the law, still less the police. The latter are all stupid louts. If a boy's father is rich and he has money, he can easily find smart lawyers (advertisement gratis) who can get the boy out of prison, and will dine with him at Delmonico's afterward. The sympathies of a manly young fellow are with criminals against the law, and he conceals crime when he can.

Whatever good or ill happens to a young man he should always be gay. The only ills in question are physical pain or lack of money. These should be borne with gayety and indifference, but should not alter the philosophy of life.

As to the rod it is not so easy to generalize. Teachers and parents, in these stories, act faithfully up to Solomon's precept. When a

father flogs his son, the true doctrine seems to be that the son should run away and seek a life of adventure. When he does this he has no difficulty in finding friends, or in living by his wits, so that he makes money, and comes back rich and glorious, to find his father in the poor-house.

These periodicals seem to be intended for boys from ten to sixteen years of age, although they often treat of older persons. Probably many boys outgrow them and come to see the folly and falsehood of them. It is impossible, however, that so much corruption should be afloat and not exert some influence. We say nothing of the great harm which is done to boys of that age, by the nervous excitement of reading harrowing and sensational stories, because the literature before us only participates in that harm with other literature of far higher pretensions. But what we have said suffices to show that these papers poison boys' minds with views of life which are so base and false as to destroy all manliness and all chance of true success. How far they are read by boys of good home influences we are, of course, unable to say. They certainly are within the reach of all. They can be easily obtained, and easily concealed, and it is a question for parents and teachers how far this is done. Persons under these responsibilities ought certainly to know what the character of this literature is.—*Scribner's Monthly*.

Omens.—Of course all educated people believe themselves to be free from the superstition of attaching importance to omens. We doubt, however, very much whether many of us are wholly free from it. And assuredly amongst the most remarkable men who have lived, even in the modern world, a good many have really attached importance to them. In the new volume of the "Life of the Prince Consort," we are told that the late Emperor of the French was profoundly struck with the coincidence that the letters in which, on the opening of the Crimean War, his own and the Empress Eugenie's name were illuminated in London side by side with those of the Queen and the Prince Consort "N. E. V. A." together made up the name of the river on which St. Petersburg is built; and from the stress he laid on this fact, he would seem to have regarded it as a favourable omen for the victory of the Allies over the Czar. And Sir Walter Scott recorded, without any smile at himself for his superstition, that when Mungo Park left him on the eve of his last fatal exploring journey to Africa, his horse stumbled in passing a little ditch in their path, and that he remarked to Mungo Park that it was a bad omen for his intended journey. And certainly there are very few women in England who would like to be married on a Friday, and exceedingly few sailors who would consent to weigh anchor for a long voyage on such a day. A well-known story as to the late Lord Shelburne shows that in the very highest class the superstition against sitting down thirteen to dinner is still as vivid as ever. Even the Prince Consort records with some interest that the bonfire built near Balmoral on occasion of the false news that Sebastopol had fallen in 1854, and which was actually lighted nearly a year later, when it really fell in September, 1855, was blown down by the storm which raged on the terrible day of Inkermann (November 5, 1855), which so nearly proved fatal to the British Army in the Crimea. Probably hardly any one who noted this curious coincidence would have been quite free from a lurking suspicion that it was more than a coincidence, however honestly he might have repudiated the notion that he believed there was any real augury in the matter. Indeed, as the battle really proved much more fatal to the Russians than to the Allied armies, it would be very difficult to make much of an omen which, if it had meant anything, would have seemed to portend the ruin of the British hopes. Nevertheless, it seems probable that most of the Royal party, in spite of this proof that credulity in the matter would be absurd, continued to attach some more or less mysterious importance to the collapse of the pile of wood on the day of the battle of Inkermann.

What is it which makes men in such a day as ours—a day so little disposed to find esoteric meanings in anything—so unable to shake off this superstition? We imagine that it is the pale reflection of a belief of a very much deeper kind—namely, that the issue of every enterprise of the least import to any human being is in some way predetermined and foreseen, and that though men in their blindness cannot decipher the enigma of their destiny, the secret is an open one, the key to which might possibly be found by anyone with eyes to read writings on the wall, even when written up in some common place where no one would think of looking for the required answer. All the poor superstitions as to finding an answer to your thought in the text of the Bible on which your eye first alight, or as to finding

it in the images of a dream, or still more vulgar, the superstition as to the finding the initials of some required name by throwing the peel of an orange over your shoulder, imply a suspicion that there is nothing anywhere in nature, however far removed from the subject of your thoughts—indeed, many would say, the farther removed the better for the purpose—from which an oracle as to your inmost questions may not be obtained, if only you have the gift for understanding the irony of nature. Perhaps the old Greek legend that Proteus, who changes into so many forms, would answer any question you could put to him, if, undismayed, you held him fast till he resumed his own shape, expresses in some way this curiously wide spread notion that external nature herself, many-sided as she is, always contains some symbol, if you can but find it, that is intended to respond to your deepest questionings.—*London Spectator.*

Rapidity of Modern Firing.—It is difficult, writes a war correspondent, to describe as it is, indeed, almost impossible to understand even on the spot, the marvelous rapidity of fire and the enormous quantity of bullets that are whizzing in the air. Above the roll of musketry is heard the whistling, like a strong wind blowing through the trees. These are the showers of bullets that rain upon the ground anywhere within a radius of a mile and a half from the light, and the oftener he hears this sound the more its significance becomes clear to him. It means that every man of the thousands engaged is firing several times a minute, more or less, as he fires at random or takes aim. The Turk, as is well known, does not take aim, but fires from the hip when in the open, lays his rifle on the parapet when behind intrenchments, and shoots somewhere in the direction of the enemy, and depends more on the quantity of bullets he sends than on the direction of them. When this fact is borne in mind it will easily be understood why the proportion of dead and wounded is so great in every battle that has taken place.

Carlyle on the Book of Job.—"I call the Book of Job, apart from all theories about it, one of the grandest things that ever was written by a pen. One feels, indeed as if it were not Hebrew—such noble universality, different from noble patriotism or sectarianism, reigns in it. A noble book! All men's book! It is our first, oldest statement of the never-ending problem, man's destiny and God's way on earth. And all in such free, flowing outlines—grand in its simplicity, and epic melody, and repose of reconciliation. There is the seeing eye, the mildly understanding heart. So true every way; true eyesight and vision for all things, material things no less than spiritual; the horse—'hast thou clothed his neck with thunder? he laughs at the shaking of the spear!' Such living likenesses were never since drawn. Sublime sorrow, sublime reconciliation, oldest choral melody of the heart of mankind, so soft and great, as the summer night, as the world with its seas and stars! 'There is nothing written, I think, in the Bible or out of it, of great literary merit.'

Curious Derivations.—The word pamphlet is derived from the name of a Greek authoress, Pamphylis, who compiled a history of the world into thirty-five little books. "Punch and Judy" is a contraction from Pontius and Judas. It is a relic of an old "miracle play," in which the actors were Pontius Pilate and Judas Iscariot. "Bigot" is from Visigoth, in which the fierce and intolerant Arianism of the Visigoth conqueror of Spain has been handed down to infamy. "Humbug" is from Hamburg; a piece of Hamburg news" was in Germany a proverbial expression for false political rumours. "Gauze" derives its name from Gaza, where it was first made. "Tabby cat" is all unconscious that her name is derived from Atab, a famous street in Bagdad inhabited by the manufacturers of silver stuffs called Atabi, or taffety; the wavy markings of the watered silks resembling pussy's coat. "Old Scratch" is the demon Skratti, who still survives in the superstitions of Northern Europe. "Old Nick" is none other than Nikr, the dangerous water-demon of the Scandinavian legend.

Sleep the Best Stimulant.—The best possible thing for a man to do when he feels too weak to carry his work through is to go to bed and sleep for a week if he can. This is the only true recuperation of power, the only actual recuperation of the brain force because during sleep the brain is in a state of rest, and in a condition to receive and appropriate particles of nutriment from the blood which take the place of those which have been consumed in previous labour, since the very act of thinking consumes, burns up solid particles, as every turn of

the wheel or screw of the splendid steamer is the result of consumption by fire of the fuel in the furnace. The supply of consumed brain substance can only be had from the nutritive particles in the blood, which were obtained from the food previously eaten, and the brain is so constituted that it can best receive and appropriate to itself those nutritive particles during a state of rest, of quiet, and stillness in sleep. Mere stimulants supply nothing in themselves; they only goad the brain, force it to a greater consumption of its substance, until that substance has been so exhausted that there is not power enough left to receive a supply, just as men are so near death by thirst and starvation that there is not power enough to swallow anything and all is over.

The Advantages of Early Poverty.—The worst thing that can happen to a young man in college is to have a father or mother so injudicious as to keep him amply supplied with pocket money. It is fatal to all studious habits, and in the end generally fatal to good morals. This is equally the case with a young man in business who is made to feel that to him "salary is no object"—that a wealthy father's purse is always open to his most extravagant demands. Nothing develops a young man like fighting his own way in the world. Some spur of necessity, some bracing air of adverse surroundings is needful to most men, if they are to put forth their whole power. The rich man's heir, nursed and petted from infancy, and shielded from battling with the world, never fairly learns to stand erect and walk alone. If by any chance he is stripped of his inherited wealth, and has to learn to give and take hard knocks like others, he nearly always goes under in the struggle—at any rate he seldom regains by his own efforts the fortune he has lost. Nearly all the wealthy and effective men of this country are poor men's sons. Nearly all of the scholars, poets, orators, statesmen, are poor men's sons. Wealth has its advantages, it is true; but, after all, the son of a rich man has all the odds in his favour. He must work or starve. He has nothing to lose and everything to gain. The rich man's son has already social position and everything that money can give him. There is much less to strive for and infinitely less inducement to strive.

Massena's Defence of Genoa.—Osman Pasha quitted Plevna with with long trains of artillery drawn by horses, and of waggons drawn by bullocks. To talk of his being starved out so long as these remained to him, is nonsense; to talk of the unparalleled heroism of his resistance is to ignore what has been done by very different men in different times. Take one example: the siege of Genoa by the Austrians in 1800 and its defense by Massena. Provisions were scarce from the first, the population suffered and grew riotous, the nobles were plotting to deliver the town. Massena had an enemy to fight within as well as without. The streets and squares were guarded against the populace by French battalions, and artillery with matches lighted. When beef failed the soldiers ate horses; the horses all gone they ate rats. The Austrian prisoners and the people of the town were made to subsist for weeks on a soup of herbs. The wheat and flour were early consumed, and a bread made of oats and beans was served out. From the beginning the city had been rigorously searched, and all provisions seized and thrown into the common stock. When everything else had been eaten, Massena collected all the starch, cocoa, and linseed in the place, and bread was made of these strange substances, which the soldiers could hardly swallow; which, when swallowed, few could digest; and which sent the greater part of the army to the hospitals. The people were dying of hunger; their dead bodies strewed the streets; the prisoners fared no better. The soldiers died day by day; those who lived were so weak that they could only mount guard sitting. Some of the troops in despair broke their guns. "Before he surrenders," cried they, "he will make us eat his boots." There remained at last, even of the starch and linseed bread, but two courses per man; and not till those two ounces had been eaten would Massena treat to surrender or receive a flag of truce.

High Pressure.—Above all things, let my imaginary pupil have preserved the freshness and vigor of youth in his mind as well as his body. The Educational abomination of desolation of the present day is the stimulation of young people to work at high pressure by incessant competitive examinations. Some wise man (who probably was not an early riser) has said of early risers in general, that they are conceived all the forenoon

and stupid all the afternoon. Now, whether this is true of early risers in the common acceptance of the word or not, I will not pretend to say; but it is too often true of the unhappy children who are forced to rise too early in their classes. They are conceited all the forenoon of life, and stupid all the afternoon. The vigor and freshness which should have been stored up for the purposes of the hard struggle for existence in practical life, have been washed out of them by precocious mental debauchery,—by book-gluttony and lesson bibbing. Their faculties are worn out by the strain put upon their callow brains, and they are demoralized by worthless childish triumphs before the real work of life begins. I have no compassion for sloth, but youth has more need for intellectual rest than age; and the cheerfulness, the tenacity of purpose, the power of work which make many a successful man what he is, must often be placed to the credit, not of his hours of industry, but to that of his hours of idleness in boyhood. Even the hardest worker of us all, if he has to deal with anything above mere details, will do well, now and again, to let his brain lie fallow for a space. The next crop of thought will certainly be all the fuller in the ear, and the weeds fewer.—*Prof. Huxley, in Pop. Science Monthly.*

Unwholesome Reading—The land is full of unhappy examples of the influence of unwholesome reading. High-colored and highly flavored fiction for young people crowds aside much that is heartily good and healthful. It behoves parents and guardians and teachers to look well to the reading of their charges. Men do not gather fig of thistles, nor can we expect a well-ordered life to come after a youth familiarized with blood and violence and crime.—*New York Times.*

The Essentials.—Our common schools attempt too much, and they attempt that in the wrong way. Their chief business is not to cram a little of everything into the heads of their pupils, but rather to train them to the right use of their powers, and thus lay the foundation and inspire the right disposition to make life a perpetual school. A few essential, fundamental things should be done, and well done. Their work should be limited to the essentials, and not until these are accomplished should the schools be allowed to undertake the desirable.—*Educational Weekly.*

—Sewing is now taught to more than a thousand girls in our intermediate and primary schools, and is accomplishing a vast amount of good. Could this branch of instruction be extended to older girls in our grammar schools, who need such instruction, and could these be taught to cut and make garments as well as to sew, the value of this instruction would be very greatly enhanced. None but those who are familiar with the true condition of the hundreds of girls between the ages of twelve and fifteen, who are leaving our schools, can justly estimate how great a blessing such a practical skill would be to them.—*Daniel Leach, LL. D., Supt. Schools, Providence, R. I.*

A New Telephone.—A modification of the telephone is described in the *Moniteur Industriel Belge*. The receiving instrument is in all respects identical with that known as Professor Bell's. The transmitting instrument is thus constructed: The bobbin of wire in the ordinary instrument is dispensed with, and the magnetised core replaced by a bar or screw of copper. This is brought as closely as possible to the vibrating iron disk. The copper is connected with one pole of a battery, the other pole being to earth. The vibrating disk is connected with the line wire, which is attached at the other end to the receiving instrument, the circuit of course being completed through the earth. This form of telephone will sing, but will not articulate.

A New Projectile.—Messrs. Charles Cammell & Co., Cyclops Steel and Iron Works, Sheffield, have forwarded, for trial by the British Government, specimens of a new projectile from which important results are anticipated. It consists of a shot made of steel. In the manufacture of shot chilled cast iron has previously been used. Sir Joseph Whitworth has an invention for the use of steel for this purpose; but the specimens sent from the Cyclops Works differ from the Whitworth shot in one important particular. The Whitworth shell is cast solid and has to be bored; the Cyclops shell is cast in a mould and needs no boring. The company have been experimenting upon this speciality in war material for a considerable time, the experiments having been to the order of the British military authorities.

—No child up to the age of nine or ten should be confined at his tasks more than three hours a day. As he grows older, the number of hours should be increased. At seventeen and eighteen, the boy, if he has come to that period with strong nerves and healthy organization, might be employed at his tasks thirty hours per week without injury, and perhaps longer if a sufficient variety is presented. But, all through the age of childhood to boyhood, no restraints should be placed upon the physical growth, either directly or indirectly. The future of American life depends more for the healthiness of its moral and social tone upon the school life of the rising generation, than the superficial observer would probably admit.—*Boston Herald.*

—An article of a very interesting and instructive nature, on the physiological action of baths, was published in a late number of the *Lancet*. Summing up, the Writer notes that warm baths produce an effect upon the skin directly contrary to that which is brought about by cold water. The cutaneous vessels dilate immediately under the influence of the heat, and although the dilation is followed by a contraction, this contraction is seldom excessive, and the ultimate result of a warm bath is to increase the cutaneous circulation. The pulse and respiration are both quickened in the cold bath. The warm bath increases the temperature of the body, and by lessening the necessity for the interproduction of heat, it decreases the call which is made upon certain of the vital processes, and enables life to be sustained with a less expenditure of life. While a cold bath causes a certain stiffness of the muscles if continued too long, a warm bath relieves stiffness and fatigue. The final effect of both hot and cold baths, if their temperature be moderate, is the same, the difference being, to use the words of Braun, that "cold refreshes by stimulating the functions, heat by physically facilitating them, and in this lies the important difference between the cold water system and the thermal mode of treatment."

A Dangerous Item.—We do not remember in what journal we first saw the following extract as an *original* item; but, since it has recently been copied without comment by several contemporaries, attention should be directed to it. The article states that: "A poison of any conceivable description and degree of potency, which has been intentionally or accidentally swallowed, may be rendered almost instantly harmless by simply swallowing two gills of sweet oil. An individual with a very strong constitution should take nearly twice this quantity. This oil will most positively neutralize every form of vegetable, animal, or mineral poison with which the physicians and chemists are acquainted." The idea that sweet oil will neutralize such poisons as prussic acid, nicotine, strychnine, curare and a host of others less speedy in their action is almost too absurd to demand refutation. In some cases, when taken into the stomach in large quantities, it may serve to involve acrid and poisonous substances and mitigate their action, until the arrival of a physician with specifics shall relieve the patient from danger; but it is not to be used in a *l* cases, for its administration, for instance, immediately after the swallowing of a corrosive mineral acid, such as oil of vitriol, would be followed by most fearful results. As the great multitude of poisons known to the physician and chemist are classified according to their varied mode of action on the animal economy, it is evident that the method of treatment in cases of poisoning must like a wise vary. There can be no one specific for all. It is to be hoped that no one will be simple enough to try this antidote; for if he does, the absurd person who penned the quoted statement may have a human life to answer for.

—Education is the normal, and therefore harmonious development of all human faculties; the harmony is to be tested as all proportions are tried, by *ratio*; and that development is harmonious in which "any phase of ability is but a phase of general ability." A man, then, is completely educated when he naturally and readily discharges all of his functions as a human being; an individual is fully educated when he has reached the limit of skill possible to him as an individual; and a man is properly educated in proportion as his instruction leads him toward the full possession of his faculties. — *Am. Jour. of Ed.*

—The best results of Education ensue not from trying to put something called knowledge into our scholars, not simply from stowing away in compartments of the brain so much history

here, so much arithmetic there, and so much geography in in another, like the calico, crockery, and fancy goods in the store, but rather from illustrating that better and more literal meaning of the word education, the drawing out of the faculties of the mind, rousing them into activity, giving them strength, directness, and precision of effort, energy, and capacity for work.—*School Comm. of South Scituate, Mass.*

The Training of Youth.—There is much said on the subject of practical education, and of training youth for efficiency in the pursuits on which their incomes may depend. But if we can make a correct analysis of these arguments, they have but one criterion, which is the ability to traffic and skin other people and make money. The whole moral capacity of mankind is tried, not simply by even its productive power, but by its selfish ability to get ahead of its neighbors. Thank heaven, there never yet was a scheme of education invented that could work this sordid and infamous result! Thank heaven, all true instruction is away from subtle and crafty tricks, into philanthropy, beneficence, and truth! If the supreme end of man is to make money, we confess that all possible schemes of education are against it. We educate men, not for their personal advantage, but to make them more useful to society. Only on this pretext can the public schools be sustained at all. If these are to be degraded into mere instruments for making sordid, scheming, selfish rogues, then let them be altogether abolished, for they will not work this result. Children are educated to make good citizens of them, and not to make social pirates of them.—*Phila. Press.*

System Ensures Success.—The successful teacher reduces everything to system with mathematical accuracy. He knows that every subject has its first step, seconded by its evenly-graduated successive steps, until rounded off to full completion by its last step. He presents these in their regular order, always gratified in finding the child-intellect capable of grasping and comprehending each new step when presented. His daily work is begun, continued, and finished in a systematic manner, previously planned, and revised as often as the necessities of the position demand.—*Am. Jour. of Education.*

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