

Technical and Bibliographic Notes / Notes techniques et bibliographiques

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

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

- Coloured covers/
Couverture de couleur
- Covers damaged/
Couverture endommagée
- Covers restored and/or laminated/
Couverture restaurée et/ou pelliculée
- Cover title missing/
Le titre de couverture manque
- Coloured maps/
Cartes géographiques en couleur
- Coloured ink (i.e. other than blue or black)/
Encre de couleur (i.e. autre que bleue ou noire)
- Coloured plates and/or illustrations/
Planches et/ou illustrations en couleur
- Bound with other material/
Relié avec d'autres documents
- Tight binding may cause shadows or distortion along interior margin/
La reliure serrée peut causer de l'ombre ou de la distorsion le long de la marge intérieure
- Blank leaves added during restoration may appear within the text. Whenever possible, these have been omitted from filming/
Il se peut que certaines pages blanches ajoutées lors d'une restauration apparaissent dans le texte, mais, lorsque cela était possible, ces pages n'ont pas été filmées.
- Additional comments:
Commentaires supplémentaires:

- Coloured pages/
Pages de couleur
- Pages damaged/
Pages endommagées
- Pages restored and/or laminated/
Pages restaurées et/ou pelliculées
- Pages discoloured, stained or foxed/
Pages décolorées, tachetées ou piquées
- Pages detached/
Pages détachées
- Showthrough/
Transparence
- Quality of print varies/
Qualité inégale de l'impression
- Continuous pagination/
Pagination continue
- Includes index(es)/
Comprend un (des) index
- Title on header taken from: /
Le titre de l'en-tête provient:
- Title page of issue/
Page de titre de la livraison
- Caption of issue/
Titre de départ de la livraison
- Masthead/
Généralique (périodiques) de la livraison

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

10X	12X	14X	16X	18X	20X	22X	24X	26X	28X	30X	32X
						/					

THE ONTARIO TEACHER:

A MONTHLY EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL.

Vol. 3.

MARCH, 1875.

No. 3.

EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS.

As the various County Boards for the Examination of Teachers now meet but once a year, it is of the utmost importance that those who purpose applying for certificates should give their earliest attention to the preparation of the work which they are expected to perform. We are aware that in some Counties it is still quite common for many to shirk the examination, trusting to the clemency or forbearance of the Inspector for a Permit. Our own opinion in this matter is, that Permits should only be granted under the most pressing emergencies. Only when it is pretty clear that a school must remain vacant from the want of a teacher, or when indisposition prevented a teacher whose certificate expired, from attending the Board, should a Permit be granted. It is an injustice to those who prepare themselves for examination, and who undergo the labor and expense of attending the Board, that others with less energy and more meagre attainments should reap benefits not justly belonging to them. "To the victors belong the spoils." And those who through indiffer-

ence or negligence fail to secure a certificate in the regular way, must not be disappointed if Inspectors refuse to give them any easier access to professional rewards than the regular mode of examination. The fact that a teacher or any person applies for a Permit at all, is to us a suspicious circumstance. It is too often but an excuse for evading the ordeal to which others are subjected, or postponing that ordeal to a more "convenient season."

Having said this much in regard to *Permits*, we next proceed to consider the question of Public Examinations for certificates. And first the *standard* (as it is commonly called), of qualification. We sometimes hear teachers say, that the standard for Third Class teachers is very high. We must say we don't think so. Indeed, we doubt very much if the standard for Third Class teachers is *very much* higher now than it was under the old County Boards. The trouble now is that the examination is so thorough, that teachers must reach the standard before they are allowed to pass. Under the old system a mere approxima-

tion would suffice. The demand made upon the teacher now is not so much a higher standard, but a thorough knowledge of the subjects prescribed. It is on this account that so many failures constantly occur at the County Boards. The course of training has been so superficial and the mental attainments so limited, that whenever the slightest strain is put upon them they break down. It is found too late, that a mere smattering will not pass for proficiency, and that there is a substantial difference between the tyro and the scholar.

Raising the "standard" of teachers has been a source of great benefit to the profession. The public are apt to estimate the services of a man by his qualifications. If the impression is general, that a professional status can be attained with little effort, then such a profession is at once at a discount. But when the standard is high, when the difficulties to be overcome are somewhat more than ordinary, then the honors and rewards of success are greater. It is from this cause as much as any other, that teachers' salaries have advanced during the last few years, and it is only by the continued advancement of the profession, both in mental attainments and general efficiency, that further advances can be reasonably expected.

In preparing for the County Board examinations, we would advise all intending candidates to be *thorough* in their work. Any subject or any part of a subject should not be overlooked. How often does it happen that a question is asked just where the preparation was imperfect. This thoroughness should not be a memorizing of the work. A great many fail through an eagerness to commit to memory the *ipsissima verba* of the book, without grasping the sense. The course should be to grasp the *idea* and afterwards the *words*, if such were desirable. In grammar this is particularly the case. There, definitions are prepared and committed *verbatim*, and the candidate goes up to the Board fully possessed with the idea that

success is certain. But immediately a question of a somewhat philosophical character appears—a question involving the exercise of his analytical powers, and he finds to his sorrow that definitions fail, and his bright prospects are after all but "castles in air."

This advice applies equally well to *arithmetic*. It is found that the papers in this subject are prepared with a view to exercise specially, the analytical powers of the candidate. They are not according to a fixed system or any special rule. They can only be solved by a thoughtful, or, if you choose, a philosophical examination of their purport. The young student fresh from school, with his head crammed with formulæ and logarithms, imagining himself a mathematical Goliath, encounters one of these little problems. It is something out of the usual line. It is not after any rule known to him. He racks his brain for a rule to apply, and finally succumbs to what after all was a small difficulty, as did the giant to the shepherd boy's sling and stone. Here the trouble was, want of mental grasp—want of efficient training. The standard was not high, but the student was asked to reach it by a course not usually travelled, and his inventive powers and reserve forces were not equal to the task.

To be specific in our directions to intending candidates let us remark,

1. Study carefully and fully every one of the prescribed subjects. Begin to do this in time. Don't put off until a few weeks before the examination. Begin *now* and give the mind sufficient time to absorb what will afterwards be required of you. Survey each subject from every possible standpoint. Start objections and answer them. Discuss the *pros* and *cons* of every question in your mind. Get at the *reason why* in every case, and let your perfect knowledge of every subject be the groundwork of your confidence in the result.

2. Do your work at the examination systematically and legibly. No examiner

w:
cc
m
of
to
un
sysw
att

r

req
Ins
rep
pec
To
Son
mor
mar
Che
imp
not
opir
Insp
valu
from
ques
floor
was
But
inter
often
be o
quali
the c
prese
his v
he m
ber o
numb
style

wants to thread his way through a long, confused scrawl. While good penmanship may not add much, if any, to the valuation of the work, it is undoubtedly an advantage to the candidate to make himself perfectly understood through the distinctness and system of his manuscript.

3. Candidates should not attempt to answer what they do not understand. All attempts of this kind are damaging. Answers

should be concise and to the point.

We have alluded only in general terms to the preparation requisite for County Board Examinations. The minor points we leave for candidates themselves to consider. Every teacher should know that his success must depend upon his own energy. The world has no premium to offer for negligence or incapacity. Her heroes are men of *thought* and men of *action*.

ON WRITTEN EXERCISES.

BY J. H. KNIGHT, PUBLIC SCHOOL INSPECTOR, EAST VICTORIA.

"In what subjects are written exercises required of pupils?" is one of the questions Inspectors are required to answer in their reports to the Chief Superintendent respecting each of the schools under their care. To this question we receive various answers. Sometimes it is "none". In other cases more or less the following; Dictation, Grammar, Geography, Arithmetic, History, Chemistry, Botany, Philosophy. Without implying that the answers of teachers are not to be depended on, we are of the opinion that the information given from the Inspector's own observation is of far more value than what he has to obtain directly from the teacher. For instance, if the question were, what is the condition of the floor? the Inspector might report that it was quite clean, ~~very~~ dirty or otherwise. But when he has to report, how often is the interior of the school cleaned, and how often washed? his answer must necessarily be only second hand. And even then the quality of the cleaning is of more value than the quantity. The average of the scholars present may be taken by the Inspector at his visits. For that of those on the roll he must depend on the teacher. The number of cases in which this is given in whole numbers seems to argue a looseness of style which is not of so much consequence

as regards the value of the answer, as the unsatisfactory feeling that things are done in the most slovenly manner possible. The giving of prizes, and the use of merit cards are matters of fact. The question is not as to the number or quality of the prizes, nor their good or bad effect upon the scholars. Nor is it of the least consequence whether prizes be distributed once a year or ten times, whether the scholars be encouraged by their diligence being honestly rewarded, or discouraged by zeal or supposed unfairness in the distribution, all such information is of no value unless the prizes are given to the scholars who receive the greatest number of *merit cards*. So with Public Examinations, the question is not whether they are well attended, well conducted, or show the efficiency of the school, but whether they are held *quarterly as required by law*. In the case of Written Exercises more information is wanted. Not only has the Inspector to report whether written exercises are required, but he has to say in what subjects they are required. The idea is suggestive. Possibly at some future time, he may have to report how these exercises are performed, how often, and with what results.

Among the advantages to be derived from the practice of written exercises we may mention,

I. WRITING. Nothing but constant practice will make a person a good penman. The difference between a business hand and that of a school-boy, is readily recognized. It is not the choice of style but the perfection of maturity. And whether manhood in writing shall be attained early or late depends very much upon the judicious employment of written exercises at school. We say judicious, because the handwriting of many persons is spoiled by too rapid writing. Some teachers give 'copying' as a punishment. We consider this objectionable, as calculated to induce unnecessary speed, and to create a distaste for what ought to be a pleasure. No good can arise from undue hurrying. As every exercise should be examined by the teacher, the time and labor required depends entirely on whether the pupil is allowed to do the *first exercises* in a careless slovenly manner, or is required to do everything neatly and legibly. However hopeless the task, it is easier to form a good habit, than to correct a bad one. Once a pupil learns to do a thing neatly, he will never endure to do it otherwise. Do not say, 'this is an exercise in Grammar or Geography, we will teach Writing at another time.'

II. SPELLING. Many words will occur in these exercises that would seldom turn up in oral spelling, or ordinary dictation, such as names of places and persons, terms used in Grammar and other sciences. Either the words mis-spelt or the whole exercise should be re-written.

III. READING. Exercises in reading what is written, are valuable. Most persons have little difficulty in reading their own writing. By occasionally changing slates the scholars may learn to read the writing of their fellow pupils.

IV. COMPOSITION. This includes, "What to write," and "How to write it." Except in special composition exercises, the manner, rather than the matter of composition is taught in written exercises. It is not by

seeing things done that we learn, but by doing them. How many persons constantly see letters and read them, and yet make fearful work when they undertake to write one. Among the errors that require constant watching, are the misuse of capitals, wrong punctuation, undue crowding, too great spaces, omission of spaces, improper division of words, writing above at the end of a line, crooked writing, beginning at the wrong place. Some pupils only require to be told once how to do a thing, others, like the girl who piled the books with the small ones at the bottom, know it is one of the two ways, but they constantly forget which.

COMMENCING. Pupils should commence written exercises as soon as they are able to write well enough. The first exercises should be very short; only a few words. The value is in the quality of what is done, not in the quantity of work set. Let each exercise be done as well as the capacity of the pupil will permit, then proceed to something more advanced. Some teachers allow pupils to transcribe from their Reading Books, in some cases imitating the shape of the printed letters, in others using ordinary writing. The objection that imitating printing spoils the handwriting, we consider groundless, and would be as applicable to drawing. The more variety the better, provided the pupils are not burdened with too much at a time. When pupils can write readily and correctly to dictation, and copy well from their Reading Books, they may proceed to more complicated exercises such as Geography and Grammar.

Slates or Paper. Some teachers use paper entirely for writing and written exercises, because they consider that writing on slates spoils their hand-writing. Even if the slate were not a necessity for Arithmetic, we would prefer the slate to commence with. Beginners always make mistakes. Errors are more easily corrected on slate than on paper. Many children who write fairly on slates make miserable work on paper; and

m.
fu
m
en
th
th
wa
we
int
qu
the
the
pap
a w

tha
and
Co
sho
can
seal
stan
and
imp

E
cien
one
to d
ercis
at re

W
durin
the r
amin
miss
morn
ly ad
exam
shoul
and
peopl
result
they

W
shoul
Oral

many who write splendid copies make fearful work of exercises. To the pupil it is much more pleasant to get rid of these errors as he discovers them, than to have them staring him in the face to the end, and the teacher in looking over the work has to wade through blemishes on paper which would have disappeared from a slate. In introducing paper, the pupils should be required to write the exercise correctly on the slate first, and then copy it. When they can write what they intend to at first, they may be allowed to commence on paper; otherwise it is a waste of time, and a waste of money.

Position. It is absolutely necessary that the work should be done independently and honestly, otherwise it is worthless. Copying, whispering or looking at books, should never be allowed. If these things can be avoided the scholars may keep their seats. If not, they should be squared to stand on the floor, alternately, face to face and back to back. In this position it is impossible for them to copy.

How often. Where the pupils are sufficiently advanced, there should be at least one written exercise every day in addition to dictation. It is better to have short exercises frequently than to have long ones at remote intervals.

When examined. If there is not time during school hours without interfering with the regular duties, the teacher should examine the exercises after the school is dismissed, and give out the slates the next morning. When the scholars are sufficiently advanced to use paper, the teacher can examine the exercises at home. They should be returned to the pupils examined and marked as soon as possible. Young people are naturally curious to know the result of their work, but grow careless if they see their teacher indifferent.

Written Examinations. All promotions should be made on written examinations. Oral work may be taken also. The exam-

inations may extend over a week or two, and the ordinary work go on. We consider this better than crowding the examination into the least possible period. A deal is accomplished by some persons with high pressure, but a reaction of apathy generally sets in after. Six months is rather too long for most scholars to look ahead. Monthly examinations are more stimulating, and more apt to promote steady work. There is no reason why one should not begin as soon as the last is over, and so the scholars would be constantly being examined, and always looking forward to knowing the result at a not very distant date.

Public Examinations. The law requires four examinations a year. No good reason has ever been assigned for having them so frequently. However, as it is impossible to examine a large school satisfactorily in the time that visitors are content to be present, probably the best way is to have about one-half of the subjects examined in writing previously, and the results read out at the termination. At the next quarterly examination a different arrangement might be adopted. The subjects taken orally before might be examined in writing and *vice versa*.

DICTATION.

In this and following papers it is not our intention to give a set of lessons, or even examples of lessons for the purpose of saving labor to the teacher, but to furnish ideas which the diligent and thoughtful may expand, and from which he may select material of which to build up a superstructure of his own, according to the necessities of his scholars, and the temperament of his own mind, and to point out some of the errors and failings which have come under our own observation.

The most important rule we can give for teaching Dictation is "Finish as you go." We know there are numbers of teachers who fail to teach spelling, not because they do not give dictation enough, but because

they do not follow up their advantages by compelling the scholars to write the words they misspell until there is no danger of their making the same mistake again. Such teachers do not distinguish between *examining* and *teaching*. They dictate, the scholars write, the errors are marked, and all is rubbed out. Give the same lesson next day, and the same errors would be made. No rule can be laid down as to how misspelt words shall be treated. Much depends upon the age, disposition, and capacity of the scholars, the size of the school or class, and the time at the disposal of the teacher. With some scholars it may be enough to spell the word orally, with others it may be necessary to write it several times. Of late, oral spelling has almost gone out of fashion with many teachers, except in the case of scholars who are unable to write dictation. It is said that people only want to know how to spell a word when they require to write it. This may be correct as far as individuals are concerned, but how often are we asked how to spell a word by a neighbor of more modesty or less retentive memory? Many well-educated persons as they advance in years fail regularly in their spelling, and have to appeal to younger persons. How unsatisfactory to be unable to spell, through want of practice.

Preparation. Except at examinations, the lesson should always be set, and the scholars have time allowed for preparation. The capitals and stops should be required from the first. The length of the lessons will be a matter of judgment with the teacher, but it is better to err on the side of brevity than too great length.

Giving out. The greatest care should be taken to have every word pronounced distinctly and correctly. It is unfair to the scholars if it be otherwise. So it is unfair to give out too many words at a time. In case any scholar fails to hear a word, or cannot keep up, he should raise the left hand, and the teacher should not proceed

until all have finished. When all has been written, the teacher should read the lesson over again, the scholars looking at their writing as he reads. After which they should have ample time to make corrections if necessary.

Examining. As much as possible this should be done by the teacher. It would be better if teachers would do more work themselves, and expect less from the pupils. How unreasonable it is for the scholars to work eight or nine hours a day, and the teacher only six. And this is what constantly occurs where home work is required. While we would not have the teacher do a stroke that is properly the scholar's work, we expect him to do his own. When dictation is done on slates, let the teacher examine at intermission, or after school hours, when on paper, let him examine at home. When from want of disposition or for other causes this is impracticable, there are other resources. One method is to change slates. The teacher then spells every word that there is any chance of being wrong, and each scholar marks his neighbor's mistakes. When this plan is adopted, it is necessary for the teacher to select some of the slates promiscuously for re-examination, to satisfy himself that errors have not been allowed to pass unmarked through carelessness or from motives of false charity. Another plan is to appoint monitors from the same or a higher class, for the purpose of examining the work.

Marking errors. One method is to mark every error either by drawing a stroke through the word, or a line under it. The latter is preferable because it does not mar the writing. Another method is to have a margin and make certain marks or letters opposite the error, such as *s* for spell, *c* for capital, *p* for punctuation, &c., and require the pupils to ascertain where the error is, as well as to correct it. This method is adapted for advanced scholars. As errors are the result of either ignorance or careless-

ne
ec
tit
asbe
sle
ow
gir
of
ing
Th
wit
the
asimj
ma
son
one
the
Son
seve
wor
spel
Suc
stafSi
has
Pub
old
new
up it
is gi
the
duce
near
an a
pect
teach
ambi

ness, as much importance should be attached to the latter as to the former. An indistinct letter or bad writing should be marked as an error.

Giving out slates. In large classes it is better to appoint monitors to give out the slates, than to call up each scholar for his own. In a mixed school, two boys and two girls will generally hand round any number of slates as fast as required by each taking about five slates and returning for more. The number of errors should be announced with the name of the teacher. This makes the scholars anxious to have as few errors as possible.

Correction of errors. This is the most important part of the work. Whenever many errors occur, it is best to have the lesson over again before proceeding to a new one. Otherwise it may be enough to have the words written again once or orally spelt. Some pupils require to write the word several times. Care should be taken with words pronounced alike, or nearly so, and spelt differently, according to the meaning, Such as *there, their, principal, principle, stationery, stationary*; words commonly con-

founded, such as *lose, and loose, affect, and effect.* A judicious teacher will be able to illustrate by examples, and occasionally make these words the bases for exercises in composition. Nor will he lose sight of them until they have been mastered by the pupils.

Dictation Books. These should be used by the scholars in the Third and Fourth Classes. A book of the size and description of ordinary copy-books, but without the head-lines. A margin of about an inch should be ruled at left side of each page. In this margin the errors should be marked, and remarks made. The words misspelt should be written on a slate and shewn to the teacher. When pronounced correct, the pupil should copy them at the end of the book for future reference. Occasionally these words may be used for exercises in Dictation, Composition or Oral Spelling. The teacher should see they are not lost sight of. Once or twice a week is enough to see the Dictation Books. They should be examined by the teacher out of school hours.

(To be Continued.)

CONDUCTING QUARTERLY EXAMINATIONS.

BY L. WELCH, TEACHER, CARADOC.

Since the School Law Improvement Act has come in force the condition of our Public Schools has greatly improved. The old order of things has become new; a new and better system of things has sprung up in its stead; and to the aspiring teacher is given a privilege to win renown within the ranks of his profession. And these inducements have not failed to create, in nearly every teacher now in the profession, an ambition to gain some praise and respect from those with whom he is engaged as teacher. There is, perhaps, no time his ambition is more aroused or does he strive

more diligently to attain that design, than on the day he holds his Quarterly Examination. The teacher who is a faithful worker in his school, and has already gained the love and esteem of his pupils, also works in them a determination to accomplish the same great purpose, and therefore their exertions are put forth on that day, from which the future destiny of the teacher is to be calculated.

The parents are respectfully invited, either through the pupils or by notes of invitation from the teacher, to attend the examination. But often does he vainly cherish the hope

of having a large number of the parents present on that day. The reason of this may be attributed to different defects: one of which is that the parents have not yet been enlivened with a spirit of personal interest towards the school. But the second and greater cause may be that many of the teachers still retain the old plan of conducting the examination. The parents are called in for a couple of hours to witness the cleverness of the pupil on a reading lesson, and a few set questions on which they have been specially drilled for the last couple of weeks, in order to make it appear that they are remarkably well posted in their subjects, and that the teacher has wrought a very wonderfully marked improvement in his school. The parents are not so easily deceived. They can plainly see that the teacher is trying to misrepresent his school. And it is a fact that this has so long been practiced upon the minds of the people, that it has created in them a feeling of disgust and indignation. Instead of being considered by them as a time to acquire a knowledge of the progress of their school, they look upon it only as a day set apart by the teacher to deceive them by making the school appear beyond what it really is. And certainly every honest teacher must be interested to know that such a pernicious scheme is now fast gliding out of existence. For the crafty and dishonest teacher has by this sordid device long enough shaken the courage of, and grasped from the true laborer—his fellow teacher, that respect and praise which were not his rights, and claimed them for himself when he but so little deserved them. Little progress must there have been made in a school during the quarter, if they are able to exhibit the whole of it in one short afternoon, and little could a parent judge of their standing in so short a time. It is no wonder at all, under such circumstances, that the teacher should have but a few to at-

tend his examination, nor should he be disappointed in not finding it otherwise.

I hold that examinations to be thorough and testing should occupy the last week of each quarter. But as this might not meet the approbation of the whole section, it might be well for the teacher to have the examination for at least one day, and that a part of the work be performed on paper by some of the higher classes, while some of other classes are undergoing an oral examination by the teacher, or other person that may see fit to examine them.

Having some of the higher classes to undergo a written examination in some of the subjects, would also fit them for passing the examination at the County Board for certificates. And likely the Board of Examiners would not have so many ridiculous papers to look over as they generally do at the time of examinations of teachers for certificates, had many of the young untutored candidates previously undergone a similar test, and received some instruction from his (or her) teacher, in what manner or form to give his answers.

By having the examination so carried out, the teacher is also enabled to make out and report to the parents the standing of their children in the school, and their classes, at the close of each quarter; and this I consider to be of incalculable value and essential in awakening the sleepers of the section to a spirit of interest in the school, who will ever after be his strongest supporters, and will crowd his room on the examination day.

These are a few remarks I have wished to suggest on "Conducting Quarterly Examinations." Indeed, a very little has heretofore been said on this part of the teacher's duty, and these few hints may perhaps induce some one else to take hold of the question and give us a fuller and better method of conducting them.

sub
var
hel
Gil
cati
fou
"
add
thre
mitt
of th
the
acti
moc
that
fluen
of p
more
yet a
resul
W
again
by t
part
the r
once
to st
first
rema
exert
low,
excite
beco
befor
Th
of the
I hav
and I
more
When
ed to
jealou
result
the ge
before
for a
demon
school
sible.

PRIZES.

Much has been said and written on the subject of Prizes in the last few years, and various and conflicting opinions have been held. The following remarks by A. McGill, teacher at Bracebridge, in a communication to the *Free Grant Gazette*, will be found well worthy of attentive perusal :

" I have frequently had the pleasure of addressing the good people of Muskoka through your columns, and I may be permitted to offer, for the last time as a resident of the District, some suggestions relative to the value of prizes as incentives to energetic action on the part of the pupils, and the mode in which they should be offered so that they may exert their maximum influence for good. So far as my experience of prize-giving extends, I have seen much more evil than good follow the practice ; yet am I very far from believing that its results are necessarily bad.

When pupils of the same school compete against each other, the main object sought by the prize giver, viz :—activity on the part of scholars, is frustrated ; inasmuch as the majority of the class ; acknowledging at once the fact that it will be useless for them to strive against A and B, who are already first and second in the class, and certain to remain so, are not stimulated to any unusual exertion. Not only do no good results follow, but envy and other ill-feelings are excited, and the major part of the class becomes more indolent and careless than before.

The offer of graded prizes to all members of the class is a method of prize-giving which I have had ample opportunity of examining, and I can speak both of its immediate and more remote consequences with assurance. When first announced the pupils are excited to personal competition, and no end of jealousy and mutual hard feeling is the result ; when the prizes have been awarded the general dissatisfaction is greater than before, while a continuation of the system for a series of years produces a degree of demoralizing and uniform apathy in the school which renders true progress impossible.

Since the true aim of prize-giving is to inspire all, but specially apathetic and lazy pupils with a willingness to work and that energetically, it is evident that first, the prize offered must be one which will possess value in the estimation of those to whom it is held out ; second, that every pupil must be made to feel that he has a chance to win it ; that a lazy pupil, who persists in his indolence shall have no chance of winning it, and further, as it is desirable to secure all this without at the same time giving any ground or excuse for hard feeling, it is evident that each competitor must recognize the fact that he struggles to accomplish a certain amount of work, rather than to vanquish a fellow pupil. How we may best secure the accomplishment of these ends, is the problem which we essay to solve.

First ; that the prizes may have value in the estimation of the pupils, let them consist of such articles as boys and girls fully appreciate. For the higher classes we might suggest such as the following :—Books, microscopes, telescopes, stereoscopes, magic lantern cameras, mathematical instruments, guns, watches, writing-desks, work-boxes, musical instruments, &c. For the juniors, —kaleidoscopes, hand-sleighs, cricket bats and balls, skates, and a hundred other things that boys and girls everywhere delight to possess.

Second ; that every pupil may be made to feel that he has a chance to win the prize, let the prizes be competed for not by the pupils of one school only, but let class II of each school in the Township, or far better, in the District, compete against class II of every other school in the District ; and so with the other classes ; and let the number of prizes offered in each class be at least equal to the number of pupils in that class, in the school which has the largest class of that particular name. For example ; suppose ten schools compete, class II of first school may contain 6 pupils ; class II of the other nine may contain 7, 6, 5, 7, 8, 6, 10, 10, and 11 pupils respectively ; in all 77 pupils coming up for examination. In such a case I would offer at least 11 prizes ; when, though but one pupil in seven would

carry off a prize, each of the 77 would feel during the year of work preceding the examination, that he was not without a good chance of taking some prize. For, instancing School No. 10, where class II was most numerous, while the best scholar in that class knew that his chance of taking one of the eleven prizes was very good, the eleventh boy could not say that he had no hope, since, though every boy in his own class surpassed him, he might surpass every boy from the other strange schools; and, further, though the eleventh boy in a class has a very poor chance indeed, against the first, he cannot say that his chances against the tenth, ninth, or even eighth and seventh boys are not very fair provided that he may be truly industrious. Thus every boy, down to the poorest in his class is incited to activity. Again, I would enact that no pupil who has once taken a prize, should be allowed to compete a second time for a prize in the same class. This would really be no hardship; for the successful competitors would in nearly every instance be fit for immediate promotion to the class next higher. To prevent unfair play, it would be further necessary to procure uniform and perfect classification in the different schools; but this is the duty of the County Inspector, and may safely be left in his hands. That lazy and careless pupils may be made to feel that while they continue so they can have no chance of a prize, it is only necessary to limit the number of prizes judiciously; and that each competitor may feel that he strives to master a certain curriculum, rather than to vanquish his fellow-pupils, it must be understood that all pupils who obtain a certain percentage, e.g. 80 per cent. of the marks given at examination, shall receive prizes at least equal in value to the lowest prize regularly offered. To exemplify; we will suppose that the pupils of class II in all the schools of the District, number 77. Eleven prizes are offered absolutely; i.e. will certainly be awarded to the best eleven pupils who compete, although none should reach 80 per cent. of the marks, but every pupil who obtains 80 per cent. of the marks given, shall receive a prize at least equal to prize No. 10; thus a pupil not receiving a prize, cannot say that he did not get it because some one else did, but because he had not accomplished the work assigned. In practice, if the examination were thorough, not more than 10 per

cent. of the applicants would be likely to reach 80 per cent. of the marks given; still, the principle above enunciated would hold good.

Again, class I, in every school is far the largest in numbers, comprising as it does, children from zero to the time they are qualified to leave the Second Reading Book, when they are supposed to have acquired not only the rudiments of Writing, Arithmetic, and Geography, but to be pretty fair readers and spellers. The pupils in this class commonly form from 40 to 50 per cent. of the school; and they are those whom it would be difficult, on account of age, &c., to bring to a central place for examination. To this class, the plan sketched would prove difficult of application; but, the knowledge that promotion to class II. would qualify a child to enter the lists as a competitor for the public prize would be a powerful stimulus to work for promotion.

For two reasons I would offer no prizes in special subjects; first, the object of a Public School education is not to educate one faculty at the expense of others, but to develop equally all the powers of the pupil; and the tendency of offering a special prize, to the best Arithmetician for instance, is to frustrate this end by inducing pupils to neglect other branches for the sake of concentrating all the powers on one;—second, the boy who ranks first in General Proficiency is certain to carry off many probably most of the first and second prizes in special subjects, and thus the bulk of the prizes is taken by one, not to his discredit, but the injury because discouragement, of other members of his class who, ranking but little below him get no prize at all. I would, therefore, offer all the prizes for general proficiency, and regulate the number of them by the method already explained. In awarding prizes for General Proficiency, of course different subjects must be assigned values corresponding to their relative importance. I submit the following schedule:—Reading 100; Spelling 100; Etymology 70; Grammar (including Composition) 200; Arithmetic 200; Algebra 100; Geometry 100; Geography 80; Natural History 80; History 100; Writing 100; Natural Philosophy 100; Book-keeping 100.

I will now take the liberty of suggesting that the various Townships of this District

un
ma
for
pri
I h
agi
enr
me
the
C

I
han
to s
of t
on t
to h
whil
vigo
aver
plan
tion
and
for c
varic

unite with the Village of Bracebridge in making appropriations for the purpose of forming a fund to be used in procuring prizes which shall be offered in the manner I have explained. An appropriation averaging \$20 from each municipality would enable the District to offer, with the Government addition of 100 per cent., prizes to the value of \$440. Say,—

Class VI	4	prizes averaging \$15 00	= \$60 00
" V	6	" "	10 00 = 60 00
" IV	10	" "	7 50 = 75 00
" III	12	" "	6 00 = 72 00
" II	15	" "	5 00 = 75 00
			\$342 00

This arrangement would leave \$98 in the hands of the committee for furnishing prizes to such pupils as obtain over 80 per cent. of the work, but received none of the prizes, on the above list. If it be worth our while to have Public Schools at all, it is worth while to encourage and stimulate them to vigorous working. The Townships will average 3 schools each, at least, and by this plan at an average cost to each school section of only \$6²/₃, no less than four hundred and forty dollars worth of prizes are offered for competition. I sincerely trust that the various municipal councils of Muskoka will

take up this matter in earnest, and in time to announce the prize list early in January, so that full twelve months may be given for preparation in the different schools. The formation of a Committee will rest with the Councils interesting themselves in the scheme. The work of the Committee will consist in setting exact limits to the work on which each class will be examined; specifying the prizes, their number and value; the percentage above which all will get prizes: the appointment of a Board of Examiners, and time and place of examination, which must be almost entirely written and cannot be well done in less than two full days; the drafting of rules to guide the examiner, &c.

Finally, I gratefully acknowledge my indebtedness to the Rev. J. S. Cole, B. A. for valuable assistance given me in perfecting the system I have sketched; a system, the maturing of which has cost me much thought, and is the result of seven years experience in teaching—I hope that it may receive a trial in Muskoka, as I submit it with a high degree of confidence in its capability to solve the vexed question: "How shall we best stimulate *all* pupils to activity, without generating jealousy."

MEMORY'S HALL.

BY WILL HARRY GANE.

There are pictures fair in Memory's Hall,
 Rose tinted and edged with gold,
 As bright as the days in last year's Fall,
 Ere king Winter's pæan tolled.

Some pictures have hung for many years,
 Brighter growing every day,
 Till the outlines grew, through mist of tears,
 Too lovely to stay away.

There's one of mother, with silver hair,
 And a dear old wrinkled face,
 That is hid away where violets fair
 Besprinkle the sacred place.

There's one of a child with soul lit eyes,
As pure as the stars of night,
That look down upon her from the skies,
And silver her grave with light.

I see my pictures when twilight dips
The world in a hazy sea ;
And hasty murmurs upon my lips
Are drowned in the ecstasy.

My morning thoughts are the same as night's ;
And my soul is tired of care ;
But it steals away as up the heights
Fly the shafts of sunlit air.

I would not give for the smile of kings
Their power to rule and all,
The sweet memories that twilight brings—
The pictures in Memory's Hall.

SELECTIONS.

DRAWING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

1. Drawing refines the taste by developing the power of discriminating between that which is beautiful and that which is not. It does this in two ways—through the eye and through the mind. By drawing from beautiful copies and beautiful models and objects, the act of looking intently at these beautiful forms gradually, but surely, refines the taste. Indeed, without such beautiful forms for the learner to draw, the taste cannot be educated. But there must be something more; the laws of beauty must be explained; the learner must be taught why this pleases and why that does not. Although impossible to tell what beauty is, in the last analysis, yet many of its laws can be readily defined. Indeed, they can be so illustrated that even children can be taught, by observance of these laws, to avoid whatever is in grossly bad taste, though they are not equal to their nicer applications. Thus, through seeing and thinking the taste is educated by drawing.

And this taste is a thing of the utmost worth because of its benign influence upon everything one does, because of the delight

it affords the possessor, and because of its unlimited commercial value. Refined taste does not necessarily demand costly gratification, since it enables one to enjoy a beautiful object made of cheap material, as of clay; while an unrefined, barbaric taste would demand that the object be made of costly material, as of gold, the art counting for naught. This discipline of taste can be given by no other common school study.

2. It is evident that drawing must develop the perceptive faculties in a high degree, since the first condition of success is the ability to see and to comprehend what is seen. Mere blank gazing is not enough, there must be comprehension, since every line has a meaning of its own, or it should never be drawn. No one questions the value of disciplining the perception, the perceptive faculties, and probably no other study will discipline them better than drawing.

3. Perhaps all educators would agree that instruction in language should be conceded the first place in public schools. Hence, whatever tends to make one accurate in the

us
re;
inj
cis
th
wh
po
ed

i.
lar
sus
be
tec
cle
ula
cle
Th
the
a c
car
int
far
in t
exe
mo
qui
tati
esc
lean
he
mai
the
acq
prel
take
ing
The
mer
else
rect
ing
to w
dire
will
has
will
agai
mor
T
to b
wher
ing c
tion
that
ingly

use of language, must, for that reason, be regarded as a thing of value. Now, drawing affords an admirable training in the precise use of words, and in the extraction of the meaning from the printed page. He who has learned how to use a book rightly, possesses in that one thing alone a good education.

But how does drawing train in language?

1. It employs many terms, derived in a large part from geometry, all of which are susceptible of ocular illustration, and so can be made easy of comprehension. The technical meaning of these terms is usually clearly put; but they often have a loose, popular meaning, which the pupil must learn clearly to distinguish from the technical. This trains him in verbal criticism. From the outset, great emphasis must be laid upon a clear knowledge of terms, otherwise there can be neither an intelligent beginning nor intelligent progress afterwards. Drawing is far from being a mere matter of dexterity in the use of the pencil. 2. The dictation exercise compels the pupil to give the utmost heed to spoken words, since he is required to make an instantaneous interpretation of the words into lines. There is no escape from this. 3. Lastly, when the learner comes to draw with instruments, if he is then required, as he should be in the main, to execute his drawings by following the printed directions, he must inevitably acquire an excellent discipline in the interpretation of printed language, for he cannot take the first step without understanding what the printed words mean. There is no opportunity for the verbal memory to serve him as in nearly everything else. If he does just what the printed directions tell him to do, he will get his drawing right; but if he is heedless, if he goes to work before he understands what he is directed to do he will fail. Furthermore, he will require no one to tell him in what he has failed; he can see that himself; and he will have simply to proceed and do his work again, following the printed directions with more care.

There is no study in the public schools to be compared with geometrical drawing, when practiced as here described, for training children to precision in the interpretation of printed language. It is easy to see that such discipline must have an exceedingly favorable influence on all other studies.

4. Drawing from the solid form models and objects, according to free-hand perspective, and mechanical drawing that deals with the three dimensions, both train the pupils to "see in space," as it is technically termed. In the first case, the pupil must learn to make a mental picture of the parts of the solid which cannot be seen, giving to each invisible line its proper position and direction, otherwise the visible lines whose positions and directions are dependent upon the lines which are invisible, cannot be properly drawn. In the second case, as working-drawings are not pictorial representations of the objects to be made, the pupil must learn to form a vivid mental image, by the aid of the arbitrary lines, of the objects required. In either case the imagination, so far as it has to do with form, receives an excellent discipline, which is of great service in many ways. No other common school study affords such training.

5. By giving marked attention, as should be done in the earlier stages of drawing, to the production of original designs for decorative and constructive purposes, the imagination is developed in a healthy and pleasing manner. The invention is kept constantly on the alert for new and beautiful combinations of lines and forms—not mere chance combinations, but such as are made in accordance with the fixed principles of design. Original design bears the same relation to drawing that original composition bears to the study of language.

6. By reproducing, without a copy, forms previously drawn, the memory receives important discipline. It acquires the ability to recall not only the particular forms, which should mainly be historical and classic, that it has been exercised upon, but all forms whatever. It will be seen at once that this ability to remember form, is a valuable acquisition.

7. Other particulars might be mentioned, but these are enough to show the great disciplinary value drawing. As one result of this discipline the pupil will more readily master all his other studies. His ability to judge of proportion and to remember form, his skill of hand acquired in free-hand drawing, will enable him to recognize and remember words more readily in reading and spelling, to write with greater ease and grace, to perform his exercises in written arithmetic in a more becoming manner, and to

draw his geographical maps with increased facility and precision. Finally, that general power, which comes from a judicious and liberalizing breadth of culture, will show itself in the augmented ease with which the pupil will master any practical study. Thus

it is safe to say that the disciplinary influence of drawing, when it is properly taught, will save the pupil in his other studies all the time that Prof. Smith asks for, even when his full course is taken—about two hours each week.—*The Chicago Teacher.*

A DOMINIE'S TALK WITH HIS PUPILS.

THE STAR-DEPTHS, THE NUMBER AND DISTANCES OF THE FIXED STARS.

BY F. R. GOULDING.

"In good old Bible times, when men wished to speak of a number too great for ordinary language," said the dominie, "they used to say, 'Like the stars in heaven for multitude.' And this language is so natural that it has not ceased to be used to this day. But it is neither literally true nor literally untrue.

"The stars appear to be innumerable mainly because they are scattered so confusedly that they can not be satisfactorily counted except by using an extraordinary degree of system and precision, and also because the number that can be counted varies so greatly with the clearness of the night and with the power of the observer's vision. For instance, in the pretty little cluster known as Pleiades few persons can count more than six stars; yet some readily count seven, and a good eye can sometimes distinguish as many as ten.

"Various modes have been adopted for counting. One is to take the heavens strip by strip, as it passes before the field of a telescope suitably fitted for the purpose, and counting only those stars which exceed a certain degree of brightness.

"Another mode is by *constellations*. This, though very ancient and liable to many objections, is still observed. The stars in a certain part of the heavens are fancied to mark the outline of some well-known object—a man, a bear, a serpent, an eagle—and all the stars within the prescribed boundary are numbered according to their brightness. Those of the highest order are designated by the letters of the Greek alphabet, the next by letters of the Roman, and the third order by letters of the Italian.

"Another ancient mode is by *magnitude*. The term 'magnitude' has come to us from

times preceding the telescope. It, however, implies an idea which the telescope contradicts. 'One star differeth from another star in *glory*, the Bible teaches—that is, in *brightness*; but as to apparent, or rather as to measurable, *magnitude*, when seen through the most powerful telescopes, there is no difference, for each is but a *point of light* without a disk or face. All the stars visible to the naked eye are distributed into seven classes, of which the seventh is the faintest. As a sample of this last class, or seventh magnitude, there is a star called 'the Test,' which may be seen any clear night in that constellation known variously as the Dipper, the Great Bear (*Ursa Major*), Charles's Wain, the Seven Stars, the Pointers. If you will examine the middle star of the Dipper's handle, or of the bear's queer *long* tail (for all bears have short tails nowadays), you will find that it is double, or at least that its light is more or less commingled with the light of a near star, so small as to be scarcely visible. That small star is of the seventh magnitude, and it was anciently called the Test, because only a good eye can distinguish it. Of stars of the first magnitude there are only about fifteen or twenty. The light of these is estimated to be about double that of the second magnitude, and one hundred times that of the sixth or seventh, though the light of Sirius, the brightest of them all, is known by measurement to be three or four hundred times greater than that of the Test. Stars of the second magnitude, having only half as much light as the first, number about fifty or sixty; of the third magnitude about two hundred; and so on, increasing very rapidly, down to the seventh, in which they are to be counted by the thousand. Of stars visible to the

nake
clear
has
thou
was
to fi
numl

"]

teles
defin
than
clude

recen

thous

is tru

which

before

other

with s

but to

iam I

Milky

the br

bably

of his

and th

space

tenth

not les

not po

beauti

seen th

has sai

for the

and to

own ex

saw loc

diamon

that, al

the edg

middle.

their m

every in

that, af

since at

at one

sumes t

has bee

take ou

heaven:

should

we left

" Wit

propose

of their

ple, and

naked eye only about one third can be clearly seen at one time. Their number has been variously estimated from three thousand one hundred and eighty-six, which was very precisely reported by one observer, to fifteen or twenty thousand, which is the number usually specified at the present day.

"But when we assist the eye with the telescope the number stretches beyond all definite counting. Proceeding no farther than the ninth magnitude, the number included between that and the first has been recently reported at one hundred and fifty thousand and upward. Here and there, it is true, are to be found patches of sky which are perfectly starless and black even before the most powerful telescope; but other patches again are so perfectly ablaze with stars that they not only seem to touch but to be piled upon each other. Sir William Herschel, in his observations on the Milky Way, reported the number in some of the brighter portions to be so great that probably fifty thousand passed before the field of his telescope in the course of an hour; and that in some of the clusters occupying a space not more than one eighth or one tenth that of the moon's disk there were not less than twenty thousand stars. It is not possible to conceive any thing more beautiful than some of these clusters when seen through a good telescope. Some one has said that no one can look upon them for the first time without a shout of rapture, and to this I can give the testimony of my own experience; for the clusters that I first saw looked like a double handful of blazing diamonds let fall so gently on a dark table that, although they were scattered toward the edges, they seemed to be piled up in the middle. Nor is this all that may be said of their number, for it increases so rapidly with every increase of power in the telescope that, after having been estimated a century since at seventy-five millions, and then later at one thousand millions, no one now presumes to set a limit. On the contrary, it has been questioned whether, if we could take our stand upon the utmost limit of the heavens visible through our telescopes, we should not see just as many stars beyond as we left behind.

"With this glimpse at their number, I propose now to give you the best idea I can of their distances from us. Yet most people, and I suppose you among them, are so

unused to contemplate great magnitudes that few of them can realize what is meant by even one thousand miles; much less the circumference of the earth, which is twenty-five thousand miles; and still less the distance of the moon, which is two hundred and forty thousand miles. As for the distance of the sun, ninety-two million miles, it is probably beyond the adequate conception of any human mind. Our best ideas on the subject must be reached by degrees-

"Alf," said he, turning suddenly to that oddity among his hearers, who was evidently absorbed already with the grandeur of the subject, "did you ever shoot at a dove upon the wing?"

"Yes, sir; and bagged it too," Alf quickly answered, with an evident touch of hunter's pride.

"You know then how fast it flies, especially at sunset or twilight, when returning to its distant roost," the dominie continued.

"So fast," Alf replied, "as to look almost like a dark streak across the evening sky."

"At such times," continued the dominie, "the dove flies probably at the rate of eighty or a hundred miles the hour. If now you wish to realize the distance called one thousand miles, you have only to imagine a dove flying at that rate from sunrise to sunset. Can you do it?"

"I can, sir," Alf responded, "but it makes me stagger."

"We will then take an easier rate," the Dominie added. "You have all seen railroad express-trains running their best. Not unfrequently, especially when going down grade, they attain the speed of forty or forty-five miles an hour. If now you wish to conceive of one thousand miles, suppose yourself on board one of these trains running for twenty-four hours at the average rate of forty-one and two-third miles per hour. Can you not do it?"

"Easily enough" several voices answered.

"And to realize the circumference of the earth you have only to hold on in fancy until your express-train has been running in the same directions for twenty-five days; and to master in like manner the distance to the moon you have only to continue this speed for two hundred and forty days, or eight months? Can you not do it?"

There was a pause and a very hesitating "I—I—think so" from one solitary voice.

The dominie proceeded: "You have conceived very vividly, no doubt, the speed of a railroad-train running at the rate of one thousand miles a day, and now to conceive of any number of thousand miles it is only necessary to multiply that one day's run by the number of days. This *seems* easy enough, but in truth it is not; for although one thousand is easily handled by the mind when the units are small—as, for example, one thousand nuts in a bag that can be lifted by hand, or one thousand men in ranks that can be viewed at a glance—yet one thousand miles stretch so far beyond sight and ordinary conception that the mind wearies with the unusual magnitude, and refuses to carry it the two hundred and forty times necessary to reach the moon, and shrinks appalled at the thought of repeating four hundred times the moon's distance in order to reach the sun.

"Yet the sun's distance, ninety-two million miles, or rather the double of it, being the diameter of the earth's orbit, is the smallest unit which arithmetic will allow us to use in calculating the distance of even the nearest of the fixed stars. To prove to you that the enormous magnitudes so confidently quoted by astronomers in speaking of the star-depths are realities and not mere fancies, I will proceed to show you how those calculations are made.

"The fixed stars are known to occupy different distances from us, like trees in a surrounding forest. But we know that in a forest one single step taken in any direction will visibly alter the range of all trees within moderate distance whose line of range is at right-angles to our step, and we can easily calculate the distances of those trees from us by noting the changes thus produced. Indeed so great is this alteration in the range that not even so much as a step is necessary to make it appear—the distance between our *two* eyes is oftentimes sufficient. For example, if we stand perfectly still and look with one eye, we will see many a little bright twig or point of a tree at a hundred yards distance in perfect range with some other twig or point of a tree a hundred yards beyond. Now, if we close that eye and look with the other, we shall find that these twigs or points are thrown perceptibly out of range, although the only

difference which can cause this alteration is the two and a half or three inches space between the pupil of one eye and the pupil of the other. Exactly the same effect must be taken among the fixed stars by any change in our position; their ranges must be altered; and this alteration of range is known by astronomers as their *parallax*.

"Now with a given base line this parallax will be great or small, according as the distance of the two objects in range is great or small. In a forest two points in range must be very distant from us or very near to each other, if with the base-line of even one step at right-angles to them there is no alteration in their relative position. And just so it must be among the stars. If two of them are in perfect range, and we can command a base-line of only a few thousand miles, they must be at an immense distance from us if they reveal no parallax.

"Astronomical instruments have been brought to such perfection that they enable us to detect a parallax when the difference between the distance of the object and the length of the base line is as one hundred thousand to one. In other words, with a base-line of one (whether inch, mile, earth's radius, or whatever else), we can measure the parallax of an object distant one hundred thousand that length, and therefore can calculate its distance.

"With these facts in view, and with these instruments in hand, we will proceed now to solve the question, if we can, *what is the distance of the nearest of the fixed stars?* But which of them is nearest? We do not know; we only guess that those are nearest which are brightest, and therefore seem largest. Our judgment, however, may be delusive, for their superior brilliancy may be really due to greater size or to greater brightness of surface, while they are in fact much farther off than others less pretentious. The brightest of all the stars is Sirius, or the dog-star. We therefore make our first attempt upon it.

"There are two base-lines at our command, one of which is the earth's diameter with a stretch of eight thousand miles nearly, the other is the diameter of the earth's orbit round the sun, having a stretch of one hundred and eighty-four million miles. We try first the earth's diameter, but we find that with our base-line of eight thousand miles there is not the slightest appearance

of a
san
dist
with
Siri
hur
far
"
diar
base
lion
men
tion
have
hair
star,
our
four
as be
its r
it is
lions
perf
that
far o
"
again
a sm
gives
the
the t
tion c
one f
But t
previ
rect,
[Fig.
in tra
name
and ir
In
structi
lead tl
directi
near tl
ings, a
depot,
groves

of a parallax. We multiply our eight thousand by one hundred thousand, the greatest distance at which a parallax is to be had with our instruments, and we decide that Sirius is *not within* the distance of eight hundred million miles. But *how much farther off it is* we do not know.

"Our next attempt is by means of the diameter of the earth's orbit, an enormous base-line of one hundred and eighty-four million miles. We use the most perfect instruments possible, and conduct our observations with all possible nicety. Still we have no parallax. Sirius is not thrown one hair's breadth out of range with any other star, far or near. We therefore multiply our base-line of one hundred and eighty-four million miles by one hundred thousand, as before, and decide that, whatever may be its real distance *over and above* our figures, it is not so near as eighteen and a half millions of millions of miles. There we stop, perfectly aghast. We did not know before that anything in the wide universe was so far off from us.

"After a while we take courage and try again, star after star, now a large one, now a small one. At last we find one which gives decided evidence of a parallax.* It is the only one of the millions visible by the telescope that shows any decided alteration of range with the enormous base-line of one hundred and eighty-four million miles. But this is enough to satisfy us that our previous decision concerning Sirius was correct, and that the fixed stars generally are

not within the distance of eighteen and a half trillion miles.

"This enormous distance is beyond all grasp of our minds, if we try to measure it by miles or even by the sun's distance. We must try some other unit of measure, and fortunately we have one at command. The light which comes to us from the sun does not come instantaneously. It requires about eight and a fourth minutes to make the passage, travelling at the rate of one hundred and ninety-two thousand miles a second. Its rapidity is such that, if it could travel in a circle, it would fly around the whole circumference of the earth eight times between the beats of a pendulum that measures seconds.

"Now if Sirius or any other fixed star is eighteen trillion four hundred billion miles distant from us, and if light travels one hundred and ninety-two thousand miles in a second, we have only to divide the larger of these numbers by the smaller to learn that the number of seconds required for the passage over this vast distance is ninety-five million eight hundred and thirty-three thousand three hundred and thirty-three; and if we reduce these seconds to minutes and hours and days and years, we discover that the passage of light from that star to us will occupy three years and five days. In other words, we learn that if we could look at that star to-day with telescopic power sufficient to discern what is done upon its surface, we should see not what is doing there to-day, but what *was done* there three years and five days ago, when the light left it.

HOW TO TEACH GEOGRAPHY.

First Step.—Review the *Points of Compass*, in training the pupils, until they are able to name any direction, as the teacher points, and in any direction named.

In connection with and following the instruction relative to the points of compass, lead the pupils to learn the location and the direction from the school of other streets near the school; also of prominent buildings, as churches, post-office, hotel, railroad depot, etc.; or of villages, lakes, farms, groves, forests, streams, etc., within the

range of the children's observation. The teacher should represent on the blackboard the situation of the school-house, and the location or direction from it of the places mentioned, and allow the pupils to copy the same on their slates.

Second Step.—While teaching the definitions relative to the *forms of land and water*, present first the picture, or a drawing upon the blackboard, of the object under consideration, as of an island, peninsula, cape, strait, lake, bay, river, etc.; then show how the same or a similar object is represented

*Alpha Centauri.

on a map. Follow this with a definition to be learned by the pupils. As the characteristic of each form of land or water—as that *an island is land entirely surrounded by water*—is learned, require the pupils to point out on a map several representations of islands, omitting the names of the particular islands in this stage. Proceed in a similar way to teach all the definitions.

Colton's *Geographical Cards* will be found of great assistance as pictorial map representations to illustrate these definitions.

During this step the instruction has for its chief object training children to recognize the various forms of land and water, by means of their characteristic features, and to describe each by suitable definitions; hence the attention of pupils need not be directed to the names and location of particular islands, isthmuses, straits, bays, etc., at this time.

Third Step.—Commence the instruction relative to the names and location of particular places with the town, village, or city in which the school is situated, and extend it to other places in its vicinity. No fixed limit to the extent of this exercise can be given, since the length to which it can be profitably carried will depend, in some degree, upon the personal knowledge of the members of the class relative to these places. The teacher should aim, however, so to use the knowledge of those pupils whose personal visitations have made them acquainted with the locations of the greatest number of places, as to extend the knowledge of the other pupils.

Such attention should be given to the location upon a map of the town, village, or city in which the school is situated, and to the relative location and direction from it of the chief places in its vicinity, that the pupils will be able to point them out on an outline map. The name of the town, village, or city, of the county, and of the State in which the pupils live, should be taught, and their location shown on a map.

Fourth Step.—In teaching the *shape of the earth* by means of a globe, lead the pupils to compare a marble with an orange, and both the marble and orange with a globe, and thus to notice that each one resembles the other in *shape* only; also that each differs from the other in *size*. By this means re-prepare them for understanding that the

globe represents the earth only in *shape*. Follow this with some simple illustrations as to the comparative size of the earth.

Next lead the pupils to compare the outline forms of the grand divisions of land, water, and of islands, etc., represented on the globe, with their corresponding representations upon hemisphere maps.

Fifth Step.—Talk with the pupils about people of different races and nations, and point out on the globe, also on outline maps, the location of the countries where each may be found: as Africa, the home of the colored men; China, the home of the Chinamen; Germany, the home of the Germans; etc. Proceed in a similar manner with the most familiar animals, and the most common productions of different countries. Give the name of the country, and show its location on a globe, also on an outline map. Point out Greenland as the home of the white bear; Africa as the home of the lion, zebra, ostrich, and camel; Australia as the home of the kangaroo; Spain as the country where cork and raisins are produced; South America as the country from which brazil-nuts and cocoa-nuts are obtained; West Indies as the place whence we obtain oranges and bananas, etc.

By means similar to those herein described the pupils may be made to realize that *Geography* teaches them about the homes of the different people, animals, and productions which they have seen and of which they have heard.

The aim of the teacher should be to give the pupils a good, general idea of the *shape of the Earth*, of the different portions of it as the *homes of races of men*, also as to the places where particular fruits grow, and of some parts as having continuous cold weather or continuous warm weather. This object must be accomplished chiefly by oral instruction. However, the work may be facilitated by placing in the hands of the pupils suitable text-books on Geography, to be examined by the children *after* the lesson has been given orally by the teacher; but in no case should the pupils in this grade be required to study a lesson in the book before the subject of it has been presented orally by the teacher, as above indicated.

Each lesson may be gone over a *second* time by the teacher, after the pupils have studied the subject in the books. The or-

der of the lessons, the topics presented, and the general character of the facts taught should conform to the directions given here, without regard to the order of presentation in the text-books in common use.

After completing the course of objective

instruction in Geography, as indicated in the preceding steps, the pupils will be prepared to commence the study of this subject in an intelligent manner from good text-books.

From "How to Teach."

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF ONTARIO.

The report of the Chief Superintendent of Education, for 1873, contains some interesting statistics indicating a highly satisfactory progress in almost every department of the system. If the liberality with which the people voluntarily tax themselves to support a system of free schools be any index to the popularity of these institutions, then one may safely infer that this system has taken deep root in the soil of Canada. If the rapid increase in the number of scholars in the Province, the number of teachers employed in them, and the number of scholars who attend them, may be assumed as a safe test of extension, then there is good ground to hope that the machinery employed in the education of the youth, of the Province is extending as rapidly as the increase in the population demands. It is true the people who contribute so liberally and freely to promote universal education, have still to lament the apathy or ignorance of parents, and in some cases the necessity that points to a result of between twelve and thirteen thousand children of school age growing up in this favored land of free schools without availing themselves of the advantages brought within their reach. It is the only indefensible feature in a national system of education, that many of those who, were they left to their own unaided efforts, could not command the means of educating their families, are still so indifferent to the future of their own children that they are not sufficiently alive to the blessings they might enjoy, and thus the country is cheated out of part of the fruits of that system for the support of which they are taxed.

The amount of legislative grant for the year 1873 was \$224,935—about \$20,000 over that of the preceding year. The municipal assessment was \$607,351, an in-

crease in one year of \$60,960. The amount raised by the assessment of trustees was \$1,430,300—an increase of \$207,280 over 1872. The whole sum raised for Public School purposes from all sources amounted to the enormous figure of \$2,967,565, or in round numbers, to three millions of dollars. This sum is something unprecedented to be raised, the greatest part by voluntary taxation, for the support of free education by a country so young and a population so small, as that of Ontario. It speaks well for the character of the people as respects intelligence and moral principle, and is full of hope for the future. The Chief Superintendent has tabulated the increase from year to year since 1860, in all the different channels of revenue for the support of the Public Schools, and a few of these may be interesting to the readers of the *Free Press*. The following figures indicate the amounts available from all sources. 1870, \$1,944,364; 1871, \$2,124,471; 1872, \$2,530,270; 1873, \$2,967,365 or an increase of \$1,023,001 in the course of four years for the support of free education in this Province.

The amount disbursed in payment of teachers' salaries in the same year was \$1,520,124, an increase over the preceding year of \$148,528, which shows that the country is gradually awakening to the fact, that if the people desire the services of properly trained and properly educated teachers, they must pay for them. In this respect there is still room for improvement, as the profession of teaching is still more poorly paid than any other in the country, that requires the possession of the same varied and extensive attainments. The amount expended on sites and buildings during the year was \$609,113. The increase of expenditures year by year on this item,

since 1871, is very striking. The figures are—1871, \$54,333; in 1872, \$194,208; and in 1873, \$153,070. The total expenditure for school purposes during the year was \$2,607,526—leaving a balance unexpended of some \$362,839.

The number of children between the ages of five and sixteen as reported to the educational department was 504,869; the number of these attending school was 439,466; the number of scholars of other ages attending school was 21,518, total attending school 490,984; of these 242,915 were boys, and 218,369 girls.

There are reported 4,732 schools in the Province, taught by 5,642 teachers, of whom 2,581 are males, and 3,061 females. It appears that the number of male teachers employed has decreased 45, though the total increase in the number of teachers has been by no less than 166, giving an increase to the number of females employed of 211. This is a convincing proof, that female labor is properly appreciated in this vocation, and there is no doubt that they are the most successful unless in the more advanced classes of boys. These teachers are classified as respects their religion in the following manner:—Church of England, 930; Church of Rome, 675; Presbyterians, 1,766; Methodists, 1,725; Baptists, 325; Congre-

gationalists, 81; Quakers, 17; Disciples, 39; reported Protestants, 55; other denominations, 27.

Of the certificates held by these 5,642 teachers, 245 are first-class Provincial; 839 are second-class; old county board certificates, first-class, 654; second-class, 507; third-class, 73; new county board certificates, 2771, and interim certificates, 553.

The salaries of teachers vary with the places in which they are employed. The average salary paid male teachers in cities was \$695; females, \$278; in towns, male teachers, \$616; females, \$251; in villages, male teachers, \$468; females, \$222; in counties, male, \$323; females, \$229.

The number of R. C. separate schools in operation was 170; decrease, 1, during the year. The amount paid for the support of these schools from the Legislative grant was \$12,450; the amount received from school rates was \$47,167; total from all sources, \$83,269. The number of pupils was 22,063, and the average daily was 11,123. The number of teachers employed 269—males, 91, and females, 178. The figures and remarks refer to public schools exclusively. High Schools and Collegiate Institutes are supposed to be a separate organization.—*London Free Press.*

THE NEW SCRIPTURES,

ACCORDING TO TYNDALL, HUXLEY, SPENCER AND DARWIN.

[The following clever piece of satire on the evolutionists of the present day is well worth perusal.]

Genesis—Chapter II.

1. Primarily the Unknowable moved upon cosmos and evolved protoplasm.

2. And protoplasm was inorganic and undifferentiated, containing all things in potential energy, and a spirit of evolution moved upon the fluid mass.

3. And the Unknowable said, Let atoms attract, and their contact begat light, heat and electricity.

4. And the Unconditioned differentiated the atoms, each after its kind, and their combinations begat rock, air and water.

5. And there went out a spirit of evolution from the Unconditioned, and working in protoplasm and accretion and absorption produced the organic cell.

6. And cell by nutrition evolved primordial germ, and germ developed protogene; and protogene begat eozoon, and eozoon begat monad, and monad begat animalcule.

7. Animalcule begat ephemera; then began creeping things to multiply on the face of the earth.

8. And earthly atom in vegetable protoplasm begat molecule, and thence came all grass and every herb in the earth.

9. And animalcule in the water evolved fins, tails, claws and scales; and in the air

wings and sprouted played u

10. A came the articulata

11. No higher ve the Unkr mammali

12. Ar he was ye he was a fore he wa

13. Ou bian and l pentadact produced simiadæ in

14. And prevailed: the platyrh begat the monkey be ape begat orang bega panzee etc

15. And of Nod an manous git

I. Any k without con you have to

II. To w grammar n yourself wi writers of l written by n written by n

III. Befo letter, suppo with the pers your letter a

IV. Julius same time. dictator: new time.

wings and beaks, and on the land they sprouted such organs as were necessary as played upon by the environment.

10. And by secretion and absorption came the radiata and mollusca, which begat articulata, and articulata vertebrata.

11. Now these are the generations of the higher vertebrata, in the cosmic period that the Unknowable begat evolved the bipedal mammalia.

12. And every man of the earth, while he was yet a monkey, and the horse while he was a hipparion, and the hipparion before he was a oredon.

13. Out of the ascidian came the amphibian and begat the pentadactyle; and the pentadactyle by inheritance and selection produced the hylobate, from which are the simiadæ in all their tribes.

14. And out of the simiadæ the Lemur prevailed above his fellows and produced the platyrhine monkey. And the platyrhine begat the catarrhine; and the catarrhine monkey begat the anthropoid ape, and the ape begat the longimanous orang, and the orang begat the chimpanzee, and the chimpanzee evolved the what-is-it.

15. And the what-is-it went into the land of Nod and took him a wife of the longimanous gibbons.

16. And in process of the cosmic period were born unto them and their children the anthropomorphic primordial types.

17. The homunculus, the prognathus, the troglodyte, the antochthon, the terragene; those are the generations of primeval man.

18. And primeval man was naked and not ashamed, but lived in quadrumanous innocence, and struggled mightily to harmonize with the environment.

19. And by inheritance and natural selection did he progress from the stable and homogeneous; for the weakest died and the strongest grew and multiplied.

20. And man grew a thumb for that he had need of it, and developed capacities for prey.

21. For, behold, the swiftest men caught the most animals, and the swiftest animals got away from the most men; wherefore the slow animals were eaten and the slow men starved to death.

22. And as types were differentiated the weaker types continually disappeared.

23. And the earth was filled with violence; for man strove with man, and tribe with tribe, whereby they killed off the weak and foolish and secured the survival of the fittest.—*Correspondent of the Cincinnati Commercial, Nov. 19.*

HINTS FOR LETTER WRITING.

ALFRED HENNEQUIN, M. A.

I. Any kind of letter whatever is never without consequence: never forget this when you have to write.

II. To write a letter, consult neither your grammar nor your dictionary. Content yourself with reading the best letters of writers of both sexes; but consult those written by women, in preference to those written by men.

III. Before you write the first line of your letter, suppose yourself, in thought, present with the person you are writing to. Write your letter as if you were talking to him.

IV. Julius Cæsar dictated several at the same time. Do not you imitate the Roman dictator: never write more than one at a time.

V. In writing to a man in a public character or to a protector take care not to show more wit than he has.

VI. While you are under a laborious digestion, never write a letter of reproach.

VII. Never write long letters to people who are happy.

VIII. All your life long write to your teachers with almost as much respect and gratitude as you would to your father and mother.

IX. Never ask or refuse anything in your letters, which would make you blush, were you to ask or to refuse it by spoken words.

X. Let the style of your letters be simple, particularly when you are writing to a witty or silly man.

XI. Follow your own character in your letters : imitate nobody.

XII. By proposing to yourself to be laconic in your letters, take care not to make them too dry : a dry style is a proof of a dry heart.

XIII. A letter may be compared to a bouquet : the thoughts ought to be well chosen and well matched together.

XIV. In a crowd we do not find two faces that are perfectly alike : let it be the same thing with regard to your letters.

XV. Speak of your friends as if they were present ; write to them in the same manner.

XVI. Write your letters in such a manner that they may be easily understood by those to whom you address them : the young man ought to slacken his pace, when he walks either with an old man or a woman.

XVII. Do not accumulate beforehand shining or profound ideas in order to place them in your letters.

XVIII. All kinds of writing may enter into the epistolary style : that depends on the subject and on the person who writes. It is very well known that the sublime does not exclude the simple : on the contrary, the former supposes the latter.

XIX. Do not study long before you write ; but always take care to read it over again when you have written it.

XX. In common conversation, make little use of puns—and still less in your letters.

XXI. Be brief when you write to a magistrate : magistrates have neither time nor patience to read long letters.

XXII. In your letters, be short in finding fault, and still more so in giving praise.

XXIII. Do not show your learning in your letters : they would degenerate into academical memoirs.

XXIV. Never send off a letter that has given you either tediousness or pains in writing it : it will only serve to tire the person in reading it.

XXV. When you are thirsty, you drink off the whole cup at once. Stay till you have need to write, and let your letter be begun and finished, as it were, with one dash of the pen.

XXVI. In your letters, never sacrifice the truth to any consideration whatever, whether convenience or respect : forbear writing rather. A lie spoken is a great evil : a lie on paper is a still greater evil.

XXVII. Be not in a hurry to write to a friend who is suddenly called to an eminent position, or who finds himself on the top of the wheel of fortune. Wait till you have news from him.

XXVIII. Never write merely for the pleasure of writing, though it were but a note or a postscript. A reasonable being never does an action, speaks or writes one word without having some design and being able to give an account of it.

XXIX. It is chiefly in letters that the antiquated words of a language may be revived ; however, show your taste and sobriety in the use of them.

Many more rules might be given for letter-writing, though these seem to be the principal ones. Let the person who writes always bear this *main point* in mind : You are judged by your letters more than by your conversation—the former being usually the result of serious thought, seldom influenced by surrounding circumstances. A spoken word may be forgiven and forgotten : a written word of shame or offence always stands against you.

[These principles for letter-writing have been selected from N. G. Dufief's *Nature Displayed in her Mode of Teaching Language to Man*, and arranged into rules.]

C
to a
Prof
vers
of E
subj
Glas
of th
cred
vices
tific
popu
unde
chair
Esq.,
ciatic
lectu
Pr
receiv
openi
of Sc
dew,
kinds
betwe
He w
ren by
the ca
side o
omen
now l
We n
metho
inquir
in whi
ance.
of hea
of he
&c., ar
mon ci
the sar
to all t
produc
that of
dew, h
temper
with th
moistur
colder
is one
ways co
phere.

"SCIENTIFIC METHOD."

On Friday evening, Feb. 12, according to announcement, Rev. G. P. Young, M.A., Professor of Mataphysics in Toronto University, and Chairman of the Central Board of Examiners, gave a lecture on the above subject, in the Music Hall, Strathroy. Mr. Glashan, Mr. Carson, and the other officers of the Teachers' Association deserve much credit for securing the lecturer's able services. The lecture was almost purely scientific in character, but was given in such a popular and instructive style, as to be easily understood by nearly all present. The chair was ably occupied by J. T. Wood, Esq., of Lobo, Vice-President of the Association. We give a brief synopsis of the lecture.

Professor Young on coming forward was received with hearty applause. After some opening remarks he referred in illustration of Scientific Method to the phenomenon of dew, the difference between it and other kinds of moisture, and to the connection between it and other kinds of phenomena. He would explain similar moisture to children by using cold water in a pitcher, or in the case of a dash of cold water on the outside of a window. To understand a phenomenon we must understand its cause, and now let us inquire what is the cause of dew? We now take the first step in scientific method, the *method of agreement*. We first inquire what is common to all circumstances in which the phenomenon makes its appearance. For instance, in regard to the cause of heat, let us examine the various causes of heat, percussion, combustion, friction &c., and we find they all agree in this common circumstance, they stop motion. In the same way let us inquire what is common to all the circumstances under which dew is produced. Let us take the simplest case that of the pitcher. The water affects the dew, how? Evidently only by means of the temperature, the water being cold. So it is with the cold water on the window, and the moisture on the wall. We always find dew colder than the air in contact with it. Here is one point of agreement, that dew is always colder than the surrounding atmosphere. The dew being colder, and being

deposited on the object, are the two great facts here. We have found one point of agreement; there may be others, but this only gives us suggestions; it does not lead to positive conclusions. We have a surer method, the *method of direct difference* which leads to positive conclusions. For instance, a man is in perfect health; there is no cause why he should drop dead. Another man in perfect health drops dead because he is shot with a bullet through the brain; the difference between the two is the shooting of the ball. But as this method is sometimes very difficult to apply, there is another method called the *method of indirect difference*. In this method we eliminate every element which cannot be the cause until only one element is left; then that one element must be the cause. Applying this to the cause of dew, we find it depends on the influence of, 1st Substance, 2nd Surface, 3rd Texture. In regard to substance we find a remarkable difference, a *scale of intensity* soon making itself obvious. Metals conducting heat well are dewed imperfectly; glass, a poor conductor is dewed abundantly, dew thus depending on conducting power. In regard to surface, a rough black surface receives dew abundantly; the smooth polished surface does not. Hence follows the law that good radiators of heat dew abundantly, and poor radiators do not. In regard to texture, objects of loose texture dew abundantly, while those of close texture do not. We have now a mass of facts, and we inquire what causes we can eliminate, and what causes can not be eliminated. In all these cases, bad conduction, good radiation, and looseness of texture, all have one common effect, the lowering of the temperature of a body exposed to the surface of the air. We now find in all these cases that only one cause is left; all the rest have been eliminated; this is the lowering of the temperature. But after all this there is a possibility of some doubt, and we must still resort to what is called *verification*, and one of the methods of verification is *induction*. Suppose by induction we have established certain laws then we can draw deductions from them. For instance, it is

well known that the air holds a certain quantity of moisture; and it is also known that the cooling of the atmosphere causes the deposition of moisture; hence we have the cause of dew. But we can apply as a final test actual *experiment*, in order to test the correctness of our conclusion. But there is still further what is known as *crucial observation*. We know that the presence of clouds is unfavorable to dew. This ought to be explainable, and so it is. Radiation of heat from bodies on earth would cause dew, but radiation from the clouds tends to counteract this, and so prevents dew. But when the clouds clear away, then we find dew is deposited. Thus from all these methods, we are quite justified in concluding that we have arrived at the cause of dew. In addition to the methods already mentioned there is the method of *concomitant variation*. The effect is always proportionate to the cause, nay more, the effect is the cause transmuted. If we vary the cause, the effect must be varied in the same proportion. We find a magnificent illustration of this method in Tyndall's work on "Heat as a Mode of Motion," in which is shown an exact quantitative relation between the amount of heat used, and amount of work done. Then there is another method, the *method of residues*. For instance take a cubic foot of gas and apply heat to it to expand it, and raise its temperature. Again suppose you apply heat to raise its temper-

ature without expanding it, then the residue over that required to raise the temperature is the quantity of heat which did the work. In conclusion, he referred to the manner in which Scientific Methods should be taught in our Schools in an interesting manner. He strongly advised teachers against using text books except as a necessity, and gave some amusing instances of the abuse of text books. The subject should be thoroughly in the mind. When preaching he had once asked a little girl to give him a pin to pin his sermon in the Bible. She answered "Pin it in your mind." He would say the same thing to teachers in regard to text books, "Pin them in your minds." After expressing the great pleasure it gave him to be present, and address so large and appreciative an audience, the lecturer sat down amidst loud applause.

Mr. J. S. Carson, Head Master Strathroy Public Schools, moved a vote of thanks to the lecturer, and in doing so referred to his eminent services to the educational interests of the country.

Mr. E. Rowland, teacher, Adelaide, in seconding the motion, said he heartily echoed the sentiments of the mover. He had heard many lectures, but none so able and instructive.

The motion being put was carried with great cordiality, and the proceedings then came to a close.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

CANADA.

—For some notes from the Chief Superintendent's Annual Report for 1873, see another page.

—Items of educational intelligence solicited, and always thankfully received.

—At the recent meeting of the Huron County Council, the Public School Inspector for West Huron made his annual report for the Western District of the County, from which the *Signal* obtains the following interesting facts:

"The district comprised the Townships of Ashfield, Colborne, Goderich, Hay, Stanley, Stephen, Usborne, West Wawanosh

and the Village of Exeter. The amount received during 1874 for school purposes was \$72,172.55, of which had been expended in salaries, new buildings, improvements, &c., \$65,538.97½, leaving a balance of \$6,633.57½. The amount of indebtedness throughout the district for salaries, repairs, buildings, &c., was \$8,325.76. The value of school property was \$96,779, while in 1871 it was \$36,820. The whole number of school sections was 80—Ashfield 13, Colborne 7, Goderich 10, Hay 10, Stanley 11, Stephen 12, Usborne 8, West Wawanosh 8, Exeter 1; Union Sections 12; R. C. Separate Schools 2. The number of school houses was 81—29 brick, 2½ stone, 1 con-

cret
sch
buil
at le
by
the

Ashi
Colb
Gode
Hay
Stanl
Steph
Usbo
W. W
Exete

Th
forme
Two

WA
SOCIA
above
Schoc
The
great
Mr. T
chair.

The
and ac
hibitec
Penma

Mr.
algebra
a Tim
which
a thorc

Mr.
discuss

The
by Mis
and by
the wri
publish

A fri
the vari

The
ing was
wrote a
Recitati
Bodaly,

crete, 45 frame, 4 log. There were 27 log schools in 1871. There are no rented buildings in the district. Each school had at least half an acre of ground as required by law. The standing of the schools in the different municipalities was as follows :

	Excellent.	Good.	Middling.	Bad.	Very bad.
Ashfield	2	7	3	0	1
Colborne	1	2	4	0	0
Goderich	0	3	3	3	1
Hay	2	2	6	0	0
Stanley	2	4	5	0	0
Stephen	0	3	7	1	1
Usborne	3	2	3	0	0
W. Wawanosh	1	1	4	2	0
Exeter	0	1	0	0	0
Total	11	25	35	6	3

Three Teachers' Institutes have been formed at Exeter, Varna and Dunganon. Two of these are doing excellent work."

WARWICK AND BROOKE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The regular meeting of the above Association took place in the Watford School, on Saturday, 20th February last. The attendance of teachers was good, and great interest was taken in the proceedings. Mr. Tulloch, the President, occupied the chair.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and adopted; after which Mr. Tulloch exhibited his method of teaching Ornamental Penmanship with his usual ability.

Mr. Mitchell explained his method of algebraic factoring. Mr. Bryce constructed a Time Table for a school of 50 pupils, which practically showed the advantages of a thorough system in this important branch.

Mr. W. E. Norton, in a very able manner discussed the subject of Orthography.

The Secretary then read an essay written by Miss E. Bowes, on Æsthetic Education, and by a unanimous vote of those present, the writer was requested to allow it to be published in the *Watford Advocate*.

A friendly discussion then took place on the various modes exhibited.

The following programme for next meeting was then agreed to, viz: Mr. Kirk to write a paper on Music; Mr. Norton a Recitation; Mr. Shaw, Geography; Mr. Bodaly, Reading; Mr. Tulloch, School dis-

cipline; Miss Carroll, Essay; Mr. Turner, Vulgar Fractions; Subject for general discussion, "Should the Bible be used in our Public Schools as a Text Book?"

The Association then adjourned, to meet in the same place, on Friday, 21st May.

STRATHROY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The tenth regular meeting of the Strathroy Teachers' Association took place in the Colborne Street School, Strathroy, on Friday and Saturday, the 12th and 13th February.

In the absence of the President, Mr. Rowland took the chair.

The minutes of former meeting were read and confirmed.

Mr. Glashan presented the report of the Managing Committee, and made a suggestion that it would be advisable to increase the fees for membership, in order that more than local talent could be obtained for each successive meeting. A motion to increase was then made, and after some remarks thereon, it was thought better to defer discussion till the next day to give those coming from a distance an opportunity of expressing their views.

The election of officers exhibits the following result:—

- President Mr. McEvoy.
- 1st Vice President . . Mr. Wood.
- 2nd " Mr. Frederick.
- Secretary Mr. Carson.
- Treasurer Mr. Leitch.

Executive Committee—Miss Scott and Mr. McMichael.

Finance Committee—Messrs. Leitch, Carson and Wood.

Question Drawer Committee—Miss Scott and Messrs. Glashan, McMichael, Maxwell, Wood, and Carson, with power to add to their number.

Mr. McMichael gave his method of teaching Geograpy, which was replete with hints that could not fail to benefit young teachers.

The Association then adjourned to hear Prof. Young's lecture on "Scientific Method."

On Saturday morning the discussion on fees was resumed. Several expressed their views, and on a ballot being taken, all were in favor of gentlemen paying \$1, and ladies 50 cents, to become members.

Mr. Wood gave a lesson on how to teach reading. This gentleman has evidently given particular attention to this subject.

Mr. Maxwell, Mathematical Master in the High School, read an admirable essay on the art of questioning. He succeeded in saying all that is worth anything on this department of school work. He was asked to hand his essay to the Executive Committee for publication. A vote of thanks was tendered to him.

There were only a few questions in the drawer; these elicited some lively discussion, after which the association adjourned.

EAST MIDDLESEX TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The eleventh regular meeting of the East Middlesex Teachers' Association was held in the County Buildings in the city of London, Friday and Saturday, February 26th & 27th last.

The meeting was opened in due form at one p.m., the President, Mr. Dearness, in the chair. The minutes of the previous meeting were read and approved. The reports of Committees on Arrangements, Library, and Finance were read and adopted. Some accounts were passed.

Mr. Black illustrated his method of teaching to beginners in a very satisfactory and profitable manner. An exceedingly interesting discussion ensued, during which Messrs. Hoyt, Stock, Faucett, Lynam, Rakestraw and the President made some valuable suggestions concerning the cure of impediments in speech, stammering, faults such as reading too low, too fast, &c.

Commercial Arithmetic was next introduced by the Secretary, Mr. Stewart, followed by several teachers showing their methods of teaching interest, &c.

Mr. Morehouse showed his method of teaching writing, treated of the manner of holding the pen, position of the pupil, &c.

At the evening session the President, Messrs. Carson, Groat, Stillwell, and Eckert, spoke on examinations, drawing attention to causes of failure and their remedies with direction and advice to intending candidates. The President then gave explanations and solutions, taking the last arithmetic papers.

The Association resumed on Saturday morning, the first business being a vote of

condolence to Mr. Woodburn, Teacher No. 1, London, on account of the sickness of himself and family.

Mr. Sutherland gave notice that he would move at the next Annual Convention "that the engagement of a teacher by a Board of Trustees in this Inspectoral Division would constitute him or her a member of the Association."

Mr. Lynam gave notice that he would move to reduce the fees of male members one-half and admit ladies free.

After methods of teaching Arithmetical Reduction were discussed, the Rev. Mr. Gordon delivered an able and instructive address on the "Relation of the teacher to the Pupil," which was listened to with deep interest.

On motion of Mr. Eckert, seconded by Mr. Wright, a hearty vote of thanks was tendered to Mr. Gordon, who suitably replied.

On motion of Mr. Black, the Association requested Mr. Gordon to allow his address to be published in the *ONTARIO TEACHER*, which request was granted.

Dr. A. J. Campbell, of London, in a very lucid manner, gave his method of object-teaching, introducing it by a history and description of Pestalozzi's labors.

A hearty vote of thanks was passed to Dr. Campbell, on motion of Mr. Hoyt.

Some routine business was then transacted, and the Association adjourned, to meet the last Friday and Saturday in June.

COUNCIL OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.—The Council met a few days ago, when there were present, Very Rev. H. J. Grasset, B.D., the Chairman; the Chief Superintendent of Education; the Reverend J. Jennings, D.D.; His Grace the Most Reverend J. J. Lynch, D.D.; Mr. Hammel M. Deroche, M.A., M.P.P.; Mr. James MacLennan, M.A., Q.C., M.P.; the Reverend S. S. Nelles, D.D.; the Reverend A. Carman, D.D.; Mr. Daniel Wilson, L.L.D.; Mr. Samuel C. Wood, M.P.P.; Mr. Goldwin Smith, M.A.

After a number of communications, including nine applications for pensions, had been laid before the Council, several notices of motion were given, and the rule requiring a day's notice being suspended, it was at once ordered that a special Committee be

named by the Council to take into consideration the working of the Book Depository in reference to the supply of the best class of books for prizes and school libraries, and also in reference to the general interests of the Province with regard to the free circulation of literature through the ordinary trade channels; with power to call for all requisite information from the officers of the Education Department; pending such investigation, that the Department continue to act on the principle hitherto in use, with regard to prices of books, and that such Committee consist of the Chief Superintendent, Mr. Goldwin Smith, Prof. Ambury, Mr. Deroche, Mr. Wood, Mr. MacLennan, and the mover, Prof. Wilson.

A motion was also passed granting to Mr. John Lovell permission to print the series of five Readers, and the Spelling Book or Companion to the Readers, upon the same conditions as other publishers.

The High School Inspectors having applied for an allowance for travelling expenses, it was ordered that the application be recommended to the favorable consideration of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council; and that a sum of not less than two hundred dollars be granted to each of the Inspectors for travelling expenses.

The report of the Central Committee of Examiners naming the successful competitors for the medals in 1874, having been read, it was ordered that the medals granted by the Council to the candidates for the Public School teachers' Certificates, who passed the best examination in 1874, be awarded as follows:

The Gold Medal.—Mr. Isaac James Birchard.

The First Silver Medal.—Mr. Archibald Smirl.

The Second Silver Medal.—Mr. Joseph Standish Carson.

The First Bronze Medal.—Mr. Morris Johnson Fletcher.

The Second Bronze Medal.—Mr. Edwin D. Parlow.

The appointment of Miss Kate Hagarty, as third assistant teacher in the Girls' Model School temporarily made by the Chief Superintendent, was confirmed.

The British History and the outlines of General History, with the manuscript revision thereof by the Committee, were laid before the Council and approved.

The Council also passed a resolution expressing a desire that the School Books sanctioned by them should be pervaded, wherever morality is concerned, by the principles and sentiments of a Christian community, but they do not consider themselves authorized, or deem it within the line of their duty to sanction any statements of religious dogma of a sectarian character, or anything in the nature of theological discussion. That this be an instruction to the Text Book Committee.

It was further ordered that the Text Book Committee be authorized, when any change of text books shall have been approved by the Council, to give notice through *The Journal of Education* of the proposed change.

The following notice was ordered to be inserted in *The Journal of Education*:

"The Council of Public Instruction desire to make it known to authors and publishers that they have at present before them no history of Canada which appears to meet the requirements of schools; and that they would gladly take into consideration the claims of any new work on the subject which might be submitted to them with a view to its adoption as a text book."

CHOICE MISCELLANY.

SOME THOUGHTS.

THE TEACHER'S LIFE.

A. B. STREET.

The teacher's life—most pure and high !
 The opening mind with gems to store ;
 To upward point the wandering eye
 When youth's frail barque forsakes the shore
 The world its hollow plaudit bears
 To fame that's won amidst its strife ;
 But deeper, loftier praise is theirs
 Who, honored, lead the teacher's life.

The teacher's life boasts truest fame :
 'Tis not alone the mind to fill—
 The heart, God's greatest work, hath claim
 Upon its highest, holiest skill.
 To guide its erring feelings right,
 Destroy the weeds that spring to rife,
 Whilst opening realms to mental sight—
 This, this, oh ! this the teacher's life.

The teacher's life—not only know
 Cities the blessings by it showered,
 But where the fresh pure breezes blow
 O'er peaceful fields and ways embowered,
 How oft the modest school-house there
 Is seen, far, far from busy strife,
 In God's own blessed sun and air
 The temple of the teacher's life.

The teacher's life ! 'Tis not to roam
 In eye of man some towering height,
 But in the valley of its home
 For God's pure eye to shed its light.
 How many, as they pass along
 The snares within their way so rife,
 With towering brow and footstep strong,
 Have cause to bless the teacher's life !

New York School Journal.

—'Tis the privilege of human nature, above
 brutes, to love those that disoblige us.—
Antoninus.

—Things are sullen and will be as they are,
 whatever we think them or wish them to be.
 —*Cudworth.*

—There is small chance of truth at the goal
 where there is not a childlike humility at the
 starting post.—*Coleridge.*

—Though once in his life he may grate thee
 with harshness, excuse him who on every
 occasion else has soothed thee with kind-
 ness.—*Sadi.*

—Have the *courage* to be ignorant of a great
 number of things, in order to avoid the
 calamity of being ignorant of everything.—
Sidney Smith.

—A man is relieved and gay when he has
 put his heart into his work, and done his
 best ; but when he has said or done other-
 wise, shall give him no peace.—*Emerson.*

—Shall your faults be as the scales of the
 plant, stripped off one by one till the flower
 smiles on top, or shall they be as the coats
 of the shell fish, to which each year adds a
 layer.—*Ib.*

—Were the aggressor in a quarrel my own
 sister, endeared to me by a thousand
 generous offices, I would, I *must* love the
 sufferer best ; at least while he is a sufferer.
 —*Richardson.*

—A weak mind sinks under prosperity, as
 well as under adversity. A strong and deep
 one has two highest tides, when the moon is
 at the full, and when there is no moon—
Hare.

—I wish there were tables of pride and
 prejudice as of refraction and parallax—
 that we might free ourselves from errors of
 position and atmosphere. Even then we
 must make, as the astronomer does, a *per-*
sonal equation.

—Be not offended with mankind, should
 any mischief assail thee, for neither pleasure
 nor pain originate with thy fellow being.
 Though the arrow may seem to issue from
 the bow, the intelligent can see that the
 archer gave it its aim.—*Sadi.*

—A man is known to his dog by his smell
 —to the tailor by his coat—to his friend by
 the smile ; each of these know him, but how
 little or how much depends on the dignity
 of the intelligence. That which is truly and
 indeed characteristic of man, is known only
 to God.—*Ruskin.*

—To despond is to be ungrateful before-
 hand. Be not looking for evil. Often
 thou drainest the gall of fear while evil is

passing by thy dwelling. Verily evils may be courted, may be wooed, and may be won by distrust; for the soil is ready for the seed, and suspicion hath coldly put aside the helping hand.—*Tupper*.

—One reason why we are so severe on the faults of others and so lenient to our own, is that we judge their action alone as the index of their regard for virtue—while we find in ourselves an infinite love of virtue, and an entire trust in our power, of following her, and we are so filled by this that we are but slightly shocked, when in any one instance we deviate from our well-known line of rectitude.—*Emerson*.

STAYING AFTER SCHOOL.—To remain after school-hours, as a practice, either to infuse a new life into the pupil, or for purposes of punishment, in our judgment is a measure that defeats its own ends. The teacher almost of necessity becomes nervous and irritable, as a result of already exhausted energy and disappointment, and the pupil is made restive under what he recognizes as an artificial restraint, becomes obstinate, observes the loss of power in the teacher, and is determined to defeat the object of his detention, and in a large majority of cases an issue at once arises between teacher and pupil, which could have been and ought to have been avoided.

We beg leave to offer to teachers a few practical hints as aids in the abolition of this nefarious practice:

1. Map out in your thought a thorough plan for each day's work. A well digested programme of exercises will be invaluable in this respect.

2. Make yourselves thoroughly familiar with the topics to be presented and studied each day, and their order, so that the mind may accommodate itself to the change of exercises.

3. Exemplify, each day in your work the great value of the motto, "A time for everything and everything in its time; never permitting one recitation or exercise to trespass upon the time of another.

4. Remember there are five days in a week and four weeks in a month, and that it is impossible to do in one month what in the nature of things will require three.

5. Cultivate the habit of finishing a task within a prescribed time and require the same of your pupils.

6. Never attempt to supplement or patch a recitation.—*Chicago Teacher*.

THE TEACHER'S VOICE.—Teachers, did you ever reflect on the kind and amount of influence lying in the compass of your voice? If not, stop and consider. The average pupil spends, say seven years of two hundred days each, five hours per day, or a total of seven thousand hours, under the constant sound of a teacher's voice. What effect must the character of your tones have upon him, estimated in the light of this long period? Does the character demand endurance, or give enjoyment?

There are teachers who make every utterance rebound to the well-being of the pupil; directing with quiet self-possession, instructing with cheerful zeal, commending wisely feeble, but well-intended effort, inspiring the laggard and hesitating with enthusiasm, checking and rebuking whatever is mean and selfish with a protest that finds its power, not so much in what it is said.

There are teachers too, who, from morning till night fret, snarl, *row*, irritate, and persecute. In every tone there is lurking a demon that arouses all the antagonism of the pupils, who send forth each his little imp to devise some fit retaliation for such torture. Like the sword of Damocles, threats seem poised in the air of the school-room, ready to be precipitated on each devoted head.

Imagine a child sitting, or wriggling, under a galling fire of such frets and threats, trying to forget ball and top, and to stub his weary way through *ab, eb*; then imagine a child gladly laying aside the fun and frolic of plays, to give himself up to the lead of a soul glowing with love, sympathy, and enthusiasm, which, with words fitly spoken, teaches the hideousness of wrong, the beauty of goodness, and from this vantage-ground imparts knowledge and educes wisdom. "Look on this picture, and then on that," to see the two extremes. Between these extremes are all shades of coloring.

Recalling the number of hours of school life, is it not obvious that a prodigious amount of pleasure and profit, or of misery and wrong, may result from the kind of voice habitual with the teacher?—*Chicago Teacher*.

TEACHERS' DESK.

J. C. GLASHAN, ESQ., EDITOR.

Contributors to the 'Desk' will oblige by observing the following rules :

1. To send questions for insertion on separate sheets from those containing answers to questions already proposed.

2. To write on one side of the paper.

3. To write their names on every sheet.

CORRECT ANSWERS RECEIVED.

DONALD McLEAY, Guelph, 85, (Gave selling price of consignment.)

CON O'GORMAN, 84, 85.

C. A. BARNES, Windsor, 85, 86, 87.

ANSWERS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

A Teacher and Subscriber, Smith. Read *The Principles of Speech and Cure of Stammering*, by A. Melville Bell, or let the parents consult a good medical specialist. No, if formal and written ; yes, if an oral review. For accuracy with senior pupils, the written exercises can be made to take the place it would fill.

ANSWERS.

"*Merry* in the phrases 'Merry England'; 'Merry Miller of Mansfield'; 'Merry Greenwood'; is stated in a Glossary to some of Scott's works to be from *Mere* a Keltic vocable signifying *notable*, *worthy*, or *well-known*. I have not been able to find any such term in the Gaelic, Welsh or Irish Dictionaries. In many of the old English ballads *Merry* is used in a manner quite at variance with its present meaning. Compare the mode in which *good*, *worthy*, *loyal*, &c., were formerly applied to persons of rank or fortune, to indicate power and success instead of moral qualities."—H. T. SCUDAMORE.

"There is in each period or generation, one or more chartered social adjectives which may be used freely and safely. Such adjectives enjoy a sort of empire for the time in which they are current. Their meaning is more or less vague, and it is this quality that suits them for their office. But while it would be hard to define what such an adjective meant, it is nevertheless perfectly well understood. Obvious examples of this sort of adjective are the *merry* of the ballads and the *fair* and *pretty* of the Elizabethan period." THE PHILOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH TONGUE, *Earle* p. 392. (*Logical function of the Adjective; with a remarkable consequence.*)

Merry seems to be derived from the Anglo-Saxon *myrg*, pleasure ; *myrge*, pleasant, joyful ; *myrig*, merry ; *myrth*, pleasure, joy, mirth ; and may well be cognate with a Keltic family of vocables with the allied signification of *worthy*, *noble*, *notable*, *well-known*. Spencer in *FÆRY QUEEN*, Bk. I. Canto X. St. 61, has

"Saint George of mery England, the signe of Victoree,"

and Church, in a note on this phrase says *merry* means pleasant, delightful, referring to the character of the country, not to that of the inhabitants. The word in Early English seems to have had a generic rather than its present specific meaning, in one instance even meaning *serviceable*, as in,—

"Withouten mast, other myke, other myry bawelinc."

(Without mast, or boom-crutches or happy bowline.—Happy, lucky, fortunate, i.e. good hap or fortune bringing, because safe-making.)

MORRIS' *Early English*.

Alliterative Poems, the Deluge, line 417.

Of the meaning *pleasant* many examples will occur to our readers ; Chaucer supplies them plentifully, see the descriptions of the 'Frere' and of "oure ost," also the after-supper address of the latter. That *pleasant*, not *merry* is the meaning of the word in these passages may be gathered from its force in similar usage, e.g.

"Hit wern the fayrest of forme and of face als,
The most and the myriest that maked wem euer."

Allit. Poems, lines 253 & 254.

Other examples are

"I slumberde in A slepying hit sownede so mure."
"I slombred in a slepying. It sweyned so merye."

Ibid, Crowley Text,

(It sounded (soughed) so pleasantly.)

"His vois was merier than the mery organ,"
"Of erbe yve that groweth in our yerd, that Mery is."

Chaucer; The Nunns Preef His Tale; lns. 35 and 146.

Passing to later times we have Scott's 'Alice Brand.'

"Merry it is in the good greenwood,"
and in an advertisement now lying before me,—

"CHAP BOOKS. A Right Merrie Collection of Garlands and Songs, &c.

—A Right Pleasant and Famous Collection of Histories, &c."

"Merry England" sums in two words the 41^o chapter of John of Trevisa's Translations of Higden's Polychronicon. Here is Skcat's arrangement of the extract (translated) from "a vercefyour."

"Strange men that needeth
That land well oft relieveth ;
When hunger grieveth,
That land all such men feedeth.
That land is good enough ;—
Wonder—much fruit beareth, and corn.
That land is well at ease,
As long as men live in peace.
East and West all land
Knoweth havens right well of England,
Here ships fondes (*approach, seek to come*)
And oft helps many 'londes'
Their meat, their 'money,'
Men have more common, alway,
For here that 'crettes,'
Men will gladly give gifts,
In land and in strand—
Well wide men speak of England,
Land, honey, milk, cheese,
This island shall bear the prize,
As of lands aright, this island hath need of none ;
All lands must seek help, needs, of this alone.
Of liking (*pleasure*) there 'the woon' (*abundance*)
Wonder at might Solomon ;
Riches, that there is in,
Yearn (*for*) would Octavian."

Mr. O'Gorman of White Lake (of set purpose) taking "Merry England" as now commonly understood and joining to it the popular view of "good old times" sends the following :—

"Merry England"—Literally so ; in those good old Elizabethan times, when ruffs and May poles were equally in fashion. When the stalwart yeoman scorned not to strip and wrestle on the village green ; and rustic maidens tripped it merrily to the "sound of the cornet, lute, harp, dulcimer and all kinds of music"—when Little John flourished, and Locksley drew a better bow than Hubert's "grandsire at Hastings." When the virgin queen toyed with Leicester, and Amy Robsart met her death. When gentlemen of proud lineage and scanty purse carried their delicate rapier and playfully plucked each other in revenge for an insolent look. When 'Sdeath, 'Sh'cod and Zounds, were terse emphatics. When the servant was a *villain*, and the rustic a boor. When Buckingham decoyed the Manx beauty ; Fielding wrote "Tom Jones" ; and Richardson, "Pamela," Anytime, ever-so-far

back ; when Caxton's mother was a girl ; Kings believed in witchcraft, and made their *mark*. When their were no public schools, save Eaton and the Blue-coat. When the monks made hay ; and country-clergy's daughters, goose-berry wine. When tea was unknown, and coffee, a royal luxury. Those were emphatically merry times ; and England—"Merry England." But why go on ? Now the march of intellect, the discoveries of science and the growth of commerce have done away with rural simplicity ; made the noble dependent on the serf ; and placed the wealthy and successful cotton-spinner, whose fair daughters are sought in marriage by poor but deserving "younger sons," on a par with the landed gentry.

Now our motto is "chacun pour soi" ; and if we are merry at all, in our high social state, we are to keep such weaknesses to ourselves lest our children see us smile, and thus throw off the feeling of restraint which is made to crush the buoyant spirit ere it burst forth as the parent of contempt. "Merry" now means gay, noisy, &c. Too true—often more noise than mirth. The hollow smile—the sycophantic grin ; anything that now-a-days masks the face, and hides "The petty hate that throbs within," is indicative of mirth. And lastly ; merriness is, alas ! too often, the slim and inadequate veil thrown around an aching heart, to hide its secrets from the prying eyes of a highly-polished, modern society."—CON. O'GORMAN, White Lake.

Ah the ruthlessness of modern historians to have dispelled such "right merry" fancies, telling us that boisterous mirth from overflowing animal spirits on Carnival-days is no sure sign of true and general happiness or even content, that better is an equable current of health than *fever and ague*.

PROBLEMS.

(88). Parse *rap* in "Ned hit Tom a rap."

HENRY GRAY, Sombra.

(89). Required to divide a debt of \$4,000 bearing interest at 10 per cent., payable annually, into four equal annual payments. (Solve by arithmetic.)

LEVI PALMER, Bothwell.

(90). The height of a certain triangle is 4 inches less than the base ; if the base be increased 6 inches and the height lessened as much, the area is diminished by one-eighth. Find the length of the base.

R. SHEPHERD, Strathroy.

(91.) The height of the centre of gravity of two-weights joined by an inextensible string and balancing each other without friction, on a double inclined plane, remains constant for all positions of the weights.

C. A. BARNES, Windsor.

NEW SCHOOL BOOKS.

How to Parse, E. A. Abbott, \$1.05. This is the work promised in *How to Tell the Parts of Speech*. It worthy of Mr. Abbott's other works, it will deserve a place on every teacher's book-shelf.

Algebra. Part II., by E. J. Gross, \$2.55. This is intended to be a 'sequel' to Mr. Hamblin Smith's *Algebra*. It seems to be a very good work. Several of the modern methods and their consequent simplification of proofs appear in it.

A Short History of the English People, by J. R. Green, \$2.55. (pp. 847, crown 8vo.) The book is really far larger than the number of its pages and the fold of the sheet would lead us to expect. Its reception may be indicated by the follow-

ing sentence from the *Educational Times*; "Let us say at once, that the book before us is the most precious contribution to English history that has been made for a very long time." Mr. Green's chief fault is too strong a leaning to the side of 'the people' in early times. Considering the complexion of most of our school-histories, this would be no fault, but would merely furnish a much needed antidote to the tendency of their teachings, were it not that it has coloured Mr. Green's view of his sources of information in early times. Note his judgment of Clarendon's History, on page 518. Contrast it with that of Bishop Hurd, or even with Mr. Green's opinions expressed further on.

EDITOR'S DRAWER.

—We always re-mail copies of the TEACHER that have not been received, when notified promptly.

—When you change your Post Office, or return a copy refused, ALWAYS GIVE THE NAME OF THE POST OFFICE, AT WHICH YOU HAVE BEEN RECEIVING THE "TEACHER," and save us a great deal of trouble.

BOOKS WANTED TO PURCHASE. — Peacock's *Algebra* Vol. II.; Warren's *Geometrical Representation of the Square Roots of Negative Unity*; Ohm's *Spirit of Mathematical Analysis*; DeMorgan's *Formal Logic*. Ad. "ONTARIO TEACHER" Office.

BUTLER'S GRAMMAR—A correspondent wants to know how he can procure Butler's Grammar, a review of which appeared in our last issue. It is published and sold by John P. Morton & Co., Louisville, Kentucky, at \$1.00, and they offer to send specimen copies at one-half the retail price.

PRAYER

We have received the following communication in reply to some remarks by Mr. Ireland in a recent issue:—

To the Editor of the Ontario Teacher:

SIR.—Allow me to make a few remarks bearing on two articles on Prayer in School, which have appeared in the TEACHER, (May 1874 and January 1875). I should be as adverse as the writer to the use of the best form of prayer without reflection—or without some desire for the blessings sought, or with conscious ill-will to a fellow creature:—but let us look at the matter in this light. Here are some 50 boys and girls or more, entrusted to one's care for six hours of five days of the week. Should they be denied the benefit of uniting in prayer for blessings

they need in common—such as patience in study, strength to resist solicitations to do wrong—patience under provocation—ability to adhere strictly to truth, and to attend to all known and assigned duties. But, we find a Teacher coming into a school, knowing beforehand that prayer is in accordance with its regulations, if not enjoined by them; and it may be, that up to the time of his employment the scholars have been accustomed to it, and that its influence on the school or on some of the scholars anyway, has been good. He doesn't feel at home in the duty, if we may call it so—although to some it would be a privilege, and consequently shirks it. Still, let such a teacher consider whether if the change be not injurious to all, it will not certainly be to some, the All-Seeing One formerly looked to—now kept habitually out of sight, misdemeanors probably multiplying as a natural result. Has he nothing to answer for? And might it not be well for a teacher before assuming the charge of a school, to reflect whether he ought to do so, and yet, as the head of the school family to ignore the existence of any wants but such as can be met by merely human aid—whether he does not defraud his scholars of a help and a powerful one, to do right, and whether in doing so he will not himself be a sufferer with them, in consequence of such an error? Perhaps, such reflections might lead teachers to cultivate a spirit of prayer, and so not to be wholly out of right frame of mind for engaging in it, at any hour of the day or night; but by the Divine teaching always prepared in some manner to do so, acceptably and profitably.

Yours truly,

AN INSPECTOR.