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THE CANADA  
EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY  
AND SCHOOL MAGAZINE.

SEPTEMBER, 1882.

ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE ONTARIO PROVINCIAL  
TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PRESIDENT MACMURCHY'S ADDRESS.

*Ladies and Gentlemen,—*

FOR some years I have been observing the objections made in reference to the administration of the school laws in English-speaking communities, as well as the changes and modifications effected, to secure a more efficient and harmonious working of the various school systems in these different countries. The purpose was two-fold: To ascertain the opinions of the practical educators of each country as to the efficiency of the school laws, and to discover in how far their administration was adequate to supply the educational wants of these widely separated nationalities. Thus should I, I thought, be enabled to aid in perfecting our own school system, so that my experience of it, both as regards its excellences and defects, might be enlarged and corrected by that of other labourers in the same field. For comparison the following statistics are given:—

*Scotland (1881).*—Number of schools, 3,074, inspected; number of certificated teachers, 5,544, with a large number of pupil-teachers; number of scholars on the roll, 545,982; number in average attendance, 406,966. The grant from Government amounted to £454,997. Total expenditure, £862,774.

*Ireland (1880).*—Number of schools, 7,590; number of certificated elementary teachers, 10,674; number of scholars on the roll, 1,083,020; average attendance, 468,557; divided according to religious persuasion, 79 per cent. belonged to the Roman Catholic Church, 9.4 to the Episcopal, 10.7 to the Presbyterian, and 9 to other churches. The grant from Government was £597,481. Total expenditure, £737,631.

*England and Wales (1881).*—Number of schools, 18,062, inspected; number of certificated teachers, 33,562, with a large number of assistants and

pupil teachers; number of scholars on roll, 4,045,642; average attendance, 2,863,535. The grant from Government was £2,614,883. Total expenditure, £5,336,978.

#### SCOTLAND.

Though something had been done for the education of the people in Scotland prior to 1561, even to the extent of compelling barons and the more substantial yeomanry to send their eldest sons and heirs from the ages of six to nine to school till competently founded in Latin, and to a school of arts and law for three years longer, in order that justice might be better administered throughout the kingdom, yet it was only when the renowned John Knox and his associates were so far successful as to induce the Parliament to make a memorable provision for public education, that the real beginning of an effective and comprehensive system of popular education was made. It is chiefly among the clergy that we find anything like proficiency in literature and the arts in Scotland, as in other countries of Europe, to nearly the end of the sixteenth century; and this fact accounts for the education of the people being put under their management and control. At the date above referred to (1551) the Scottish Parliament, at the instance of the Reformers, passed an Act containing the enlightened and wise provision that schools were to be established in every parish, colleges (grammar schools) in every notable town, and universities in cities. There were universities already at St. Andrews, Glasgow, and Aberdeen. The troublous state of the country then and for some time after made this statute almost a dead letter. The next decided step in advance was taken in the reign of Charles I., 1642, when an Act was passed ordaining that Presbyteries should see that

every parish had a school where children were to be "bred in writing, reading, and the grounds of religion." And finally, in 1803, another Act was passed dealing with salaries (a fixed minimum salary was an integral part of the system), depriving schoolmasters of the right of appeal to the superior courts, ordering that each master should have a house (not more than two rooms), and placing the schools and masters under the entire management of the Presbyteries, and of those heritors whose yearly rental exceeded £100. Previous to this all heritors had a voice in the management of the schools.

Such in its essential features was the famous parish-school system of Scotland, of which one writer says, that "it laid the foundation of Scotland's proudest distinction, and proved the great source of her subsequent prosperity." And it is owing, not indeed solely, but principally, to the national system of education that, as Lord Macaulay remarks, "in spite of the barrenness of her soil and the severity of her climate, has made such progress in agriculture, in manufactures, in commerce, in letters, in all that constitutes civilization, as the Old World has never seen equalled, and as the New World has scarcely seen surpassed."

#### IRELAND.

Against the several Acts passed relating to the education of the people of Ireland, beginning with 28 Henry VIII., the accusation has been made and persistently maintained by the Roman Catholic Church, that their scope and aim was to withdraw the school children from the Romish Church, and induce them to become members and supporters of the Protestant Churches. It seems there were good grounds for this charge, as we have in the report of the Parliamentary Committee, 1812, this signifi-

cant recommendation :—"That no scheme of education should be undertaken in Ireland which attempted to influence or disturb the peculiar religious tenets of any sect or denomination of Christians. The commencement of the Irish national system of education dates from 1831. The basis—combined literary and separate religious education—was suggested in a letter from Mr. Stanley (afterwards Lord Derby), Chief Secretary for Ireland, to the Lord Lieutenant. The system was committed to a Board of seven members of different religious opinions. State aid was given on condition that the repairs of the school, the salary of the master, and half the cost of the school-requisites should be locally provided. The policy, as at first announced, was accepted by the Catholics, but strongly opposed by the Episcopal and Presbyterian Churches. In 1839, on account of some explanation made by the Board, the Presbyterians withdrew their opposition to the scheme. By a report issued for the year 1841, it appeared that there were 2,237 schools connected with the national system, in which were taught 281,849 pupils. Shortly after this a strong desire was shown by the Catholic Church to control all schools in which were any of her children. In 1850 one of the Synods made the following declaration :—"The separate education of the Catholic youth is by all means to be preferred to having them taught in the national schools." Notwithstanding that the Board had made several changes, and all with the view of conciliating the Romish Church, such as repeated modifications of the conscience clause, the special regulation in favour of convent schools, the increased proportion accorded to Catholic representation in the Board, which had been increased from two to seven in 1831, five to fourteen in 1851, and ten to twenty in 1861, and

the endowment of schools under Catholic management in the vicinity of Model Schools, still the Catholic hierarchy is very active in its opposition to the national system. No Catholic dignitary has sat in the Board since 1863. We may quote a few of the regulations :—"School-houses are not to be used as the stated places of divine worship of any religious community, nor for the transaction of any political business, and no emblems of a denominational character are to be exhibited in them during the hours of united instruction. The patrons and managers of all national schools have the right to permit the Holy Scriptures to be read at the time set apart for religious instruction." Many of you, I doubt not, remember the decidedly religious character of the Irish series of National School Readers.

Besides the national schools, which are designed, as we have seen, for all denominations, there are many schools under the immediate management of different Churches, such as the Church Education Society, the Diocesan Schools, the Institute of Christian Brothers, etc. The teachers are divided into three classes : first-class males receive from Government £58, third-class, £32 ; females, first-class £48, third-class £25. These salaries are supplemented by result fees, and, generally speaking, the salaries are small as compared with those in either England or Scotland. The National School Teachers' Act, 1875, was designed to supplement the incomes of teachers by granting State aid corresponding to local contributions. A favourable Pension Bill has been passed quite recently, the Government setting apart £1,300,000 for this laudable purpose. The Irish teachers seem to be pretty well satisfied with the general principles of the Bill, and are now seeking to have some of its details changed.

## ENGLAND AND WALES.

The attempt to educate the people in England has arisen with the Churches, and a most noteworthy feature of it is its decidedly religious character. Even at the present day the Church of England does far more, in every way, for popular education in England than the State, or in truth than the State and all the other Churches combined. The first vigorous effort to educate the masses was made by Robert Raikes, the reputed founder of Sunday Schools, in 1780 (secular as well as sacred knowledge was communicated in the first Sabbath Schools). Soon after this a controversy arose as to the relative claims of Dr. Bell (Churchman) and Mr. Joseph Lancaster (Quaker) to the monitorial system, leading to the founding of the National School Society (English Church) and the British and Foreign School Society (Dissenter). This controversy caused great activity in educational affairs, many schools being opened in every part of the country: this took place at the beginning of the century—1797, 1803, 1811. The first grant made by the State for popular education was in 1833, and was to be distributed under the management and control of the National Society and the British and Foreign Society above referred to. In 1839 the Government appointed an Educational Committee of the Privy Council, and made a grant of £30,000, the distribution of the money to be guided and controlled by this educational committee. This committee has done eminent service in the cause of education since its appointment. It ascertained the low standing of learning amongst the people; it inaugurated a system of inspection and endeavoured to found training colleges for teachers. It was unsuccessful in the last on account of the religious difficulty, whereupon the

Churches undertook the training of teachers, and now there is quite a number of such schools or colleges in all parts of the United Kingdom. An elaborate system of inspection with grants was established in 1846 by the Committee of Council. The training of pupil-teachers, *i.e.*, boys and girls over thirteen years of age, by masters in Public Schools, was greatly encouraged. The inspection embraced the entire appearance of the school; note was taken of discipline and of the success of the pupils; but especial praise was given when a school seemed to be imparting a good intellectual and moral training.

While Mr. Robert Lowe (now Lord Sherbrooke) was Vice-president of the Committee of the Privy Council on Education, in 1859, very important changes were made in the mode of inspecting the schools and distributing the Government grant. Mr. Lowe's plan embraced several particulars:—(1) That the Government shall only pay for teaching the three R's; (2) That each child shall do a certain amount of work each year (standard), and thereon be examined, and for each pass in reading, writing and arithmetic the Government was to pay the managers a certain sum. The general effect of this change upon the masters and schools has been most unsatisfactory. The educators of England have been laying, in various ways, before the country the bad consequences directly and indirectly chargeable to this mode of gauging the work done in the schools—payment by results it is called—and though this is so, the Government has not made any alteration to affect the essential element for determining the sum to be paid to each school. The Bills of 1870 (Mr. Foster's), 1873, and 1876, introduced important changes, modified details, and contained the compulsory clause:—“It is the duty of the parent of

every child to cause such child to receive an efficient elementary education."

Another irritating grievance to teachers in the United Kingdom has been the manner in which the Government deal with the certificates of teachers, but a concession made by the committee last winter, and now part of the school law, will, in the opinion of those concerned, go far to remove the well-founded objections urged by masters.

#### UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

I do not deem it necessary to give facts connected with the school system of the United States of America and its developments, for the simple reason that our own is so similar that I would only be repeating what you are all more or less well acquainted with. Therefore, instead of doing so, let me briefly state the complaints of educators—teachers and others, at school conventions and in the public prints—complaints frequently made and strongly urged:—(1) Frequent change of teachers; (2) The influence of politics in school affairs; (3) The want of moral instruction in the schools. Are not these words familiar to us, and becoming more so daily? It was with peculiar interest that I noted the objections made against the Public School system of the United States, because it seemed to me that thus we were enabled, as in a glass, to look at our own country some years hence, unless especial care is taken in good time to correct what are allowed to be serious defects in that system, and the results of which are showing themselves in the national character of that enterprising people.

#### *Tenure of office by the teacher.*—

In Great Britain and Ireland the schoolmaster was not engaged by the year, as is the case in Canada or the United States; but at home he

was engaged for an indefinite period, or as it was expressed in Scotland, *Quamdiu se bene gesserit*; so that the teacher in most cases might remain in the same school for years, frequently for life. Since Mr. Foster's Bill became law the master is engaged for an indefinite time, subject to dismissal, on reasonable notice being given by the school managers. The school managers (trustees) claim that they have the power to do this without assigning any cause. Several cases have come before the Superior Courts in Scotland involving this point, and the decisions have been generally in favour of the managers. The Scottish masters complain of this as a hardship, and contend that a master should not be dismissed without cause assigned, and being heard in his own defence; or before he loses his situation, that the Committee of the Privy Council on Education should send an inspector to report on the case; or have a statement from both master and school managers for its judgment between the parties. The Committee has refused to act on either of the last two alternatives. Public opinion is somewhat divided on this matter; but from indications in the public press, and from steps taken in the House of Commons, I would say that the public is largely in favour of the schoolmaster, and that some limit will be put on the dismissal powers of the school managers. Here I take the liberty of inserting the Bill proposed for Scotland, and most likely to become law, managers in several instances petitioning for it:

"In order to secure that no certificated teacher appointed by, and holding office under, a School Board in Scotland, shall be dismissed from such office without due deliberation on the part of the School Board, the following provisions shall, from and after the passing of this Act, have effect:—

"(1) No resolution of a School Board for the dismissal of a certificated teacher shall be valid, unless adopted at a meeting called not less than three weeks previously, by circular sent to each member, intimating that such dismissal is to be considered, and unless notice of motion for his dismissal shall have been sent to the teacher not less than three weeks previous to the meeting. Such circulars shall be held to have been delivered to the members of the School Board, if sent by the clerk by post, addressed to the usual or last known place of abode of each member, and such notice to the teacher shall be held to have been delivered if sent by the clerk by post, in a registered letter, addressed to the usual or last known place of abode of such teacher.

"(2) No resolution of a School Board for the dismissal of a certificated teacher shall be valid unless agreed to by a majority of the full number of members of such School Board.

"(4) Notwithstanding anything contained in this Act, it shall be lawful for a School Board summarily to suspend any teacher from the exercise of his duties, but such suspension shall not affect the teacher's right to the salary or other emoluments attached to the office."

How different this is from the mode of engagement on this continent. Here a teacher is hired (!) for half a year or a year; and the understanding is, unless re-engagement follows, that he leaves at the end of his term, be that a month or a year. What waste is caused by frequent changes of teacher! There is loss of time to both master and scholar, often loss of means to the master, and in many cases the country loses permanently the experienced teacher, and in his stead obtains the ser-

vices of the inexperienced. For these reasons amongst others, I take the liberty of recommending that all forms of agreement for second-class certificates and higher grades should be prepared on the supposition that the engagement is to continue for an indefinite period, subject to the condition of being terminable upon giving three months' notice by either trustees or teacher.

*Politics in school affairs.*—Though many Church schools have been transferred from the control and management of the Churches, both in England and Scotland, such changes frequently involving the retirement of the master, and though, as above stated, several test cases have been before the courts (Scotland) to ascertain the authority of school managers to dismiss masters in certain circumstances, yet not in a single instance have I observed any complaint or the remotest allusion made as to politics having any influence in the matter. In sharp contrast with this state of affairs is what we find on the other side of the great lakes. Every year complaints are made, and becoming louder and more frequent, that political considerations influence very largely both the engagement and dismissal of the school teacher, as well as affect very materially the remuneration received. As a fair specimen of what I have met in my reading time and again during the last few years, the following quotation may suffice:—"In a good many cities, the School Board has been captured by the politicians, who have used the schools to work fat jobs, sprout municipal fathers, and fill the school-rooms with incompetent favourites of the ward trustee. This petty favouritism is still the curse of the village and country schools everywhere, and, like a poisonous malaria, infests the whole system of education with a general debility fatal to effective work." We

have, in Canada, nothing approaching this deplorable state of affairs, and that this is so every true teacher will be most thankful. And yet let us not be exalted overmuch. Ours is a young country; the chief superintendency abolished only a few years. Nevertheless, do we not hear now and again a note of discord? then a plain assertion that political influence is interfering with the inspector in the discharge of his official duties? that certain teachers, on account of political connections, are specially regarded?

The question now is frequently asked:—Is it possible for a Minister of the Crown, however learned, upright, and wise he may be, to be free from party entanglements? To this query the answer No rather than Yes is much more frequently given. The remedy is obvious—Return to an arrangement as free as possible from such foreign and perplexing influences as politics inevitably engender.

The third cry, a cry louder perhaps than either of those already noted, heard regarding the Public Schools of the United States of America is, that there is no attention paid to direct moral or religious training. The intolerance shown by the people towards any system or schools pretending, without direct moral or religious training, to provide education for their children, must have forced itself upon your notice in the very brief sketch which I have given of the educational work of Great Britain and Ireland. It is true, that in Ireland this religious training is not in the same form, nor is it carried to the same extent, as in England and Scotland. Nevertheless, there also we find special attention given to this important part of education. And this is true not only of the schools under the immediate control and management of the Churches, where, of course, we would expect to find this part of education fully recognized; but also of Board Schools. In

these schools not only is time set apart for religious teaching by clergymen of different denominations, but such teaching, almost universally, is given by the master. As evidence of this strong determination on the part of the people, I can cite, perhaps, no better proof than the case of Birmingham, England. In Birmingham they began by having a purely secular form of education. The conviction was, however, soon forced upon them that morality, at least, should be taught. They thereupon introduced a "Text Book on Morals," and the result was that a year after the Bible itself found its way into the schools. Is there any book on Morals equal to the Bible? Did not the Birmingham people decide wisely? Many of you, I dare say, are acquainted with the admirable provision made by the London (England) School Board for the teaching of the Scriptures to the hundreds of thousands of children who are in attendance at the schools of the metropolis of the British Empire. In Scotland the most careful provision is made for the encouragement of religious training. The Church of Scotland has in its employ inspectors who, when asked to do so, inspect and report upon the teaching of this subject alone in the Board Schools. Permit me to quote the opinion of three writers, setting forth their estimate of the Scriptures. Macaulay states:—"The sacred books of the Hebrews, books which, considered merely as human composition, are invaluable to the critic, the antiquary, and the philosopher. When we consider what sublime poetry, what curious history, what striking and peculiar views of the divine nature and of the social duties of man are to be found in the Jewish Scriptures, . . . this indifference is astonishing." To the foregoing list of critic, antiquary, philosopher, I take the liberty to add, above all, to the teacher. Froude, the historian, writes:



—“The Bible is a literature of itself; the rarest and richest in all departments of thought or imagination which exists.” And Prof. Huxley believes that “the maintenance of religious feeling is the most desirable of all things, and that it cannot be maintained without the Bible.” What connection, if any, actual knowledge has with religion and morals is a question with which very few people trouble themselves. Most seem to take for granted that if a child only knows how to read, write, and cipher, he is in the sure way, not only of becoming wise, but virtuous. No doubt, by reading he may improve himself, for he may read good books; but, on the other hand, he may do himself much harm, for he may read bad books. Arithmetic and writing have really no necessary connection with morals, nor facts of any kind, except the historic facts which show how the “power which maketh for righteousness” worketh in the affairs of men. You will not understand me as overlooking the fact that the learning of these things may have its moral aspect; for in learning them curiosity and research may be awakened. I am not forgetful of the objections urged against the cause I am advocating—denominational differences and lack of the right teachers. My answer will be very brief. I believe it to be a device of the enemy of human well-being and human progress, this continual holding up of the bugbear of our denominational differences. Are they not the merest trifles in comparison with our essential agreement in religious belief? In regard to the second—lack of the right teachers—I hold that anyone who cannot reverently, humbly, and lovingly read the Word of God with his class is not fit to have the teaching of a class. A callous, hard, sneering man should not have the honour or privilege of being the teacher of a school anywhere, least of all in Her Majesty’s

dominions. It seems as if special care were taken that the children in our Public Schools should not be required to show their knowledge of the contents of the Bible. Of all the selections for the entrance examination to the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes in this Province, made from the Fourth Reader, not one is immediately connected with a Bible theme. Would it not be as well to know who Joshua was, as to know who Hermann was? The Bible was read in many of our schools, both common and grammar, not many years since. What pushed it out of both classes of schools? I answer: school programmes of studies, inspections, and examinations. I know of a grammar school wherein the Bible was regularly read for an hour each week, and difficulties, other than theological, explained, till within a score of years. But this Scripture reading was discontinued because of the cry raised respecting the low standard of learning in the grammar schools. I never heard of any difficulty then on account of either religious differences or lack of right teachers; why should there be now?

I beg to recommend that the Education Department announce to all the schools that direct moral or religious instruction is to be given, except where a vote of the people indicates the will of the ratepayers to be that such instruction is not desirable. Or if this cannot be done, that this Association appoint a standing committee to prepare a series of Bible-readings, similar to those prepared by the London School Board, and in every proper and legitimate way seek to induce school authorities to make use of them in their schools.

“Yet sage instructions to refine the soul,  
And raise the genius, wondrous aid impart,  
Conveying inward, as they purely roll,  
Strength to the mind, and vigour to the heart;  
When morals fail, the stains of vice disgrace  
The fairest honours of the noblest race.”

## CURRENT QUESTIONS IN EDUCATION.\*

BY PROF. GOLDWIN SMITH, D.C.L.

*Ladies and Gentlemen,—*

YOUR President did me the honour of desiring me to take part in your proceedings; but I fear that the interest I feel in them as a member of the educational profession is my only justification for accepting the invitation. I have nothing specially interesting or instructive to say to you. For a year past I have been absent from Canada, and I have not kept up my knowledge of the questions which make up your programme. You might think that I had something to report from England. But in England, while I was there, the thoughts of everybody were absorbed by what was passing on the political scene. I confess I had hardly eyes for anything but the cloud which had gathered over my country, and the peril which threatened those august institutions so long the admiration and the guiding light of the world. The great lesson which I brought back from England was that faction—call it by the name of party or by what other specious name you will—if it is allowed to prevail over patriotism, may bring the noblest and mightiest of nations to the dust. However, in England, amidst the political convulsions, education was marching on. I saw everywhere new improvements in the method of teaching, in apparatus, in school buildings, and increased efforts to unite the parts of the system, from the universities down to the elementary schools, and mould them

into a perfect whole. Marvellous is the advance in these respects. I was at Eton, where we were supposed to have the best, and certainly paid for the best, of everything, and I doubt whether our school-rooms, and books, and apparatus would now pass muster with the inspector of a Common School. I turned up the other day a *child's book*, with woodcuts, printed fifty or sixty years ago. It had belonged to a wealthy family, and was no doubt deemed a work of art in its day: in the present day it would be deemed beneath contempt. Among other signs of advance, cities had largely availed themselves of the Act empowering municipalities to raise funds for the maintainance of public libraries. A movement appears to be going on for the institution of a public library in Toronto. Nothing can be more laudable than the object. But before taking any practical step, we ought perhaps to consider how far the question is modified by the extraordinary development of cheap printing, which seems likely to prove an event in intellectual history second in importance only to the invention of printing itself. Not only novels, but works of all kinds, literary and scientific, standard as well as the most recent, can now be bought for a few cents, and everybody can have as much reading as business men or artisans have time for, at the cheapest rate, in his own home. By exchanging with neighbours, the home library may be still further enlarged. The need for city libraries, therefore, seems to be less. What would be a certain

\* An Address delivered before the Provincial Teachers' Association of Ontario, at its Annual Conference, Toronto, August 10th, 1882.

benefit in its way is a provincial library of books of reference and other works not likely to be reprinted in a cheap form, to which students and persons engaged in special researches or in need of special information might resort. It has occurred to me that the Parliamentary Library might be developed into something of this kind. Members of Parliament might use it, so far as they had occasion, all the same. It would be essential to have a good librarian, a man thoroughly conversant with books, who would be able to guide readers to the authorities for any special line of study, and to advise those who chose to consult him in the formation of their own libraries.

Perhaps the greatest novelty which I saw in England in the way of education was the local College at Nottingham. Nottingham is one of the busiest of the British hives of industry, and the lives of men there are of course devoted to the pursuit of wealth. But the people have arrived at the conviction that man cannot live by bread alone; that wealth is of no use unless it can be worthily enjoyed; that it can hardly be worthily enjoyed without some cultivation of mind; that the chiefs of industry in a free country have social and political, as well as commercial, functions to discharge, and cannot discharge them well without having their minds opened and enriched. The result is a sumptuous pile dedicated as a local college to the highest education, and affiliated to the old historic universities of Oxford and Cambridge, which allow attendance at the local college to count, to a certain extent, for their degrees. The system of affiliation to the great national universities seems to me far better than multiplication of colleges with university powers—the “one-horse” college system, as they call it in the States. Some time ago the plan of affiliation was proposed, when all the

local colleges would have been glad to come into it; but ancient and richly endowed bodies are slow in moving, and the measure was put off till Owens College at Manchester had obtained a charter with university powers. There seems now, however, to be a wish to prevent the multiplication of universities from going further. We have had this question before us here, and perhaps there is little use in raising it again. The Provincial University having been originally confined to the Established Church, other churches were obliged to found universities of their own, and when the Provincial University was thrown open, some members of the Church of England seceded, and founded another college by themselves. The upshot is that in a province which could barely maintain one great university, we have, I believe, seven bodies with the power of conferring degrees. We have got through a series of untoward accidents into the system, and cannot now get out of it. We can therefore only make the best of it. But it must be fatal to the highest teaching, because only a great university can afford a proper staff of first-rate teachers to the standard of degrees, and to that function of a university which is not less important than education, the advancement of science and learning. We must be glad, however, to see St. Michael's College, Knox College, and the Baptist College placing themselves by the side of the Provincial University. The true solution of the religious difficulty with regard to universities is a secular university with religious colleges, the colleges having their own system of religious teaching and moral discipline within their own walls, while they use and support the lectures, museums, and laboratories of the University.

In the reports of committees which have just been read, I observed a re-

commendation that the Bible should be read in all schools. This introduces a question of great difficulty, especially at the present time. We are living in the midst of religious as well as political revolution; indeed, the political revolution may be said to be the consequence and the sign of the religious, which is the deeper unrest. I was for some time in Paris, and it was almost appalling to see the fury with which the struggle was being carried on between the assailants and the defenders of religion. This, in truth, is the real French Revolution. The first Revolution was comparatively superficial; it did not affect the fundamental beliefs, and thus Napoleon was able with great ease, to restore not only the monarchical institutions, but the Church of the old *régime*. But now the fundamental beliefs and ideas are the objects of attack. Now, the party hostile to religion is not content with liberty and toleration; it seeks to drive religion out of government, out of education, out of the whole life of the people. I went into an anti-clerical book store and found there things exceeding in atheistic violence anything published at the time of the first Revolution. We, happily, have to cope with the difficulty in a milder form, but still we have to cope with it. My own convictions would lead me to sympathise with the desire to see a religious element introduced into the education of a child. But if you make any general law upon the subject, you will have to encounter objections from more than one quarter. For my part, I should be inclined to adhere to the principle of local self-government, and allow the matter still to be settled in each case by the Board of School Trustees, subject to two safeguards—a conscience clause, enabling parents to withdraw their children if they please from the religious exercises; and a power vested in some higher

and thoroughly impartial authority of putting a veto upon anything really sectarian. If you make a general law, you will, among other consequences, render more difficult than ever the completion of the unity of our system by the abolition of Separate Schools. Otherwise the change may be hoped for in time. Very likely, in the first instance, the concession of Separate Schools was a wise act of statesmanship. There had been fierce struggles between Protestants and Catholics; the contest about Catholic emancipation was comparatively fresh in memory, and a Catholic might not unreasonably apprehend aggression upon the faith of his child. He cannot reasonably apprehend aggression now. In districts where there are not Catholics enough to maintain Separate Schools, Catholic children do go to the Common Schools, and I have not heard that there are any complaints of insidious attacks upon the child's religion. The State is bound to respect conviction, but it is not bound to pay attention to groundless suspicion, or to mould its institutions for the purpose of preserving any special influence, clerical or political.

I noticed also, in the report first read, the expression of an opinion that education should be entirely separated from politics. In that opinion I concur so heartily that I used always in England to advocate the abolition of the representation of the universities in Parliament, because it seemed to me, by connecting us with political party, to bring down from their high and proper ground of impartiality the places of national education. Places of national education have to do with politics only as they produce good and enlightened citizens, which they will not do if they are under party influence. I have sometimes thought it not unlikely that the province might in time be led to consider the expe-

diency of returning to something like the old system of a Council of Public Instruction. Not that I have any personal desire to repeat the experience which I once underwent as a member of that body. The Council had obvious defects. A body consisting of members engaged in other occupations, and meeting only occasionally, could not undertake the work of current administration. But it might be very useful for the decision of general questions, and perhaps as a court of appeal in questions of right, where there was any danger of political or other influences creeping in. The Council was broken up in a storm, which perhaps prevented the Government and the province from considering sufficiently what there was in the institution that was good and worthy to be retained. The causes of the storm were two-fold, upon both of which I, as a member of

the body wrecked in it, can look back without any compunction or shame. 1st: Our insisting upon a revision of the text-books, some of which were then not only below the mark, but full of blunders, and 2nd: our proceeding to inquire into the usefulness of the Books and Apparatus Depository. In the latter case it seems to have been subsequently proved that we did right. The Council, as I have said, had its defects, and it may have committed errors, but at all events it was entirely free from political influence, and decided questions in the interest of education without caring for any political vote. I wish that I had any matter of greater interest to bring before you, but at present I have not, and can only conclude by thanking you for your attention, and wishing success to the objects of your conference.

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## OUR POOR RELATIONS.

BY DAVID BOYLE.

WE have been told that the "proper study of mankind is man;" and although some captious people, finding fault with the aphorism, insist that the proper study of mankind is WOMAN, we, who are disposed to accept broader views, embrace a wider field, and construe *man* so as to include "his uncles and his sisters, and his cousins and his aunts;" in a word, taking in the whole animate creation from the "noblest work of God," down through the anthropoid apes, to what Cowper calls "the meaner things that are."

After such a letting of the cat out of the bag as this is, it would be needless to deny that our paper is written on an evolution basis. So far as I know, there are only two theories

by means of which to treat the subject—viz., those of evolution and revolution.

To many good people the latter theory, although they don't call it by any such name as I have attached to it, is the very embodiment of the "palpable obscure" in the garb of the evangelic; to them it is as easily conceivable that the present condition of affairs is the result of spasmodic action, and of violent and innumerable catastrophes, as that the production of a bag of flour, or a piece of machinery, is the result of similar human puny spasms and catastrophes. To such, the acknowledgment of one that he is an evolutionist, comes with hardly less of grim horror, accompanied by the usual flesh-creeping

and hair-erecting sensations, than if he had confessed to being a cannibal, a vampire, or a ghoul.

With the best intentions in the world, the revolutionists, mildly or otherwise, express themselves to the effect that they "can't understand," they "don't see," and it is "wholly beyond their comprehension," how anybody can ever pretend to believe in any such dreadful doctrine (doctrine is always the word), as "that man originated in a monkey." This is the bald way these people put it; to them evolution simply means "I know I am a man—oftener still, a woman—and this dreadful wretch wishes to convince me that my great-grandparents, or some removes beyond them, were hideous, gibbering apes: perish the thought!" Should the person so expressing himself, or herself, be witty, as most of those people are, the argument is not seldom wound up with, "Well, you may claim descent from the baboons if you please, you don't look unlike one, I confess; but as for me, I prefer to think I originated in some other way." When the evolutionist's back is turned—indeed, in many cases to his face—he is characterized as a "bad man," "a very bad man," "a sceptic," "an infidel," or, at the very least, if his opponent be one in whose breast all the milk of human kindness has, even if a little soured, not become quite curdled, the evolutionist is "fond of running after new-fangled notions," or "he is courting notoriety," or, mayhap, "he is a little, weak, poor fellow," and here the speaker will tap his forehead knowingly.

Now, it is really important to all concerned, and that is everybody, that we teachers should endeavour to form something like an intelligent opinion on this question. Far be it from me to wish that all were of the same way of thinking about "Our Poor

Relations" as are Darwin, and Huxley, and Spencer, and Tyndall, and Hæckel, and scores of other illustrious scientists. Were we of one opinion in such matters, social putrefaction would follow close upon mental stagnation; intellectual cobwebs would clog the machinery of thought; the world as we see it would speedily become the world as it was; and the shadow upon the dial of the soul would go back not ten, but more than ten times ten degrees. It would be insulting to your intelligence to do more than simply ask you to revert to the names of those great pioneers of thought—to those who, whether in the days of the past, or in our own time, have dared to brave the reproaches of their fellow-men (and what does one feel more keenly, more bitterly, than reproach?) to prove that there is no necessary connection between hoary tradition and simple truth, further than that Truth is eternal and immutable; and that despite the garb of sophistry in which she is so frequently clothed, her very self shorn of the tawdry and sometimes ragged habiliments that hamper her movements and hide, perhaps, even her features, may, notwithstanding, be discovered by her ardent worshippers; and those who decked her out in meretricious guise, be put to open shame. The names of the unselfish fellow-beings alluded to crowd upon the memory; but, alas! with very many of us the appearance of such workers in our midst is still too apt to evoke, in spirit at least, the old, old cry, "Down with him, away with him, he is a teacher of false doctrine; let him die the death."

The time, in Christendom at any rate, is well-nigh past for treatment of this description to be meted out successfully, even to him who undertakes to propagate the very essence of absurdity, provided that in so doing he interfere not with the privi-

leges of his neighbour, or run counter to the laws of the land; the laws themselves to-day being much less Draconian in spirit and letter than those of the so-called "good old times."

Whether we adopt the views set forth either by the one theory or the other, is a matter of much less importance than that we *understand* both of them, in so far as it is possible to understand them from the materials at our command; and these, it must be confessed, are not so plentiful as one might wish. From the nature of things, however, it will appear evident to everybody that the supply of new material, either for or against one or the other view, must be furnished by the student of biology, or natural history, a name by which the study is perhaps better known.

But "why should it be thought a strange thing among you" that the whole brute creation, and lower beings even than they, are of our own kith and kin? Are we not all animals? Do we not *all* possess organs for the performance of the two chief functions of *life*—respiration and digestion? True, on good authority, we have the dicta that "there is one flesh of fishes, another of birds, and another of men," and that "all flesh is not the same flesh;" but this is a difference merely in degree, not in kind; chemically, they are almost identical, and too much is not conceded by acknowledging that to the Fijian addicted to dining off cold missionary, or, in cannibalistic phrase, "long pig," a well-conditioned "man and brother" is decidedly preferable to animal food in any other form. Think as we may regarding the new school of thought as to the origin of species, denounce, as we may feel disposed to do, its heretical and free-thinking tendencies, scorn as most of us assuredly do the evolutionist or man-monkey theorist, one thing it is vain for us to deny as

a result of Lamarck's, of Darwin's, of Wallace's, of Lubbock's, and of Huxley's researches, and that is the enormous impetus they have given to the study of animate organisms. Only a short time previous to the life perhaps of the youngest reader of THE MONTHLY, it was thought sufficient by students of nature to deal with the subject in somewhat of an empirical manner; much was taken for granted, simply because some former authority had said so and so; conclusions were not seldom jumped at, and promulgated as fact, without proper consideration; and theories as to the why of this, or the wherefore of that, were boldly launched upon the scientific world, based upon merely casual examination and intermittent observation. Of course, here and there, exceptions to this loose condition of affairs might be found, as, for example, Linnæus among his flowers, and Huber with his bees; but now the *rule* is calm, close, careful and prolonged investigation, and that carried on in such a manner as to avoid every possible element of error. In illustration of this, let me cite the case of Professor Tyndall, who in studying the vexed, and still to many, unsettled question of spontaneous generation, actually had a house of peculiar construction erected in which to place his hermetically-sealed vessels containing a great variety of liquids and solutions, the observations on which from time to time extended over several years. Or again, take Darwin himself. It is a fact that for sixteen years before the appearance of his celebrated "Origin of Species," he was making innumerable experiments, and applying crucial tests to establish the truth or falsity of his own views; and was, even at the end of that time, only prevailed upon to publish a summary of his views, at the urgent solicitation of many friends.

As an example of patience not at all uncommon, and one which I select simply because it met my eye the other day in a newspaper, let us take this:—"Professor Calderwood, of Glasgow, speaking of insects, quoted Sir John Lubbock with reference to their position in the order of development. Sir John said that though the anthropoid apes ranked next to man in bodily structure, ants claimed that place in the scale of intelligence. *Once he watched an ant working, and it worked from six in the morning to ten at night, without intermission, carrying one hundred and eighty-seven larvæ to its nest.*"

The field of observation in a greater or lesser degree is open to us all, if we but feel disposed to take advantage of our opportunities. There is an immense amount of curiosity innate amongst our raw material—our scholars. They, with a little judicious direction, may be taught the proper use of their eyes—something that a few of us older people have yet to learn, but which it is feared we now never will learn, any more than we would be likely to take to reading or writing, if the golden opportunities of youth had been allowed to glide past unseized. Young folk generally, not having attained to the possession of that peculiar condition of mind we call pride, are anxious to become acquainted with their poor relations. There are few other subjects in which children, boys more particularly, take so much interest as that of animals. Stories about bears, lions, whales, and sharks, possess never-ending interest, and so would stories about raccoons, ground-hogs, and squirrels, if we only knew as much about them as we do concerning the former larger and further away animals. What we should do with our scholars is to excite an interest in them respecting their surroundings; to put them on the *scint*

as it were, although even this is not always required, there being at least one of our poor relations scientifically known as *Mephitis Chinga*, who himself succeeds admirably in putting both old and young on the scent, and whose power of attracting attention to his whereabouts is the subject of family lore at every fireside in the Dominion.

It is quite astonishing, too, how the tastes of our young disciples will be found to differ in the objects upon which they lavish their attention, after an interest in their poor relations has been aroused. Beetles (or as commonly called, bugs,) will engross one boy; butterflies, another; perhaps insects generally, a third; whilst others will take to birds, or fossils, or plants, for plants also are remotely connected with ourselves.

It is too much the fashion in these times for every man or class of men riding a hobby to clamour for its admission into the Public School course. In this way the claims of political economy, cookery, sectarianism, Christian morals, agriculture, telegraphy, phonography, and the Minister of Education only knows what more, have all had their advocates. We who have the work to perform know how difficult it is to get along with what is already cut out for us to do, and have, therefore, no desire to see the trouble aggravated by the addition of one or more *ologies*. What I would, therefore, plead for in our schools, both High and Public, in connection with cultivating the acquaintance of our poor relatives, is not so much that Natural Science should be placed authoritatively upon the programme, as that we—the teachers—be required to know somewhat of Nature's operations, and that our text-books furnish us with a reasonable amount of suitable matter, enabling us to bring the subject immediately before our pupils in such a way that upon leaving



school there may be some foundation laid for carrying on more extensive study.

To the farmer it is needless to say how important this kind of knowledge is, and must necessarily, from the nature of his calling, continue to be.

To proceed upon another tack for a little while, we may try to answer the question that will naturally suggest itself to us from the title of this paper: Why call these relations of ours "poor?" Well, I refer to them in this way, not because they are absolutely poor, but because they are only somewhat deficient, as compared with ourselves, in that soft, gray, convoluted substance—that mysteriously wonder-working pulpy stuff with which all teachers are undoubtedly so largely endowed—*Brain*.

In many respects the lower animals, if the lower animals had sense enough—that is, did they but possess a little more brain-power, or its equivalent, as believed in by Sir John Lubbock—might well look down upon us with feelings of contempt.

The *Arachnida*, or spider family, are furnished with eyes not only in front, but above or behind. What a terrible being a teacher would be thus armed, or rather eyed! Let us thank the Fates it is otherwise with us, for even with a pair we sometimes see too much. And picture to yourselves if you can the unutterable misery of an urchin behind you, who, burning with hot desire to insert the finer end of a pin into his enemy on the next seat, is rooted to the spot as he sees your third optic blinking and winking right in the parting of your hair, somewhere between the crown of your head and the collar of your coat! It is really terrible to contemplate such a state of affairs, and we shall drop the subject.

The house-fly, in common I think with every other insect, has compound eyes, equal in value to many thousands

of simple ones like our own; the nearest approach to this arrangement on the part of the human species that has ever come to my hearing, being that of the Scotchman (now dead upwards of a hundred years) who was said to have seen half-a-dollar in his hand every time he was about to invest twenty-five cents. I am aware, too, that in certain "spiritual" conditions of our earthly tabernacle, seeing double is not at all an uncommon phenomenon; but these have no bearing in any way upon our subject at present.

The frog has a longer and more pliant, though undoubtedly less voluble tongue than any lady of my acquaintance, with the additional advantage of having it point directly down his throat. Besides this, he is equally at home in a puddle or upon a bank of mud. Like some others of our poor relations, he can boast that he was once, to all intents and purposes, a fish—that is, possessing true gills; that he had disported himself in what was to him the mighty deep; but that, becoming tired of wriggling the tail of a tadpole, he shot out for himself two pair of legs, and furnished himself with lungs, discarding meantime his gills near one end of his body, and his tail at the other. Who wouldn't be a frog, if only the boys could be taught not to throw stones at them? An equally interesting and more valuable creature—the toad—has a tongue by means of which he can transfix his prey nearly two inches away from his nose. I hope every one will be kind to the poor toads. Three years ago, London (England) market-gardeners were paying as high as one pound sterling for a single toad to rid the plants of vermin.

The metamorphoses of batrachians just referred to are not a whit more remarkable than those of many insects, notably the butterfly and the moth, only that the latter attracts slight

attention because we see the stages so often. There is, perhaps, scarcely a single physical characteristic in which the lord of creation is not inferior to some one or more of our poor relations.

The bird, like the batrachians, is provided with double means of locomotion, and would seem to have been for long a source of extreme envy to gushing young poets and love-sick swains, whom we hear praying that they might be enabled to soar away on the pinions of the eagle, or, lamenting their base pedomotive powers, sighing, "Oh! that I were a dove."

It is not intended for a moment to insinuate that it would be well for us to be owners of the ten thousand

physical advantages of the lower animals; in place of these our brain serves us in much better stead. There are, perhaps, not more than half-a-dozen young ladies who would be willing to exchange their own noses, even though they were pugs (which is very improbable), for a yard of elephant's trunk, notwithstanding the enormous additional weight it would give them in the eyes of the opposite sex. Neither is there any nice young man who, to save himself the trouble of having to turn his head, would give away, if he could, his own ears for the more capacious ones of a certain animal that shall be nameless.

(To be continued.)

## A BOY'S BOOKS, THEN AND NOW—VIII.

BY HENRY SCADDING, D.D., TORONTO.

(Continued from page 268.)

(2) *Juvenal-Persius-Després.*

I MUST be brief in my notice of the Delphin Juvenal. In this case the annotator was Louis Després, or as the name is Latinized, Ludovicus Præteus; further described on the title page as Emeritus Professor of Rhetoric. As usual, Persius is the companion of Juvenal in the same volume. Like Frederick Leonard, Després is fulsome in his Dedicatory Epistle to the most serene Dauphin; offering incense to the father over the shoulder of the son. He begins quite abruptly, as if in continuation of Leonard's harangue: "Neither let it be a matter of regret to you," he says, "that you once made yourself acquainted with the satirists, most serene prince! The more fully you have been trained to all good by the example afforded you in your own home

and by your natural inclination, the more pleasure will you have in seeing the vices of the Romans, which are our own too, everywhere placed under a ban, and virtue everywhere held up to view as an object of love and subject of praise. Perchance it will be even agreeable to you to compare together the diverse style and genius of two of them, both employed, nevertheless, in the same business of satire. Not without delight will you contrast the flowing ease of a poet who so keenly yet eloquently attacks wickedness, with the morose, straightlaced, pungent sarcasm of Persius, incessantly puffing the wares of the stoic school. You will not despise in him, however, his numerous pronouncements of wisdom. But in the other, how many things you will observe and peruse with delight, which are applicable

to our own happy era! For example, lines like these will suggest to you the grandeur of a Louis :

*Et spes et ratio studiorum in Cæsare tantum ;  
Solut enim tristes hæc tempestate respexit.*

—*Camœnas* (Sat. vii. : 1, 2, 3).

(The hope and method of all studious pursuits rest wholly on Cæsar: for he alone in these last days has had respect to the Muses.) And again :

*Spes vitæ cum Sole redit.*

(The joy of life comes back along with the Sun: a flattering allusion to the device or badge of Louis—the Sun in its splendour.) And to quote words which seem conceived in the happiest strain of augury in regard to yourself. Hereafter when you shall have become ripe for the exercise of royal sway, how instantly will you chant them forth as your chosen motto—

*Nobilitas sola est et unica virtus.*

(The one sole nobility in man is virtue.) This is a principle specially recognised by the Bourbon stock. This is a peculiarity derived from ancestors. Not degenerate, you exhibit this trait, your exemplification of which will be left by you, a stimulus and incentive to your descendants. Go on, most serene prince, clasping to yourself all the highest excellences, adorning them by your learning and wisdom. This is truly to vie in grandeur with Louis le Grand. So long as you nobly toil after ends like these, we shall continue to enjoy the felicity which marks this age and the Domain of France, to the envy of surrounding nations—France! where kings so studiously philosophize and with such sapience rule!

In the Preface, which, as usual, follows the Dedication, Després, after setting forth that he has in his notes strictly conformed to the instructions given by the illustrious Montausier and the directors of the education of the most serene Dauphin, meets the objection of certain cavillers, who will

spurn from them the edition, of Juvenal now offered them because it has undergone expurgation—been Bowdlerized, as Shakspearians would say. There are some men, he observes, full of a zeal for knowledge, but with little discretion: who, unless they get their author entire, as they express themselves, albeit reeking with abominations, think they get nothing at all. "O mores!" he exclaims: "scilicet pudor tanti est!" (Has it come to this? Has the value of modesty fallen so low?) "We, on the contrary, however," he proceeds to proclaim, in deference to the admonition of sacred Scripture and the mandate of the great men already named, "have separated the precious from the vile" (*preciosum à vili secrevimus*). He further justifies this line of action by appealing to the authority of Julius Scaliger. "Fæditates nemo bonus nominare debet;" that great critic says: "nedum ut literis mandet. Quid enim cogitet adolescens qui certarum ignarus obscenitatum, audiat verba aut vocabula tam nefanda? Quam monstroso sunt ingenio ii, qui ea scriptis suis audent inserere? Malo igitur non reprehendere vitia detestanda, quam in execrandâ oratione mereri reprehendednem," with more to the same effect. On the whole, Després hopes that students will now be able to enjoy the benefit of a perusal of Juvenal and Persius without any shock to taste and good sense. "Per tot insignia morum documenta quæ passim apud Juvenalem et Persium occurrunt, ire quisque deinceps queat inoffenso pede et mente. His fruire diu Lector," he benevolently adds.

The Delphin Horace, a copy of which is also in my collection, was likewise annotated by Louis Després. A life of Horace from his pen appears at the beginning of the volume, but no dedication. It was with reference to a note of Després on the text

of Horace iii. 12, that Carey, in his "Prosody Made Easy," so long ago as 1808, made the somewhat severe observation on the Delphin classics in general: "It is time," he says, "that these Dauphin editions were banished from our schools, as they long have been from the schools of France; or at least that the text were corrected from better editions." What Carey suggested was afterwards done in the English issues of the Delphin classics. The disappearance of these books from the schools of France may be accounted for on political grounds, without any reference to the quality of their notes and text. It is intimated on the title-page that this Horace was for the use, not of the Dauphin only, but for the Dauphin's sons after him, namely, the dukes of Burgundy, Angers and Berry; the same princes, Louis, Philip and Charles, whose heads we have seen on the bronze Louis XIV. medal. This duke of Burgundy was placed under the tuition of Fénelon, who constructed for his benefit the prose poem of Telemachus, in which Fénelon's ill-wishers asserted that Louis XIV and his Court were satirized.

(3) *Virgil-Ruæus*.—The Delphin Virgil was considered the best of the series for practical purposes. Charles de la Rue (Carolus Ruæus) was the editor. He prefixes no dedication. In an Address to the Reader he modestly observes that he has confined himself to the brevity and simplicity enjoined on him by the Duke of Montausier. Ruæus belonged to the order of Jesuits. He at one time petitioned his Superiors that he might be permitted to proceed as a missionary to Canada, but the prayer was refused. It would have been curious had the Virgil annotator been associated with the history of our Hurons round Lake Simcoe, and so with the history of Toronto. He died at Paris in 1725, at the age of eighty-

one. He won the favour of Louis XIV, in the first instance, by writing a Latin poem on his victories, which Molière turned into French verse and presented to the king.

(4) *Cicero-Merouille*.—On the title-page of the Delphin Orationes Selectæ of Cicero, which you have here, the name of Father Charles Merouille, of the "Society of Jesus," appears as editor. Merouille has added to the Orations the De Amicitia and De Senectute: but on these he has given no notes, because, he says: "Jucunda eorum dialogorum utilitas, eos, absque ope alienâ studiosæ Juventuti facillimos intellectu præstabit."

(5) *Cæsar*.—The Delphin Cæsar which is here is a reprint by Valpy, and does not give the name of the original editor and annotator.

(6) *Ovid, Sallust, Crispinus*.—Ovid was annotated for the Delphin series by Daniel Crispin, a Swiss (Daniel Crispinus, Helvetius). Gibbon has found fault with his notes on the Fasti, stigmatizing them as suited only for schoolboys, and below criticism. Gibbon was also irritated by the Index, because it referred him to the page instead of the ode and line. He was likewise shocked by the incongruity of moral and theological sentiment cropping out here and there in the midst of the notes. With all his vast knowledge, Gibbon was possibly not as fully informed as my hearers now are, in regard to the conditions under which Daniel Crispin and his fellow-scholiasts compiled their notes. Gibbon had perhaps never taken into his ken the schedule of instructions which the illustrious Montausier had placed in the hands of each one of the sub-editors of the Delphin series. What notes but those suited only for young beginners were to be expected, under the circumstances? A philosopher and scholar like Gibbon would certainly desire some other expounder of the Fasti of Ovid than Crispin, if

the text pure and simple were not sufficient for him. Crispin's notes on the *Metamorphoses* of Ovid, a copy of which of the Delphin edition is here, seem quite appropriate and reasonable, in view of the conditions of their compilation.

My Delphin Sallust is also edited by Daniel Crispin, and in a manner well adapted to those who were expected to use it. It is amusing to find him, in his Address to the Reader, flattering himself that the great lucidity of the Delphin glosses on the Latin authors will entirely do away with the necessity for the ephemeral versions of them in French, which from time to time appeared, and of which he speaks with great reprobation: "*Jam nihil opus erit vernaculis istis et quotannis fere renovandis interpretationibus, quæ vix satis unquam autoris sensum et scopum assequuntur; semper ab ejus ratione modoque recedunt.*"

The animus of this remark discloses the fundamental error of the Delphin series.

Among all the ameliorations in the method of studying the Latin classics contrived for the benefit of the most serene Dauphin; among all the plans adopted for making his path across the wide field of Latin literature, really a "royal road," cleared of thorns, strewn with flowers, as far as possible—is it not astounding that the free use of the French language in the process was not thought of? To the Dauphin, as to most other youths, the explication and annotations of the Delphin editors were at the first glance as difficult to interpret as the text itself. Can it be doubted that of all the boons, allurements and encouragements that could have been devised for the Dauphin in this direction, a series of lively French versions, accompanied by an apparatus of lively French notes, would have been the greatest, the most acceptable? That the serene prince

took kindly to Terence we are assured by Frederick Leonard. It was not to Terence, however, we may be sure, as a Latin Classic that he was drawn, but to Terence as the source of some lively theatrical pieces coming before him first in a French dress and fascinating his boyish mind, just as a play of *Molière* or *Racine* would do. That he expressed a fondness for Terence was the result of no propensity to Latin studies. It was simply a response of nature to nature. The prince, we are told, enjoyed hunting the wolf in the forests, accompanied by a suitable equipage: he also enjoyed the sport of catching weasels in a barn with the help of a number of small terriers. It is not improbable that whatever interest in Latin may have been excited within him by his acquaintance with Terence, was killed, rather than fostered, by the Latin explications of his scholastic guides. We do not hear that he ever became a scholar in a sense satisfactory to his Latin preceptors. In point of fact, however, no time was allowed him to develop literary ability or tastes. He was, as we have heard, a husband at the age of nineteen, and soon the father of a considerable family: he is actively engaged year after year in his father's wars of aggression on his neighbours.

That the French language was ignored in the classical education of the Dauphin is to be attributed to the all-pervading influence of the Jesuit Society of the time, of which society, as we have seen, several of the annotators were members. With the Jesuits of the age of Louis XIV., as with the Jesuits now—though not perhaps to the same extent—Latin was the amalgam which fused into one an heterogeneous assemblage of aspiring men, gathered from all parts of the world; it became amongst them (from familiar use in writing and speaking) a language as natural and commonplace as any vernacular speech is to

ordinary persons. The enforcement of the Latin language on the pupils of their schools was a matter of course, inevitable, indispensable. Those schools were the seed plots to which they looked for the perpetuation to the end of time of their order and their power. It would have been a flagrant breach of principle to have given countenance for a moment, in a series of books likely to have a wide and long-lived circulation, to a system of interpretation which recognized a local vernacular as of co-ordinate importance with Latin, in the acquirement of a learned education. To make an exception, even in favour of the first-born son of the Grand Monarque of France, if he was to be a pupil of theirs, was impossible. We have here the *prima labes mali* of the Delphin series, and the source of many of the drawbacks from which education afterwards suffered throughout Europe.

I have reserved to the last one more Delphin specimen which I chance to have, because it is a relic of the period when a renaissance of common sense in the matter of annotating Latin authors was beginning on this continent, as well as in Great Britain and Ireland. It is, in reality, a duplicate of the Select Orations of Cicero with Merouille's notes, at which I have already glanced. But it is an edition with Merouille's notes, or the most important of them, translated into English. The scholar who ventured on this innovation was Mr. John G. Smart, of Philadelphia. His book is an octavo, published at Philadelphia in 1826. The title-page, characteristically, is half Latin, half English. The upper portion reads: "M. T. Ciceronis Orationes Selectæ, in Usum Delphini, etc.;" while the lower runs thus, in English: "In this edition are introduced all the valuable notes of the Dauphin edition, translated into English, etc., etc., by John G. Smart,

Philadelphia. Published and for sale by Towar and Hogan, No. 255, Market Street, 1828." (This is the second edition.)

A sentence or two of Mr. Smart's Preface will put into words the conclusion we have doubtless all come to, in regard to the Delphin Classics. "The compilers of the notes in the Dauphin editions of the Classics," Mr. Smart remarks, "took great care to collect a mass of useful information; and many of their notes and observations are of such importance as to merit the attention of the student. But, as they have hitherto appeared, that which was intended to aid the scholar, is of no advantage to him. This was a difficulty which could not be entirely removed by the use of dictionaries; the variety of significations of which many words are susceptible, and of which an enumeration is always indispensable in a lexicon, often perplexed the scholar and rendered a short explanatory note desirable. We need say nothing of the advantages which he will derive from having the notes and explanations given him in a language to which he has been accustomed from his infancy, as they must be evident to every one." The Testimonial given by the Rev. Dr. Wylie, a distinguished Professor of the day, in the University of Pennsylvania, contains also some just remarks on the subject: "The value of this edition in the existing state of classical literature will be greatly enhanced by the consideration of the following fact, but too well attested by the experience of most teachers,—That many of their pupils are too indolent, not to say too ignorant, to peruse the Latin notes for themselves. Moreover, we are beginning now to admit as a truth what should always have been considered as axiomatic, viz.: That all helps, introductory to an acquaintance with the dead languages, should be more plain and more easily

accessible than those languages are themselves—in other words, the thing explaining should always be plainer than the thing explained.” By these words of Dr. Wylie we are once more brought to realize that astounding infatuation on which in these papers I have before enlarged, viz., the attempt to teach an unknown tongue in an unknown language: an infatuation which for so long a period did more than any other thing to bring discredit on the Latin and Greek Classics as instruments of education, and to defraud men of an intelligent enjoyment of the riches of Greek and Roman literature. Here was the fundamental mistake and misfortune, not only of the Delphin books from the moment of their first appearance; but of most of the annotated books issued for the use of the young throughout Germany, France, and the British Islands, for many a long year.

Mr. Smart's example was followed. It is to a scholar of the United States, Professor Anthon, of Columbia College, that modern students of classical literature are, perhaps, indebted the most for the improved style of handling Greek and Latin texts when intended for the use of beginners.

In Great Britain, Barker of Thetford, Norfolk, was among the earliest to favour Anthon's intelligent method. I remember the delight with which I devoured the instructive and entertaining matter brought to bear by Barker on the *De Amicitia* and *De Senectute* of Cicero, and the *Agricola* of Tacitus. Also the supposed conversations, though somewhat formal, between Dr. Barton and his pupil, Henry Arlington, prefixed to some of Anthon's books. In the dearth of good books of general reference at the time, information from uncommon sources was ever most welcome. Of course, everything was done by those who were peculiarly and otherwise concerned in the commonly re-

ceived publications, to drive Barker off the field; and Anthon too; whose editions were speedily reprinted in England, and extensively adopted, showing that a felt want was being supplied. By the worshippers of the old routine both were anathematized. They were to be frowned down as dangerous innovators. Making too easy the work of the young, who ought to be compelled to encounter and surmount disagreeable difficulties, they evidently did not themselves know what scholarship was. They had betrayed the arcana of a craft and lowered the scholastic profession.

Barker and Anthon were abused, but they were imitated. Major translated Porson's Euripides, and Brasse did the same for Brunck, and Hermann and others on Sophocles. Dr. Arnold issued Thucydides with notes and elucidations in plain English. Dr. Stocker performed the like office for Juvenal and Persius, Herodotus and Livy. And now all English school books are copiously annotated in the vernacular. To employ Latin for such a purpose would at the present time be deemed quite eccentric.

Furthermore, it must finally be observed, that the English notes appended to the modern elementary editions of the Greek and Latin classics differ widely in spirit and aim, as well as in the matter of language, from those of the Delphin scholiasts and their followers. Scholarship, in these last days, has become scientific. It is the substance of Greek and Latin books that is now regarded; not merely the words and their shades of meaning. The history of human society, of human institutions, manners and arts, everywhere and in all ages, is sought to be mastered, and combined into a grand whole. With a view to this, the Greek and Latin languages and literatures are now studied, being indispensable elements in the science of comparative philology,

out of which has come so much light on the subjects of human descent and history. The tone and spirit of annotations on Greek and Latin authors, even when intended only for the use of tyros, as also the tone and spirit of grammars and vocabularies, are all now in harmony with the age, and partake of a philosophic or scientific character; so that the young student, by-and-bye, when he rises to higher

levels of research, may not find himself in a strange field, confused by a new technical phraseology and requiring to unlearn much. It is evident that, with such objects in view, the notes of the Delphin scholiasts and their imitators, from Louis XIV.'s day to the present moment, whether religiously preserved in the original Latin, or presented in familiar English, offer him but meagre help.

## A PAPER ON CICERO—II.

BY REV. C. H. MOCKRIDGE, B.D., HAMILTON, ONT.

(Continued from page 261.)

FOR nearly a year and a half Cicero pined and fretted in Macedonia, thinking of a man like Clodius lording it over Senate and people in Rome. But this soon wrought its own cure. Much as Cicero had been appreciated, his real value was not known till he was gone. The only men of weight at that time were Pompey, Cæsar, Cato, and Cicero; and circumstances had now deprived Rome of all these except Pompey. Cæsar was off warring in Gaul, Cato (it is thought, to serve Cæsar's own ends, thinking he would be better out of Rome than in it) was sent to govern Cyprus; Cicero was in exile; so the way was clear for the effeminate Clodius to play at legislation. Pompey took no active part, but he soon saw that everything was going wrong. The state of Rome at the time might well be described in the words of King Harry to his son:

“Have you a ruffian that will swear, drink, dance,  
Revel the night; rob, murder, and commit  
The oldest sins the newest kind of ways?

England shall double gild his treble guilt;  
England shall give him office, honour, might.”

Substituting Rome for England and Clodius for the scapegrace described, you have the state of the Roman capital at this time—a state which Mommsen speaks of as a “Walpurgis dance of political witches.” The ship was rocking wildly to and fro, and there was no one to steady the helm. Pompey was afraid for his life, and therefore at once had a decree passed recalling Cicero. The great orator had his enemies, and he has them in some of the historians of the present day. Mommsen and Froude, for instance, seem to dislike to say a good word for him, yet this fact speaks for itself. The need of his presence was felt by the few wise heads then left in Rome, and he was recalled. It was a proud day for Cicero when this recall was received. He certainly had a high opinion of himself. His confident remarks regarding his own powers and work savour of a self-conceit which makes one smile. In fact, in reading his speeches, one gets tired of his vanity. In *his* opinion, *his* consulship was the most brilliant triumph the Roman State had ever seen. He refers to it *ad nauseam*. His bold policy, his active vigilance,



his untiring legislation had saved the Republic. This is the burden of his song continually. And then to fail because of that very act on which he had plumed himself, and to be subjected to the lasting disgrace of exile, was enough to break his proud spirit. However, the recall soon set everything right again. His old vanity came back in a new shape. "The people have seen their mistake; after all, my policy was a good one; my consulship was brilliant; I was the saviour of my country, and the people see it now." In this he certainly made a mistake. Had Cicero been a little more resolute he would have done far better for himself. Had he been true to the people, who certainly clung to him as long as they thought he was their friend, it would have been far better for him. But he was somewhat dazzled by the Senate, and he put himself too much in its power. He thought it a grand thing to have so many aristocratic friends, but he soon learned that the most substantial friends were the people. His recall was an affair of great brilliancy. All the way from Brundisium to Rome he was congratulated and lionized. The citizens of Rome received him heartily. His status and property were restored to him, his houses were rebuilt at the public expense, and once more he became the popular idol. But Rome was in a frightful condition. We cannot, indeed, take everything that Cicero says of his enemies as true. Allowance must be made for the exaggeration of invective; but even admitting this, the men who then ruled in Rome were detestable examples of impurity and vice. In a letter to his brother, Cicero says: "I am broken-hearted, my dear brother—broken-hearted that the constitution is gone, that the courts of law are naught, and that now, at my time of life [he was then 53 years old], when I ought to be leading with authority in the Sen-

ate, I must be either busy in the Forum pleading, or occupying myself with my books at home."

But with all his ambition Cicero was not able to quell the turbulence of the times. Mere invective and the calling of hard names had little effect upon men whose lives were as bad as those who were assailed. Cicero's strong point was his oratory. In this he had no rival. He could sway the Senate and he could sway the crowd, but he had no power to fall back upon to help him to give his measures effect. He lacked the iron will to carry out what he was always courageous enough to advocate. He had suffered much in his contest with Clodius. The revenge of this young demagogue was insatiable, for even after Cicero's return he carried favour with the people so as to neutralize the eloquence of Cicero; and when at last Clodius was murdered, the people were enraged and burnt the Senate-house, as if the senators had been the cause of all their trouble. Cicero, as one of the Senatorial party, was detested by the crowd, and losing even his boldness of utterance, he never delivered the speech which he had prepared in defence of the alleged murderer of Clodius. He dared not deliver it. We have it preserved to us now—his speech in defence of Milo;—an eloquent effort, a masterly defence; but reason would have had no avail with the mob, and the speech was never made.

In this way the years wore on. Cæsar was achieving wonders in conquering Gaul and Britain. Pompey was doing equally well in the East. Rome was disorganized, and sooner or later some iron hand must grasp the reins there and make things bend before it. That hand was already stretched out towards the city. The warrior had to do what the statesman, however brilliant as an orator, had failed to do. The veteran legions of

Cæsar had performed their work abroad ; they now were looking homewards. Their great chief had ambitious designs for himself. He now no longer feared Cato nor Cicero, but of Pompey he was afraid. He knew that either he or Pompey must go down if one or the other was to rule, and therefore he crossed the fatal Rubicon, and rode on to seek the death of Pompey, only, alas ! to hasten on the events which were to bring himself to an equally violent death. Pompey lay dead on the sands of an Eastern shore, and Cæsar marched to Rome to quiet disturbances there, and to rule the State as he had been accustomed to rule his legions. Men stood by affrighted. Cicero had always been friendly with Cæsar. They had kindred tastes, especially in literature, but the great orator stood aghast at Cæsar's growing power. He worked on quietly as a lawyer ; more than once he pleaded cases before " most excellent Cæsar," as he was wont to call him, but he had sad forebodings of coming trouble. He loved the Republic. At the cost of his own political success, he had defended it against lawless anarchy. He now began to see in Cæsar a " one-man power," savouring of that ancient monarchy which had in time developed a Tarquinius Superbus—and he shuddered. But what could he do ? His influence with the people was gone ; the Senate was cowed by the power of Cæsar ; the veteran legions were at hand to govern when lawful means might fail. He could only wait and watch. And Cæsar held unconstitutional sway, hurrying with fearful haste to the memorable " Ides of March," when in the Senate-House, " even at the base of Pompey's statue, which all the while ran blood," great Cæsar had to fall.

Once more the assassin's dagger had to do what nothing else could effect. His best friends stabbed him

to the heart, and Cæsar fell. Cicero expressed great satisfaction at this. He seems, indeed, to have exulted over it with savage glee. But may we not say that this was not at the death of his friend, nor yet at the method employed to bring the desired political relief, but merely at the fact that a terrible warning had been given to those who should at any time attempt to assume royal sway in Rome ? The key to many of the expressions of Cicero, otherwise inexplicable, lies, I think, in his extreme love and jealous care for the constitution of the Republic which he loved. It may be, indeed, that he cared only for himself. Some have seen in Cicero an extraordinary example of vanity. Certainly there are traces of it. He wanted to be the bright light, and Cæsar's light was too strong for that. But there were indications that he loved the constitution of the Republic as well. At any rate he rejoiced that Cæsar was dead. Historians differ as to the reason of this. Some think it was simply because, Cæsar gone, Pompey dead, Cicero must rise. It may be so ; men like to rule, and Cicero had an unusually strong desire in that direction. But he soon found that Cæsar was more potent with the people than he had dreamed of. A great reaction speedily set in. It was found that his was a noble, generous heart, and the men who had used their unhallowed daggers had to flee the country, and, even in foreign lands or distant colonies, within three years, they all came to a tragic end. Cicero, however, still lived on, the life and soul of the Senate. He brought all his brilliant powers of oratory to bear upon reviving the embers of the Republic. The men who were to swoop down upon the unhappy State were carrying on distant wars. Mark Antony was the leading spirit of the old Cæsarfaction, and Cicero opposed him with an amount of energy surprising

in an old man. His fourteen orations against Antony, known as "the Philip-pics," are brilliant efforts of oratory. The fire of the old man burnt its brightest as it was about to go out for ever. But his eloquence could not withstand military power. The celebrated triumvirate was formed. Octavius, Lepidus and Antony joined forces and marched on to Rome. Great fear and consternation was the result. Murder was committed on every hand. Our poor old orator, who, since the death of Cæsar, had had a brief lease of power, felt that his last burning shot had been fired, and that no longer would the Senate walls listen to his brilliant words. The victorious party approached the city, and Cicero fled. It was his only hope; but he did not fly with sufficient haste. He hated to leave Rome. He was an old man and loved his country. His hesitation cost him his life. Soldiers found him and cut off his head. It was brought to Mark Antony, who treated it with every mark of scorn and contempt—a disgraceful act in which his wife joined. Her hatred knew no bounds. She even pierced with her bodkin the poor silent tongue—that tongue which was so eloquent in the denunciation of her husband's crimes and vicious life.

This was the end of Cicero. The light of the old era was fast burning out. Cicero little knew how close his times were upon a new light which was to spring, not from Rome nor yet from Greece, but from a little despised province—a light which was to usher in a new era, brightened by principles that were to serve no single State, but the whole world. He died forty-three years before Christ. We are now nearly 1900 years after Christ, and it is not too much to say that the world has not yet risen to the height of His morality. He saw what Cicero would have given worlds to see—the

true principles which were in the end to bring happiness for mankind. Cicero was Roman, and he nearly saw the old era end. Christ began a new era, and He was cosmopolitan. It was the world he sought to help. Cicero made the well-being of man a study. He tried to bring happiness to Rome by reviving, or rather introducing, among his countrymen the philosophy of the learned Greeks. He studied Plato and Aristotle, and was thus enabled to produce many excellent works full of wise counsel. Nothing could be more excellent than his letters to his son Marcus, known as "De Officiis." Young men of any age would be vastly benefited by reading them.

No one can read his books without feeling that one is in the presence of a good and a pure soul, who sought to know what "that good was for the sons of men on earth." His essays on "Friendship" and "Old Age" will remain charming examples of ancient moral principles as long as the world lasts; and his treatise on the "Nature of the Gods" shows that he had no faith whatever in the mythical deities of the Greeks and of his own countrymen; but there was a noble reaching out beyond these things to a Great Creator and Ruler of the Universe. He saw there what he could not see in Rome—the beauties of perfect order and government. His knowledge of astronomy impressed him all the more with the power and wisdom of the Great Ruler of all things.\* Dean Merivale calls Cicero "the best specimen of the highest culture, both morally and intellectually, in the ancient world." Erasmus thought him inspired; and an old scholar declared, "I am

\* He says in his treatise on the "Nature of the Gods" (II. 5): "It is quite impossible for us to avoid thinking that the wonderful motions, revolutions and order of the many and great heavenly bodies, no part of which is impaired by the countless and infinite succession of ages, must be governed and directed by some supreme Intelligent Being."

always a better man for reading Cicero." Unlike most ancient writers, Cicero never offends the finest sense of delicacy. In his speeches, sometimes he used intemperate language and spoke plainly of monstrous sins, but in his writings you see purity itself. They can be put into the hands of the young men and women of our day with perfect safety. Indeed, it would be advisable to do so. In his writings you see a desire to know the highest good for man; but this remained for one greater than any philosopher to give to the world in all its force and power. It remained for the Galilean peasant to

show, not only beauty of precept, but perfection of life, coupled with an unselfishness which has ever made his enemies wonder. But though Cicero wrote beautiful philosophy, and gave golden rules of integrity and virtue, he did not profess to be a moral teacher. He was a lawyer and a statesman, yet he saw the root of all the trouble in Rome. It was an utter want of moral principle. This made him tremble for the future of the State, and he made himself acquainted with the best Greek literature in order to teach his countrymen the true philosophy of morality. In such a light let us think of Cicero, and so leave him.

"WHAT is your education, with all its intellectual completeness," says an able writer, "if it does not secure that the child shall become the true man, the pure friend, the worthy parent, the noble citizen, to say nothing of the exemplary Christian?" We answer, nothing. But that this end can be obtained the internal management of a school must be favourable; it must not, in fact, be hostile nor contradictory. This end is not obtained by pure precept. It will not do to give long and frequent lectures from the desk, for example, if in the next moment we are tearing the finer sensibilities of the child to pieces by calling it a dunce, a clown, a blockhead, or for some trivial misdemeanor which some one committed, closeting it for half an hour to make it tell on its companion. Oh, the trifles that are magnified, and the little things that absorb the attention of our school officers, and the real acts of tyranny and oppression that take place within the walls of a school, make me think that we teachers as a class are the most unbending and narrow-minded beings that exist on the face of the earth! The rule of the Sultans, Czars, and Cæsars was nothing to it. The allowances that we make for one another in every-day life are never thought of here where they are most needed, and where the child is trying to learn. Were a State gov-

erned as many a school is conducted, there would be open rebellion—the tyranny could not be endured. What passes for order is often the most absolute despotism and oppression.—*Journal of Education.*

THE DESIRED END.—The recognition of the doctrine that education should consist in the development of the faculties, rather than in the mere acquisition of knowledge, is more and more insisted upon by practical thinkers. The *London Lancet* says that it may appear a paradox, but it is a simple and plain statement of fact, that a man may be well educated and yet know little or nothing. The best intellectual organism is not that which has been most heavily charged with information, but that which possesses in the highest degree the faculty or power of finding facts at pleasure, and using them logically and with prompt ability. A ready wit, in the true sense of the term, is incomparably better than a loaded brain.—*N. Y. Tribune.*

MORALS IN THE SCHOOL.—The State cannot afford to educate the mind of a bad child without correcting his morals. That is putting a sword into the hands of a maniac. Intelligence has no moral character. It makes men neither better nor worse, except in the sense that any weapon may do so.—*Rev. R. T. Hall, Ohio.*

UNIVERSITY WORK.

MATHEMATICS.

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EDITOR.

UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

ANNUAL EXAMINATIONS, 1882.

Junior Matriculation.

TRIGONOMETRY—HONORS.

Examiner—A. K. Blackadar, B.A.

1. Explain what is meant by the *Common* and the *Napierian* logarithm of any number.

Write down the characteristics of the common logarithm of 6, 5320, and .0042, and prove that your results are correct.

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \text{If } y &= e^{\frac{x}{1 - \log_e x}} \\ \text{and } z &= e^{\frac{x}{1 - \log_e y}} \end{aligned} \right\}$$

$$\text{prove that } x = e^{\frac{x}{1 - \log_e z}}.$$

2. Perform the following operations by means of logarithms:

(1) What per cent. of \$119,048 is \$300?

(2)  $\cos A = \sin 148^\circ \tan 125^\circ$ , find  $A$ .

(3)  $2x \cdot 3^y = 252$   
 $10^{y-x} = 10000$  } find  $x$  and  $y$ .

3. Prove the formulæ:

(1)  $\tan A + \cot A = \sec A \operatorname{cosec} A$ .

(2)  $\sin(A+B) = \sin A \cos B + \cos A \sin B$ .

Show by a geometrical demonstration that  $\sin(A+B) = \sin A + 2 \sin \frac{1}{2} B \cos(A + \frac{1}{2} B)$ .

4. Find the value of  $\sin 30^\circ$  and  $\cot 15^\circ$ .

Find  $x$  from the equation  $\tan x + \cot 2x = 2$ .

5. In any triangle prove the formulæ:

(1)  $\tan \frac{1}{2} A = \sqrt{\frac{(s-b)(s-c)}{s(s-a)}}$ .

(2)  $\frac{a \cos B + b \cos A}{a \sin B + b \sin A} = \frac{1}{2}(\cot B + \cot A)$ .

6. In a right-angled triangle, having given the area = 246.458,  $A = 39^\circ 9'$ , find  $a, b, B$ .

7. Having given

$A = 49^\circ 9' 50''$ ,  $b = 387.465$ ,  $c = 245.985$ ;

find

(1)  $a, B, C$ .

(2) Area of the triangle.

(3) Radius of inscribed circle.

8. (a) If the sides of a triangle are in arithmetical progression, show that the radii of the escribed circles are in harmonical progression.

(b) In any triangle, if  $c^2 = a^2 + ab$ , show that  $C = 2A$ .

NUMBER.	LOG.		LOG.
200000	301030	$\sin 32^\circ$	9.724210
300000	477121	$\tan 55^\circ$	10.154773
252000	401400	$\cos 40^\circ 49'$	9.878983
119048	075721	$\tan 30^\circ 9'$	9.910645
360552	556968	$\cot 24^\circ 34' 55''$	10.339653
778151	891064	$\sin 49^\circ 9' 50''$	9.878857
492916	692773	$\tan 26^\circ 1' 26''$	9.688639
463345	665904	$\sin 39^\circ 23' 39''$	9.802538
633450	801709	$\sin 88^\circ 33' 29''$	9.999861
246458	391743		
337465	588232		
245985	390909		
141480	150695		
293240	467228		
170105	230717		

EUCLID—HONORS.

1. If a side of a triangle be produced, the exterior angle is equal to the two interior and opposite angles; and the three interior angles of every triangle are equal to two right angles.

In the sides  $AB, AC$  of the triangle  $ABC$  are taken points  $D$  and  $E$  at equal distances from  $A$ , and a straight line is drawn through  $D$  and  $E$  to meet  $BC$  produced in  $F$ . If angle  $ABC$  is one-third of angle  $ACB$ , then triangle  $DFB$  will be isosceles.

2. Divide a given straight line into two parts, so that the rectangle contained by the

whole and one of the parts shall be equal to the square on the other part.

In square  $ABCD$ , the side  $AB$  is divided in  $H$  so that  $AB \cdot BH = AH^2$ ;  $AD$  is bisected in  $E$ , and  $CD$  is bisected in  $F$ ; if  $EH$ ,  $EB$ ,  $HF$  are joined, show that

$$EH^2 + HB^2 + BE^2 = 2HF^2.$$

3. The opposite angles of any equilateral figure inscribed in a circle, are together equal to two right angles.

A quadrilateral  $ABCD$  is inscribed in a circle such that the diagonals  $AC$  and  $BD$  intersect at right angles in the point  $M$ ; show that the straight line passing through  $M$  and the middle point of  $AB$  will be at right angles to  $CD$ .

4. In a given circle place a straight line, equal to a given straight line not greater than the diameter of the circle.

Inscribe in a given circle a chord  $CD$  of given length, so that it may be divided into two equal parts by a fixed chord  $AB$ .

5. Inscribe an equilateral and equiangular hexagon in a given circle.

Two equal circles cut one another in the points  $C$  and  $D$ , the circumference of the one passing through the centre of the other, if the centres  $A$  and  $B$  be joined, and a circle drawn touching the arcs  $AC$ ,  $BC$ , and the straight line  $AB$ , prove its radius  $= \frac{3}{8} AB$ .

6. Triangles and parallelograms of the same altitude are one to another as their bases.

7. Equal triangles which have one angle of the one equal to one angle of the other, have their sides about the equal angles reciprocally proportional; and triangles which have one angle in the one equal to one angle in the other, and their sides about the equal angles reciprocally proportional, are equal to one another.

From the points  $A$ ,  $C$ , in the triangle  $ABC$ , are drawn parallel straight lines  $AD$ ,  $CF$  without the triangle to meet the opposite sides produced in the points  $D$  and  $F$ ; show that the triangle  $DBF$  is equal to the triangle  $ABC$ .

In what direction must the parallel lines  $AD$ ,  $CF$  be drawn in order that the triangle  $FBD$  may be similar to the triangle  $ABC$ ?

8. In right-angled triangles, the rectilineal figure described upon the side opposite to the right angle is equal to the similar and similarly described figures upon the sides containing the right angle.

9. If squares be described on the sides of a triangle and their centres joined, the area of the triangle so formed exceeds the area of the given triangle by one-eighth part of the sum of the squares.

## EDUCATION DEPARTMENT, ONTARIO.

JULY EXAMINATION, 1882.

*Intermediate.*

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

1. A beam 14 feet long is supported at both ends; a weight of 1200 pounds is suspended 4 feet from the centre. Find the pressure at each point of support. (Weight of beam to be neglected.)

2. What power (in pounds) is required to draw a train of cars, weighing 150 tons, up a railway grade rising 10 inches in every 100 feet? (Friction to be neglected.)

3. Given the diameters of the two cylinders of a hydrostatic press and the force applied to the piston, determine the pressure produced.

4. A man exerting all his strength can just raise 230 pounds. What would be the weight of a stone (spec. gr. 2.9) which he could just raise under water?

5. To what height will glycerine (spec. gr. 1.27) rise in a Toricellian tube when the barometer stands at 30.5 inches, spec. gr. of mercury being 14?

6. Describe a simple experiment to illustrate

(i) The buoyancy of the air, and

(ii) The variation of the buoyancy, with the barometric pressure of the air.

7. A power of 12 pounds on a wheel, the diameter of which is 8 feet, balances a weight of 280 pounds on the axle; what is the diameter of the axle, the thickness of the rope on the wheel being one inch, on the axle two

inches? (The rope regarded as perfectly flexible, and the whole weight being supposed to act along its centre.)

8. Describe Nicholson's Hydrometer.
9. Distinguish between
  - (i.) Mass and weight;
  - (ii.) Density and specific gravity.
10. Define the term "equilibrium," and distinguish between stable and unstable equilibrium.
11. Demonstrate that two liquids will be in equilibrium in communicating vessels when the altitudes of their columns are to each other inversely as their specific gravities.

#### EUCLID.

(Usual abbreviations permitted.)

1. A parallelogram is a rectilinear figure whose opposite sides are parallel, and whose opposite angles are equal.

Show clearly what is deficient and what redundant in this definition.

2. The three angles of a triangle are together equal to two right angles.

Prove this; and by its means show how to divide a right angle into three equal parts.

3. Triangles upon the same base and between the same parallels are equal to one another.

Prove this; and thence show how to change an irregular four-sided figure into an equal triangle.

4. Given three straight lines, show how to construct a triangle having these lines for sides. Can it always be done? Explain fully.

5. If a straight line be bisected and also cut into two unequal parts, give the relations existing among the segments as expressed in two propositions of the Second Book of Euclid, and prove one of these propositions.

6. Do *one only* of the following:—

(a) If  $A, B, C$  be the angular points of a triangle, find an expression for the perpendicular from  $A$  upon the side  $BC$  in terms of the sides.

(b) If from any point in the circumference of a circle two lines are drawn to the extremities of a diameter, the sum of the squares upon these lines is constant; and the angle

contained by these lines is a right angle. [No reference to Euclid, Bk. III.]

7. What proposition of the Second Book would be formed from Euclid II. 12, by bringing the vertex  $A$  down to the point  $D$  in the side  $BC$  produced?

The solution to question 8, Intermediate Examination, was omitted in the July-August number. Both are now inserted:

8.  $A$  sells an article at a certain advance per cent. on the cost to  $B$ , who, in turn, at the same advance per cent., disposes of it for \$19, finding that had he sold for \$13 he would have lost per cent.  $1\frac{1}{4}$  of what he now gains per cent. What did  $A$  pay for the article?

As regards  $B$ , per question, \$19 - profit = \$13 +  $\frac{1}{4}$  profit;  $\therefore$  profit = \$8;  $\therefore$  cost to  $B$  is \$16 $\frac{1}{2}$ . Hence advance per cent. is  $\frac{2}{3}\%$ ; therefore  $A$  paid for the article \$14 $\frac{1}{7}$  $\frac{1}{7}$ .

## MODERN LANGUAGES.

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

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

### ENGLISH.

#### EDUCATION DEPARTMENT, ONTARIO.

JULY EXAMINATIONS, 1882.

#### GEOGRAPHY.

1. (i.) Name in order, beginning at the north and ending at Mexico, the Provinces of the Dominion and the States of the American Union on the eastern side of North America that possess one or more seaports; (ii.) name an important seaport in each; (iii.) state the chief export or exports from each such seaport; and (iv.), if it is situated at the mouth of, or upon a large river, name that river.

2. (i.) Contrast the physical characteristics of Northern and Southern Europe.

(ii.) Arrange the governments of the different European states under the following heads:—Republics, Limited Monarchies, Absolute Monarchies.

3. (i.) Draw an outline map of Hindostan; (ii.) mark on it the names and courses of three important rivers, and the names and positions of the chief mountain ranges and of four large cities.

4. (i.) Name five African lakes; and (ii.) state with regard to each whether it is north of, south of, or on the equator.

5. Explain why, though Canada is nearer the sun in January than in July, the weather is warmer in the latter month.

COMPOSITION.

I.

Write out the sense of the following passage in good prose:—

EPITAPH ON A JACOBITE.

To my true king I offered free from stain  
 Courage and faith; vain faith, and courage  
 vain.  
 For him, I threw lands, honours, wealth  
 away,  
 And one dear hope, that was more prized  
 than they.  
 For him I languished in a foreign clime,  
 Gray-haired with sorrow in my manhood's  
 prime;  
 Heard on Lavernia Scargill's whispering  
 trees,  
 And pined by Arno for my lovelier Tees;  
 Beheld each night my home in fevered  
 sleep,  
 Each morning started from the dream to  
 weep;  
 Till God, who saw me tried too sorely, gave  
 The resting-place I asked, an early grave.  
 Oh thou, whom chance leads to this nameless  
 stone,  
 From that proud country which was once my  
 own,  
 By those white cliffs I never more must see,  
 By that dear language which I spake like  
 thee,  
 Forget all feuds, and shed one English tear  
 O'er English dust. A broken heart lies here.  
 —Macaulay.

II.

(a) Sketch the line of argument in the "Deserted Village," or

(b) Write a short essay on one of the following subjects:

(i.) The relative advantage of life in the country and in large cities.

(ii.) How far do intellectual and moral excellence go hand-in-hand? Illustrate by historical examples.

BOOK-KEEPING.

1. Explain the terms Folio, Cash, Trial Balance, Posting, Bills Receivable, Sundries, Consignment.

2. Write out the general forms of a Promissory Note, a Draft, and a Bill of Exchange.

3. Define the terms Profit and Loss, Stock, Excise, Bill of Entry, Drawback, Dividend.

4. What is the general rule of Debiting and Crediting?

5. Journalize the following:—

(a) I receive a legacy of \$1,000.

(b) Borrowed \$500, for which I give my note due three months hence.

(c) Took a promissory note in payment of debt of \$100; discounted same; net proceeds \$97.

(d) Sold Mdse. amounting to \$1,000, for which I received \$500 Cash, Cheque on Bank of Montreal for \$200, Note at 60 days for Balance.

(e) Commenced business with a capital of \$2,000 cash, \$2,000 in Bills Receivable, \$2,000 borrowed from A. B.

FRENCH.

UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

ANNUAL EXAMINATIONS, 1882.

Junior Matriculation.

FRENCH—PASS.

Examiner—J. L. McDougall, M.A.

I.

1. What is the difference as to agreement of the adjective in English and French?

2. What are the uses of *tu* and *vous*?

3. Give the principal parts of *parler*, *avoir*, *être*, *s'ennuyer*.

4. Name five prepositions which denote place.

5. When is the subjunctive to be used instead of the indicative?



## II.

Translate:

1. You are neither entirely right nor entirely wrong.
2. They have a few more.
3. Does he walk as far as I?
4. No, he remains at home, he has sore eyes.
5. Will you lend them to me?
6. Mr. Thompson intends making an extended journey by rail this summer.
7. Have you received the money which you needed?
8. He assures me that he has not had them.
9. I have now a room behind, but I shall soon get one in front.
10. Good singing attracts almost everybody.

## III.

Translate:

Autour de moi tout faisait silence. Au dehors seulement une pluie glacée balayait les toits et roulait avec de longues rumeurs dans les gouttières sonores. Par instants, une rafale courait sous les tuiles qui s'entre-froissaient avec un bruit de castagnettes, puis elle s'engouffrait dans le corridor désert. Alors un petit frémissement voluptueux parcourait mes veines, je ramenais sur moi les pans de ma vieille robe de chambre ouatée, j'enfonçais sur mes yeux ma toque de velours râpé, et, me laissant glisser plus profondément dans mon fauteuil, les pieds caressés par la chaude lueur qui brillait à travers la porte du poêle, je m'abandonnais à une sensation de bien-être avivée par la conscience de la tempête qui bruissait au dehors. Mes regards noyés dans une sorte de vapeur erraient sur tous les détails de mon paisible intérieur; ils allaient de mes gravures à ma bibliothèque, en glissant sur la petite causeuse de toile de Perse, sur les rideaux blancs la couchette de fer, sur le casier aux cartons dépareillés, humbles archives de la mansarde! puis, revenant au livre que je tenais à la main, ils s'efforçaient de ressaisir le fil de lecture interrompue.—*Souvestre, Un Philosophe sous les Toits*, p. 196.

1. Distinguish between *Autour* and *alentour*; *dans* and *en*.

2. Name the verb corresponding in each case to *pluie, sonores, frémissement, vieille, lueur, sensation, détails, gravures, blancs, lecture*.

## IV.

Translate:

The newspapers and letters are there also, but all interest is centred on one which Mrs. Forester is reading from her son Roland. There is such rejoicing over it, for it tells very modestly of his success at Cambridge, and tears come into the mother's eyes as she reads, "Dearest mother, I feel I owe this success to your training." The two sisters, in their glee, dance round the room, and Mr. Forester, who has risen and is standing behind his wife's chair, says, "Well earned praise, my dearest love; but come, girls, there is a time to dance and a time to sit still; so come to breakfast, for I am going to be at home to-day, and have a world of business on my hands."

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT,  
ONTARIO.

JULY EXAMINATIONS, 1882.

*Intermediate.*

I.—GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION.

1. State the principal rules for forming the feminine of adjectives, and give an example of each.

2. Give two sentences to illustrate the meaning of the pronoun *on*, and state when *on* takes *'* before it.

3. Explain fully, with examples, how questions are asked in French.

4. Write out the indicative mood of the verb *y avoir*, and the subjunctive mood or *falloir*. Give the principal parts of *ouvrir, tenir, naître, croire, dire*.

5. State the rules for the formation of adverbs in *-ment* from adjectives, with examples.

6. Give the meanings and plurals of *chef-lieu, Hôtel-Dieu, chef-d'œuvre, cog-d'âne, contre-coup, passe-partout*.

7. When are I, thou, he, they (m.) rendered into French by *moi, toi, lui, eux*?

8. State the principal rules for the use of the subjunctive mood.

9. Translate into French:

(a) With whom do you live?

(b) There are in France eighty-six capitals of departments.

(c) What I fear, is to displease you.

(d) Neither the one nor the other will obtain the prize.

(e) Gently, sir; speak of him with more respect.

10. Translate into French:

Louis the Ninth appeared a prince destined to reform Europe, if Europe could have been reformed; to make France triumphant and well governed; and to be in everything the model of men. His piety, which was that of an anchorite (anachorète), did not take away from him any kingly virtue. He knew how to harmonize (accorder) profound policy with strict justice, and perhaps he is the only sovereign who deserves this praise.

II.—SOUVESTRE: *Un Philosophe sous les Toits.*

Translate:

(a) Qu'irai-je faire, moi, au milieu de ces hardis aventuriers de la finance! Pauvre moineau né sous les toits, je craindrais toujours l'ennemi qui se cache dans le coin obscur; prudent travailleur, je penserais au luxe de la voisine si subitement évanoui; observateur timide, je me rappellerais les fleurs lentement élevées par le vieux soldat, ou la boutique dévastée pour avoir changé de maîtres! Loin de moi les festins au-dessus desquels pendent des épées de Damocles. Je suis un rat des champs; je veux manger mes noix et mon lard assaisonnés par la sécurité.

1. craindrais—parse and give the principal parts of the verb.

2. Loin de moi, etc. Supply the verb.

3. Des épées de Damocles. Je suis un rat des champs. Explain the allusions.

Translate:

(b) Enivré par l'air libre, par la pénétrante

senteur de la sève en travail, par les parfums des chèvre-feuilles, il marchait jusqu'à ce que la faim et la fatigue se fissent sentir. Alors il s'asseyait à la lisière d'un fourré ou d'un ruisseau: le cresson d'eau, les fraises des bois, les mûres des haies, lui faisaient tour à tour un festin rustique; il cueillait quelques plantes, lisait quelques pages de Florian alors dans sa première vogue, de Gessner qui venait d'être traduit, ou de Jean-Jacques dont il possédait trois volumes dépareillés. La journée se passait dans ces alternatives d'activité et de repos, de recherches et de rêveries, jusqu'à ce que le soleil, à son declin, l'avertit de reprendre la route de la grande ville où il arrivait, les pieds meurtris et poudreux, mais le cœur rafraîchi pour toute une semaine.

1. Lisait quelques pages. Distinguish from lisait des pages.

2. Venait d'être. Distinguish from venait à être.

3. Avertit. Parse.

4. Write short notes on Florian, Gessner, Jean-Jacques.

DE FIVAS' READER.

Translate:

La cigale, ayant chanté  
Tout l'été,  
Se trouva fort dépourvue  
Quand la bise fut venue:  
Pas un seul petit morceau  
De mouche ou de vermisseau.

Elle alla crier famine  
Chez la fourmi sa voisine,  
La priant de lui prêter  
Quelque grain pour subsister  
Jusqu'à la saison nouvelle.  
Je vous paierai, lui dit-elle,  
Avant l'aout, foi d'animal,  
Intérêt et principal.

La fourmi n'est pas prêteuse;  
C'est là son moindre défaut.  
Que faisiez-vous au temps chaud?  
Dit-elle à cette emprunteuse.  
—Nuit et jour à tout venant  
Je chantais, ne vous déplaît.

—Vous chantiez! J'en suis fort aise.  
Hé bien, dansez maintenant.

1. Parse dépourvue, venue, foi, déplaît.

2. Compare petit, chaud, moindre.

3. J'en suis fort aise. Explain "en" by a phrase in French equivalent in meaning.

## SCIENCE.

GEO. DICKSON, M.A., AND R. B. HARR, PH.D.,  
HAMILTON, EDITORS.

## UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

ANNUAL EXAMINATIONS, 1882.

*Junior Matriculation.*

MEDICINE—CHEMISTRY—HONORS.

Examiner, W. H. Ellis, M.A., M.B.

1. Give an account of the compounds of hydrogen with chlorine sulphur, nitrogen, and silicon.

2. Define the terms, "acid," "alkali," "base," "salt." Give examples of each.

3. How many grains of nitre are required to yield one kilogram of nitric acid?

4. Express by an equation the reaction that occurs where sulphuric acid is heated with copper.

5. Describe an experiment to show the composition of carbon dioxide.

6. How many litres of carbon dioxide at  $0^{\circ}$  C. and  $760^{\text{mm}}$  Bar. may be obtained by dissolving one kilogram of marble in hydrochloric acid?

H = 1, O = 16, N = 14, Ca = 40, C = 12, Cl = 35.5.

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT,  
ONTARIO.

INTERMEDIATE, 1882.

## CHEMISTRY.

1. A specimen of water was divided into two parts. One part was then boiled for some time. To this and the unboiled portion, contained in separate bottles, a small quantity of finely powdered chalk was added. Upon agitation it was found that the boiled portion had become milky, the unboiled portion remained clear, the chalk having dissolved. Explain the cause of this difference.

2. How much sulphur dioxide, by weight, can be obtained by burning 25 grains of sulphur in sufficient oxygen?

3. Which of the following gases should be collected by *upward* and which by *downward* displacement: Chlorine, Carbon Dioxide, Hydrogen, Sulphur Dioxide, Ammonia?

4. A quantity of alcohol, contained in an evaporating dish, was ignited and the burning liquid poured through wire gauze held over a beaker. The flame was by this process confined to the upper surface of the wire gauze, and the greater part of the alcohol collected unignited in the beaker. State the principle upon which the success of this experiment depends.

5. Assign reasons for assuming that the atmosphere is not a chemical compound, but a mechanical mixture of oxygen and nitrogen.

6. Describe the physical changes which sulphur undergoes in being heated to  $440^{\circ}$  C.

7. Write out the equation representing the reaction taking place in the preparation of nitrogen dioxide, and represent by diagram the necessary apparatus for its elimination and collection.

8. A piece of paper saturated with spirits of turpentine when plunged into a jar containing dry chlorine ignites. Explain.

9. (i.) Write out the equation representing the reaction in preparing carbon dioxide from calcium carbonate and hydrochloric acid.

(ii.) How much, by weight, of calcium carbonate is required to furnish 12 litres of carbon dioxide, measured at  $0^{\circ}$  C. and  $760^{\text{mm}}$ . P.?

## CLASSICS.

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

## UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

ANNUAL EXAMINATIONS, 1882.

*Junior Matriculation.*

GREEK GRAMMAR—HONORS.

Examiner—William Dale, M.A.

1. Explain and illustrate the terms, metathesis, coronis perispomenon, anastrophe, stem, tmesis.

2. Decline  $\nu\alpha\upsilon\varsigma$ ,  $\eta\chi\omega$ ,  $\beta\gamma\epsilon\rho\alpha\varsigma$ ,  $\pi\upsilon\rho$ .

3. Compare  $\mu\epsilon\sigma\omicron\varsigma$ ,  $\pi\acute{\epsilon}\nu\eta\varsigma$ ,  $\pi\acute{\iota}\omega\omicron\iota$ ,  $\tau\alpha\chi\acute{\upsilon}\varsigma$ ,  $\psi\epsilon\upsilon\delta\eta\varsigma$ .

4. Write out fully the perf. ind. pass. of  $\phi\alpha\iota\omicron\omega$ : plupf. ind. pass. of  $\acute{\alpha}\lambda\lambda\acute{\alpha}\sigma\omega$ : the aorist pass subj. of  $\acute{\alpha}\phi\eta\mu\iota$ .

5. Give the principal parts of the following verbs: ἀλλασκομαι; ἄπτω; βλώσσω; γαμῶ; διατάω κτεῖνω; ῥέω.

6. (a) When the subject nominative is the first, second, or third personal pronoun, it is usually omitted except for emphasis. Explain fully the reason of this rule. Ex. λέγω, λέγεις, λέγει, etc.

(b) Analyse the formation of the words βροτός, πέφρων, ἔρρον, μάλλον, εἰμί.

7. Translate into Greek:

(a) They do whatever they please.

(b) If we do not fight, they will revolt.

(c) If he had not wished to give certain things, he would not have given them.

(d) They asked whether they should give up the city.

GREEK—ARTS AND MEDICINE.

Examiner—William Dale, M.A.

I.

Translate:

(a) Κλέαρχος δὲ εἶπε τάδε. Συμβουλεύω ἐγὼ τὸν ἄνδρα τοῦτον ἐκποδῶν ποιῆσθαι ὡς τάχιστα, ὡς μηκέτι δέη τοῦτον φυλάττεσθαι, ἀλλὰ σχολῆ ἢ ἡμῖν τὸ κατὰ τοῦτον εἶναι τοὺς ἐβελοντάς φίλους τοὺς εἶ ποιεῖν. Ταύτη δὲ τῇ γνώμῃ ἔφη καὶ τοὺς ἄλλους προσθέσθαι. Μετὰ ταῦτα κλεινόντος Κύρου ἐλάβοντο τῆς ζώνης τὸν Ὀρόντην ἐπὶ θανάτῳ ἅπαντες ἀναστάντες, καὶ οἱ συγγενεῖς· εἶτα δὲ ἔξηγον αὐτὸν οἷς προσετάχθη. Ἐπεὶ δὲ εἶδον αὐτὸν οἷπερ πρόσθεν προσεκύνουν, καὶ τότε προσεκύνησαν, καίπερ εἰδότες ὅτι ἐπὶ θάνατον ἄγοιτο. Ἐπεὶ δὲ εἰς τὴν Ἄρταπάτον σκηπὴν εἰσήχθη τοῦ πιστοτάτου τῶν Κύρου σκηπτούχων, μετὰ ταῦτα οὔτε ζῶντα Ὀρόντην οὔτε τεθνηκότα οὐδεὶς εἶδε πώποτε, οὐδὲ ὅπως ἀπέθανεν οὐδεὶς εἰδὼς ἔλεγεν εἰκαζὼν δὲ ἄλλοι· ἄλλως· τάφος δὲ οὐδεὶς πώποτε αὐτοῦ ἐφάνη.

—Xenophon, Anab., I., c. 6.

1. Parse προσθέσθαι, ἐλάβοντο, ζώνης, εἰσήχθη, ἐφάνη.

2. τάχιστα, φίλος. Give the other degrees of comparison.

3. ζῶντα. Write out fully the present indicative and present infinitive, active voice.

II.

Translate:

(b) Φανερός δ' ἦν καὶ εἶ τίς τι ἄγαθόν

ἢ κακὸν ποιήσειεν αὐτόν, νικῶν πειρούμενος· καὶ εὐχὴν δὲ τινες αὐτοῦ ἐξέφερον ὡς εὐχοῦτο τοσούτον χρόνον ζῆν ἔστε νικῶν καὶ τοὺς εὐ καὶ τοὺς κακούς ποιοῦντας ἀλεξόμενος. Καὶ γὰρ οἷν πλείστοι δὴ αὐτῷ ἐνὶ γε ἀνδρὶ τῶν ἐφ' ἡμῶν ἐπεθύμησαν καὶ χρήματα καὶ πόλεις καὶ τὰ ἑαυτῶν σωματι προέσθαι. Οὐ μὲν δὴ οὐδὲ τοῦτ' ἂν εἶποι ὡς τοὺς κακούργους καὶ ἀδίκους εἶα καταγεῶν, ἀλλ' ἀφειδέστατα πάντων ἐτιμωρεῖτο. Πολλάκις δ' ἦν ἰδεῖν παρὰ τὰς στειβομένους ὁδοὺς καὶ ποδῶν καὶ χειρῶν καὶ ὀφθαλμῶν στερομένους ἀνθρώπους· ὥστ' ἐν τῇ Κύρου ἀρχῇ ἐγένετο καὶ Ἐλληνικαὶ βαρβάρῳ μηδὲν ἀδικοῦντι ἀδελῶς πορευέσθαι ὅποι τις ἤθελεν, ἔχοντι δ', τι προχωροῖη. Τοὺς γε μεντοὶ ἀγαθοὺς εἰς πόλεμον ὠμολόγητο διαφερόντως τιμᾶν.

—Id., c. 9.

1. Parse εἶα, ἰδεῖν, ἔχοντι, προχωροῖη.  
2. πράξειαν, νικῶν. Write down the other forms.

3. What is the meaning of the word ἀνάβασις? Give a brief account of the expedition up to the battle of Cunaxa.

III.

Translate:

Τῆν δ' ἡμίεβητ' ἔπειτα μέγας κορυβαίολος Ἐκτωρ  
"Μῆ μοι οἶνον ἄειρε μελίφρονα, πότνια ἤητερ,  
Μῆ μ' ἀπογνώσῃς, μένος δ' ἀλκῆς τε λάθωμαι.  
Χερσὶ δ' ἀνίπτουσιν Διὶ λείβειν αἶσθα οἶνον  
Ἄζωμα· οὐδέ τι ἔστι κλεινεφίδι Κρονίῳ  
λίματι καὶ λυθρῷ πεπαλαγμένον εὐχετάσθαι.  
Ἄλλὰ σὺ μὲν πρὸς νηῦν Ἀθηναίης ἀγελείης  
Ἔρχοο σὺν θύεσσιν, ἀολύισσαο γειραίας.  
Πήλων δ' ὅς τις τοῦ χαριέστατος ἠδὲ μέγιστος  
Ἔστιν ἐνὶ μεγάρῳ καὶ τοῖς πολλῷ φίλτατος αὐτῇ,  
Τὸν θεὸς Ἀθηναίης ἐπὶ γούνασιν ἠϊκόμοιο,  
Καὶ οἱ ὑποσχέσθαι δυοκαίδεκα βούε ἐνὶ νηῷ  
Ἦνις ἠέστατος ἱερουόμεν, αἶ κ' ἐλεήσει  
Ἄστυ τε καὶ Τρώων ἀλόχους καὶ νῆπια τέκνα,  
Λί κεν Τυδέος νιὸν ἀπόσχη Ἰλίου ἱρῆς,  
Ἄγριον αἰχμητῆν κρατερὸν μίστωρα φόβοιο.  
Ἄλλὰ σὺ μὲν πρὸς νηῦν Ἀθηναίης ἀγελείης  
Ἔρχου· ἐγὼ δὲ Πάριον μετελευσσομαι, ὄφρα καλέσω,  
Λί κ' ἐθέλησ' εἰπόντος ἀκούμεν· ὥσ κ' οἱ αὐτὸ  
Γαῖα χάνου· μέγα γάρ μοι Ὀλύμπιος ἔτρεφε πῆμα  
Τρωσὶ τε καὶ Πριάμῳ μεγαλήτορι τοῖό τε πασιῖν.  
Εἰ κείνόν, γέ ἴδοιμι καταλθόντ' Ἄϊδος εἴσω,  
Φαίην κε φρέν' ἀτέρπου οἴζις ἐκλελαθέσθαι."

—Homer, Iliad, VI., 263-285.

1. λάθωμαι, ὑποσχέσθαι, φάνοι, ἔτρεφε, θεός.  
2. μέ μ' ἀπογνώσῃς. Express this, using the imperative mood.  
3. Point out the Epic forms in the eight

first lines, and give the corresponding forms in Attic.

4. Scan lines 274 and 284, explaining the peculiarities.

5. Explain the use and meaning of  $\delta$ ,  $\eta$ ,  $\tau\delta$  in Homer.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

MATRICULATION EXAMINATION—  
JANUARY, 1887.

Examiners—J. S. Reid, Esq., LL.M., M.A.,  
and Dr. Leonhard Schmitz, F.R.S.E.

LATIN.

I. *Horace*—Odes, Books I. and II.

Translate into English :

A.

Tu ne quaesieris scire nefas, quem mihi, quem tibi  
Finem di dederint, Leuconoe, nec Babylonids  
Tentaris numeros. Ut melius, quidquid erit,  
pati  
Seu plures hiemes seu tribuit Juppiter ultimam,  
Quæ nunc oppositis debilitat pumicibus mare  
Tyrrhenum: sapias, vina liques, et spatio  
breui  
Spem longam reseces. Dum loquimur fugeret invidia  
Ætas: carpe diem, quam minimum credula postero.

B.

Quis desiderio sit pudor aut modus  
Tam cari capitis? Præcipe lugubres  
Cantus, Melpomene, cui liquidam pater  
Vocem cum cithara dedit.

Ergo Quinctilium perpetuus sopor  
Urget! Cui Pudor et Justitiæ soror  
Incorrupta Fides, nudaque veritas  
Quando ullum inveniet parem?

Multis ille bonis flebilis occidit,  
Nulli flebilior quam tibi Virgili.  
Tu frustra pius heu non ita creditum  
Pocis Quinctilium deos.

Quodsi Threicio blandius Orpheo  
Auditam moderere arboribus fidem,  
Non vanæ redeat sanguis imagini,  
Quam virga semel horrida,

Non lenis precibus fata recludere,  
Nigro compulerit Mercurius gregi.  
Durum: sed levius fit patientia,  
Quidquid corrigere est nefas.

C.

Non ebur neque aureum  
Mea renidet in domo lacunar,

Non trabes Hymetticæ  
Premunt columnas ultima recisas  
Africa, neque Attali  
Ignotus hæres regiam occupavi,  
Nec Laconicas mihi  
Trahunt honestæ purpuras clientæ;  
At fides et ingeni  
Benigna vena est, pauperemque dives  
Me petit: nihili supra  
Deos lacesso nec potentem amicum  
Largiora flagito,  
Satis beatus unicus Sabinis.  
Truditur dies die,  
Novæque pergunt interire lunæ.  
Tu secunda marmora  
Locas sub ipsum funus, et sepulcri  
Immemor struis domos  
Marisque Bæus obstrepentis urges  
Summovere litora,  
Parum locuples continente Æpa.

II. History and Geography.

1. State briefly what you know about Mæccenas and Agrippa and their relation to Augustus.

2. What connection was there between Augustus and C. Julius Cæsar?

3. To what event does Horace allude in speaking of *Catonis nobile letum*?

4. Who was Archytas?

5. Give the date of the battle of Actium. What were the powers engaged in it, and what were its results?

6. Who is the Crispus Sallustius to whom the second ode of the second book is addressed?

7. Define the positions of Tibur, Soracte, Tarentum, Rhodes, Mitylene, Larissa, Delos, Tempe, Pindus, and Hæmus.

8. Draw a map of Italy, marking the positions of the different provinces or districts into which it was divided by Augustus.

III. Passages for translation from books not prescribed:

1. Exegi monumentum ære perennius  
Regalique situ pyramidum altius,  
Quod non imber edax, non Aquilo im-  
potens  
Possit diruere, aut innumerabilis  
Annorum series et fuga temporum.  
Non omnis moriar multa que pars mei  
Vitabit Libitinam.

2. Magnæ fuit perseverantiæ Livius Dru-  
sus, qui ætatis viribus et acie oculorum de-  
fectus jus civile populo benignissime inter-  
pretatus est, utilissima que discere id cupien-

libus monumenta composuit. Nam ut senem illum natura, cæcum facere fortuna potuit, ita neutra interpellare valuit, ne non animo et videret et vigeret.

#### LATIN GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION.

1. Decline, both in the singular and in the plural, *fontes perennis, juvenis demens, tota domus*; also, in the singular only, *Aeneas, requies, rete, tibicen, as, pras*.

2. Mark the gender of *scriba, sal, alnus, lac, guttur, jubar, ordo, fascis*.

3. Parse *sedili, aucupem, gruem, frapetibus, incuntum, pertimueris, illexcritis, orsurum*.

4. Write down the perfect indicative (first person singular only) and the future participle (nominative masculine singular only) corresponding to *compingo, implico, inscro, restinguo, avello, arcesso, redimo, percello*.

5. Give the names for the different fractions of the *as*.

6. Write down the parts of *inquam* in use; also the imperfect subjunctive of *scio* and *potior*, and the imperative of *fero*.

7. Give the perfect indicative (first person singular only), the supine (where it exists),

and infinitive present, corresponding to *flecto, dirimo, indulgeo, emico, succulo, parco, sapio, viso*.

8. State the main principles which determine the sequence of tenses.

9. What constructions usually follow on *pudet, persuadere, mutare, impedire, convincere, cupidus, interdicere, eripere*?

10. Translation into Latin.

[N.B.—Particular importance is attached to the correct rendering of these sentences.]

(a) The consul was condemned on a capital charge.

(b) We have need of masters to teach us the best accomplishments.

(c) I wish to hear from you whether you are going to tell the truth or not.

(d) It is well known that Strabo was on the point of being killed when his son came to his assistance.

(e) It is evident that for many years Gallus studied Greek literature more earnestly than any one of his contemporaries.

(f) The centurion could not be prevented from declaring that the city would have been captured within ten days had the consul been fit to command.

## SCHOOL WORK.

DAVID BOYLE, TORONTO, EDITOR.\*

### GEOGRAPHY FOR SENIOR CLASS.

Why is a mountain range sometimes spoken of as the "backbone" of a country?

What constitutes a sierra?

Where are mountain ranges called cordilleras?

Distinguish a summit from a peak.

\* The change which has occurred in the management of this department of the MONTHLY is occasioned by the increasing duties, long and efficiently performed by Mr. McAllister, of the Treasurership of the CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY COMPANY. The exacting character of these duties, and the pressure of other work on Mr. McAllister's hands, have compelled him to seek relief from the task of editing "School Work," and Mr. Boyle, well and favourably known to many in the profession, has at our request kindly stepped in to fill the breach. We owe much to Mr. McAllister for his friendly interest and kind co-operation in the management of the MONTHLY.—ED. C. E. M.

Define snow-line, and account for it either increasing or diminishing in height (as the case may be) the nearer we approach the equator.

What economical purposes do mountains serve?

Recent discoveries point to Mt. Hercules reaching the greatest elevation above the sea. Where is this mountain situated?

Taking the continents, as sometimes given, to be Europe, Asia, Africa, North America, South America, and Australia, name those that form islands.

What constitute Micronesia, Melanesia, and Polynesia?

Define atoll, bore, and crevasse.

Level tracts of land are known as plains,

prairies, llanos, steppes, and pampas. State in which countries these names are applied.

Name those districts in Canada where coal, iron, copper, gold, gypsum, and phosphate of lime are found.

Name twelve navigable Canadian rivers, omitting the St. Lawrence and the Ottawa.

Name five rivers that flow through portions of both Canada and the United States, omitting the St. Lawrence in *every part of its course*.

The land on each side of the Fraser River is described as being terraced; explain terraced.

Give, in feet, the height above the sea-level of Lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, Superior, Simcoe, and Winnipeg. •

Name five waterfalls in the Dominion, and tell upon what river each occurs.

How does a rapid differ from a fall? Name the chief rapids on the St. Lawrence and Ottawa rivers.

Give the names of the principal passes through the Rocky Mountains in the Dominion.

### ARITHMETIC.

From the papers set by the London (Eng.) School Board at the Scholarship Examination held last month.

Time, two hours. Answers to show each step in the working.

1. From nine thousand and three millions ten thousand and three, take eight thousand and nine millions ten thousand and ninety-four.

2. *A* can do a piece of work in 12 days, but after 3 days' work *B* comes to help him, and they finish it in 4 days. In what time could *B* have done the whole?

3. If a man spends in 4 months as much as he earns in 3, how much can he save if he earns £60 5s. every 2 months?

4. A merchant sells goods at a certain price at a loss of 5 per cent.; had he sold them for £12 more he would have gained 10 per cent. What did they cost him?

5. In what time will £25 10s. amount to £175 at  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.?

6. Express .375 of a guinea +  $\frac{1}{3}$  crowns +

.3 of 7s. 6d. -  $\frac{1}{4}$  of 2d., as the decimal of £1 12s.

7. Simplify

$$\left(1 + \frac{1 + \frac{1}{3}}{3}\right) \div \left(1 + \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{2}}\right)$$

$$\times \left(1 - \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{3}}\right) \div \left(1 - \frac{1 - \frac{1}{3}}{3}\right).$$

8. A court is  $12\frac{1}{2}$  feet long and 10 feet broad; what will be the expense of covering it with tiles 8 inches long and 6 inches broad, at 30s. per thousand?

9. After paying a poor rate and income tax, a person had £972 left; the poor rate amounted to £45 more than the income tax. If the original income was £1,080, find the pence per pound in the income tax and in the poor rate.

10. *A*, *B* and *C* travel from the same place at the rate of 4, 5 and 6 miles an hour respectively, and *B* starts 2 hours after *A*; how long must *C* start after *B* in order that they may both overtake *A* at the same moment?

### MY PART IN A FRIDAY AFTER-NOON'S CHAT WITH MY SECOND-BOOK CLASS.

Are you all ready?

Now, if I say anything funny, I wan' you all to laugh. I suppose you would do 'at even if I didn't tell you, eh?

How many of you have ever heard of a place called America?

Is America a village, or is it a township? Did you ever see any one who lived or was born in America?

What do you call a person who was born in America—a "Heathen Chinee" or an Egyptian?

How many of you are Americans?

But you say America is a very, very large place. Do you think I could walk from one end of it to another in a whole week? In a month? In a year?

What is the name of the country in America where we live?

How many of you are Canadians?

Could you ride in a buggy from one end of Canada to the other in a fortnight? In six months?

How long will it take the cars to go when the railway is finished?

Is the longest way in this direction, or in this direction? (Teacher points.)

What direction is that?

Which is the longest way of America?

How can that be?

Suppose you started to walk straight ahead, either east or west, till you got to the sea, tell me any kind of place you would be sure to come to that you couldn't walk over.

What is the difference between a river and a lake?

If the lake was so large that you couldn't see across it, how would you know it to be a lake?

After you got to the sea, how would you know what it was, otherwise than by tasting the water?

Do you suppose you would see elephants, or alligators, or whales in the ocean?

If a whale liked, could it carry you across the ocean on its back?

How many of you would like to ride two thousand miles on the back of a whale?

That will do for to-day.

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#### OUR EXCHANGE.

TEACHERS wishing to exchange books, natural history specimens, or any educational object or appliance, may intimate their desire through our columns. We have only to request that our correspondents will write distinctly and briefly. The following may be taken as models:—

JOHN SMITH, Plunkett P.O.—Webster's Dictionary, Fleming's Analysis, and a hemisphere globe, for a microscope.

MARIA EMILY JONES, Repton P.O.—100 dried plants, named, for as many fresh-water shells.

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#### CONDITIONS OF SUCCESS.

THE cry is almost universal that the Public Schools are in the hands of ill-prepared, underpaid teachers. Some prescribe this, and others that, remedy for the evil. Better wages and good supervision will go far to-

wards changing this condition of things; but there must be something behind both of these, which are but the symptoms of the disorder. All real improvement must come from within. A sick man recovers by his own vital energy, while the medicines only hold the disease in check until these forces can act. In the same way the improvement of the Public Schools depends upon the elevation of the professional character of the teachers more than upon external conditions.

Natural fitness for the duties of the teacher should be the first consideration by those intending to enter the profession. No amount of training can compensate for natural deficiencies. Earnest determination to excel may do much to help one on against his natural bent; but, when a crisis comes, the artificial character so laboriously induced will break down, and the unfitness of the teacher will become apparent to himself and his district.

The candidate for honors in the profession of teaching must make special preparation for the calling. An intellect well disciplined by systematic study and a vast store of general knowledge are essential to success in all intellectual pursuits; but to these must be added exact technical knowledge of the principles underlying the science, together with training in their right application. In teaching, as in other responsible positions in life, we insist upon special aptitude and thorough training for important and difficult work. Teaching is both a science and an art; hence the teacher, to be truly so called, must be a scientific artist. The principles upon which the science is based are as complex, and mastered only by as hard a study, as those of law or medicine. The teacher unacquainted with them is as inefficient as the lawyer ignorant of Blackstone, or an astronomer, of Newton.

The thorough preparation just urged upon teachers presupposes an earnest devotion to the profession and a determination to follow it. It is folly on the part of the teacher to make the needed preparation for his calling, and then on the smallest pretence to forfeit his advancement and begin again in another



line. If adapted by mental and physical endowments, give yourself up to your chosen pursuit with all the intensity of your nature. Master its principles, read its history, cultivate acquaintance with its great minds, follow rationally its approved methods, and love it with undivided affection.

The considerations of natural fitness, special preparation, a devotion to the work and a determination to follow it, are the conditions of radical improvement in the teaching profession. Better pay will then be cheerfully offered, and wiser supervision of some avail.—*Pa. School Journal.*

## CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

HINTS AND REMEDIES FOR THE TREATMENT OF COMMON ACCIDENTS AND DISEASES, AND RULES OF SIMPLE HYGIENE. Compiled by Dawson W. Turner, D.C.L., with numerous illustrations. New York: Macmillan & Co. Toronto: Willing & Williamson.

THIS is an excellent little volume, and it would be well could it find its way into every home in the country. A careful perusal of its contents would clearly point out the steps necessary to be taken in simple cases, as well as what should be done preparatory to sending for the nearest and best medical aid in cases of a more serious character. On some points, however, we take exception to the treatment recommended, especially with regard to scarlet fever and diphtheria, as we fear that the remedies suggested would avail but little, and in such serious ailments time is too valuable to lose even a minute. Again, in the management of snake-bites, a dose of *Liquor Potassa* would accomplish much more than its equivalent of *Liq. Ammonia*, as recommended.

In the event of being bitten by a rabid dog, we would recommend, in addition to the advice given here, that a band should be tied tightly round the limb to produce venous congestion, and to prevent absorption. Bleeding by incisions, cupping, and warm fomentations should follow.

The volume stands in serious need of an index, and a good deal of improvement might be made in the structure of the sentences: as illustrative of our remark, take the following on *Insomnia*: "Sleep in a flannel night-shirt, and between the blankets, *not* in cold sheets (I cannot recommend this too

strongly); say your prayers before you undress yourself, or else *in* bed, and not starving and shivering with cold in a linen night shirt by the bedside; and be sound asleep in ten minutes."

At its modest cost, of twenty-five cents, this book should be found on the desk of every teacher and of every school in the Province.

BURKE'S REFLECTIONS ON THE FRENCH REVOLUTION, with Introduction and Notes, by E. J. Payne (reprinted from the Clarendon Press). Boston: Rand, Avery & Co. Toronto: Canada Publishing Co. 1882.

OUR educational authorities have made a wise choice in selecting for the Intermediate examination a work by one of the greatest masters of English style, and one whose position on the border-line between the politics of the past and the present makes him a subject of special interest to the thoughtful student of history. Burke has no peer in English political life except, perhaps, Pitt in his own time and Gladstone in ours. It was of Burke that Dr. Johnson observes: "You could not pass five minutes in his company, while taking shelter from a rain storm, without discovering that he was an extraordinary man."

Mr. Payne's Introduction is an elaborate and clever presentation of all that requires to be put before the student as to Burke's literary and political position, both in thought and form. It is a good sample of the Oxford scholarship of to-day—the Oxford which is no longer reactionary, mediaeval, and con-

servative, but earnest, progressive, and truth-seeking. The Notes, also, are well calculated to assist the student in all obscure and difficult passages of a treatise whose issues have to some extent passed away from our horizon, but are yet pregnant with much that is instructive for the minds of to-day. The mechanical appearance of this little manual, it is worthy of note, is of more than usual excellence.

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MORALITY IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS, AND ITS RELATION TO RELIGION. By the Rev. J. M. Wilson, M.A. London: Macmillan & Co.

THIS is an address which was delivered by the President of the Education Society [of England] in November, 1881. The reverend gentleman has dealt with his subject in a very judicious manner. As headmaster of Clifton College, he has been brought face to face with this very important and difficult problem in many of its serious aspects.

The conflict of the flesh against the spirit is a permanent conflict, and it does not appear that it can cease while man exists as a being compounded of flesh and blood. The teacher, in virtue of his office, must take an active part in this conflict. The highest part of that office is, as Mr. Wilson puts it, "to educate, develop, guide, lead, instruct that spiritual faculty in the child which, by whatever name we call it, is supreme." Mr. Wilson indicates various ways by which the teacher can and ought to develop this spiritual power. Though we do not agree with all the recommendations made for securing the desired end, yet the perusal of the address afforded us much pleasure and profit. We strongly urge masters to obtain a copy of it.

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LEAFLETS FROM STANDARD AUTHORS—  
 PRESCOTT. Passages from the works of W. H. Prescott, for homes, libraries, and schools. Compiled by Josephine E. Hodgdon. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

THIS little packet of Leaflets consists of extracts from the works of the most gifted United States historian. The Leaflets—

forty in number, and unstitched—are intended, so far as their school use is concerned, "to develop a love for the beautiful thoughts, the noble and elevating sentiments, that pervade the choicest literature, and thus to turn aside that flood of pernicious reading which is deluging our beloved country."

We yield to none in our desire to effect the same object, but we incline to the belief that Miss Hodgdon has blundered if she supposes these Leaflets likely to supplant "Dick Harkaway," the "Pirate Chief," or "Rob Redhand, the Boss Scalper of the Far West," in the affections of Young America. Until it is possible to "put old heads on young shoulders," the object in view will be more nearly attained by Scribner's "St. Nicholas," Harper's "Young People," or, better still, "The Boy's Own Paper," and "The Girl's Own Paper," for both of which we offer in this issue extraordinary inducements to purchasers.

That the Leaflets contain "elegant extracts," we are not indisposed to admit; but they are aimed so high that we fear they will overshoot any mark educationists can reasonably expect to hit.

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DEMOSTHENES, by S. H. Butcher, M.A., Fellow and Prælector of University College, Oxford, formerly Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Toronto: N. Ure & Co.

THIS is the American reprint of one of the best of that admirable series of "Classical Writers, edited by John Richard Green." It looks so inviting in its elegant dress, is so neat and handy, and so beautifully printed, that the mere English reader will be tempted to look into it. We have little doubt if he make a beginning he will go through the book. He will find an Old World familiar to him, in spirit at least; and while observing the straightforward, conscientious, and provident patriot in sharp contrast with the tortuous, corrupt, and greedy politician, he will not fail to be surprised at the little change wrought by centuries upon human thought and feeling.

The scholar and the student will be de-

lighted with the happy treatment of a subject of perennial interest. Mr. Butcher brings so much ripe scholarship to bear on his author, flashes so many-side lights upon him, and is withal so concise and perspicuous, that he must indeed be a dull school-boy who will not read the book voluntarily, and a very blasé reader who will go through it without some enthusiasm. Mr. Butcher, in addition to being a charming writer, is an accomplished critic, and in a chapter of surpassing interest, with rare anatomical skill, he lays bare the secret of Demosthenes' force and energy, and the perfection of his literary form. We have no space to follow Mr. Butcher through the controversial questions that beset the student of Demosthenes; suffice it to state that they are fully and intelligently treated. We especially advise all masters and pupils who are engaged this year upon Demosthenes to procure this little book and to read it through. It is worth tomes of verbal quibbling and linguistic hair-splitting, and goes far to redeem classical scholars from the reproach of laborious trifling and erudite ignorance of practical affairs.

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GUIDES FOR SCIENCE TEACHING. No. VII. Worms and Crustacea. By Prof. Alpheus Hyatt. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co., 1882.

THIS is the second of the series that has come under our notice, and we welcome it as a most important addition to the ever-increasing number of science primers, amongst which, for simplicity of arrangement and adaptability to the requirements of elementary teaching, these booklets, issued under the auspices of the Boston Society of Natural History, occupy a first place.

In the little volume before us, fourteen pages are devoted to worms—an amount of space that is hardly commensurate with the importance of the subject, more especially in view of the impetus that has recently been given to its study by the researches of Darwin. The remainder of the book, up to p. 68, treats of the lobster, the crab, and their congeners—a department which owes so much to the labours of Prof. Huxley. The lessons

are nicely illustrated, and succeed admirably in elucidating the text.

We would commend to our readers the following extract from the preface:—"It is not the amount of knowledge gained, it is the habit of persevering in seeing and thinking over and over again the same things until the mind can arrange and properly assimilate them, which makes a lesson in observation valuable."

We would venture to suggest the taking of a little more care with the composition. In the sentence we have quoted, "thinking over and over again the same things," is not elegant. Immediately preceding, the preface reads, "How much pupils learn is of little importance; how they learn, everything, in the early years of training." This arrangement is bad. At p. 11, "In December several seeds were found in one hole which had sprouted," is scarcely what the author meant to say.

The price of the series (15 cents each) is very reasonable, and should enable every teacher to provide himself with a set, as we have reason to believe that the other issues are equally valuable, although we have seen only one of them. We would be glad to examine the series *in extenso*.

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BEOWULF. I. Text (only). Edited from the text of M. Heyne, by Jas. Albert Harrison, Professor of English and Modern Languages in Washington and Lee University. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.

THE study of Anglo-Saxon is daily receiving increased attention in the lecture-rooms of those colleges that are not bound hand and foot to a stereotyped course of Classics (so-called) and Mathematics. A knowledge of Anglo-Saxon is imperatively demanded before any one can boast of his "English."

Hitherto, Beowulf could be procured only from Germany or Britain, and the publishers deserve the thanks of students for this excellent edition of a really classical work. The text is complete in 101 pp., paper covers, and, we should suppose, will sell for seventy-five or eighty cents. A glossary is promised shortly.

## EDITORIAL NOTES.

THE EDUCATIONAL OUTLOOK  
AND THE "SCHOOL JOURNAL."

THOSE who desire the growth of a sound public sentiment in respect to the management of our educational affairs would, we apprehend, have no difficulty in rightly estimating the motive which prompted our criticism of last month on "Our Educational Executive," or in endorsing much, if not all, of what we had then to say. Were we in doubt in this matter, the letters of approval we have received, and the assurances of agreement which have been orally addressed to us by many thoughtful men in the profession, in regard to the judgments expressed in the article in question, would readily satisfy us that our conclusions were correct. As an independent journal, and giving expression to independent opinions, it was not to be expected, however, that our criticisms would please every one. Those, it seems, we have *not* pleased are the publishers of the *School Journal*, for in the current number, in an article curiously entitled "Trade Organism (*sic*) and Political Partisanship," the MONTHLY is held up to simulated opprobrium, and its editor treated to a clumsy "slogging," for leading, as it is asserted, "a political crusade" and making "a party football" of our educational system—accusations which are as ludicrously absurd as they are feeble and false.

The *School Journal's* motive, in making these assertions, is of course on the surface. It is not, by any means, to defend the Minister of Education that our contemporary has again brought the MONTHLY to the notice of its readers. So far from doing this, it has but given increased publicity to our criticisms, and, in its generous selection of the plums in our article, has added to the number of those who will learn of our estimate

of Mr. Crooks, and of the judgment we had passed upon his administration. The motive of its attack upon us is simply one of jealousy, and the desire to discredit us in the duty we were performing, of calling the attention of the profession to the danger which threatens our school system from the increasing demoralization of politics, and their malign influence upon our educational affairs. Whatever the *School Journal* may say, this is an evil which every close and dispassionate observer of the recent working of our educational machinery is loud in decrying. So grave is the danger, and so menacing is it to the interests of education in the Province, that it formed the subject of a timely and pointed reference in two of the addresses delivered at the late Provincial Teachers' Convention, which we publish elsewhere in the present number.

But our contemporary tells its readers that we were actuated by partisan motives in dealing with this matter in our last issue; that our criticisms upon our present educational administration were due "to a deliberate intention to secure a change of Departmental management by a change of Government;" and that it is the boast of the conductors of the MONTHLY that its judgments "indicate the line of attack on the Government, and form one of the first elements (whatever that may mean) in the coming campaign." Now, our reply to so much as we understand of the above indictment is this, that it is wholly and maliciously untrue. We have had no thought of upsetting the Government of the Province, of conducting any crusade against it, or of importing into our educational affairs any political feeling, or of writing against its head with partisan acerbity. Our aim, on the contrary, has been to keep these influences, and the prejudices which they engender, at a long arm's length from educa-

tion and educational affairs. We are ourselves attached to no party, and have no personal quarrel with the Minister, nor have we any motive, save that of sincere and hearty interest in the profession and its work, in directing public attention to what we consider grave and increasing evils in connection with the educational administration of the Province. This, once for all, we think it necessary to say. To deny the existence of these evils, at the same time, or to affirm that the Department of Education is at present in good and competent hands, is to strain courtesy and to mislead the public. But this our contemporary is careful not to do. It has no defence to make for the Minister, and it wisely does not attempt one. Its conductors know very well that it would be difficult to make a heroic figure of Mr. Crooks, and they themselves acknowledge that they are "often compelled to differ from the Minister on matters of policy." This, however, is but what everyone is saying, and it is no more than our own position, shorn of the outspokenness which independence permits. But we go further than our contemporary, and ask to be informed what is *really* the Minister's policy? Does anyone know it, and if it is known, can one be sure of what it will be next week? What, for instance, is his line with respect to the Normal Schools, Upper Canada College, or Superannuation? Can anyone tell? It may be answered, it matters little, if one is a good politician and on the favoured side, what the Minister's attitude is or will be in regard to any educational question. But suppose one is neither a politician nor a henchman of party, what then? Must the Minister's policy, on so many subjects of importance to education and the profession, be as shiftless as politics, and take its colour from the party badge? Let the *School Journal* answer. Meantime we shall continue to protest against the Minister's management of his office on the political, and there is reason to fear also on the sectarian, lines which party predilection or party pressure has shaped for him. In the broadest interests, also, we shall continue to raise our voice against the Minister's

vacillation and ineptitude, and in denunciation of the wretched habit he has fallen into, of issuing Departmental edicts as feelers of professional and public opinion, to be subsequently cancelled if adversely criticised. There is no surer evidence of a weak man than this; and to allow the Minister to indulge the habit is to impair his authority and to bewilder and harass the profession. Until Mr. Crooks's régime we have had little occasion to notice how much the value of an office depends on its incumbent. Need it, then, be wondered at if we ask whether, in maintaining a political head to the Department of Education, the public service is benefited, or should there not, as we pointed out last month, be a return to a Chief Superintendency, with the discreet and impartial direction of a Council of Public Instruction? However this question may be settled, and whatever the *School Journal* may say, we have yet to meet with anyone who has confidence in Mr. Crooks's judgment, or who feels that the interests of education are safe in his hands.

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#### "THE MOST CORRECT (!) MANUAL OF SPELLING."

If any one is curious to see how far educational journalism is becoming a sweet and tender calling, we would advise him to read the last issue of the *Canada School Journal*. The space occupied in the number with complimentary references to this magazine will surprise one. While we acknowledge these courtesies, we must add that it is confessedly difficult to please our friends, Messrs. Gage & Co. If we express an adverse judgment on any book issued by that estimable firm of publishers, a literary torpedo is instantly exploded under us. If our review is favourable, we have no better luck. How the firm can reconcile these inconsistencies is a riddle to us. Some eight months ago we reviewed, with considerable labour and carefulness, a veracious little manual entitled "Gage's Practical Speller." For our pains we were abused like a pickpocket. Last month, with like frankness and justice,

we set before our readers the merits of the same publishers' text book on Botany, and in acknowledgment we had our kindness thrown in our face. Just how to deal with Messrs. Gage & Co. it would be difficult to say. We want to do right, and to do and say the proper things in the proper way. Yet, whether we praise or blame, our reviews are referred to as the "ludicrously unjust criticisms" of the MONTHLY. How far our work deserves to be thus spoken of, let certain facts concerning the "Practical Speller" and the new "English Readers" bear witness.

To take the latter first, it will be remembered that in our April issue we exposed the utter unsuitableness of the series for use in Canadian schools. What follows, but the dispatch of the books to a literary infirmary for treatment—the diagnosis revealing "general debility and the entire break-up of the system." The "Speller," some little time before, had been under our hands, and was found to suffer from "rickets and other constitutional defects." It, too, was sent to the hospital to be operated upon.

Taking up the *School Journal* the other day, we were gratified to find that the "Speller," presumably convalescent, was abroad again. Naturally, our readers will believe us, we sought our friend out to congratulate him, and found him yet far from well, though he had the doctor's certificate of "a sure cure" pinned to his person. Doubtful of the cure, we read the hospital bulletin, which affirmed that "Gage's *Practical Speller* is now *the most correct Manual of Spelling* offered to Canadian teachers;" in proof of which it is announced that it is able to be printed on "Callendered (two 11's 1) paper," which should, of course, dispel all increduloussness.

Still dubious, we perused a special certificate, which read in this wise: "In order that this popular Manual for Spelling and Dictation should be *entirely free from errors*, we have had the plates recast (a graceful endorsement of the "ludicrously unjust criticisms" of the MONTHLY), and at the same time had the proofs read by the best au-

thority on the American Continent—a gentleman whose experience as proof-reader of Worcester's and Webster's Dictionaries is a guarantee of *perfect accuracy*."

What we have yet to relate will not be found complimentary to "the best authority on the American Continent." A few minutes' test of "perfect accuracy" led to our docketing the above away in our collection of "quack advertisements," and to our confidentially informing our "nearest and dearest" that we had no faith in man! Need we add, that until the firm try the CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY specifics, we despair of the restoration to health of "Gage's Practical Spelling Book."

#### HIGH SCHOOL MASTERS AND PROFESSIONAL TRAINING.

WITH the general notion that all teachers in our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes should have experience in teaching before beginning work in these Institutions, few will be disposed to quarrel. The more likely is this to be the case when we bear in mind how much of the training of our teachers is now done by the Secondary Schools. Therefore, one of the changes made by Mr. Crooks, for which something can be said, is the one requiring that all teachers in High Schools shall be teachers of a certain professional standing. Without any reservation, this is true as regards the heads of these schools. When we consider the responsibilities, the onerous duties, the delicate matters these gentlemen have to bear and deal with, manifestly it is a necessity for the well-being of the country that these masters should not only be men of learning and academic training, men of experience in the school-room, but also men of integrity and keen sense of honour. This being the case, we ask for them freedom from officialism by the Department, and intelligent support by local authorities. But it is a different matter when assistant masters are concerned. We are inclined to think that the Minister has been impolitic in requiring that each subordinate master is to have a first-class professional

certificate. It seems to us (and we say it with all due deference to the men who at the present time bear the heat and burden of the day) that too much ado is made about having a professional certificate. A person may, by assurance and a good deal of self-possession, capture a first-class certificate, and yet be a poor teacher; while a scholar of the highest attainments, and one who will give the country the very best service as a teacher, may be so constituted as to fail in his endeavour to secure the professional parchment. Instead of the course adopted by the Minister of Education, we would prefer that the principals of the various High Schools be allowed considerable latitude in the matter. They are the parties immediately concerned; and where the responsibility is, there the power to meet it should by all means reside.

Good ought to follow if all our educational authorities would ponder Napoleon's caution to the unthinking lady:—"Madame, respect the burden!" We fear the restriction will deprive the country of the services of some of the best teachers in our Secondary Schools. Graduates and Undergraduates should have an opportunity of helping themselves during their college course, without having to run the gauntlet of First-class Professional Examinations.

## ONTARIO TEACHERS' CONVENTION, 1882.

### HIGH SCHOOL MASTERS' SECTION.

THERE was, we learn, a fair attendance, and, as usual, much interest manifested in the proceedings of this Association. The New Regulations proposed by the Minister, of which the majority of members had heard little and seen nothing until their arrival at the Convention, threw much hesitation and uncertainty into the deliberations. A sense of relief, however, almost amounting to the joyous, was felt at the abolition of the hateful system of "Payment by Results;" and, if members did not feel inclined to welcome the coming, they were thoroughly in accord in speeding the parting, guest.

The proposed changes, we find from the daily press, were generally looked upon as not mere changes, but a revolution. The Minister's new method of distributing the legislative aid to High Schools was received with marked disfavour, and many teachers, representing all classes of schools, feared they would be crippled, if not ruined. The scheme arrived at presupposes that the Minister is determined to carry his own plan into effect, and that all that could be done was to induce him to make such changes as would mitigate in some degree its present defects. The resolution arrived at, we are informed, was merely acquiesced in, many not voting and not approving of the new basis of distributing legislative aid on the amount of teachers' salaries.

Only two papers were read in the Section: the first on "Proposed Changes in the Intermediate," by Mr. G. H. Robinson, Principal Whitby Collegiate Institute; and the second on "Legislative Aid to High Schools," by A. P. Knight, M.A., Principal of Kingston Collegiate Institute. We hope to be able at an early date to lay both of these valuable papers before our readers.

We give below the Resolutions passed by the Section, Mr. McHenry in the chair, and Mr. Robinson acting as Secretary.

#### 1. *Re* Departmental and University Examination:—

*Resolved*, That this High School Section call the attention of the Minister of Education to the fact that the Intermediate is generally concurrent with the Pass and Honor Examinations, Junior Matriculation, and Women's Local Examination, Toronto University; and it is the opinion of this Section that it would be better otherwise, as there are a great many High School students who wish to try both Examinations.

#### 2. *Re* the Intermediate Programme:—

*Resolved*, That the Secretary be authorized to communicate with the Minister, and represent to him that, in the opinion of this Section, in the Intermediate Programme, History and Geography should be removed from the optional to the obligatory list; and that, inasmuch as it will be difficult for the present for schools to provide properly qualified teachers in Drawing, that Drawing be included in 7 (e), so as to read: "Any two of the following four—French, German,

Music, and Drawing—one of which shall be French or German," and that clause 2 (2), on page 19, be amended in harmony with the foregoing.

3. *Re* the distribution of the Legislative Grant :—

*Resolved*, That inasmuch as the proposed scheme will bear hardly upon the smaller, and also upon many of the larger schools, which have been doing work worthy of Government encouragement, therefore the High School Section would respectfully recommend that the Minister of Education should modify his proposed scheme as follows :—

(1) Every High School to receive a fixed grant of \$500.

(2) Every High School employing two (2) teachers, to receive in addition 25 per cent. of excess of salaries above \$1,500 to \$2,000, *i.e.*, \$125 for the maximum allowance under this head.

(3) In addition, every High School employing three (3) teachers to receive 40 per cent. of excess of salaries above \$2,000 up to \$4,500, *i.e.*, \$1,000 as a maximum under this head.

(4) Every Collegiate Institute to receive a fixed grant of \$500.

(5) In addition, every Collegiate Institute to receive 25 per cent. of salaries in excess of \$5,000 up to \$6,250, *i.e.*, \$250 as a maximum grant under this head.

Furthermore, that if the Minister cannot see his way to the adoption of this scheme, the Section is of opinion that it should be adopted in spirit, so that the grant may be distributed in recognition of the claims of the smaller schools, and that the encouragement given by the Government should be continuous from the smallest to the largest and best equipped schools.

4. Report adopted respecting Toronto University Examinations :—

(1) That the Secretary be authorized to communicate with the Senate of Toronto University, and represent that, in the opinion of this Section, it is advisable for the Senate to issue specific instructions to its examiners for Junior and Senior Matriculation.

(2) That the instructions should embody—  
(a) The necessity of the examiners, in their questions, remaining strictly within the limits assigned in the curriculum. (b) In the papers set in languages, specific instructions should be given in regard to the proportionate values of the parts relating to translation, grammatical and critical questions, re-translation, composition and sight-work. (c) In Mathematics, similar instructions in regard to the proportionate values of questions in book-work, and riders and prob-

lems. (a) In History, English, Geography and Literature, instructions which will ensure that the papers set in these subjects shall fairly cover the grounds prescribed, and not be confined to a particular part or particular parts, and thus be one-sided in the treatment of the subjects.

(3) That the representative of the High School Masters in the Senate be requested to use his efforts to secure the passing of a resolution of the Senate authorizing the issuing of the above instructions, and, if necessary, more explicitly to represent to the Senate the opinions of the Masters in regard to this matter.

5. Respecting the death of S. A. Marling, M.A. :—

*Resolved*, That the High School Section of the Teachers' Association desire to express their sincere regret at the death of the late S. Arthur Marling, M.A., High School Inspector, and their heartfelt sympathy with the bereaved family. Mr. Marling possessed many qualities fitting him for the position which he ably filled for many years; and by his death the country lost one of her ablest classical scholars, and the cause of education one of her best friends. The High School Masters feel that the educational institutions of the country suffered a severe loss in Mr. Marling's untimely death, and do hereby express their appreciation of Mr. Marling's ripe scholarship, high Christian character, and untiring efforts in the cause of education.

On motion, the following Committees were struck :—The Executive Committee—Messrs. Robinson, Bryant, Oliver, Hunter, and Inspector Dearness; Legislative Committee—Messrs. McHenry, Purslow, and McMurchy.

The following Memorandum, in reference to a letter in *The Mail and Globe*, was received from the Minister during the Session :—

#### MEMORANDUM.

The letter signed *Amans Patrie* proceeds upon a misapprehension of the intention of the Regulations.

1. A distinction is to be observed between the First Class *Provincial Certificate* and the Certificate described by the Regulations as the *Professional Certificate*.

2. For the purpose of qualifying High School Assistants who are not in possession of the First Class *Provincial Certificate*, it is provided that a Graduate may pass in the *professional* subjects of the First Class Ex-



amination without being required to pass in the non-professional subjects.

3. The same privilege is secured for Undergraduates of the Fourth Year who have passed the Examination for the Third Year.

4. Those who are not yet prepared to qualify in the modes above described, have still the opportunity allowed by the former Regulations of obtaining a special Certificate, if the circumstances are deemed such as to warrant this privilege.

WE have much pleasure in calling the attention of the profession to a course of lectures on Sound, which are at present being delivered, under the auspices of the Canadian Institute, Toronto, by Dr. Koenig, an accomplished acoustician of Paris, and Prof. Loudon, of University College. The lectures, six in number, are to be illustrated by a series of novel and interesting experiments explanatory of the phenomena of Sounds, their qualities and propagation, the methods of studying and communicating vibrations, and other curious matter embraced in the science of acoustics. The opportunity of witnessing these experiments conducted by eminent specialists of our own and other lands should not be omitted by such of our High School Masters, at least, as are interested in scientific studies and the methods of scientific investigation. Application for tickets for the course may be made to Mr. James Bain, jr., the Honorary Secretary of the Canadian Institute.

THE trouble with modest merit is, that, from want of confidence, it rarely does itself justice. If the correspondence of the MONTHLY continues to be of the flattering character of that we have recently received, we shall soon bravely get over the disadvantages from which we have hitherto suffered. Here are extracts from two letters to this office lately to hand. We trust we shall be pardoned in publishing them. One communication, we ought to say, enclosed \$5 for the back volumes of the MONTHLY. We borrow a phrase from a contemporary: "Acts speak louder than words!"

"Permit me to add a word expressing my unqualified admiration of the honest and manly course pursued by you in the MONTHLY, in upholding the dignity of the profession, and in waging valiant warfare against the sham and aimless tinkering that has of late years been practised by the educational powers that be. Yours truly, ———."

"The C. E. MONTHLY is deserving of the highest commendation for the thoroughly independent course it has taken, for still man-

fully performing a noble work, neither bowing nor cringing before any class or any monopolist; but faithfully, honestly, and perseveringly performing its duty to all true friends of education. Yours very faithfully, ———."

For these encouraging and appreciative words we return our correspondents our grateful thanks. We are human and we like them.

SINCE Dr. Goldwin Smith's return to Canada we have repeatedly been asked if there is any likelihood of a resumption of the *Bystander*. Our readers will be glad to learn that there is, the pressure brought to bear on the brilliant magazinist having been effectual in extorting the promise to issue the periodical quarterly, beginning with the first of the year. A new volume of much interest may also be looked for at an early date from Professor Smith's pen. The work, we understand, will be entitled "British Policy," and will review many questions of the day on which its learned author holds decided opinions, to wit: Party Government, Hereditary Monarchy, the Established Church, the Irish, Foreign, Colonial, and Fiscal Policy of England, etc., etc.

WESTON HIGH SCHOOL, in a modest but self-possessed way, has just issued a record of the work of the institution at the last University and Intermediate Examinations, together with a synopsis of results since 1875. The results are highly creditable to the school, and evidence the careful scholarship and high professional standing of the principal, Mr. George Wallace, B.A. The school, it appears, has a record, since 1875, of 15 University matriculants, who took 17 honors in subjects ranging over the entire school course, together with a goodly array of subsequent honors and scholarships. During the same period, 51 out of 70 of its candidates passed the Intermediate. Thorough work will always tell.

MR. ARCHIBALD LAMPMAN, of Toronto, has received the appointment to the Classical Mastership in the Orangeville High School. Mr. Lampman is a son of Rev. A. Lampman, and has had a distinguished scholastic career both in the Port Hope School and in Trinity College, ranking first each year in both of these institutions, and bearing away the leading prizes, honors, and scholarships. We have seen some of Mr. Lampman's contributions to the press of verse and essay writing, which are full of excellent promise. We congratulate Orangeville on obtaining Mr. Lampman's services.