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THE CANADA
EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY
AND SCHOOL MAGAZINE.

FEBRUARY, 1883.

MR. GLADSTONE'S SCHOOL-DAYS.

WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE entered Eton in September 1821. His two elder brothers, Thomas and Robertson, had already been some time at the school, and Thomas was in the fifth form. William was soon to be his fag. When the London coach had set down the three brothers at the door of the Christopher Inn, they had not far to go to reach their boarding-house, which was just over the way. It was kept by a dame, Mrs. Shurey, and, by reason of its vicinity to the famous inn, was looked upon by the boys as most eligibly situated. It was, however, the worst of all houses for study; and it doubles the merits of Gladstone's achievements at Eton that he should have been able to work in such a place. To the "Christopher" came many times a-day coaches and post-chaises from all points of the compass; on Fridays, which were market-days in Eton, the farmers held their ordinary there; and squires, drovers, pedlars, recruiting-sergeants, and oc-

casional village wenches who came in to be hired as servants, clustered under the porch. From their barred windows the boys at Shurey's, who were idly disposed, would often watch diverting sights, and not unfrequently their slumbers would be disturbed at nights by the untuneful choruses sung in the coffee-room after hunt dinners.

"UNCONTAMINATED AMID CORRUPTION."

It had apparently been fated that the soundness of Gladstone's moral nature should be tried at the very outset of his school life by the perilous character of his surroundings. But he passed quite unscathed through temptations, and so did George Selwin, the future bishop of New Zealand, who boarded at the same house, and who became early one of his best friends. These two and their brothers—for the two Selwyns and the three Gladstones all deserve the same praise—remained uncontaminated amid corruptions which are known to have had

a seriously damaging effect upon some other boys less finely constituted. In Mr. Gladstone's own words, the boys of his house became for the most part "a very distinguished set."

GLADSTONE'S TUTOR.

Gladstone was placed in the middle remove of the fourth form. That was not a bad placing for a boy who was barely twelve years old, as in those days when boys went to Eton much younger than they do now, few new comers escaped a probationary stage in the lower school. His tutor was the Rev. Henry Hartopp Knapp, an excellent scholar, and a pleasant, very pleasant fellow, but a curious cleric, and as a tutor by no means exemplary. He and another master, the Rev. Benjamin Drury, were passionately fond of theatres; and Mr. Maxwell Lyt., in his interesting "History of Eton," mentions into what queer freaks their love of the drama often led them. They were in the habit of going up to London whenever any performance of special attraction was to take place. They would leave Eton on Saturday afternoon and return on Monday morning in time (or not in time) for early school, looking over exercises as they drove along in their curricule. Sometimes they would each take a favoured pupil to see the play, and to sup and sleep at "Hummums" or the "Bedford" in Covent Garden.

Gladstone and his friends, by leading blameless lives, and striving to learn more than their masters taught them, truly gave more to Eton in the manner of example than they took from it. Besides the Selwyns and Arthur Hallam, Gladstone's principal friends were J. Milnes Gaskell, Francis H. Doyle, John Hanmer (afterwards Lord Hanmer), Frederick Rogers (Lord Blachford), J. W. Colville (Right Hon. Sir J., afterwards Chief Justice at Calcutta, etc.), W. E. Jelf

(Rev.), J. H. Iaw. P. A. Pickering, W. W. Farr, and Charles Wilder.

MATHEMATICS AND RELIGIOUS TEACHING.

It is more than strange to hear that the future Chancellor of the Exchequer (the greatest financier of a financing age) was taught no mathematics at Eton, and hardly any arithmetic. . . . Gladstone received no religious teaching either. In 1822 the Rev. John Wilder, now Senior Fellow, became one of the assistant masters; and two years later the Rev. James Chapman, afterwards Bishop of Colombo, was added to the number. These two gentlemen, more earnest than most of their colleagues, sought to introduce a Greek Testament lesson once a week, and they succeeded after a time; but not without much difficulty, as the other masters disliked the innovation, and Dr. Keate hoped little good from it.

ETON BOYS AT CHURCH.

The manner in which Sundays were spent in those days would have gone far to defend Eton against any charge of being a sectarian school; it might even have raised a question as to whether, although all its masters were clergymen, it could rightly be called an ecclesiastical foundation. The boys used to lie in bed till nearly ten, as Sunday "private business" (which consists now of a scriptural lesson) was not yet thought of. At half-past ten they attended a service in chapel, and it was a common complaint among the parishioners of Eton, many of whom had sittings in the choir, that the boys in the higher forms used not to enter chapel until the last stroke of the bell, when they would rush in all together, helter-skelter, shoving one another, laughing, and making as much noise as possible. The noblemen, or "nobs," and the sixth form, occupied stalls, and it was

customary that every occupant of a stall should, on taking his seat for the first time, distribute amongst his neighbours packets of almonds and raisins, which were eaten *during the service*. Between 2 and 3 P.M. all the forms below the sixth (but not the Lower School) had to muster in the upper school-room, where Dr. Keate gave out the subjects for the week's Latin theme, and then gabbled out some pages from the "Maxims" of Epictetus, or a few extracts from Blair's "Sermons." During this performance some of the boys, having brought pens and ink with them, would dash off their themes, while the others kept up a continuous uproar. Keate, quacking like an angry duck, to use Alexander Kinglake's description of his wife, would now and again demand silence, but it was the custom of the boys to be deliberately obstreperous at this Sunday class, which they called "Rose" (Keate called it "Prayers"), and the headmaster so far tolerated the scandal that he only made a show of trying to suppress it by occasionally picking out some of the worst among the rioters and flogging them. Being indiscriminating in his punishments, as despots generally are, he once wanted to flog Gladstone because the latter's hat was knocked out of his hand by a boy nudging his elbow. "Playing at cricket with your hat, eh?" he screamed from his desk. It was with some trouble the accused demonstrated that there had been no offence, but only an accident. Keate's distrust of schoolboy honour, however, was inveterate. "Well, I must flog somebody for this," he quacked. "Find me the boy who gave you the nudge."

PUZZLING THE PEDAGOGUE.

On one occasion Gladstone, being præpostor of his form, had omitted to mark down a friend who had come late into school. A birch was at once

called for, and Keate magniloquently upbraided as a breach of trust that which seems to have been only a lapse of memory. "If you please, sir," argued the future statesman, then fourteen years old, "my præpostorship would have been an office of trust if I had sought it of my own accord, *but it was forced upon me.*" Keate might have answered that the offices of sheriff and of juryman are forced upon the holders, who nevertheless are required to discharge them with diligence; but he was a very sophist, always more disposed to admire the ingenuity of a tortuous excuse than to put faith in a candid explanation. Mr. Gladstone admits now that his defence was more culpable than the fault; but if he had not succeeded in puzzling the small wits of his master, that peevish pedagogue would have flogged him.

Arthur Hallam had gone to Eton in the same year as Gladstone, and they were both in the same form, Gladstone being several places above his friend. Dr. Keate used once a week to take the "remove" for a lesson of Horace, and the fourth form for a lesson of Cæsar; and he soon singled out Gladstone, Hallam, and J. Colvile as good boys to "call up," because they seemed to take some interest in their lessons.

FAGGING ADVENTURES.

Gladstone and Hallam only remained lower boys for about eighteen months. During most of that time Gladstone fagged for his brother Thomas, and he was lucky in having a brother who did not drive about in gigs, as it was a common custom for fast upper boys to do. The fags of these fast ones would be sent to the livery stables to order traps, and sometimes their masters would take them out to act as "tigers" during drives to Salt Hill or to Marsh's Inn at Maidenhead, a favourite place of resort, as

there was a cockpit there. On one of these outings in a curricie a horse bolted, and the driver, brutalised by terror, ordered his fag to jump on to the horse's back and saw at his bit. The foolhardy feat was accomplished, and the horse stopped, but the small boy's arms were almost pulled out of their sockets, and one of them got badly dislocated. This boy boarded at Shurey's, and it fell to Gladstone's lot to embrocate his shoulder with vinegar, until it was seen that the injury could not be repaired without help from a doctor.

Gladstone himself never had such grievous fagging adventures as this.

Touching fags, it may be mentioned that, when it came to Gladstone's own turn to be a fag-master, one among the servitors he had was George Mellish, son of the Dean of Hereford. Master and fag lost sight of each other after both had left school; but years afterwards it became Mr. Gladstone's duty, as Prime Minister, to offer a Lord Justiceship to George Mellish. "I wrote to him as 'Dear sir,'" says Mr. Gladstone, "having no idea that I was addressing an old fag of mine; but a few days later, as we were going down to Windsor, we met on the platform at Paddington, and he reminded me of the relation in which he had formerly stood towards me. All recollection of him had unaccountably slipped from my memory, until he thus unexpectedly reintroduced himself."

Another of Gladstone's fags was John Smith Mansfield, now a police magistrate at Marlborough Street Court. Mr. Mansfield says of him: "He was not exacting, and I had an easy time of it. I cannot remember doing anything more than laying out his breakfast and tea table, and occasionally doing an errand. As Gladstone was about five years my senior, there was an immense distance between us. I recall him as a good-

looking, rather delicate youth, with a pale face, and brown, curling hair—always tidy and well-dressed—not given much to athletic exercises, but occasionally sculling, playing cricket, and hockey."

A PLEA FOR THE PIGS.

It used to be customary for a boy on promotion to the fifth form to give a supper in his room; and afterwards to recite a satirical ode, passing comments on all the other fellows in his boarding-house. These productions were often very coarse, for it was an understood thing that the authors of them were never to be molested by those whom they abused. Gladstone in his fifth form poem eschewed all personalities, but conveyed his opinion with great vigour on some of the abuses rife in the school, and in particular on cruelties that used to be practised towards pigs at the Eton fair that was held every Ash Wednesday. A barbarous usage had arisen for boys to hustle the drivers and then cut off the tails of the pigs. Gladstone gave great offence by remarking that the boys who were foremost in this kind of butchery were the first to quake at the consequences of detection, and he dared them, as they were proud of their work, to sport the trophies of it in their hats. On the following Ash Wednesday he found three newly-amputated pig-tails hung in a bunch on his door, with a paper bearing this inscription:—

"Quisquis amat porcos, porcis amabitur
illic;
Cauda sit exemplum ter repetita tibi."

Gladstone wrote underneath a challenge to the despoilers of the pigs to come forth and take a receipt for their offering which he would mark—"In good round hand upon your faces;" but the statesman, who, in his seventy-fourth year, fells trees for amusement, was already, as

a boy, a tough foe to deal with, and his invitation met with no response. It would be pleasant if one could add that after this the pigs had a better time of it; but their miseries only ceased when the Ash Wednesday fair was abolished under Dr. Hawtrey.

A VISIT FROM CANNING.

A few weeks after Byron's death, Mr. Canning came down to Eton for the 4th of June, and found time to have nearly an hour's chat with the son of his principal supporter in the famous Liverpool election of 1812. Canning's career exercised the greatest fascination over young Gladstone's mind, and on that privileged day when he took the Foreign Secretary to see his room, and then walked about college listening to his advice and to his remarks about some of the important topics of the day, the fascination became complete and lasting. It was doubtless from a happy recollection of his own precocity that Canning did not speak to his young admirer as a boy about childish things; he must have seen the sparkle of hero-worship in Gladstone's eyes, and he laid himself out to produce a deep impression by emitting on all subjects those generous sentiments which leave their mark on a boy's understanding.

GLADSTONE AS AN EDITOR.

Just before Gladstone entered Eton, in 1821, the *Etonian*, edited by Winthrop Mackworth Praed, had run its short, brilliant career; and Gladstone, though a lower boy, got acquainted with some of the contributors to that periodical, who used to come and breakfast with his brother Thomas. Among them were Richard Durnford (whom "Gladstone minor" afterwards appointed Bishop of Chichester), Walter Trower (who became Bishop of Gib-

ralter), Chauncey Hare-Townshend, and Edmund Beales (who acquired glory of a certain sort during the Hyde Park riots of 1866). These school worthies had acquired a real renown through their writings; and as Gladstone rose to the higher forms, the purpose of founding a magazine naturally suggested itself to him as one of the only methods that lay open to him for achieving scholastic distinction. Nowadays the talents of schoolboys find plenty of scope in competitions for prizes and scholarships, and, as a consequence, the various Eton periodicals started during the last thirty years have been very poor. Their staffs have been recruited from among boys not successful in school work—youthful eccentrics, triflers, *blasis*, and such like. But in Gladstone's days there were no prizes or scholarships, and very few examinations. When a boy had once got into the fifth, he obtained his removes to the middle and upper division without trials, and eventually ascended to the sixth by seniority—there being only ten collegers and ten oppidans in that head form. Gladstone was "sent up" several times for his verses, but this was the only honour to which he and boys of his description could aspire. Thus the very best material in the school was always available for independent literary work.

It is to be noted, however, that if there was always plenty of talent at Eton, able editors were as scarce there as elsewhere. The only three school periodicals which stand out as exceptionally good—the *Micrococosm*, the *Etonian*, and the *Miscellany*—were edited by boys who possessed great firmness of character as well as genius and judgment. Canning, Mackworth Praed, and Gladstone all knew how to recruit a staff, keep it up to the best standard

of work, and prevent its members from falling out. If he had not become a statesman, he might have done wonders in conducting a London daily newspaper.

CAPACITY FOR WORK.

Gladstone was always merry enough; but he was not one of those boys who can be called "merry fellows." Whilst he edited his magazine, he used to stupefy his fags by his prodigious capacity for work. His table and open bureau would be littered with "copy" and proofs; he suffered, like other editors, from the plague of MSS., and had to read quires of proffered contributions that were unacceptable; and yet he always found time to do his school-work well. Dr. Keate, carper as he was, could find no fault in him; and even ended by taking him into special favour, as undoubtedly one of the best and most industrious scholars in the school. Probably no other boy ever got such praise from Dr. Keate as Gladstone did, when the headmaster said to him:—"You belong to the Literati (Pop.), and of course you say there all that's on your mind. I wish I could hear you without your being aware of my presence; I am sure I should hear a speech that would give me pleasure."

"A WORD to those who are fortunate enough to have a mixed school of boys and girls. I say 'fortunate,' for it seems that the only true way to prepare the coming man and woman to walk side by side through life is to teach them to stay together in the schoolroom. Each loses the unattractive shyness and painful self-consciousness which marks the first association of the boy and girl who have been educated apart. The boy needs the gentleness and inspiratory stimulus, of the girl's presence, and the girl finds in the independent strength of the boy the necessary complement to her own nature. In such a school the opportunities are countless for the proper adjustment of the life relations. Above all things let us dis-

THE ACKNOWLEDGED HEAD OF ETON

The Eton *Miscellany* continued to appear until its editor left Eton at Christmas, 1827. He had then been a whole year in the sixth form; but he had not become Captain of Oppidans, for one boy who was his senior remained at the school much longer than was usual; and, as already explained, places in the sixth were only to be conquered by time, not by merit. Gladstone was, however, president of the Debating Society and the acknowledged head of Eton in literary attainments and oratory. He helped to revive the prestige of "Pop.," which was on the wane when he entered it, though he never saw it in such a flourishing condition as it has been in these latter times, when there are always candidates to fill every vacancy. In Gladstone's days the society often found it difficult to recruit suitable members. Mr. Mansfield says of this society:—"Poorly educated as Etonians were by Dr. Keate, they did a great deal in educating each other. The Debating Society drew their attention to history and politics; and all the printed speeches of statesmen in the last century, and the beginning of the present, were known to the young debaters.—*Temple Bar.*

countenance any compulsory association between the sexes, as a penalty, thus preventing the true intention of sex association by the Creator. The boy and girl should be sent to each other for assistance in lessons, whenever desirable, and any hesitation arising on either side should be entirely ignored by the teacher. A boy who is taught from boyhood to seek for opportunities to help his girl acquaintances is not going to be the man to oppose a broader channel for women; and the girl who is early taught to gratefully recognize this chivalry of boyhood, will not grow to be the woman to ask for an unwomanly sphere."—*New England Journal of Education.*

MORAL AND LITERARY TRAINING IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

BY JOHN B. PEASLEE, LL.D.

I SHALL not discuss the methods by which English literature is now taught in our high schools and colleges, as the literary work which I shall advocate in this paper will not interfere in the least with that which these institutions are endeavouring to accomplish, but will be additional and supplementary to their noble work. That my position may not be misunderstood, I desire to say in the outset that I am decidedly in favour of retaining the present systematic study of English literature as a *distinct branch* in these institutions; instead of substituting anything for this work, as some erroneously suppose, I would give much more of it. In my opinion, however, our high-school course of study in English literature *should begin with the authors of to-day (American) and go back to Chaucer*, instead of beginning with Chaucer and coming down to the present time.

I desire, before entering fully upon my subject, to call the attention of educators to some of the mistakes that must be corrected before the public schools of our country can reach the highest standard of excellence in literary and moral training. One of these is the disproportionate amount of time given to the subject of arithmetic. Arithmetic has been and ever must be one of the fundamental branches of our common-school curriculum, and I yield to no man in my estimate of the importance of the subject, both in regard to what is usually considered as its practical bearing upon the business affairs of life, and its excellence as a means of mental discipline. Nor am

I among those who would cut down the course of study in arithmetic to a few subjects, to those only that are generally considered absolutely necessary for all to know, to that only which is called "practical." Practical all there is a higher practical than the mere use that some of us make of it in adding up our grocers' bills, or perchance in calculating discount and interest. The mental discipline, the strengthening of the mind, the intellectual power that the scholar obtains by the study of this subject, is the *real practical*, the *higher practical*. It will never do to confine our courses of study in mathematics to that only which popular opinion considers practical. I object, therefore, not that there is too much ground covered in the arithmetic, or that it is too well taught, but that there is too much time given to it.*

* This has grown out of the mistaken notion of parents and teachers that the more time there is given to a study, the more the pupils will necessarily learn of that study. Paradoxical as it may seem, the children of our *district schools* would learn just as much arithmetic as they now do if less than one half of the present average amount of time were given to it. A little child can learn something of a number of subjects, and not much of any one. It can learn as much arithmetic on an average, in one hour a day as in ten; for in the hour its mind will take all it can assimilate, and any attempt to teach it more than this becomes a cramming, a stultifying process, and defeats its own end.

Teachers should therefore bear in mind, in making out their time-tables of study and recitations, that only a limited amount of time per day can be profitably given to any one subject in the lower grades of the schools.

It will be remembered that in London a few years ago half-time schools were established for the youth who were compelled by necessity to work in factories, etc. The school inspectors thought, of course, the pupils who attended these schools could accomplish only one half as much as those who attended the full time. Imagine their surprise and astonishment to find, after careful and thorough investigation, that the half-time pupils not only kept up with the others, but surpassed them in their studies. Let me say

President Andrews, of Marietta, Ohio, who is known to be exceedingly accurate in his statements, says that more than one half of the time of the schools of that State, outside of the cities and large towns, is given to arithmetic. Think of it: more time devoted to this one subject than to reading, writing, spelling, geography, and grammar combined; none to literature and composition! And what is true of the schools of Ohio in this respect is true of those of most, at least, of the other States. Let the teachers of these schools cut down the time given to this subject to within the bounds of reason; introduce composition, letter-writing, and business forms; let them stop working puzzles in mathematics which are about as profitable as the famous fifteen puzzle, and turn their attention to reading, to improving themselves in literature, to acquainting themselves with the lives and writings of great authors: and let them take the results of that work into their school-rooms, and they would revolutionize the country schools of the United States.

In our city schools, less time, to be sure, is given in the programmes; still, taking into consideration the amount of home work required of the pupils, and the extra time taken to "bring up" the arithmetic, it is entirely too much. A half-hour per day in the lower grades, and forty minutes in the upper, are amply sufficient. But the teachers have been made to feel that high per cents in arithmetic are the *sine qua non* of their success; hence, driving and cramming for per cents largely take the place of judicious teaching, to the great detriment of the pupils.

Fellow teachers, let us use all our

here, by way of parenthesis, that the fault of too much study for little children lies in the direction of cramming in some of the branches, and not in the variety of studies: that diversity in mental labour is less laborious than much dwelling on one or a few subjects. As many subjects, therefore, as can be taught *well* should be taught.

influence against this cramming, stultifying process, and teach according to the natural, the objective, the developing method; inspire our pupils with higher and nobler aspirations than are to be found in monthly averages: and let the measure of time be devoted to each subject, and the methods employed in teaching the same, be determined, not by the question, How shall we obtain the highest per cents? but by what will best benefit our pupils in after-life. This done, and there will not only be better instruction in all the branches, but much more prominence will be given to language, to composition, and to literature; and our youth will grow up under such tuition to be more intelligent, useful, and influential citizens.

Another mistake—one which has a more direct bearing on my subject, as it affects the tastes of pupils for reading—is the pernicious method of teaching history usually pursued. I refer to the stultifying process of compelling the children of our schools to commit to memory text-books in this subject. No historian, as no mineralogists or chemist, was ever made by committing text-books to memory. History cannot be taught successfully by the *memoriter* plan. It kills the life of the subject. It disgusts the pupils, and gives them a dislike for historical reading. As the pupils take no interest in the subject, it is soon forgotten, and there remains only the bitter recollection of tiresome hour: devoted to what, if properly taught, brings profit and pleasure. As one of the principal objects of this paper is to show how to interest our youth in good reading, I will briefly explain, not only how history can be made intensely interesting and exceedingly instructive to pupils, but how a love of historical research can be implanted in them that will remain with them through life, and very largely influence their subsequent reading. First, all

written percented examinations in this subject should be abolished. What is said in the text-book upon the topic under consideration should be read by the pupils under the direction of the teacher. The teacher should see that they thoroughly understand what they read, and at each lesson question them in brief review of the previous lesson. She should read, or cause to be read, parts of other histories or reference books (encyclopædias, gazetteers, etc.) that bear upon the subject of the lesson. She should also give out questions, the answers to which the pupils are to find for themselves; and should encourage them in relating historical anecdotes and in giving sketches of noted events to their classmates.

But history should be taught principally by *biography*. Biography is the *soul* of history. The life of a great personage, as of Cromwell, Napoleon, or Washington, contains nearly everything of importance in the history of the time and country in which he lived. Nothing is more entertaining to the young than the lives of the great men and women who have borne a prominent part in the world. I am not advocating a new theory. This method has been tried for two years in Cincinnati: and in one school alone, more than five hundred historical and biographical sketches were read within the past year, and in one class sixty-one biographical sketches were given by the pupils to their classmates; and the constant allusion to other lives than those under actual discussion led to a wide field of further research. Let me say here, that in a class in United States history, I would not confine the biographical work to our own country, but would encourage the children to read and recite sketches of noted personages of other countries and of different ages. If the method briefly indicated above be pursued, the pu-

pils will become enthusiastic in the subject of history, and will gain a vast amount of valuable information of which they would otherwise remain in ignorance; but above all, they will form the habit of and a taste for reading good books, which will remain with them through life.

Another mistake consists in giving too much time in the reading lesson to mere *imitative* reading, and not enough to logical analysis, to ascertaining the meaning of the words and sentences. Children should be impressed with the fact that the principal object of reading is to obtain the ideas and thoughts of others; and therefore they should early accustom themselves to ascertaining the meaning of what they read, that no word, no sentence, may be passed over without being understood. Let me say that the dictionary should be the almost constant companion of the pupils of our Grammar and High Schools. Would you neglect the elocutionary side of the subject? I am asked. By no means. No one places a higher value on elocution, on the beautiful rendering of the reading lesson, than I do; but I insist that it is the duty of the teacher to see that the passage is thoroughly understood by the pupils before the attempt is made to drill them in elocution.

Another mistake is to be found in the fact that the almost universal tendency in this country of late years has been to crowd too much into the High School course, by putting in subjects which properly belong to Colleges and Universities. To attempt, as I said in one of my annual reports, to make the High School a substitute for the College and University, must result in failure. The pupils are too young. They have not the maturity of mind required to comprehend thoroughly such a course of study. In my opinion, much of the present opposition to the High

School system is directly due to this cause. To remedy the defects and make the High Schools more efficient and popular, there should be a more judicious selection of studies, and much more time should be given to English Literature and to Composition. At least one lesson per day should be devoted to these subjects throughout the entire course.

Gems of Literature.—Morality, if under this head, may be placed honesty, patriotism, and good-will to men, ought to come within the scope of school work ; for morality in this sense is the dearest element of the good citizen, and the good citizen is the prime object of education. Our country has less lack of intelligence than of public honesty and private fair dealing, less lack of knowledge than of inclination towards a noble life ; which facts show that something in the present order of society is either fundamentally wrong or deplorably weak. But where shall we seek a remedy? When and how begin to mend? The subject of a moral progress does not belong solely to the religious world. It is not altogether a matter of religion ; it is a matter of that good sense, that idea of public utility which considers the welfare of the immediate present, and looks with a benevolent eye to an improved manhood in the future. For morality is almost as beautiful when viewed as a guiding element to man in this world's transactions as it is when viewed as an essential to happiness in the world to come.

We cannot serve the future of this world in a better way than in taking care of the present of the children. It is in our power greatly to elevate the world in morals. We can do this by introducing into our present educational system a factor whose object shall be to give the proper direction to the child's thoughts ; to implant in his mind correct conceptions of

the world and his place in it, true ideas of his duty to his neighbour and his country, and of his relations to the inferior world around him, which, sinking deeper and deeper with each generation, shall eventually supplant evil, and leave a soul worthy of the inspection of gods. "As a man thinketh, so is he." Children should be led to think properly, that they may be enabled to act justly and generously ; and it would be far safer both for them and the community if their acts were directed by fixed principles than by sudden and untrustworthy impulses. Now, as it is undeniable that to many the age of maturity does not bring with it those established ideas of right and wrong, those healthy conceptions which characterize the model citizen, I for one feel the necessity for a new feature in education, whose object shall be advancement in a moral way. I consider it our duty to attempt what I have indicated above. We owe it to the pupils, as being our fellow-creatures ; to the State, as being essential to that good citizenship which is the first object of free education.

The question is as to the method. My idea, as many of you know, is to make use of the gems of literature.

The literature of the world embodies a universal moral creed. In its fulness here and there may be found the holy teachings of the Bible, in language pleasing to the ear of youth, and in form adapted to his understanding. It inculcates all the substantial teachings of the Scriptures without awakening the suspicion that the private realm of devotional form is to be invaded.

A broad-minded selection of noble passages, though it may not be able to do all we could wish in a moral way, can certainly do much to raise men to a high moral, political, and social plane. It may not make men prayerful, but it can make them re-

spectful and respectable. It may not give them the wisdom of statesmen, but it can make them intelligent voters and fervent patriots. It may not fit them for a future life, but it can do much towards making this one pleasant to themselves and to their fellow-men. It can put a light into their hearts that will illumine many of earth's darkest places.

I believe that gems of literature introduced into our schools, if properly taught, will be able to do these things; partly by their own directive influence on the young mind, but principally as being such a draught upon the fountain of higher literature as shall result in an abiding thirst for noble reading. The right kind of reading will induce the right kind of thinking, and proper thinking will insure correct acting.

What harmony the introduction of literature into our schools assures us! The religious world will get from it all it ever asked or expected from the Bible. The secular world will get from it nothing it could possibly object to. At the shrine of noble thoughts the devotees of all creeds may bow as brothers. Let the public schools be the instrument of forming this common love for the noble and beautiful, and who but will acknowledge they have performed a work of greatest utility to man, and added a thousand fold to their present value as factors in human progress? Heretofore the boy's education has been no broader than his business expectations; his happiness as a man and his worth as a citizen have not been taken into account. The principles are too narrow for an age that is looking for good men as well as for good accountants and grammarians. They are unnecessarily narrow; they leave, as it were, broad fields of noble soil untilled, and this soil must be tilled to bear fruit. For example, a man cannot be a patriot, except nega-

tively, until he has been led to understand and value patriotism. But on abstract or grand subjects, like patriotism, there is an unwillingness or incapacity in most minds to think. Such minds must be enlarged before patriotism can be anything to them but a barren name; but may not patriotic passages, under a wise teacher, promote the necessary growth? For who, even among the educated, has not felt a tinge of shame at the dullness of his own patriotism on reading Grimké's beautiful lines, "We cannot honor our country with too deep a reverence. We cannot love her with an affection too pure and fervent. We cannot serve her with an energy of purpose or a faithfulness of zeal too steadfast and ardent. And what is our country? It is not the East, with her hills and her valleys, with her countless sails, and the rocky ramparts of her shores? It is not the North, with her thousand villages and her harvest-home, with her frontiers of the lake and the ocean. It is not the West, with her forest-sea and her inland isles, with her luxuriant expanses clothed in the verdant corn, with her beautiful Ohio and her majestic Missouri. Nor is it yet the South, opulent in the mimic snow of her cotton, in the rich plantations of the rustling cane, and in the golden robes of her rice-fields. What are these but the sister-families of one greater, better, holier family — our country?" Or Scott's, beginning,—

"Breathes there a man with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
'This is my own, my native land?'"

What I have said of patriotism applies to all the elements of great mindedness.

The practice, therefore, of memorizing the choice thoughts of our best writers should be made a prominent feature of school work. Oliver Wendell Holmes says, "There is no place which an author's thoughts can nestle

in so securely as the memory of a school boy or a school girl." It is also in accord with the advice of Arthur Helps, who says, "We should lay up in our minds a store of goodly thoughts in well-wrought words, which shall be a living treasure of knowledge always with us, and from which, at various times, and amidst all the shifting of circumstances, we may be sure of drawing some comfort, guidance, and sympathy."

The idea of its introduction is not new in the history of education. In a similar manner the Germans have been long in the habit of training their children in the knowledge and admiration of the literature of their own land. The Arabs, the most civilized nation of the ancient world, taught their young to repeat the undying thoughts of their poets, under the beautiful name of "unstrung pearls."

Plato pictures the boys on long benches in the schools of Greece, receiving moral instruction through learning and reciting the poetry of her classic authors.

For the greater part, the selections for the younger children should consist of entire pieces, and of such as are calculated to develop their emotional natures—the imagination, love of home and parents, kindness to dumb animals, etc.—and to give them correct rules of action. Those for the more advanced pupils should consist principally of brief extracts, containing grand and ennobling thoughts calculated to incite them to higher aspirations in life, to lead them into pure fields of English literature, and to teach them to love and reverence our great authors. In the selection of gems, poetry has the preference, for it inculcates a double beauty—beauty of thought and beauty of composition. It is more easily committed, and as a rule longer retained. "The taste for harmony, the poetical

ear," says Miss Aiken, "if ever acquired, is so almost in infancy. The flow of numbers easily impresses itself on the memory, and is with difficulty erased. By the aid of a verse, a store of beautiful imagery and glowing sentiment may be gathered up as the amusement of childhood, which in riper years may beguile the heavy hours of languor, solitude, and sorrow; may enforce sentiments of piety, humility, and tenderness; may soothe the soul to calmness, rouse it to honorable exertions, or fire it with virtuous indignation."

"They who have known what it is," remarks Willmott, in the "Pleasures of Literature," "when afar from books, in solitude, or in travelling, or in intervals of worldly care, to feed on poetical recollections, to recall the sentiments and images which retain by association the charm that early years once gave them, will feel the inestimable value of committing to memory, in the prime of its power, what it will receive and indelibly retain. He who has drunk from the pure springs of intellect in his youth will continue to draw from them in the heat, the burden, and the decline of the day. The corrupted streams of popular entertainment flow by him unregarded."

The great Coleridge says, "Poetry has been to me 'an exceeding great reward.' It has soothed my afflictions; it has multiplied and refined my enjoyments; it has endeared my solitude; and it has given me the habit of wishing to discover the good and beautiful in all that meets and surrounds me."

All the selections should be recited in concert and individually from the platform.

You are aware that years ago it was almost the universal custom for teachers to set apart Friday afternoon for declamation; but the exercise in declamation differed widely

from memorizing and reciting gems of thought, which I advocate. Then the pupils were permitted to commit to memory whatever *they* thought best. The result was, that in a majority of cases the selections contained no literary or other merit. They were made more from a desire on the part of the pupil to have something "new," or to create a laugh, than from any other cause. The time spent in committing such pieces was, in my opinion, worse than wasted, for there was nothing in them worth remembering. Their effect was to vitiate the tastes of the pupils for good literature, rather than to give them a love of it. It was not so much what the pupils memorized, as how they declaimed. In short, everything was sacrificed to declamation. In my opinion, declamation, a subject almost entirely neglected in public schools of late years, is a very valuable exercise. Its ten-

dency is to give pupils confidence in themselves; to make them more self-possessed; and above all, to make them better readers. These worthy objects can be better accomplished by reciting "gems" than by declaiming long pieces, as was formerly the custom; for every member, even of an entire class, can recite a short extract within the time of an ordinary recitation, and each learn from hearing the others declaim the same selection. But important as declamation is in itself, it is secondary to the great object I desire to accomplish, viz., storing the minds of our youth with grand and ennobling thoughts, clothed in beautiful language; thoughts that will incite them to noble aspirations in life; thoughts that inculcate virtue, patriotism, love of God, of father, of mother, kindness to dumb animals, and that give correct rules of action.—*Education.*

THE STUDY OF LANGUAGE.

BY THE REV. D. C. JOHN, A.M., PRINCIPAL NORMAL SCHOOL, MANKATO, MINN.

THE English language has been taught for centuries by the alphabetic method, under the impression that naming the letters of a word in some way or other assists in its pronunciation. The old-time teacher patiently pronounced every word as the pupil spelled it, little dreaming that the philosophy of his entire system began and ended in imitation. With enforced gravity he suppressed the smile that stole over his features when some little boy, emboldened by a picture to strike out for himself, would spell p-i-g "hog," or c-a-t "puss," little suspecting that the boy was making a legitimate use of his faculties, and that *he*, and not the

pupil, was the proper object of ridicule.

The discovery that pronunciation is simply the rapid enunciation of the oral elements which constitute a syllable, and that the letters rarely suggest these, is of comparatively recent date. When a boy spells l-e-g, if he retains any impression of the sounds uttered, and attempts to combine them rapidly, he pronounces the word "elegy," and not "leg." It is therefore evident that alphabetic spelling does not lead a pupil to the proper pronunciation of English, but away from it; and but for the fact that the teacher pronounced every word for us, we should have been unable to

read at all. This, however, is learning by imitation, just as the child learns at home. When this method is employed, the school-room does not go a step beyond the nursery. The improved methods which have been introduced during the past fifteen years have awakened great hopes and made flattering promises; none of which, however, have been or ever can be fulfilled. While they have rationalized the process of teaching, and developed brilliant results in the primary grade, they have not materially shortened the time required for the acquisition of the language, nor removed any real difficulty out of the way. In spite of improved methods, in spite of the superior skill and intelligence with which they have been plied, it is still an unwelcome fact that it requires from ten to twelve years to read and write English with a tolerable degree of accuracy. In proportion to opportunities enjoyed there are not as many good spellers now as there were twenty-five years ago; partly because the common school course has been overloaded with other studies, and partly because alphabetic spelling has been neglected under the erroneous impression that phonetic spelling is a substitute for it. Our language has increased its vocabulary at least twenty-five per cent. "since you and I were boys," and yet our spelling books are but primers compared with Cobb, Emerson, Towne, and others who initiated us into the mysteries of English orthography. As a consequence, there are more poor spellers among educated people to-day than formerly; and the *Pioneer Press* was right when it complained that it received few communications, even from teachers, that were not marred by inaccurate orthography. It becomes us, therefore, as candid teachers, to cease the adulation of our methods, and discover, if we can, why they are

so brilliant in promise and so meagre in results.

When Johnny enters the primary class, he learns but one sound for each vowel and consonant used, and silent letters are carefully kept out of his reach. A royal road is made for him, and he travels with astonishing rapidity, to the delight of his parents, who charitably permit the new method to share the honours with inherited brains. He soon acquires the power to spell and pronounce new words without assistance, and it looks as though he were going to learn to read in a single term; but after a while, new sounds must be introduced, and that, too, in pretty rapid succession. The same letter represents many sounds, and some none at all; their position determines nothing, and the child becomes bewildered, often hesitating on words which he would have pronounced instantly at the end of his first term. As difficulties multiply on his hands, his progress becomes less and less remarkable, and by the time he reaches the high school he is but little in advance of the boy who entered the academy of thirty years ago. This unsatisfactory outcome must not, however, be charged to faultiness in our methods, but to the language itself. A scientific method can be applied to scientific matter only, and that cannot be found in the language which we write and speak. As it is perfectly anomalous both in its orthography and pronunciation, it must be learned, as it always has been, by the slow, illogical process of imitation and experience. This is proven by the fact that adult foreigners, whose reasoning faculties are fully developed, are constantly led astray by fancied analogies where none exist. If an adult foreigner cannot acquire the language by a scientific process, neither can a child; and the effort to so teach it, however flatteringly it may promise in the outset, must end

in disappointment. There are four methods which have successively engaged the attention of teachers:—

1. The alphabetic.
2. The phonetic.
3. The phonic.
4. The word method.

The alphabetic method has already been sufficiently discussed, and needs no further notice here. The phonetic is impracticable, because it would destroy much property, and mar the beauty of an alphabet which has been in use 2,500 years—an alphabet adequate to express all the sounds of the most cultivated languages of Continental Europe, and which surely ought to be adequate to all the demands of modern English. The phonic method cannot be applied beyond the primary grade without being merged in the phonetic, and therefore fails for the same reason. The word method, except as employed to a very limited extent in first lessons, is an absurdity, and deservedly fell into disrepute almost as soon as it became known. These new methods must therefore not be regarded as a solution of the difficulty in the acquisition of our language, but as protests against the inefficiency of former ones. Facts which have no logical relationship must be learned by experience alone, and the English language is a conglomeration of such facts. This leads to the inquiry, Have we not been trying to reform at the wrong place? is it not our *language* instead of our *method* which needs reforming?

It is a curious question, and one which the historian has not attempted to answer, why it is that while the Roman Empire and Britain were conquered by substantially the same people, scarcely any new sounds appeared in the resultant languages of the former, while in the latter a perfect Babel was developed. The Gothic tribes conquered, but did not

destroy the language and civilization of the Roman Empire; the conquered, exceeding the conquerors in numbers, intelligence, and culture, preserved their language and literature, and when fusion commenced, the resultant folk-speech was still Latin in structure and largely in vocabulary. The conquest of Britain being most effected by freebooters, was of a far sterner and bloodier type. They either put to the sword or enslaved the natives, and suppressed their language as thoroughly as they did their institutions. This led to the establishment of a pure Gothic language in Britain, which developed a literature centuries before a line was written in the folk-speech of the Continent, with the single exception of Ulfilas' translation of the Bible into Mæso-Gothic about A.D. 320. Had the Norman conquest been as cruel as the Saxon, the native language would have again ceased, and the speech of England and America would to-day be substantially that which is heard in the streets of Paris. If, on the other hand, the Norman had been the barbarian he was when Rollo founded his dukedom, the Saxon language would have maintained its supremacy after the Conquest, as the Latin had done on the Continent, and our language would be the same as is spoken to-day on the shores of the Baltic and North Sea. But the Norman and Saxon languages were too nearly balanced at the time of the Conquest for either to yield the supremacy to the other. The Saxon had the better literature; but culture, prestige and power were on the side of the Norman. When fusion commenced, there was an attempt to preserve the sounds and orthography of both, and plethoric English was the result. The effort to preserve the sounds of both, and even increase them, without enlarging the alphabet, has resulted in the for-

mation of the most difficult and unphonetic language in the entire Gotho-Latin group.

The French is the only one of the family which presents any logical difficulties in pronunciation; and they arise not from any superfluity in its vowel system, but from the somewhat lawless quiescence of final letters. All the others are beautifully phonetic, and the linguist experiences little difficulty in pronunciation, by following analogies which are well-nigh infallible. All this simplicity was lost in the patriotic but unfortunate attempt to preserve too much when the two languages of which English is mainly composed were in process of fusion. But the confusion did not stop here. Slight differences in the quality and length of vowels, physically unavoidable by reason of their association with certain consonants, were raised to the dignity of independent sounds. The so-called *r* sounds received a separate notation, though oddly enough it was applied only when *r* succeeds and not when it precedes the vowel. To my ear the words *cake* and *rake* differ about as much as *bake* and *bare*; and to be consistent, the distinction should be as carefully marked in the former as in the latter. Again, *sk*, *sf*, *ss*, etc., slightly broaden and lengthen the sound of *a*, and the difference is thought worthy of notation, while *o*, followed by similar combinations, with precisely the same effect, receives no such attention; the difference between *at* and *ask* is no greater than that between *cot* and *lost*. Compare also *cat* and *glass*, *dot* and *moss*, and the injustice of our diacritic notation—not to say its absurdity—becomes apparent. If we can pronounce *dot* and *moss* correctly without any notation, we can do the same with *at* and *ask*; and this, if it proves anything, proves that the entire system of superfluous notation should be abandoned at once. Nay, more,

this notation is now corrupting our pronunciation. When I hear a teacher insisting that his pupils shall say *Göd*, I think he is either teaching them to swear, or trying to follow the dictionary. Again, the wretched system of equivalents, almost unknown to Norman and Saxon, has expanded our notation until it is well-nigh insuperable both to adult foreigners and native children. Five simple vowels are made to represent no less than twenty-five sounds, and then, as if overworked, no less than twenty-seven diphthongs are employed to relieve them. In consequence of this, we have no less than sixty-three methods of representing about twenty-two vowel sounds; a truly appalling array, and one which may well discourage both teacher and pupil.

The treatment of consonants in the development of our language has been quite as pernicious as that of the vowels. The combination of *g* and *h* in words which originally had but one of these consonants, and the change of long *o* to *ou* or *au*, has given us combinations which are a terror to foreigners, and not unfrequently to natives themselves. The little word *enough*, Saxon *genog*, has undergone no less than eleven metamorphoses, and has not even yet reached a state of permanent felicity. The orthography which sprang up in the formative period of our language, extending from A. D. 1200 to 1600, is the joint product of ignorance and whim; and Lounsbury has well said that the history of English orthography is a history of blunders. Every author followed either his fancy or his dialect, and there was no authoritative standard until the appearance of Dr. Johnson's Dictionary. It is therefore clear that our present orthography is entitled to no respect on account of its literary development, and certainly none for its antiquity.

When one hears persons objecting to a reformation in spelling because it would destroy resemblance to originals he can scarcely repress a smile, and wish they would inform themselves more fully upon the subject. Saxon (or rather Gothic) words contribute only about eight per cent. of our present vocabulary; but as they are the words of common life, they constitute about one-third of the words employed by writers of the present day. Of this eight per cent. only about three per cent. are spelled as they were in the golden age of Saxon literature; all the rest have been corrupted until many of them exhibit only faint traces of their origin. When I see how successfully time-saving machinery has multiplied the possibilities of life in other departments of industry, I am astonished at the passivity which tolerates a language insuperable to foreigners, and one which

takes the entire period of minority for natives to acquire.

Not twenty per cent. of educated people can write a dozen pages absolutely free from errors in orthography, and those who did not learn to spell early in life are in almost as hopeless a condition as foreigners. A language which makes memory the sole guide in orthography must either impoverish literature or violate its own rules; for when the reasoning and emotional faculties become sufficiently aroused to be interesting, memory is either partially or wholly suspended. If we could have a phonetic language the antagonism between sound and sight would vanish, and spelling would no longer be the art of concealing pronunciation. All efforts to obviate the difficulties by improved methods are lost labour; the language *itself* must be reformed.—*Education.*

THE *Publishers' Circular* gives the following particulars with reference to the number of new books and new editions published in England during the past year:—Theology, sermons, Biblical, etc., 596 new books, 193 new editions; educational, classical, and philological, 435 new books, 90 new editions; juvenile works and tales, 727 new books, 260 new editions; novels, tales, and other fiction, 306 new books, 124 new editions; law, jurisprudence, etc., 52 new books, 23 new editions; political and social economy, trade and commerce, 145 new books, 44 new editions; arts, sciences, and illustrated works, 264 new books, 80 new editions; voyages, travels, geographical research, 204 new books, 40 new editions; history, biography, etc., 361 new books, 91 new editions; poetry and the drama, 158 new books, 23 new editions; year books and serials in volumes, 255 new books, 14 new editions; medicines, surgery, etc., 119 new books, 58 new editions; belles-lettres,

essays, monographs, etc., 92 new books, 14 new editions; miscellaneous, including pamphlets, not sermons, 264 new books, 92 new editions—total number of new works, 3,978; of new editions, 1,146. Taken together the number of publications issued is 5,124. This shows a slight falling off in the production of books, as last year the figures were 3,410 new books; 1,296 new editions; total, 5,406. The *Circular*, however, remarks: "It is not improbable that the real value of the literary works of 1882, whether viewed from an intellectual or from a material standpoint, is superior to that of its forerunners."

AS for harmless amusement and still more for the free exercise of the fancy and imagination, I know few studies to compare with Natural History, with the search for most beautiful and curious productions of Nature amid her loveliest scenery and in her freshest atmosphere.—*Kingsley.*

A BOY'S BOOKS, THEN AND NOW—IX.

BY HENRY SCADDING, D.D., TORONTO.

*(Continued from p. 16.)*2. *Latin: (a) Calepinus.*

I COME now to the Latin dictionaries. And first I show a Calepinus, a worthy co-mate of the Schrevelius already examined, a folio bound in oaken boards, covered with stamped vellum, and retaining its rudely-cut copper clasps. It bears the imprint "Venetiis, MDLXC. Apud Johannem Gryphium," *i.e.*, Venice, 1540; from the house of John Gryphius. According to the custom of the day, Gryphius has placed conspicuously on the title-page his badge or device, which is the same as that of his more famous brother Sebastian Gryphius, or Gryphæus, typographer at Lyons, exhibiting, as a play upon the family name, a magnificent Griffin (anciently Gryphon), triumphantly bearing up through the air a carefully-shaped but heavy rectangular block of stone aided by a winged globe underneath, which supports and helps to carry up the mass; with the motto in bold capitals, half on one side of the device and half on the other, "Virtute Duce, Comite Fortunâ;" implying, I suppose, that difficult enterprises (publishing huge folios, for example) well and "squarely" planned, and buoyed up by a high principle, succeed. The well-known device of Aldus Manutius, the great Venetian scholar and printer, was a Dolphin twining round an Anchor; and we might have expected to see it here, for the work before us is a copy of Calepinus edited by Paulus Manutius, the son of Aldus, now the head of

the Aldine printing house, from which, between the years 1540 and 1583, proceeded, we are told, more than sixteen editions of this ponderous work. The Latin dictionary of Calepinus was, in fact, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, the Ainsworth of the period, a book held to be indispensable to every student of Latin. It made its first appearance at Poggio, in North Italy, in 1502, under the name of "Cornucopiæ Linguæ Latinæ." In several of the large towns of Europe other editions of the same work were repeatedly issued.

Of Calepinus himself I shall have occasion to speak again presently. It will suffice now to say that he was an Augustinian monk, born at Calepio, fourteen miles south-east of Bergamo, in North Italy, about the middle of the fifteenth century. I must give in extenso the title-page of Paulus Manutius' Calepinus as we have it here before us. It is a table of contents rather than a title-page, and it will be seen that the work has been transformed from a mere dictionary into a comprehensive classical cyclopædia. Thus it reads, translated into English: "The Dictionary of Ambrosius Calepinus; in the restoration and improvement of which we have rendered the following services to the student:—1, We have taken care to do not only what all previous editors have done, *viz.*: add a great number of words, but also, what no one else to this day had done, *viz.*: render

clear the obscure signification of many terms. And 2, We have expunged the examples given by Calepinus, which in our revised texts now read differently, and we have replaced them by better ones. And then 3, Since, in consequence of frequent reprinting, typographical errors abounded, we have had recourse to the works quoted, and have restored the cited passages to their proper form. Again, 4, We have set right the Greek words which had become much depraved. And then 5, We have included our own additamenta, which are most helpful to the mastering and perfecting of the Latin tongue and to the becoming acquainted with Roman usages. 6, We have supplied lists of synonyms, distinctions, and opposites, select adages, and Ciceroian expressions to take the place of harsh barbarisms, with a translation of each Latin word into Greek, Italian, French, and Spanish. 7, Then we have added two tractates by Henry Farnesius, the Eburonian (? citizen of Liège), Jurisconsult and Professor of the Art of Oratory in the Gymnasium of Ticino, calculated to promote richness and copiousness in speaking; one being on the proper choice of words and modes of expanding ideas, with examples; and the other on Interpretation and Etymology. 8, And lastly, we subjoin a complete Italian-Latin Vocabulary" [inscribed to the most serene Charles Emanuel, Prince of Piedmont, by Luc' Antonio Bevilacqua, who, by the way, styles his native language, not Italian, but the *Volgare*.] So ends this very full title-page. Next comes the Dedication, addressed by Paulus Mazutius to Aloysius Garzonius, an official of Venice fond of letters, and highly esteemed for his many fine traits of character. Paulus begins by remarking on the singular good fortune that has attended Calepinus's book, in that, day after day, as it

were, men have added to its riches out of their own treasures. The dictionary now presented, he says, has grown to its present bulk, not by the industry of the author, but by the labour and study of others. Six hundred additions to its stores had been made by himself; and these not derived from ready-made indexes, but drawn, in the course of his own reading, from original sources. In editing Calepinus, however, he observes, he has differed from his predecessors. He has compressed as well as enlarged, and has separated the cockle from the wheat. In the Greek words, so great was the accumulation of typographical errors, that the removal was a veritable cleansing of an Augean stable. He had also expunged a multitude of Greek words which had found their way into the book in Latin guise; as, for example, *catabathmus*, *hedædocus*, *pseudonymus*; these he had cast out, just as he would cast out Latin words from a Greek lexicon. The improved work he inscribes to Aloysius Garzonius, to show his great regard for him, for, says he, directly addressing Aloysius, and adopting the adulatory tone which scholars of that period affected towards their patrons, and to which the Latin tongue too readily lent itself:—"Your suavity of wit, your great humanity, your singular probity, the remarkable propensity of your disposition to virtue, all allure me to you; and it is not because you are the confidential secretary of the most noble republic of Venice, nor because, along with that illustrious man, adorned with excellencies, the ambassador Michael Surianus, you are a privy councillor to Philip, King of Spain, that you are so dear to me; but because you prove yourself one who deserves all these, and even greater, distinctions." Paulus then prays him to persevere in that road to high renown on which he had already

entered, and which was most direct, most expeditious, and most certain, viz., that of letters; and even so, he confidently believes and predicts, it will be.

Aldus Manutius does not insert his contributions to Calepinus in the body of the work, but gives them as an appendix; and he prefaces them thus:—"Paulus Manutius to all students of polite learning, greeting: I observe as carefully as I may the ancient rule of our family (*i.e.*, the Aldi), to suffer no book to go abroad from our House without being augmented and in some way improved and adorned by our own individual industry. What we promised in the title-page we now present. We offer you many things very noteworthy, as we think; and certainly many things not generally known. We have considered that they would be useful, and especially acceptable to you, for they embrace matters deserving the attention of every man of fine taste, and every one who from choice busies himself with the study of classical literature. I have thought good not to incorporate my contributions in the dictionary itself, for, printed in the midst of Calepinus's matter, they would to a certain extent lie hid, being buried as it were; and it would be difficult to detect what the fruits gathered from our own especial labour and care actually were, which, if they at all answer our wishes, will be very plentiful and of no small value; as he will conclude who shall take the trouble to examine what follows." Then, closely printed in seventeen double-column folio pages, we have, in alphabetical order, a series of articles which, brought out in modern style of typography, would fill a large volume, and be a complete dictionary of "Antiquities," anticipating most of the discussions and dissertations that are to be found in recent works of that sort. Diffuse though I have

been on Calepinus, I must dwell for a few moments longer on the subject, for I have another copy of the work some six-and-twenty years later in date than the one we have been looking at; more ponderous, and presenting some points of difference. It is a folio printed at Basle in 1616, the year of Shakspeare's death. It shows on its title-page the fine, bold device of Sebastian Henric-Petri, a famous typographer of the period, in that city. Like other early printers, Henric-Petri was an enthusiast in his art and mystery, and his device expresses this. It shows a Thor-hammer coming out of the clouds and smiting a burning rock; an angry Æolus-head at the same time blows straight against it from an opposite quarter; but the flames spread out from it on all sides nevertheless. Even so, I think Henric-Petri, Henry of the Rock, means to say, the ardour of his zeal in his vocation as a printer, and enlightener of his fellow-men, will burn on, in spite of heavy blows and adverse blasts. The same device, designed and executed in even grander form, is repeated at the end of the book. In Henric-Petri's edition each word is interpreted, not only in French, Spanish, Italian and Greek, as in the Aldine, but in Hebrew, German, Flemish, Polish, Hungarian, and English besides; and the quantity of each syllable is marked with a quite unnecessary minuteness. The additamenta of Paulus Manutius are distributed about at full length alphabetically in the body of the book. Towards the end of the huge volume a large space is taken up with an Onomasticon, or collection of proper names of persons, places, things and sciences, under thirty-one headings, compiled originally by Conrad Gesner, and now expressly for this edition "a quodam studioso, post Herculeos labores, summis vigiliis, summaque diligentia, in compluribus hinc inde

locis castigatissimum et locupletissimum factum." The Basle volume preserves the original Dedication of Calepinus himself. I must present a portion of it, as it is in some degree autobiographical, and likewise reveals to us what manner of man the compiler of the work was. We must conceive of him as a stalwart monk, of staid and studious look, in the black habit of an Augustinian friar, and cowed. He thus introduces himself: "Ambrosius Calepinus, Eremita, *i. e.*, Hermit or Solitary, to the Senate and People of Bergamo, Peace and Health. It is many year, O most eminent and accomplished men, since I began to extract and put together, out of ancient and modern profane authors, as also out of most pious and learned Catholic writers, a large number of interpretations, which seemed to me likely to contribute to the obtaining of a thorough knowledge of the meaning of passages in authors generally; which work I frankly desire you to understand was undertaken for the benefit of myself first, but with the confident belief that it would sometime prove helpful to others also." Furthermore, he says that a sentiment of patriotism induced him to dedicate the book to the Senate and People of Bergamo, because they represented his native district, "wherein dwell men of great and excellent genius, deserving well of their country for their gravity, their attention to jurisprudence, and their zeal for every kind of science." I shall not strictly translate the rest of this dedicatory epistle, for it must be confessed Calepinus becomes rather tedious. Instead of saying he presents to the notice of the world a work which he trusts will be useful, and there an end, he laboriously apologizes for what he has done. The conventionalities of his monastic character oblige him to profess an immense humility; and while elabo-

ately descanting on his own insignificance, he becomes obtrusive and egotistical. From his earliest infancy, he says, he had been devoted by his superiors to the monastic life; but he found himself unfitted for public displays of oratory, and also unequal to the mastery of philosophy. That his time, however, might not be wholly wasted, he desired to do something for the spiritual advancement of men, according to his function and profession; and so he betook himself to a study which from its sure humanizing effects is dignified by the name of Humanitas, a term employed to express human learning and liberal knowledge from Cicero's day downward. It will be considered very presumptuous in him, he is aware, to pretend to throw light on matters which had already engaged the attention of a Nonius Marcellus, a Festus Pompeius, a Prædianus, a Servius, a Donatus, a Varro, and other luminaries of the Latin tongue; but what he does, is simply to supply certain things which they had left out of their books. He knows how impossible it is to please every one. He is sure, now that he is come before the world, he will be mercilessly criticised. No one escapes. God himself does not escape. Some will hold this opinion of him, and some will hold that. The house built on the market square is decry'd by some for being too high, by others for being too low. However, in his own estimate, he sets himself above nobody; and he would not press the use of his book on the unwilling. He is quite content to be despised, and the consolatory phrase comes into his mind out of Psalm 83 (in the Vulgate), "Elegi abjectus esse in domo Dei mei." Nevertheless, he concludes, if men so learned, so eloquent, as the Senate and People of Bergamo should commend his work, it is impossible but that others will deem it worthy of praise also.

Of course many of the English renderings of Latin words in the early Basle-printed dictionary are deformed by awkward errors of the press, and oftentimes read quaintly enough, partaking occasionally of the directness and strength of the language as spoken in Shakspeare's day. Eleemosyna is almesse. Majores are forbearers. Magnanimus is stout, of a lofty harte. Strenuitas is doughtiness. Jaculator is a boaster or cracker. Colon is one of the entrailles or puddings. Echinus is the outward huske of the chestane (chestnut), and this prior to its denoting an urching or hedgehog. Hystrix is a beaste that casteth pikes from him at men, as it were arrowes. Mica is a little thing that shyneth among the sande, a crumme of bread or any other thing. And so on. Under *lapis* we have a note of a meteoric stone which fell at Ensheim in Alsace in 1420, weighing three hundred and fifty pounds. Of Calepio, his native town, from which he wrote himself Calepinus, he says it was so named from the goodness of its wine,—*kalos*, good; and *pino*, I drink—a local popular notion probably, and to be regarded in the light of a jest.

(b) *Nestor Dionysius*.—I have now to do justice to the excellent dictionary of Nestor Dionysius, a copy of which is before us, bearing the early date of 1496. Its printer was Philippus Pinzius of Mantua, but carrying on business at Venice. Pinzius allows little space to the title of the book, and indulges in no badge or device. He appends his name in the colophon at the end, with the date, "Anno Domipi MCCCCXCVIII." (1498), and the name of the then doge, "Regnante Serenissimo Domino Augustino Barbadico, Venetiarum Duce Felicissimo." The matter of the dictionary, which is divided into six parts or books, begins abruptly at the top of the right hand page (after

the fashion of the mediæval manuscripts, closely imitated by the early typographers), with the brief announcement, "Here happily beginneth the first book of Nestor Dionysius of Novara." Then down one broad margin, in alphabetical order, the words appear with great distinctness, while down the other broad margin appear, with equal distinctness, the names of the numerous authorities and grammatical writers quoted in the body of the page.

Like Calepinus, Nestor Dionysius was a monk, another of the many in the ranks of every Order who applied themselves to the learned studies of the day. He would appear before us in the gray dress of a Franciscan. He inscribes his book to "the most illustrious prince" Ludovico Sforza, whose military exploits he details and extols. The forty hexameter lines of which his Dedication consists have very great historical interest, had we time to go into them; written as they were in the very thick of stirring events, and directly addressed to the man making most noise in the world at the time. For it was this very Ludovico Sforza who, to protect himself against his opponents in Milan, invited in the French, a fatal step which led to all the subsequent wars and calamities in Italy. It is characteristic of the period, of its mixed military and literary interests, that the great warrior and statesman was expected to hail the advent of a new Latin Dictionary, and to spare time for listening to the eulogies of its monkish compiler. Ludovico, we find, was as eminent for his devotion to science, art and literature as for his military spirit. He was the friend of Leonardo da Vinci and Bramante, the patron of Merula and Calchondylas and other distinguished scholars, and the founder of chairs of Greek Astronomy and Geometry in one of the universities of the Milanese terri-

to-ry. The copy of Nestor Dionysius before us has the interest of being a first edition. When it issued from the press of Pinzius in 1496, Ludovico Sforza was still living, and the copy presented to him by Nestor would be exactly like this, excepting that the paper, print and ink would then be brighter to look upon, and its outer clothing would be probably a wrapper of pure white vellum. In 1496 Ludovico Sforza had not yet quarrelled with his French allies: the fight at Novara had not yet taken place, which led to his being carried away captive into France, destined to die there in 1508, still a prisoner.

(c) *Geoffrey of Lynne's Promptuarium*.—In Nestor's book the interpretations of the Latin words being themselves in Latin, and not in any modern language, there was no place for a reverse arrangement like that which we saw just now in Luc' Antonio Bevilacqua's *Vocabulario* in the Aldine Calepinus, wherein the *Volgare* precedes the Latin. I have now to show an early dictionary wherein the reverse order is observed, the English or vulgar tongue preceding the Latin, for the benefit of English learners. This is the first English-Latin Dictionary, known as the "*Promptuarium Parvulorum sive Clericorum*," i.e., the Store-room or Magazine of Supplies for young tyros or clerks. Its compiler was Geoffrey of Lynne. He is a monk too; he comes before us in the white garb of a Dominican. (In this facile way did the ecclesiastical authorities aforesaid allow petty discrepancies, springing out of difference in mental constitution, to work themselves off. The tincture of a gown, the cut of a hood, was found sufficient to satisfy the little egotisms which I suppose will to the end struggle for recognition.) Geoffrey of Lynne employs the English prevalent in his native East Anglia; and it is curious to observe how uncouth and cum-

bersome it sometimes seems to us moderns, while the Latin which follows looks so shapely and concise. *Hospitium*, for example: how plain and familiar! while an "inne of herborowe," which it represents, is not instantly intelligible. *Mendacium*, again: who does not recognize the word? but "gabbyne or lesynge," for which it is the equivalent, is not perhaps so self-evident in its sense. The same may be said of *operculum*, "a thyng that hylleth;" *Pharos*, "beckne or syre-bonie" (? tree or post); *cambio*, "to chafare oone thyng for a othere;" *oscillum*, "mery totter, chylderns game" (teeter tauter); *quadrivium*, "gatesschhadyl yn-to iij weyyes, or a carphax," etc., etc. My *Promptuarium* is the Camden Society's reprint, with notes full of curious things. The *fac-similes* in the Preface show what Dictionaries in manuscript were like, before the invention of printing. The *Promptuarium* was compiled circa 1440, and was first printed by Richard Pynson in London in 1499.

3. *Littleton*.—I shall come immediately to Ainsworth, again a name suggestive of a volume rather than a man, to most English students of Latin some years since; but first I must despatch Littleton. Previous to the appearance of Ainsworth's book, Littleton's was perhaps the most extensively used Latin dictionary in England. My copy is a quarto, published in 1735, but then in its sixth edition, with amendments and improvements. As a frontispiece we have a view, imaginary of course, of the interior of the Palatine library, in the Temple of Apollo at Rome, wherein, Suetonius tells us, were deposited by the command of Augustus, the works and statues of the best Greek and Roman writers. In the manual before us one of the keys to this fine repository is supposed to be furnished to the student. Twenty-four book-sell-

ing houses in London are concerned in its publication. I need not transcribe the title-page. As usual with the books of the period, it is very full. Dr. Adam Littleton lived 1627-1694; and the first edition of his dictionary appeared in 1678. He was an Oxford man, of Christ Church, and was expelled from his studentship in that college for his loyalty by the Parliamentary Commissioners in 1648. Subsequently he was a master in Westminster school, and on the restoration of Charles II. he obtained valuable preferments in the Church, and was made one of the King's chaplains. Prefixed to the dictionary are two addresses, one "Erudito Lectori suæ;" the other "to the English Reader." In the former he says it would be a shame in a work devoted wholly to Latin, if he were to fail to salute the learned reader in that language, and at once address him in the vulgar tongue, as he would address one out of the common rabble (popello). And forthwith he proceeds, in flowing and easy Latin, to show the disadvantage under which compilers of Latin Dictionaries generally laboured from their having no practical acquaintance with the instruction of youth. He, on the other hand, having been long familiar with such work, had been able to clear the tyro's path of a thousand obstructions. He then criticises Wase's edition of Calepinus, and Cooper's and Goldman's books. Of Goldman personally he takes care to speak with great respect for having been in the late troubles faithful to the Royal cause. He next directs attention to the careful manner in which he has sifted barbarous and low-Latin from classical, and placed the former in a separate division of his book. He finally breaks off thus:—"And now, my reader, on the one hand civility, on the other weariness, bids me make an end. Farewell. Use my book. Be kind to it." (Vale,

Fruere. Fave.) He then addresses the English reader, italicising the word English, and gives a lengthy analysis of the method observed in his dictionary. He thee's and thou's after the manner of the Quakers. "In the main I must tell thee," he says, "that, though we do travel all along on the same beaten road of Alphabet, that being the usual method of such books, and that which is most agreeable and easy to youth, and no less conducive to their studies by speeding their inquiries, yet there is enough offered all along to the judgment of the severest critics by continual supplements, amendments and the like through all the veins of the work. What for matter, what for manner of handling it, as may abundantly justify the tenure of the Book to be as free from encroaching upon any other's copyhold, or any that has been writ in English of this kind since Thomasius, his time." He then touches on a point which renders Littleton's Latin Dictionary, like all the other old English-Latin dictionaries, most curious and valuable to the student of the English language, its fluctuations and development. "Having considered," Littleton says, "the improvements of our language since Reverend Cooper's time, both as to the enlarging and to the refining of it, we have endeavoured (in the English-Latin part of the Dictionary) to lay down the whole body of it as now spoken, and to fit it, as well as we might, all over with a suitable Latin habit. Hereupon several thousands of Words and Proprieties formerly wanting are here set down." On the other hand, however, he adds, "to make room for such useful additions and necessary supplies for our present occasion of discourse, we thought it not so much injury to our Grandfathers as advantage to our Children, to lay aside some old-fashioned words, now grown out of all use, such as

abastick [having power to abase]; and to discard many uncouth expressions and insignificant circumlocutions, as *the inward top of the finger next to the nail*, and the like; though of the old words, too, we have retained as many at least as do really belong to the English stock." As to Etymologies, he says: "We have been obliged to be the larger by others' example, rather than one's own judgment (that being looked on as a point of skill wherein both old Grammarians and late Criticks have taken so much pains), but we have endeavoured to be close and pertinent, as resolving no great matter of learning to lie in forced and affected derivations, unless they may be brought to some true measure of analogy." In his remarks on the admission of technical terms, and while referring in particular to those connected with the legal profession, he takes occasion to claim as a "worthy progenitor of his," Littleton, the famous author of the work on Tenures, on which Coke has commented. His conclusion then, is as follows:—"Reader, I have, as I promised thee in the beginning, given thee an account of my intents and endeavours in this performance; and if it hath (as I am too conscious to myself it often hath) happened that I have anywhere failed of my

design; if in a long and tedious work I have, through inadvertency, streights of time, and hurry sometimes of other business, made any balk and committed mistakes, let thy humanity excuse the human infirmities of Thine and his Country's Faithful servant, A. L."

I shall not go into detail in regard to the Preface which follows in this sixth edition here before us, further than to say that therein the editor tells the public at considerable length how he has done for Littleton exactly what Littleton had done for preceding lexicographers, viz.: weeded out the words that had become obsolete and inserted those that the English language had developed in the half-century between 1678 and 1735. And to show the great labour and tediousness of the task in which he had been engaged, he winds up with an epigram written by Joseph Scaliger after finishing an elaborate glossary or index to Gruter's Inscriptions. "Henceforth," said Scaliger, "let a new and more effectual sentence be pronounced on the convicted culprit: let him no more be sent to the treadmill or the mines: let him be set to work at making dictionaries!"

Lexica contextat! . . . Omnes
Pœnarum facies hic labor solus habet."

GREAT EXPECTATIONS.—The community is disposed to be just a little too exacting in its demands upon the teacher. In some localities he is subjected to a criticism so ample in its scope, so exacting in its requirements, that it seems improbable that any human being could satisfy the demand. In places where the pay is least, the expectation, the requirement is the greatest. He must be teacher, scientist, preacher, doctor, accountant, lawyer, artist, and musician at the same time; give up his independence of thought and action, and all for thirty dollars a month, boarding himself!—*Teacher.*

MANY authors pride themselves, and teachers are prone to act upon their suggestions, that they have produced text-books which exclude every difficulty of speech,—that they use words perfectly familiar to the child, even to the exclusion of polysyllables. What chance have pupils who are thus fed upon nursery-talk, to grow linguistically, and, what is more, intellectually? In childhood the meaning of words is not learned by definitions, but by the use of words. Teachers must not be afraid to use long words, but cause them to be used soon as they are understood.—*Supt. Raab, Ills.*

METRICAL AND INTERLINEAR TRANSLATION OF HORACE.

WITH SCANSION, AND NOTES CRITICAL AND EXPLANATORY.

BOOK I. ODE 4. TO L. SEXTIUS.

KEEN winter melts away by pleasing change
Acris hiems solvitur grata vice
 Of spring and Zephyr's balmy breath. The boats
veris et Favoni: Carinas
 Long high and dry are dragged on rollers down.
siccæ trahuntque machinæ.
 No longer does the ploughman hug his fire,
Ac neque jam arator gaudet igni,
 Nor happy in their stalls the cattle crowd;
aut (gaudet) stabulis pecus;
 Nor meadows whiten with the hoary frost.
nec prata albicant canis pruinis.
 Cythera's Venus, 'neath the beaming moon,
Jam Cytherea Venus, imminente Luna
 Leads up the dance, and hand in hand with Nymphs
choros ducit, junctæque Nymphis
 The charming Graces on alternate foot
decentes Gratiæ alterno pede
 Trip o'er the ground: while glowing Vulcan fires
quatiunt terram: dum ardens Vulcanus writ
 His mighty Cyclops' forge. Now it befits
graves Cyclopum officinas. Nunc decet
 To bind the shining brow with myrtle green,
aut impedire nitidum caput myrto viridi
 Or with the flowers the loosened lands produce.
aut flore quem solutæ terræ ferunt
 Now in the shady groves to Faun 'tis meet
Nunc et in umbris lucis Fauno decet
 To sacrifice a lamb, if such he ask,
immolare aqna seu poscat
 Or, if he choose it rather, then a kid.—
sive malit hædo.
 Pale Death with equal foot knocks at the doors
Pallida Mors æquo pede pulsat
 Of peasants' huts, and palaces of kings.
pauperum tabernas, turres regumque.
 O happy friend! Our life's short span forbids
O beate Sesti! Nos vitæ brevis summa vetat
 Indulging in long hope Already night
Inchoare longam spem. Jam nox

And fabled shades come crowding on thee,
fabulæque manes premet te,
 And Pluto's cheerless home; whither if once
Et Plutonia exilis domus; quo simul
 Thy steps have wended, never more shalt thou

mearis nec
 By dice determine who shall rule the wine,
talis sortiēre regna vini,
 Nor tender Lycidas admire, with whom
nec tenerum Lycidan mirabere, quo
 Our youth are all inflamed; and by and by
juventus nunc omnis calet; et mox
 Our maidens too will catch the spreading glow.
virgines tepebunt

LIBER I. CARMEN IV. AD L. SESTIUM.

Solvitur | acris hi | ems gra | ta vice || veris | et Fa | voni,
 Trahunt | que sic || cas ma | chinæ || cari | nas.

Ac neque jam stabulis gaudet pecus, aut arator igni;
 Nec prata canis albicant pruinis,
 Jam Cytherea choras ducit Venus, imminente Luna,
 Junctæque Nymphis Gratia decentes
 Alterno terram quatunt pede; dum graves Cyclopum
 Vulcanus ardens writ officinas.
 Nunc decet aut viridi nitidum caput impedire myrto,
 Aut flore, terræ quem ferunt solutæ.
 Nunc et in umbrosis Fauno decet immolare lucis,
 Seu poscat agna, sive malit haedo.
 Pallida mors æqui pulsat pede pauperum tabernas
 Regumque turres. O beate Sesti,
 Vitæ summa brevis spem nos vetat inchoare longam.
 Jam te premet nox, fallæque Manes
 Et domus exilis Plutonia quo simul mearis,
 Nec regna vini sortiēre talis,
 Nec tenerum Lycidan mirabere, quo calet juvenus
 Nunc omnis, et mox virgines tepebunt.

SCANSION.—The stanza, used in this Ode alone, consists of two lines both after Archilochus; the first being the *Greater Archilochian Heptameter*—a *logaoedic* line—i.e., one in which the stronger dactylic rhythm passes into the weaker trochaic. The first part is a Dactylic Tetrameter *a priori*, i.e., the first four feet of a Hexameter. The fourth foot is always a Dactyl, and always ends with a word. The Cæsura naturally occurs between the two members. The second part is Trochaic Dimeter Brachycatalectic—or three Trochees. The second line is *Iambic Trimeter Catalectic*, having five Iambi with catalectic syllable. A Spondee is admissible for first and third, but not for fifth.

INTRODUCTION.—Beautiful spring is at hand with all her attendant delights. The poet urges his friend to enjoy the pleasures and perform the duties of the season while he may; reminding him of the sure approach of death, and the certainty of descending to the Shades, where wine and beauty are no more to be thought of. The sudden transition from gaiety to gloom in the latter part of the Ode would never have struck a Roman as being out of place, for his was pretty much the maxim, "Let us eat, drink, and be merry, for to-morrow we die."

NOTES —1. *Veris et Favoni*.—Spring commenced on the seventh day before the Ides of February, on which day the west wind Favonius, also called Zephyrus, began to blow. The name Favonius (*faves*) is appropriate, to indicate its fostering influence on the seed sown.

2. *Trahuntque, etc.*—Ancient mariners generally avoided voyages in winter, so their ships were drawn up on land, where they were supported by props, and thence hauled down at the opening of spring by means of ropes and levers, with rollers placed under.

3. *Cythera Venus*.—Cythera, now *Cerigo*, in the *Ægean*, where Venus is fabled to have first risen from the foam of the sea, and where her worship was very early established, and a temple erected to her—hence the epithet. The appearance of the goddess of Love, with her attendant Nymphs and Graces, is very appropriately noted as one of the signs of spring, Aprilis the chief spring-month being sacred to her. Tennyson's words may help still further to explain the allusion:—

“In the spring a fuller crimson comes upon the robin's breast;
In the spring the wanton lapwing gets himself another crest;
In the spring a livelier Iris changes on the burnished dove;
In the spring a young man's fancy lightly turns to thoughts of love.”

4. *Imminente luna—i.e.*, shining directly overhead, and by a beautiful image, *threatening*, as it were, to fall.

5. *Gratia, etc.*—The Three Graces, Aglaia, Thalia, and Euphrosyne, danced with the Nymphs in the revels of Venus.

6. *Dum graves Cyclopum, etc.*—The chief scene of Vulcan's fabled labours, with the Cyclopes as his assistants, was Mount *Ætna* in Sicily. As spring approaches, this volcano generally begins to labour, a natural fact poetically explained by speaking of the Fire-God as being busily employed in forging thunderbolts for the monarch of the skies to hurl during the spring-storms so frequent in that climate.

7. *Nitidum caput impedire*.—At the banquets of the ancients it was customary for the guests to have their heads anointed with unguents, and crowned with wreaths of flowers, herbs, or leaves. These, it was thought, kept the head cool and prevented intoxication. A disordered wreath was the sign of intoxication. *Vide Ode xvii., 27.*

8. *Fauno*.—Faunus, the rural divinity of the Romans, the guardian of the fields and flocks, had two festivals (*Faunalia*); one on the Ides of February, when sacrifices were offered to him that he might preserve and foster the seed sown; the other on the Nones of December—the commencement of winter—that he might protect the produce of the year, and give health and fecundity to the flocks and herds. Both were occasions of the utmost hilarity.

9. *Agnæ-hædo*.—Others read *agnam-hædum*.

10. *Pallida mors—turres*.—Having enumerated the delights of spring, the poet, true to his Epicurean philosophy, urges the universality and near approach of death; arguments why they should be enjoyed at once. An additional explanation of this abrupt change in the sentiment may be found in the fact that the festivals for the dead immediately succeeded those of Faunus. The extreme felicity of the words, assisted by the apt alliteration, have made them a frequent subject of quotation.

11. *Jam te premet—manes*.—There is here an obvious zeugma in the use of *premet*. It may be rendered “Soon will night close, and the manes of fable crowd around thee.” *Fabulæ* is not the genitive singular, but the nominative plural in apposition. *Manes* is the general name for the souls of the departed, which of course were unsubstantial, *i.e.*, *fabulæ*. An annual festival was held in their honour on the 19th of February; another instance of the aptness of the poet's allusions.

12. *Domus—Plutonia*.—Pluto, or Hades, the god of the nether world, the abode of the shades. His realm to a Roman might well seem *exilis* (= *exigilis*, from *exigo*), *i.e.*, meagre, cheerless.

13. *Simul*, = *simul ac*.

14. *Regna vini*.—The ancients, at their feasts, decided by throwing the dice—*talis*—who should be *arbiter bibendi*, *i.e.*, direct how much wine should be drunk, and how strong should be the mixture. The luckiest throw was called *Venus*, the unluckiest *Camis*. Cf. *Ode ii., 7-25.*

15. *Lycidas*.—Probably a generic term for any beautiful youth.

UNIVERSITY WORK.

MATHEMATICS.

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

CAMBRIDGE TRIPOS.

SOLUTIONS.

(See the MONTHLY for November.)

4. (ii.) $ax^2(y-z) = by^2(z-x)$
 $cx^2(x-y) = d^2$. (i)

$\therefore x^2(y-z) + y^2(z-x) + z^2(x-y)$
 $= d^2 \left(\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{c} \right)$,

$\therefore -(y-z)(z-x)(x-y)$
 $= \frac{d^2}{abc} (bc+ca+ab)$. (2)

Again, $x^2y^2z^2(y-z)(z-x)(x-y) = \frac{d^6}{abc}$,

$\therefore -x^2y^2z^2 = \frac{d^6}{bc+ca+ab}$,

$\therefore xyz = \frac{d^2}{p}$
 where $p = \pm \sqrt{-(bc+ca+ab)}$. (3)

From (1) (3),

$\frac{1}{z} - \frac{1}{y} = \frac{p}{ax}$, $\frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{z} = \frac{p}{by}$, $\frac{1}{y} - \frac{1}{x} = \frac{p}{cz}$,

$\therefore \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{y} = p \left(\frac{1}{ax} + \frac{1}{by} \right)$,

$\frac{1}{y} - \frac{1}{z} = p \left(\frac{1}{by} + \frac{1}{cz} \right)$, $\frac{1}{z} - \frac{1}{x} = p \left(\frac{1}{cz} + \frac{1}{ax} \right)$.

$\therefore \frac{1}{x} \left(1 - \frac{p}{a} \right) = \frac{1}{y} \left(1 + \frac{p}{b} \right)$,

$\frac{1}{y} \left(1 - \frac{p}{b} \right) = \frac{1}{z} \left(1 + \frac{p}{c} \right)$,

$\frac{1}{z} \left(1 - \frac{p}{c} \right) = \frac{1}{x} \left(1 + \frac{p}{a} \right)$,

$\therefore y = \frac{a(b+p)}{b(a-p)} x$ and $z = \frac{a(c-p)}{c(a+p)} x$ (4)

Substituting in (3), $x^2 \frac{a^2(b+p)(c-p)}{bc(a+p)(a-p)} = \frac{d^2}{p}$

$x^2 = \frac{d^2 \cdot abc(a+p)(a-p)}{pa^2(b+p)(c-p)}$,

$\therefore x = \frac{d}{a} \sqrt{\frac{abcd(a+p)(a-p)}{p(b+p)(c-p)}}$,

\therefore by symmetry $y = \frac{d}{b} \sqrt{\frac{abcd(b+p)(b-p)}{p(c+p)(a-p)}}$,

and $z = \frac{d}{c} \sqrt{\frac{abcd(c+p)(c-p)}{p(a+p)(b-p)}}$.

5. Let $f(n, x) = \frac{1}{x} - \frac{n}{1-x+1}$

$+ \frac{n(n-1)}{1.2} \cdot \frac{1}{x+2} - \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{1.2.3} \frac{1}{x+3} + \dots$
 $\pm \frac{1}{x+n}$;

$\therefore xf(n, x) = 1 - \frac{n}{1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{x+1} \right)$

$+ \frac{n(n-1)}{1.2} \left(1 - \frac{2}{x+2} \right)$

$- \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{1.2.3} \left(1 - \frac{3}{x+2} \right) + \dots \pm \left(1 - \frac{n}{x+n} \right)$

$= 1 - \frac{n}{1} + \frac{n(n-1)}{1.2} + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{1.2.3} - \dots \pm$

$+ n \left(\frac{1}{x+1} - \frac{n-1}{1} \cdot \frac{1}{x+2} + \frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{1.2} \frac{1}{x+3} \right.$
 $\left. - \dots \mp \frac{1}{(x+1)(x-1)} \right)$

$= (1-1)^n + nf((n-1), (x+1))$.

$\therefore f(n, x) = \frac{n}{x} f((n-1), (x+1))$,

$\therefore f((n+1), (x+1)) = \frac{n+1}{x+1} f(n, (x+2))$.

$\therefore \frac{f((n+1), (x+1))}{f(n, x)}$

$= \frac{(n+1)x}{n(x+1)} \cdot \frac{f(n, (x+2))}{f((n-1), (x+1))}$.

Again,

$$f((n-1), (x+1)) = \frac{n-1}{x+1} f((n-2), (x+2));$$

$$f((n-2), (x+2)) = \frac{n-2}{x+2} f((n-3), (x+3));$$

etc. = etc.;

$$f(1, (x+n-1)) = \frac{1}{x+n-1} f(0, (x+n)) \\ = \frac{1}{x+n-1} \cdot \frac{1}{x+n}.$$

$$\therefore f(n, x) = \frac{n}{x} \cdot \frac{n-1}{x+1} \cdot \frac{n-2}{x+2} \dots$$

$$\frac{1}{x+n-1} \cdot \frac{1}{x+n} = \frac{n(x-1)}{(x+n)}$$

We now see that

$$\frac{f((n+1), (x+1))}{f(n, x)} = \frac{(n+1)x}{(x+n+1)(x+n)}.$$

Another relation is

$$f(n, x) - f((n+1), (x+1)) \\ = f(n, x+2) + f((n+1), x),$$

but this is not so convenient in finding value of $f(n, x)$.

PROBLEMS IN ARITHMETIC,

by W. S. Ellis, B.A., Mathematical Master, Collegiate Institute, Cobourg.

I. Are prime numbers necessarily prime to each other? Are numbers that are prime to each other necessarily prime? Give examples to illustrate your second answer.

II. When wheat is selling at 36 shillings per quarter (8 bush.), what is the price in dollars per cwt. (100 lbs.), a sovereign being worth \$4.85? *Ans.* \$1.80.

III. Show why 8 must be a factor of the product of every two consecutive even numbers. *Ans.* $2 \times 2 \times 2$ is a factor.

IV. A reaping machine cuts a strip 6 feet wide; how many times will a man have to drive round the standing grain in a square ten-acre field before it is all cut? *Ans.* 55 times.

V. What are the conditions that two numbers shall have no common measure other than unity? If their G.C.M. be unity, what will be their L.C.M.? Why

VI. In the case of three numbers, what are the conditions in order that their L.C.M. may be their product?

VII. Is the product of two integral numbers always a common multiple of each of them? What would the term Greatest Common Multiple mean? Why is it not used?

VIII. What does the term Least Common Measure mean? If unity be ruled out, what are the conditions that the G.C.M. and L.C.M. of two numbers shall be the same?

IX. In the following problem show why a definite solution cannot be obtained:—The H.C.F. of two factors is 7; one of them is 210, find the other.

10. Find G.C.M. of three numbers, when the factor common to the first and second is 140, and to the second and third, 210.

Ans. 70.

11. In the previous problem, what, 1st, is the smallest second number; 2nd, the three smallest numbers that will answer the conditions? *Ans.* 420; 140, 420, 210.

12. What number is that which, if increased by 7, will be contained 217 times in 20196, leaving a remainder of 15? *Ans.* 86.

13. The product of three numbers is 400400, the G.C.M. of first and second is 4, and of second and third, 5; what are the numbers? *Ans.* 44, 140 and 65.

14. Six pounds of tea and 10 pounds of coffee cost \$7.50, and 6 pounds coffee and 10 pounds tea cost \$9.30; find the price per pound of tea and of coffee.

Ans. 75c. and 30c.

15. *A* can travel 24 miles per day; *B*, 18; *C*, 16. *B* leaves a certain point 4 days after *C* has started; when should *A* leave so that he may catch up to *B* at the same time that *B* overtakes *C*? *Ans.* 8 days after *B*.

16. Find the smallest number of pounds which may be exactly weighed by a 3 pound weight, a 5 pound weight, and an 8 pound weight, taking them one, two or three at a time. *Ans.* 34320 pounds.

17. In the previous problem what would the answer have been had the weights been $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{1}{4}$ of a pound respectively?

Ans. 90376 pounds.

18. Half of A 's money and $\frac{1}{3}$ of B 's exceed A 's whole sum by \$5; and $\frac{1}{2}$ of A 's and $\frac{1}{4}$ of B 's exceed $\frac{1}{2}$ of A 's by \$7; how much money had each? *Ans. A, \$80; B, \$135.*

19. Ice 16 inches thick is gathered from a space of 260 square feet on the surface of a pond; what depth of water will be formed in the bottom of a cistern, 6 feet by 8 feet, by the melting of this ice, if water expands one-tenth of its volume in freezing?

Ans. 6 feet $6\frac{2}{3}$ inches.

20. A freight train left a station, A , at 3 o'clock; an express, running in the same direction, left on a parallel track 15 minutes later, and reached a station, B , while the freight was yet $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles distant. Had the rate of the freight been one-quarter greater than it was, and had it continued on without stopping, it would have been $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles beyond B when the express arrived; find the distance from A to B , and the rates of the trains. The express reached B at 4 o'clock.

Ans. $22\frac{1}{2}$ miles, and rates are 30 and 20 miles per hour.

ARITHMETICAL PROBLEMS.

By Leopold B. Davidson, Head Master
Public School, Glenallan.

1. (a) Prove $\frac{1}{2} \div \frac{7}{8} = \frac{4}{7} \times \frac{1}{2}$.

(b) From $\frac{2\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \text{ of } 1\frac{1}{2}}{\frac{1}{2} \times 3\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8}}$ take $\frac{1\frac{1}{2}}{1\frac{1}{2}} \div \frac{3}{2\frac{1}{2}}$.

Ans. 0.

2. The product of four consecutive numbers is 32760; find the numbers.

Ans. 12, 13, 14, 15.

3. Find the L.C.M. of 12 lbs. 8 oz., 7 lbs. 8 oz., 1 qr. 2 lbs.

Ans. 27 qrs.

4. The G.C.M. of two numbers is 144; the L.C.M. of the same two numbers is 1729278. One of the numbers is 1728, find the other.

Ans. 144144.

5. If $\frac{3}{4}$ of $\frac{3}{4}$ of $\frac{3}{4}$ of a yard of cloth cost $\frac{1}{4}$ of a crown, how many francs must I pay for 4 yards of the same cloth, a franc being worth 10d.?

Ans. 90.

6. Divide £30 between A and B , giving

A 10s. as often as B gets £3. Find share of each.

Ans. £12, £18.

7. A purse and its contents are worth \$21, and $\frac{2}{3}$ value of purse is equal to $\frac{1}{10}$ value of contents; find value of each.

Ans. \$1, \$20.

8. How many pounds of feathers are as heavy as 29 lbs. 2 oz. of silver? *Ans. 24.*

9. A merchant mixes 20 lbs. of tea at 70 cts. per lb. with 15 lbs. at 60 cts. per lb., and 40 lbs. at 62 $\frac{1}{2}$ cts. per lb. In selling the mixture he used a pound weight 16 drs. too light. Does he gain or lose, and how much?

Ans. Gains \$3 20.

10. One-third of a farm is in meadow, $\frac{1}{3}$ of the remainder is in wheat, $\frac{1}{3}$ of this remainder is in barley, and $\frac{1}{3}$ of the whole is in oats, and the remainder, 11 acres, is in bush. Find the number of acres in farm. *Ans. 99.*

11. I have in my purse £66, consisting of £ notes and sovereigns, guinea and crown pieces, and of each an equal number. How many coins have I? *Ans. 80.*

12. Find the marked price of cloth per yard in order that a merchant may throw off $\frac{1}{4}$ of his marked price and still have a profit of $\frac{1}{4}$ of prime cost.

Ans. \$2.40.

13. A person pays an income tax of 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents on \$1, and pays in all \$35; find how much less he will pay if the tax be reduced by 15 mills on \$1.

Ans. \$15.

14. A man sells oranges at 40 cents per dozen, and gains $\frac{1}{3}$ of cost; find selling price of each orange in order that he may lose only $\frac{1}{8}$ of prime cost.

Ans. 2 cents.

15. A can do $\frac{1}{2}$ of a piece of work in 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ days; B can do $\frac{1}{2}$ of the remainder in 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ days. They start together to do a piece of work for which they are to receive \$16; find each man's share.

Ans. \$9, \$7.

16. A person buys equal quantities of oats and wheat, in all 200 bushels: the former at 35 cents per bushel, the latter at \$1.10 per bushel. He sells the oats at 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound, and gains on the whole \$20; find the price per pound at which he sold the wheat.

Ans. 2 cents.

17. A house, a barn and a lot cost \$5400; 4 times the value of the house is equal to 5 times the value of the barn, and the lot is worth as much again as the house and barn together. Find the value of each.

Ans. \$1000, \$800, \$3600.

18. If 6 men or 8 women can do a piece of work in 12 days, in what time can 8 men and 10 women do a piece of work $10\frac{1}{2}$ times as large as the former piece?

Ans. 48 days.

19. If 10 geese and 3 turkeys be worth \$8.70, and 3 geese and 4 turkeys be worth \$5.40, find the value of 5 geese and 5 turkeys.

Ans. \$7.50.

20. If 8 lbs. of tea be worth 120 oranges, and 35 oranges worth 28 lemons, find the price of $3\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. of tea when 5 lemons are worth 25 cents.

Ans. \$2.10.

21. A lady spent $\frac{1}{2}$ of the money in her purse and \$2 more than $\frac{1}{4}$ of what she had left. On counting her money she finds she has \$18 left; how much had she at first?

Ans. \$60.

22. A man buys 50 bushels of grain, consisting of oats and peas, the former at 35 cts. per bushel, the latter at 60 cts. per bushel—the whole costing \$18; find the quantity of each kind of grain.

Ans. 48 bushels, 2 bushels.

23. A pile of wood is 4 feet wide, 10 feet high, and 70 feet long. The owner owes a debt of \$25, and offers in payment 30 feet off one end of the pile. What will the person gain or lose if he accepts of this offer, wood being worth \$2.40 a cord?

Ans. Loss \$2.50.

24. A reservoir is 10 feet 5 inches long by 7 feet $8\frac{1}{4}$ in. wide. How many inches will the water sink in the reservoir if 500 gallons be drawn off? (1 gallon = $277\frac{1}{2}$ cub. inches.)

Ans. 12 inches.

25. Find the number of bricks required to build a wall 30 yards long, 18 inches thick, and 8 feet high, a brick being 9 inches long, $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches wide, and 3 inches thick: allowing $\frac{1}{6}$ of the space for mortar. *Ans.* 14592.

CLASSICS.

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

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

MATRICULATION EXAMINATION.—
JANUARY, 1883.

Examiners.—James S. Reid, Esq., LL.M., M.A.; Leonhard Schmitz, Esq., Ph.D., LL.D., F.R.S.E.

LATIN.

I. "Cæsar," De Bello Gallico, Books I. and II.

Translate into good English:—

A.

Quibus rebus cognitis cum ad has suspensiones certissimæ res accederent, quod per fines Sequanorum Helvetios traduxisset, quod obsides inter eos dandos crasset, quod ea omnia non modo iniussu suo et civitatis, sed etiam inscientibus ipsis fecisset, quod a magistratu Hæduorum accusaretur, satis esse causæ arbitrabatur, quare in eum aut ipse animadverteret aut civitatem animadvertere iuberet. His omnibus rebus unum repugnabat, quod Divitiaci fratris summum in populum Romanum studium, summam in se voluntatem, egregiam fidem, iustitiam, temperantiam cognoverat: nam ne eius supplicio Divitiaci animum offenderet verebatur. Itaque prius quam quicquam conaretur, Divitiacum ad se vocari iubet et cotidianis interpretibus remotis per C. Valerium Procellum, principem Galliæ provinciæ, familiarem suum, cui summam omnium rerum fidem habebat, cum eo colloquitur, simul commonefacit, quæ ipso præsentè in concilio Gallorum de Dumnorige sint dicta, et ostendit, quæ separatim quisque de eo apud se dixerit; petit atque hortatur ut sine eius offensione animi vel ipse de eo causa cognita statuatur vel civitatem statuere iubeat.

B.

Ariovistus ad postulata Cæsar's pauca respondit, de suis virtutibus multa prædicavit: Transiisse Rhenum sese non sua sponte, sed rogatum et arcessitum a Gallis; non sine magna spe magnisque præmiis

domum propinquare reliquissæ; sedes habere in Gallia ab ipsis concessas, obsides ipsorum voluntate datos; stipendium capere iure belli, quod victores victis imponere consuerint. Non sese Gallia, sed Gallos sibi bellum intulisse: omnes Galliarum civitates ad se oppugnandi venire ac contra se castra habuisse; eas omnes copias a se uno proelio pulsas ac superatas esse. Si iterum experiri velint, se iterum paratum esse decertare; si pace uti velint, iniquum esse de stipendio recusare, quod sua voluntate ad id tempus pependerit.

C.

Cæsar honoris Divitiaci atque Hæduorum causa sese eos in fidem recepturum et conservaturum dixit; quod erat civitas magna inter Belgas auctoritate atque hominum multitudine præstabat, sexcentos obsides poposcit. His traditis omnibusque armis ex oppido conlatis ab eo loco in fines Ambianorum pervenit, qui se suaque omnia sine mora dederunt. Eorum fines Nervii attingebant; quorum de natura moribusque Cæsar cum quaereret, sic reperiebat: Nulum aditum esse ad eos mercatoribus; nihil pati vini reliquarumque rerum inferri, quod is rebus relanguescere animos et remitti virtutem existimarent: esse homines feros magnæque virtutis, increpitare atque incusare reliquos Belgas, qui se populo Romano dedidissent patriamque virtutem proiecissent; confirmare sese neque legatos trassuros neque ullam condicionem pacis accepturos.

II. History and Geography.

[N.B.—Only four of these questions are to be answered.]

1. Give some account of the life of Julius Cæsar down to the end of his first consulship.

2. What provinces were assigned to Cæsar after his consulship, and for how many years were they at first given to him?

3. When, and by whom, had the South of Gaul been conquered and constituted as a Roman province?

4. What led Cæsar to make war against the Helvetii?

5. What brought Cæsar into conflict with the Germans under Ariovistus?

6. Describe the boundaries of Gaul according to Cæsar.

7. Mention the principal rivers of Gaul with their ancient and modern names, and describe their courses.

8. Explain the expression, *lacus Lemannus, qui in flumen Rhodanum influit*.

III. Passages for translation from books not prescribed.

(a) M. Curius cum Italia Pyrrhum regem exegisset, nihil omnino ex præda regia, qua exercitum urbemque ditaverat, attigit. Decretis etiam a senatu septenis iugeribus agri populo, sibi autem quinquaginta, popularis assignationis modum non excessit, parum idoneum rei publicæ civem existimans, qui eo, quod reliquis tribueretur, contentus non esset.

(b) P. Decius, qui consulatum in familiam suam primus intulit, cum Latino bello Romanam aciem inclinatam et pæne iam prostratam videret, caput suum pro salute rei publicæ devovit: ac protinus concitato equo in medium hostium agmen, patriæ salutem, sibi mortem petens irrupit, factaque ingenti strage plurimis telis obrutus est.

LATIN GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION.

1. Decline both in the singular and in the plural, *genus audax, invenis sollers, senex loquax*; in the singular only, but in all the genders, *unus quisque, quilibet, neuter*.

2. Mark the gender of *auriga, anus, populus, laurus, Corinthus, porticus*.

3. Write down the comparative and superlative of *facilis, atrox, acer, exterus, inferus, benevolus, arduus, maleficus*.

4. Write down the perfect (1st person singular), the supine, and the present infinitive of *coquo, vendo, cano, infringo, vincio, vinco, surgo, pergo*.

5. Parse *feret, ferret, fiam, fore, factus, malit, vellem, det*.

6. Define the meaning of *transitive* and *intransitive* verbs.

7. In what way can intransitive verbs be used in the passive voice.

8. Name the prepositions which govern both the accusative and the ablative, and state in what sense they take accusative, and in what sense they require the ablative.

9. Name the principal ideas expressed by the subjunctive mood, when used independently, or in clauses which are not dependent upon others.

10. Translation into Latin.

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

(a) Cicero was elected consul in the year sixty-four before Christ.

(b) As soon as he arrived in Rome, he went to the house of his mother.

(c) I do not know, whether to praise or to blame him.

(d) If he were a wise man, he would not have undertaken such a business.

(e) Granting that he is the best of men, it cannot be denied, that a great injury has been done to his country.

(f) He was afraid lest by pardoning the offence he might be thought to encourage such carelessness.

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.

INTERMEDIATE ENGLISH, DECEMBER, 1882.

Answered by A. K. ROW, St. Catharines.

1. (a) Strong Son of God, immortal Love,
[(b) Whom we, (c) that have not seen thy face,

By faith, and faith alone, embrace,
Believing (d) where we cannot prove.]

(a) "Strong....Love," indep. element of address.

(b) Adjective clause qualifying "Son;" subj. "we;" attrib. adj. of subj., 1st, clause (c), 2nd "believing;" simple pred. "embrace;" obj. comp. of pred. "whom;" adv. adjuncts of pred. "by faith and faith alone."

(c) Adjective clause qualifying "we;" subj. "that;" simple pred. "have seen;" obj. comp. of pred. "thy face;" adverbial adjunct of pred. "not."

(d) Adverbial clause of place, qualifying "believing;" subj. "we;" incomplete pred. "cannot;" infinitive comp. of pred. "prove;" adv. adjuncts of pred. "where."

(a) Thine are these orbs of light and shade.

(b) Principal declarative sentence; subject "orbs;" attrib. adjuncts of subj., 1st "thine," and "of light and shade;" predicate, "are," incomplete verb, "thine," adjective compl.

(c) Thou madest life in man and brute. Simple declarative sentence; subj. "Thou;" simple pred. "madest;" obj. comp. of pred. "life;" adv. adjuncts of pred. "in man and brute."

(d) Thou madest Death. Simple declarative sentence; subj. "Thou;" simple pred. "madest;" obj. comp. of pred. "Death;" con. el. "and,"

(e) Thy foot is on the skull [(f) which Thou hast made]. Principal declarative sentence, containing an adjective clause; subj. "foot;" attrib. adj. of subj. "Thy;" incomplete pred. "is;" adjective adjunct of pred. "on the head." (Such a phrase is by some improperly called adverbial.)

(A) Which Thou hast made. Adjective clause qualifying "skull;" subj. "Thou;" predicate "hast made;" object. "which."

(b) "Love;" a proper noun, 2nd, sing., mas., nom. of address, in app. with "Son;" "that," a rel. pron., 1st, plur., common gender, nom., subject of "have seen;" "lo," an interjection.

(c) "To Thee belong the sun and the stars, O mighty Son of God, immortal love, whom we, that have not seen Thee in the flesh, through faith accept; Thou didst create all living things; Death Thou didst create; and over him Thou hast risen victorious."

(d) l. 5, "orb of light" refers to the sun; and "orbs of shade" to the nightly luminaries; l. 7, as one of the God-head, Christ is the creator of Death, and over this conqueror Christ was victorious at the resur-

rection. The whole of the canto from which these stanzas are taken (the introduction to Tennyson's *In Memoriam*) evidently refers to Christ, but there is nothing in it which is not equally applicable to the personified Love of God. The epithet "strong" is more in accordance with our conception of the Divine love than with our dominant thought of Christ. Probably, however, the poet has both in view.

(e) See dictionary.

(f) See dictionary for difference between vowel sounds.

2. (i.) Instead of "to have outgrown" read "to outgrow," because it is intended to express what was future at the time indicated by the principal verb. "Either" is singular, hence the verb should be "acknowledges." "Principal" means chief, but the meaning intended here is motive or ground of action, which requires the other form of the word, *i.e.*, "principle."

(ii.) The subject is "resources," hence the verb should be "appear;" "wonderful" is unnecessary.

(iii.) The singular subject "Railway" requires the singular form of the auxiliary, *i.e.*, "has." "Time-table" is a temporary compound word, and requires a hyphen. If, however, separate railways are meant, read "The Northern and the North-western Railway (or the N. and N. W. Railways) have issued new time-tables."

(iv.) Read, "While the plaintiff was being examined, his sister, who was sitting in the court-room, fell screaming to the floor, and lay insensible for some minutes." The pres. participle of the verb "sit" is "sitting," and the past tense of lie (to recline) is "lay," which should be in co-ordination with "fell," because the act of falling is not contemporaneous with that of lying. "There" is implied in the context, consequently its use may be considered pleonastic.

(v.) Change "were" to "was" to agree with the subject "father," or change "as well as" into "and," and place the phrase "near Jackass Mountain" immediately after "injured," to bring the relative "which" near its antecedent "waggon-load."

(vi.) Read, "Addison contributed to the last volume of the *Spectator* twenty-four essays, many of which were the finest he wrote." The error consists in speaking of many of the "number" being the finest of his "essays."

(vii.) This sentence furnishes an example of the abuse of ellipsis. By supplying the implied pronoun it reads:—"If the privileges to which he has an undoubted right, and which he has so long enjoyed, should now be wrested from him, it would be a flagrant injustice." So far, however, as the sense is concerned the first subordinate clause may be omitted, as the word "privilege" implies something to which one has an undoubted right.

(viii.) Read, "I shall live hereafter in a manner suitable to my station." "Suitable" is an adjective qualifying "manner" understood; or read "suitably to."

(ix.) The sequence of tenses generally requires a past tense in a subordinate clause after a past tense in the principal sentence, or a present or future after a present, etc. Corrected, "I should be obliged to him, if he would gratify me in this matter, or I shall be obliged to him if he will gratify," etc.

(x.) Read, "The wheel will not turn; I must send it to the wheelwright to have it loosened (or 'repaired')." It is already "fixed." "Fixed" is a Scotticism for "repaired."

(xi.) Corrected, "Who taught you to fall trees so well." To learn means to receive instruction, to teach, to give instruction; fall means "to drop," and is not trans. in modern English; fell "to hew down;" the adjective "good" cannot describe the manner of the action, hence use "well."

(xii.) "Hardly" in the sense of "with difficulty" is obsolete. Here, possibly, it may mean "not wholly;" men do not "abandon" knowledge they have acquired; they may "lose" it, however; change "are genuine" to "is genuine," because the subject is "devotion."

(xiii.) "*Politics*," though plural in form is singular in meaning, therefore the verb should be "means."

(xiv.) The second "that" and the "for" are pleonasm; "will" must be changed to "shall," because the speaker expresses the idea that he and others are influenced by external circumstances. If "where" means "in a community in which," it is correct; if, however, the meaning is under circumstances which compel, etc., "when" should be used.

3. *Ingruous*, open, frank, sincere, abstract subs. ingenuousness. *Ingenious*, having natural ability, abs. subs. ingeniousness and ingenuity. (The examiner [does not seem to have known that there is authority for two nouns in the case of "ingenious." *Contemptuous*, apt to despise, insolent. *Contemptible*, deserving of contempt. *Survey*, act of surveying, view (noun). *Survey*, to look over, to view (verb). *Desert*, a wilderness, a wild plain (noun). *Désert*, to forsake (verb). *Dessert*, a service of fruit, etc., after the more substantial part of the meal (noun). *Conjure*, to charm, to enchant. *Consièrer*, to summon in a sacred name.

4, 5, 6, 7, and 8, see Dictionary and Grammar or Spelling-book.

9. *Index*, plural "indexes," lists of contents of books, and "indices," exponents of quantities (arith. and alg.); *die*, pl. "dies," stamps for coining, and "dice," gaming cubes; *penny*, pl. "pence," a sum of money, and "pennies," a number of the coins. Politics, mechanics (science), statics, physics, etc., are plural in form but singular in meaning.

10. (i.) I had rather die than I had soon endure such a disgrace.

(ii.) He is better to-day than he was well yesterday.

(iii.) I had rather be a dog and I had rather bay the moon than I had soon be such a Roman. "Soon" is used as the positive for "rather," as "rather" is obsolete.

11. "While we earnestly desire," said he, "the approbation of our fellow-men, and this desire, the better feelings of our nature cannot fail to awaken; we should shrink from gaining it by dishonourable means:" or put semicolon after "fellow-men," and colon after "awaken."

FRENCH.

SPECIAL EXAMINATION,
DECEMBER, 1882.

FRENCH.

Answered by Maimie Huddleston, St. Catharines Collegiate Institute.

I.

1. *Vingt* and *cent* take an *s* in the plural when preceded by another number which multiplies them and not followed by another number or used as *ordinals*. Cardinals are used in French when ordinals are used in English: (1) In mentioning the day of the month, except *the first*; (2) in speaking of sovereigns, and in quoting books, chapters, pages, etc., always except *the first*.

a. Je mourrai	que je tinsse
Tu mourras	que tu tinsses
Il mourra	qu'il tînt
Nous mourrons	que nous tinssions
Vous mourrez	que vous tinssiez
Ils mourront	qu'ils tinssent
Je m'assis	que je pusse
Tu t'assis	que tu puusses
Il s'assit	qu'il puisse
Nous nous assîmes	que nous puissions
Vous vous assîtes	que vous puissiez
Ils s'assirent	qu'ils puissent.

3.

Petits-mâtres. Tête-à-tête. Case-têtes. Chefs-lieux. Out-dire. Contre-amirans.

4. (1) Adjectives *always* placed after the nouns they qualify—(a) Those of nationality. (b) Those denoting colour. (c) Those expressing some physical or natural quality. (d) All past participles used adjectively except *pretender*. (2) Adjectives *generally* placed after the nouns they qualify—(a) Present participles used adjectively. (b) Adjectives of more than one syllable. (c) When two or more adjectives qualify the same noun, they are generally placed after that noun.

5. I, thou, he, they (m.), are rendered by moi, toi, lui, eux. (a) In answer to a question. (b) After a comparative with *que* when the verb is not repeated. (c) When the verb has several subjects, whether all

pronouns, or nouns and pronouns. (d) In exclamations, when, for emphasis, they are used as subjects of a verb in the infinitive. (e) When they denote opposition or distinction, or point out the part taken in an action by different persons. (f) When following the verb *être* preceded by *ce*. (g) When followed by a parenthetic clause introduced by a relative pronoun, by a present or past participle, or by an adjective.

6. *Par* and *point* are suppressed—(a) After *cesser*, *oser*, *pouvoir*. (b) After *savoir*, when mere uncertainty is expressed. (c) After the conjunction *que*, preceded by *plus*, *moins*, *moins*, or some other comparative or equivalent, e. g., *autre chose*. (d) After a verb in the preterite, preceded by *depuis que* or *il y a*, denoting a certain duration of time.

7. (a) À qui est cette maison? (b) Cela ne vaut pas plus d'une guinée. (c) Je ne manquerai pas de faire ce que vous voulez. (d) Ils vinrent à nous, quand nous ne pensions pas à eux. (e) C'est la seule place où vous puissiez aspirer. (f) Ce sont les Phéniciens, qui inventèrent l'écriture. (g) Je continuai ma route, pensif mais le cœur soulagé. Si j'avais vu ailleurs le contraste douloureux de l'opulence et de la misère, ici je trouvais l'alliance amicale de la richesse et de la pauvreté. La bonne volonté avait adouci, des deux côtés, les inégalités trop rudes, et établi entre l'humble atelier et le brillant hôtel un chemin de bon voisinage. (h) C'est un ami à qui je me fie. (i) Je sais qui vous voulez dire. (j) Quelque chose que vous étudiez, il vous faut y appliquer de bon cœur.

II.

(a) I recognized the street presently, although I had been there only once. It was two years ago: I was walking along by the Seine, whose banks, entirely hidden in the darkness, allowed the look to wander in every direction, and to which the illumination of the quays and bridges gave the appearance of a lake wreathed with stars. I had reached the Louvre, when a crowd near the parapet stopped me; they were surrounding a child, six years old, who was weeping. I asked the cause of his tears.

"It seems that he was sent to walk in the Tuileries," said a mason to me, who was returning from work, his trowel in his hand; "the servant who was with him, found some friends then, and told the child to wait until he went to get a drink; but drinking must have brought thirst, for he has not reappeared, and the little fellow can't find his home."

1. *Fusse*. *Rien que* is among the conjunctions which are followed by the subjunctive mood.

2. *Le Louvre*, a large and beautiful palace in Paris, in which there is a museum. It now contains splendid galleries, filled with masterpieces of painting and sculpture, collected, chiefly, under the first Empire. *Les Tuileries*, a royal palace and gardens in Paris. It was begun by Catherine de Medici, and is now connected with the Louvre by a large gallery along the Seine. It has been damaged several times by "the people," during the revolutions, but is now being put in repair. *Canon* is a small measure, about a quarter of a pint, used familiarly for "a drink."

3. Reconnaître, reconnaissant, reconnu, je reconnais, je reconnus. Croire, croyant, cru, je crois, je crus. Boire, buvant, bu, je bois, je bus.

(b) Sitting up late! Instead of using the night for sleep, you pass it in reading; your alcove is a library, your pillow a desk. At the time when your wearied brain demands repose, you lead it to a revel, and you are astonished to find it the worse for this on the morrow.

Indolent habits! Shut up in your attic, you are insensibly surrounded with a thousand effeminate precautions. You must have strips for your door, a screen for your window, carpet for your feet, a padded arm-chair for your shoulders, a stove kindled at the first cold, a lamp with softened light; and, thanks to all these precautions, the least wind gives you cold, ordinary chairs expose you to pains, and you must have glasses to support the light of day. You believed you were conquering enjoyments, and you have done nothing but contract infirmities.

1. *Dans* is used before a noun preceded by a determinative word, to indicate some definite place or space, or to mark the time from which something will happen. *En* is used to express a general, unlimited meaning, to mark an indefinite place or space, or to denote the time an action did or will take to perform.

2. The partitive article is expressed by *de* simply: (1) If the noun in the partitive sense is preceded by an adjective of quality and not particularized by any qualifying statement. (2) After a negative, when the noun is not qualified by an adjective or incidental clause.

3. Petit, moindre, le moindre.

Pepin, King of France, was surnamed *Le Bref*, on account of his short stature, which the courtiers sometimes turned to ridicule. This licence coming to his ears, he determined to establish his authority by some extraordinary deed; and the occasion was

soon presented. In a magnificent diversion which he gave to the public, there was a combat between a bull and a lion. The latter, in his fury, had almost conquered his antagonist; when Pepin, turning towards his nobles, said:—"Who among you would dare to go and separate or kill those two furious animals?" The mere idea made them tremble; no one responded. "Well, then, I shall do it," replied the monarch. Upon which, drawing his sword from the scabbard, he leaped into the arena, went towards the lion, killed it; and without the least delay, gave the bull such a terrible blow, that its head hung by the under part of the neck. The courtiers were equally astonished at his courage and his strength; and the king said to them with a tone of heroic pride:—"David was small; however he overthrew the insolent giant, who had dared to despise him."

SCHOOL WORK.

SCHOOL-ROOM SKETCHES.—FOR YOUNG TEACHERS.

BY MRS. EVA D. KELLOGG, BOSTON, MASS.

Do we study our children? The unavoidable rush into which the school routine is plunged to fulfil the demands of a too-extended "course of study" is fatal to everything like an analysis of the motives, causes, and effects of the hourly acts of the children. A physician with a practice so extensive that he could not find time to examine causes, and prescribe on general principles, would soon find himself with sufficient leisure to examine into the causes of his own failure. Yet a teacher is expected to deal successfully with the characters of fifty children, each bearing the stamp or the blight of heredity, and bring them to the same point of scholarship in a given time, regardless of the unquestioned fact that, for each one there is a right, and probably a different, way to best accomplish it. With the tired

brain and weary body consequent upon this tremendous effort to meet these expectations, the teacher is in no physical condition for character-study, even if she is cognizant of its imperative necessity as a factor of her success. But tired or not tired, time or no time, the earnest, conscientious teacher will come to feel that only by this determined search for causes can she find the cures.

Many teachers here make a mistake in supposing that the restless, mischievous child, ruthlessly overstepping every school limit, is intentionally acting in defiance of her personal authority. Not at all. The rebellion is from within, and is but the natural, unconscious contest of an army of undisciplined, innate forces against the curbing powers of restraint, while there may be a respect and even affection for the commander-in-chief on the other side. It was for years an enigma to the writer, why the girl or boy who troubled her the most in the school-room should be the one to bring her the

choicest fruit or flower, or wait for her longest in the street. It is a marvel no longer, and will be a life-time regret, that her earlier misunderstanding of a child's nature, and false ideas of dignity, led her to repress and ignore so much of this spontaneity of good-feeling in her worst children.

Again, do we not underestimate the difficulties in the way of securing the affectionate loyalty of our pupils? A man or woman who will observe with the closest scrutiny the stranger whom it is desirable to influence, will take up a child, with scarcely a thought, and expect an instant allegiance. Years of observation must teach that a boy is to be won as a man is to be won, and that it is often the harder task. Before a failure is acknowledged by the use of corporal punishment, let every faculty and resource at the teacher's command be employed to gain the desired influence. Let me give an incident from a teacher's experience.

At one time she entered a school full of insubordination. Study was a lost art, and the active brain had brought to perfection comic design, paper balls, and a skilful shot. By degrees she changed the current of ambition into a more healthful channel, in all save one little Irish boy. He withstood all her efforts with a smiling indifference that was so much more hopeless than open defiance. Day after day he looked upon the surrender of his boon companions with a face that was not sufficiently alarmed even to frown, but with an exasperating smile that had worn the lines into a face that should have been handsome. His home influences were of the worst, and at nine years old he was a little stoic. She quietly watched and studied him as she had never studied a boy before. All efforts to rouse the school to a pride in personal appearance was wholly lost on him. Curly, unkempt hair, untidy person, a shuffling gait, and a perennial smile still marked his individuality. The firmness with which he held fast to his old tattered flag of insubordination, with not a follower left, roused a liking for the boy, and now she worked *con amore*. One day, after weeks of effort and failure, she determined upon one

last untried experiment. She chanced (?) to stand near him in the aisle, and carelessly (?) rested her hand on his head, passing it now and then through the mass of untidy brown curls, all the while keeping up a class-recitation. She was soon conscious of its subtle effect upon him, and in a moment the head drooped. She left him, and avoided looking at him for several minutes. When she did look *the smile was gone*. The feeling of exultation that shot through her heart was not to be exceeded in any society woman in the triumph of the season. Next morning the untidiness was as marked as ever, but the new principle of self-respect which had sprung up at last, had shown itself by the addition of a spotless paper collar, at least one size too large. The dress effect was indescribable; but the ludicrous aspect was lost in the joy and gratitude with which she hailed this first snow-flower of the spring of a new life, after her "winter of discontent." She took occasion to quietly thank him and suggest other improvements, with all the delicacy she would have used to a friend, and in a week she had a sober, clean, quiet boy. Such was the transforming effect of a woman's *magnetic touch* upon the head of a boy all unused to its mysterious power. "But," says some teacher, "we do not all possess so much personal magnetism. What then?" Will you not at least *test* your possession of it, before taking the rattan?—*Journal of Education.*

PUPIL TEACHER'S MONTHLY EXAMINATION PAPER: JUNE.

ARITHMETIC.

Simple and Compound Rules.—1. Multiply two million seven hundred and seventy-eight thousand five hundred and sixty-eight, by nine thousand eight hundred and sixty-seven. 2. Multiply £10 11s. 8½d. by 270. 3. Reduce 760 half-crowns to guineas, and 670 half-guineas to half-crowns. 4. What must be the length of a trench 5 ft. 6 in. deep, and 10 ft. 8 in. wide, that it may contain 7040 cubic ft. 5. Light travels at the rate of 192,500 miles in a second; if the sun's light takes 8 min. 13 sec. in reaching us, what is his distance from the earth?

Practice and Bills of Parcels.—6. Find the cost of 1111 things at £11 11s. 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. each. 7. Make out a bill for the following: 4 lbs. of tea at 3s. 6d., 12 lbs. sugar at 5d., 7 lbs. butter at 1s. 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d., 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. rice at 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ d., 2 lbs. currants at 8d. 8. Find the value of 7 cwt. 3 qrs. 11 lbs., at £2 13s. 1d. per quarter. 9. A man is able to pay 12s. 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ d., and his debts are £3600, what is his estate worth? 10. What is the expense of digging a ditch, of which the solid content is 5755 cubic yards, at the rate of 1s. 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per yard? 11. A dealer bought 207 sheep at £1 3s. 6d. each, and sold 100 of them for £1 4s. 10d. each, and the remainder at £1 7s. 9d. each; what was his gain on the bargain?

Simple and Compound Proportion.—12. If 375 apples sell for 12s., what should be given for 1000 apples? And how many may be had for £1? 13. If a carding machine throw off 54 lbs. of wool in 2 hrs. 46 min. 30 sec., in what time will it throw off 24 lbs.? 14. The expenses of the poor in a parish amount to £110 7s. 6d., and the whole rent is £2000, how much in the pound must be levied to pay it? 15. If 7 horses be kept 20 days for £14, how many can be kept 7 days for £28? 16. If 20 men can perform a piece of work in 12 days, required the number of men who could perform another piece of work, 3 times as great, in one-fifth part of the time? 17. If 5 men receive £5 18s. wages for 12 days, what will be the wages of 16 men for 20 days?

Vulgar and Decimal Fractions.—18. Find the value of $5\frac{1}{2}$ of $4\frac{1}{2}$ - $3\frac{1}{2}$ of $3\frac{1}{2}$.

$$19. \text{ Divide } \frac{7(1\frac{1}{2} \text{ of } 1\frac{3}{4})}{\frac{1}{2}(3\frac{1}{2} \text{ of } 7)} \text{ by } 1\frac{1}{4}.$$

20. The dimensions of a room are 29 $\frac{1}{2}$ ft. by 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ ft., what length of carpet, $\frac{5}{8}$ yd. wide, will cover it, and what will be the expense of it at 3 $\frac{3}{4}$ s. per yard? 21. If $\frac{1}{4}$ of a ship be worth £36 10s. 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ d., what share will cost £125 5s.? 22. Divide $7\frac{1}{2}$ by $1\frac{1}{5}$, and subtract from the quotient $\frac{2}{3}$ of 7 half-crowns. 23. Find the cost of .2625 of a mile at the rate of 9 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per yard, and of 3.6 of 4 qrs. 4 bush. at 5s. 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per quarter. 24. Express $3\frac{1}{2}$ of £1 or 9 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. as the fraction (1) of £1

10s. 10d., and (2) of £5 9s. 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. 25. One pound of sugar being worth .03515625 of £1 12s., find the value of .15625 cwt. 26. What vulgar fraction is equivalent to the sum of 14.4 and 1.44 divided by their difference? 27. Find the value of $3\frac{1}{4}$ of £3 12s. 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ d., and reduce the result to the decimal £35 0s. 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. 28. How many yards of matting 2 4 ft. broad will cover a floor that is 27.3 ft. long and 20.16 ft. broad?

Interest and Percentages and Miscellaneous.

—29. Find the simple interest on £888 for 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ years at 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. 30. Cheese bought at 50s. per cwt. is sold at 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb.; what is the gain per cent.? 31. How much per cent. is (a) 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. in the shilling, and (b) 2s. 9d. in the £? 32. What is the rate of interest if £1009 produces £147.56625 in 4 years and 6 months? 33. Find the interest on £500 for 4 years at £5 7s. 6d. per cent.? 34. Three persons rent a field for £60 10s., A puts in 5 sheep for 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ months; B, 8 sheep for 5 months; C, 9 sheep for 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ months: what must each pay of the rent? 35. The profits of a mine for one year amounted to £3296 13s. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ d., and a person holding 14 shares received for his dividend the sum of £1025 12s. 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.; how many shares were there in all? 36. An agent gets £45 12s. 6d. for selling goods at the rate of 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; what value of goods did he sell? 37. What sum must be invested at 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ years in order to amount to £348 12s.? 38. A begins business with a capital of £1600, and at the end of three months takes B into partnership with a capital of £2000; at the end of 6 months more they divide the profits amounting to £660: what sum should each partner receive? 39. Bought a quantity of quilts at 4s. 7d. per hundred and sold them so as to gain $\frac{3}{8}$ of the selling price. What was the selling price, and what was the profit per cent. on the cost price? 40. 336 yards are bought at 7s. 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. a yard, and of this quantity $\frac{1}{4}$ is sold at 10s. 3d. a yard, $\frac{1}{4}$ at 8s. 6d., and the rest at 7s., state, decimally, the percentage of profit or loss. 41. If gunpowder consists of 75 parts of nitre, 10 parts sulphur, and 15 parts charcoal, what weight of each ingredient will there be in 15 cwt. of gunpowder? 42. The 3 per cents. stand-

ing at 98½, what sum must be invested in them to produce an *annual* income equal to the whole interest on £500 for 14 years at 2½ per cent.? 43. Find the interest on £34675 for 17 days at five per cent. per annum, and distribute that interest among 3 persons, *A*, *B* and *C*, in the ratio of 1, 1½, and 2½.

ALGEBRA.

To Simple Equations.—1. Prove that $(x^2 + xy - y^2)^2 = (x^2 - xy - y^2)^2 + 4xy(x^2 - y^2)$; and show that the equation holds good if $x = 5$ and $y = 5$. 2. $x^2 - 41 - x - 120 \div x^2 + 4x + 5$. 3. A house and garden cost £1000, and ten times the price of the house was equal to fifty times the price of the garden. Find the price of each.

To Quadratic Equations.

$$4. 1.2x - \frac{.72x - .2}{2} = .4x + 8.9 \text{ find } x.$$

$$5. \text{Simplify } b - \frac{\frac{a}{c}}{d - \frac{e}{f}}.$$

6. The sum of two numbers is 100 and their product 2400. Find the numbers.

MENSURATION.

1. What is the height of an equilateral triangle whose sides are 10 feet? 2. What must be the diameter of a circular lawn in order that it may contain a quarter of an acre?

EUCLID.

To Proposition XXVI. Bk. I.—1. Bisect a given rectilineal angle. 2. What is a rhombus? Show that the opposite angles of a rhombus are equal.

Book I.—1. Equal triangles on equal bases in the same straight line, and on the same of it, are between the same parallels. 2. The diagonals of a rhombus bisect each other at right angles.

Book II.—1. If a straight line be bisected and produced to any point, the rectangle contained by the whole line thus produced, and the part of it produced, together with the square on half the line bisected, is equal to the square on the straight line which is made up of the half and the part produced. 2. The parallelograms about the diagonal of a square are also squares.

DICTATION AND COMPOSITION.

Write, from dictation, the passage given out by the inspector:—

We are always talking about the sea in England: landmen or mariners, the ocean and its dangers concern us all in some way or other. Continental nations can treat the sea as a geographical accident, with which they are not necessarily concerned; but we, cut off from the world by a rampart of salt water, with not a town or hamlet-place above a day's journey from the waves—we, whose history has been created by that green billow, and who are dependent upon it for national prosperity, must pay a yearly tribute of lives and property to the watery power. Our common talk is full of maritime phrases, just as our island air is saturated with the salt that the ocean brings.

1. Write from memory the substance of the passage read to you by the inspector. (1st, 2nd, and 4th years.) 2. Write a short account of the principal vegetable productions of this country, especially of any for which your own district may be famous. (5th year.) 3. Write full notes of a lesson on "Proportion" to a first class, explaining, if you can, how the same question could be treated by the rule of "First Principles" and by that of "Statement." (3rd year.)

GEOGRAPHY.

Definitions, etc., with England and Wales.

—1. What is a cape, an island, a tributary, a range of hills, a plain, a valley, a harbour, a forest? Give examples of each of these in Kent, Sussex, Hampshire, or Wiltshire. 2. What is the meaning of equator; tropics; diurnal and annual motions of the earth? Explain each as fully as you can. 3. What is a plateau? and what is a watershed? Give examples of each, and show clearly that each example answers to your definition.

The British Isles.—4. Draw a map of the Irish Sea and St. George's Channel. 5. Describe minutely the courses of the Ribble, the Lime, the Eden, and the rivers of South Wales. 6. Say what you know of the physical features, productions, and manufactures of Devonshire, Norfolk, and Warwickshire.

Europe.—7. Draw a map of the Irish Sea and St. George's Channel. 8. Describe as clearly as you can the physical character and most striking features of Germany. N.B.—Do not give mere lists of names, but describe (as well as you can), so as to show what the country really is, the general slope, direction of mountains, etc., etc. 9. Name one manufacturing or commercial town in each of these countries, viz.:—Portugal, France, Switzerland, and Belgium; and say for what article each is noted.

The Colonies.—10. Draw a map of Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland. 11. Describe, as you would to children, a coasting voyage round Australia, starting from Adelaide. 12. Where and what are Delhi, Benares, Punjaub, Scinde, Poonah, Godavery, Malabar, Comorin, Andaman? Describe exactly the situation of each.

Asia and Africa.—13. Draw a map of Egypt and Arabia. 14. Give notes of an essay on China, under the following heads: (a) Boundaries and shape of the country. (b) Sources and courses of the great rivers. (c) Character of the people. (d) Productions, trade, and seaports.

America and Oceania.—15. Draw a full map of the basin of the St. Lawrence. 16. What is a plateau? And what is a watershed? Give examples of each, and show clearly that each example answers to your definition. 17. "Constantinople, Gibraltar, Suez, and Aden are all keys of important outlets." Show, as you would to children, that this statement is true.

GRAMMAR.

Simple Parsing.—1. Point out the parts of speech in the following lines; and, if you are able, parse the two verbs in the last of the lines:—

"Rome, for empire far renowned,
Tramples on a thousand states;
Soon her pride shall kiss the ground—
Hark! the Goth is at her gates."

Noun, Verb, and Adjective.—2. Give the plural of valley, colloquy, hero, quarto, loaf, proof, oasis, father-in-law. 3. Parse the following:—

"Life is a sea where man is ever lost;
Now plunged in business, now in trifles
lost;
Who leave it first the peaceful port first
gain;
Hold, then, nor further launch into the
main."

Pronoun, Adverb, and Preposition.—4. Give a list of all the words used as relative pronouns in modern English, and write a sentence exemplifying the use of each of these pronouns. 5. Parse the following lines:—

Once in an ancient city, whose name I no
longer remember,
Stood in the public square a brazen statue of
Justice,
With a sword in its hands as an emblem that
right must preside there.

Conjunction and Analysis.—6. What are the essential parts of a sentence? and into what separate parts can the predicate be divided? 7. Analyse the following passage:—"The populace, as if not satisfied with his death, were eager to mangle the corpse of him at whose frown they had so lately trembled." 8. Correct, if necessary, the following sentences:—"Each man, woman, and child were there." "Spring is more preferable than winter." "Let you and I never do this."

Recapitulation.—9. Analyse the following lines:—

"'Tis not a pyramid of marble-stone,
Tho' high as our ambition;
'Tis not a tomb cut out in brass which can
Give life to the ashes of a man;
But verses only ever fresh appear,
Whilst there are men to read or hear."

10. Parse the words which are in italics in the foregoing lines.

Recapitulation, with Source and Growth of the Language.—12. To what family of languages is English supposed to belong—and why?

"Star that bringest home the bee,
And sett'st the weary labourer free,
If any star shed peace 'tis thou,
Appearing when heaven's breath and brow
Are sweet as hers we love."

Analyse the foregoing lines, and parse the words in italics.

ENGLISH HISTORY.

Succession of Kings, with dates.—1. Give the dates of the following events:—(a) Landing of Julius Cæsar. (b) Invasion under Claudius. (c) Government of Julius Agricola. 2. Write down a list of English Sovereigns from Henry IV. to Richard III., with dates. 3. Give the names and dates of English Sovereigns of the House of Brunswick.

To Accession of Henry VII.—4. Sketch the career of William I., and say whether we retain any portion of his Norman possessions. 5. What was Magna Charta? Define two or three of its leading provisions. 6. Give some account of the battle of Bosworth.

Henry VII. to present Time.—7. Give the name and date of the first queen who reigned in this country, and show by earlier examples that the descendants of female heirs to the throne have ranked equally with male heirs. 8. Name the children of Charles I., and mention briefly the fate of each of them. 9. When and where was the battle of Navarino fought? What nations were engaged in it, and with what result?

Recapitulation.—10. Give a brief sketch of the life and character of Edward I. or Charles I. 11. When did Hanover become a principality of the British Crown, and under what law did it cease to be so held? 12. Explain how any proposed measure becomes an Act of Parliament.

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

ELEMENTS OF ALGEBRA, by G. A. Wentworth, A.M., Professor of Mathematics in Phillips Exeter Academy. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.

WE have read this book through with care, and have had satisfaction in our task. Of all the Algebras produced by our friends on the other side of the lakes which have come under our notice, this is by far the best. The definitions are generally well expressed; the examples are many and well selected, though rather easy for those in our secondary schools who are reading for honors. We would say that too much space is given to very elementary work, and not enough assumed on behalf of the teacher's ability to do oral teaching; thus we have very full explanations and comparatively a bulky volume. We miss the compactness of our best text-books on this subject. Factoring, though well presented, has too much space given to it. The diagram in fractions we would leave out; and we notice some repetitions throughout the book. Apparently the author felt it necessary to state at the beginning of each new portion what should have been left for the

teacher to say to his class. Unnecessary distinctions are made in equations, *i.e.*, equations with numerical coefficients and literal coefficients. The examples in fractions and equations are fair and chosen with judgment. Where indeterminate equations and continued functions are given, we would always take the continued functions first in order. There is a chapter on "Choice and Chance," based on Whitworth's elegant work on "Choice and Chance," and permutations and combinations founded thereon. On the whole, we prefer the usual mode of treatment given in our best Algebras.

HAYDN'S DICTIONARY OF DATES, and Universal Information relating to all Ages and Nations. 17th edition, containing the history of the world to the autumn of 1881, by Benjamin Vincent. Revised for American Readers. 1 vol., 8vo. New York: Harper Brothers; Toronto: Willing & Williamson.

IN the introductory preface to this "American Edition" of Haydn's well-known and invaluable work, the editor introduces the word "American" twelve times in the space of fifteen lines. This Americanization of an

old friend half prepared us to find that the chronology of the world was bounded by the years 1776-1883, and that the amazing record of events which the English editors, through sixteen editions, had treasured up for our information had their theatre of action entirely in the *New World*. A glance through the book, however, speedily assured us that it was our old friend, despite the ugly patch upon his face and the American props that had tastelessly been placed under him. "Revised for American Readers!" we thought,—well! let them read, through their Republican spectacles, the "Table of Contemporary European Sovereigns," and the roll of the "Navy of England," and match either, or both if they can. No! no! Brother Jonathan, it's our Old World friend, and you can't disguise him, though you sandwich in Bunker Hill, Bull-Run, and Ben Butler to make good your claim to Americanize the "World of Dates." Seriously, however, the work is too good to be in danger of being spoiled by any American editor; and if he will pardon our chaff, we will forget his bumptious preface and thank him for any service he has done the book. To the student of history, let us add, that the work is priceless; and this new edition, bringing together a prodigious store of carefully-classified and accurate information on every notable event in history, increases the debt we have owed the book in the past, and heightens our reverence for industry and brains.

LIDDELL AND SCOTT'S GREEK-ENGLISH LEXICON, 7th edition, revised and augmented throughout, with the co-operation of Professor Drisler, of Columbia College, New York. 1 vol., 4to. New York: Harper Brothers; Toronto: James Campbell & Son, 1883.

OUR dictionaries and works of reference, thanks to the enterprise of the publishing houses and the industry of modern scholars, grow almost daily under our eyes. The only protest that can be entered against this law of development is that likely to be heard in the mouth of those who are caught with a recently-acquired old edition. The

admonition, whatever the circumstances, is to make the best use of the current editions while they remain un superseded. In regard to the issue before us, however, no dissatisfaction could well arise at its appearance, when the extent and value of the revision is taken into account. For forty years the work has held a first place in the lexicography of the Greek language, and with the advances in comparative philology during this period, of which its editors have taken the fullest advantage, there is little fear but that the lexicon will double its age without any competitor arising to dispute its honours. The additions to the present issue, we are told, consist "mainly of fuller references to classical authors, and a free use of the Indices to the Berlin Aristotle, and to the Corpus Inscriptionum Græcarum." Besides these, Professor Drisler, the American associate of the English editors, has carefully gone over the whole work, and with the assistance of Professors Goodwin and Gildersleeve, has re-written important articles, and otherwise improved and extended the lexicon. It now stands a noble monument of critical scholarship and patient industry.

A HISTORY OF LATIN LITERATURE from Ennius to Boethius, by Geo. A. Simcox, M.A., Fellow of Queen's College, Oxford. 2 vols., cr. 8vo. New York: Harper Brothers; Toronto: Willing & Williamson, 1883.

SCARCELY a greater service could be rendered, alike to the scholar and to those who do not read the classic authors in the original, than has been rendered by Mr. Simcox, in the preparation and issue of this admirable survey of Latin Literature. Within the limits of his work, Mr. Simcox has given us a history, covering some seven centuries, dealing with all the main facts in the literary development of the Roman world, together with a critical account of the scope, spirit, and purport of the writings of the Latin authors. The writer's grasp of his subject, his ability and success in presenting it lucidly to the reader, and his amazing industry in gathering from all well-authenticated sources the best and most critical thought in

regard to the successive literary periods in Roman history he so charmingly reviews, will be appreciated by every student of his pages. The work, with Mr. Mahaffy's recent volumes on Greek authors, supplies a compend of classical literature of the highest excellence and the rarest and most modern scholarship. In a future number we hope to be able to give an extended review of the work: meantime, we have pleasure in acknowledging its receipt from the publishers, and of calling the attention of our readers to its issue.

PRACTICAL GRAMMAR, by Seymour R. Eaton, Winnipeg Business College. Winnipeg (Man.): Robert D. Richardson; Toronto: James Campbell & Son, 1883.

ENGLISH Grammar, our text-books tell us, is the art which teaches how to speak and write the English language correctly. Teachers, however, have too often looked upon it merely as a means of intellectual drill, ignoring largely the practical and true aim of the science. In Ontario, as the Departmental Examinations show, the tendency

is at present to devote more attention to this, the important phase of the subject. But Ontario text-books in grammar are far in the rear of professional thought and opinion. Everyone who has used the book knows that Mason's Grammar is of very little practical value in our schools, and that its existence has to be ignored in the class-room. Manitoba takes the lead in the new movement, as the little volume before us clearly indicates. Its main object, as the author modestly tells us, is to apply the rules of grammar. While keeping in view the wants of students "who have neither the time nor the inclination to spend years in studying the subject as presented in ordinary text-books," it really shows what the grammar of the future must be. We have been too long trammelled by the bonds of analysis and parsing. The special feature of our future text-books on grammar must be their practical value. Mr. Eaton's book is, as it professes, only elementary; but we heartily endorse its plan, and look upon it as the precursor of a more suitable class of text-books.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

THEOLOGICAL-COLLEGE JOURNALISM.

THE advent of *Knox College Monthly*, a journal issued by the Metaphysical and Literary Society of one of the most staid of the denominational Divinity Schools of Canada, is not only indicative of the intrusion of the modern spirit into our College halls, but may be taken as an expression of sympathy with literary culture, and the desire that the institution from which it emanates shall have its representative organ of academical and social life. The new aspirant for journalistic honours pays this magazine the compliment of fashioning its outward garb on the typographical model of the EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY; and in this tasteful array

it may confidently make its bow to its patrons.* Its pages manifest ability, good literary style, and a fair promise of interest and usefulness. It is perhaps a little more sober than its kindred contemporaries, whose editors gambol now and then in the intervals of work; but this no doubt was to be looked for in a journal having the seal of "Knox" upon its face. What gratifies us is the fact that Knox College should enter the lists at all, and that it should open its doors to the

* Let us bid our contemporary, in an aside, to tear off the tailor's badge from its new suit, which, in violation of all the proprieties, is to be found at the foot of the first column of the fifth page. We should as soon expect the pulpit to read a tradesman's advertisement in the middle of a sermon as to meet with this dishonour to literature in the pages of the *K. C. M.*—ED. C. E. M.

atmosphere of literature and admit the healthful breezes of mental activity without. In this action it will no doubt gain what its contemporaries, the organs of Queen's, Victoria, Trinity, and the Presbyterian College, of Montreal, have gained, in bringing their academical institutions before the laity of their respective Churches, and of enlisting public sympathy in the work of the Christian ministry.

In these times it is well that the pulpit should go forth in the full panoply of war. But the age has new wants. It needs not only the steadiness of the old veteran, but the ardour of the young recruit. The times change and the fight goes on, but the battleground shifts and the weapons come from new armouries. Since the decline of theology as a system of intellectual philosophy, the dogmatic spirit has largely given place to the literary. The old training for the pulpit, in its rigid lines and set professionalism, has been put in sad disarray before the mental activities and the freer life of the present age. Not only have the discoveries of science disturbed our theological halls, but its literature has taken them captive. By it the fossilism of the lecture-room is thawed into life and movement; and minds that were given over to dogma and dulness are now pliant and bright. For Calvin, and Baxter, and Edwards, in the way of technical training, there may still be need; but the preferences, we may be sure, are for the luminous minds and the infectious enthusiasm of our modern writers. Farrar, and even Renan, will be read before Fleetwood; and Dick, Chalmers, and Hugh Miller are almost forgotten in Huxley, Darwin, and Tyndall. Nor has the change alone affected the literary and scientific spheres. Music and art are also palpable factors in our modern life. Our places of worship have now been brought within the sphere of art, and the services of the Church are bright and cheerful with song and instrumental music. The homes of the people, too, have caught the infection; and the Sunday reading, while devout and thoughtful, is attractive in its dress and human in its sympathies. Censors may call the age frivolous, and the

people *distanti*; but it is not always politic to quarrel with one's generation. Nor is the indictment, in the main, true; there is much sober reading and serious, often perplexing, thought. The air is charged with doubt, and the lay mind is anxious and perturbed. Much of the thought, it is true, is incited by mere curiosity; but there is earnestness and reflection as well as the speculative habit.

If the pulpit is to retain its influence, it must not only tolerate, but sympathize with, the changed aspect of things. The theological education that is to effect this must get out of the old ruts, and broaden its range both in sympathy and in thought. The contact, moreover, must be close and personal—not distant and official. The religion that to-day is to be effective is that which shall concern itself with the every-day life of the men and women of the time, and that shall reach the intellect as well as the heart. What the press is accomplishing in moulding the thought of the age and giving colour to religious life, should quicken the pulpit to more strenuous effort and to higher aims. With the themes the minister has to present, and with such a literary arsenal as he has in the Bible, there is no reason why the pulpit should be less influential than the rostrum of the scientist. It only wants broader and deeper preparation, a literary instinct as well as a theological, and above all, a rich, warm nature, a magnetic manner, and fervent zeal. With men of this stamp in the pulpit, we shall hear less of the indifferentism of the age, and more of its earnest and beneficent activities—less of the decline of faith and more of its settled beliefs and high aspirations. The journalism of our theological halls can be no unimportant factor in influencing this result.

AMERICAN LITERATURE.

"SOUL JEALOUSY" on the one side, and "supercilious contempt" on the other have long marked the relations of English and American writers, and too frequently been the key note of criticism in reviewing each other's literary work. The supersensitive-

ness which belongs to literary men as a class has been intensified by national predilections; and were not the Atlantic between them we should, we fear, witness such scenes as would put to the blush the "Society on the Stanislaus." As things are, the frayed egoism, and resultant damage to literary reputation, marks the intensity of international criticism, and is ominous of strife in the future rivalry of English and American authors. Formerly, this acrimony had its field of operation in diplomacy and public affairs: now it seeks the rifle-pits of literature. The strife is, no doubt, aggravated by the absence of protection to the American author, and the strangulation of native literature by the hydra-headed reprints of the free-booting American publisher. For this state of things, however, the American people have themselves to blame. Nevertheless, it is a misfortune that the amity of two nations should be in constant peril from the greed of publishers and the jealousy and super-sensitiveness of authors.

These remarks are more immediately suggested by the appearance of Prof. Nichol's "Historical Sketch of American Literature," and the hubbub which its issue has occasioned. The guild of fretful authorcraft on this side of the Atlantic, it seems, has taken offence at Dr. Nichol's frank estimate of many American writers, and is up in arms against his alleged favouritism and occasional disparagement. The din is increased by an international controversy on the art-methods of the new school of American novelists, and by a vigorous onslaught on Mr. Howells, in English journals, for his unfair representation, in his recent novels, of English women. As we have no desire to be participants in the fray, our readers will excuse us from entering further into the controversy; though we are bound to add, that it is a pity that bumptiousness on the one side and petulance on the other should be permitted to ruffle international temper. Perhaps the Mother Country, in this affair, is most to blame, as in Mrs. Trollope's criticisms and in Dickens's American Notes, she set the fashion of unkindly and unreasoning comment, though both in literature and in

diplomacy, it will be admitted, ample atonement for these offences has since been made. For literature's sake, as well as for that of peace, we hope that the controversy will subside, and that each nation will seek the good in the other, and add many a chapter to the "amenities of literature."

Whatever has marred Dr. Nichol's work, we are sure, that to most American writers he has done justice. On the whole, the book, though discriminating in its judgments, is an appreciative and scholarly tribute to American genius; and the nation to the south of us ought to be gratified that it finds in Prof. Nichol so eminent a critic and so loving an historian of its literature. To the class across the line who not only brag of an American literature, but plume themselves upon an American language, of which English is a mere provincialism, Prof. Nichol's dispassionate sketch will be a rank offence. But no writer is called upon to satisfy this class; and Prof. Nichol would take leave of his self-respect were he to attempt it. The Canadian student of the subject, at all events, will find much in the work to profit him. The range of American literature is now rapidly extending, and much of it is not only interesting but artistic. The Colonial stage has long been left behind, and in every branch of letters American writers are now doing creditable work. The growth of mind in nations and individuals is always an interesting study, and there is much in the literary work of the Republic to repay perusal and gratify research. Would that Canada could see the promise of a like achievement!

RENOUNCING THE PROFESSION.

THE announcement that Mr. G. H. Robinson, M.A., had resigned the Principalship of the Whitby Collegiate Institute, to go into mercantile life, was at first received by us as a *canard*, so unlikely did we think it that a gentleman of Mr. Robinson's ability and success in the profession would desert its ranks, throw away his prospects of advancement in it, turn his back on the work for which he had toilsomely fitted himself, and begin life afresh in a new, though more

promising and remunerative, field of labour. On receiving confirmation of the report, and learning that our friend had been led to take the step "owing to the strain upon his health, occasioned by the confining and arduous duties of his position," our regret was keen and sincere. On personal grounds we felt that our congratulations were due to Mr. Robinson, in his having the good fortune to draw a prize in the lottery of commerce, which, besides adding considerably, as we believed, to his income, secured him the advantage, which all men of culture desire, of a residence at the Provincial capital. Professionally, however, there was the other view to be taken, and it was one that occasioned us regret, viz., that education would be greatly the loser by the course Principal Robinson had decided upon. In this latter view of the case, we feel sure that many will join with us; though, no doubt, not a few who are in the harness, and who feel its daily chafings, will applaud Mr. Robinson's choice, and wish themselves happily in his place. That the vocation of the teacher should be so irksome and wearying, cannot but be detrimental to education and a most serious drawback to the profession. To be constantly under the spur, to have every energy put to the straining-point, to suffer nervous collapse, and be haunted by fears of ultimate break-down and perhaps a premature death, with little chance to save a penny and no grateful country to remember, with generous hand, the labour performed in the days of strength and usefulness—is the situation of a slave and the outlook of a bondman. When, in the name of common sense, will our educational authorities recognize that the position in this rich Province of the toiling brain-workers of the schools is a blot upon the Provincial escutcheon and a libel on the discernment of the age? When, also, will school trustees and the people see that right and justice demand that the profession shall receive honourable and generous treatment—the encouragement and sympathy, rather than the indifference and contumely, of their fellow-men? To paraphrase Emerson's saying, the first requisite the public seems to

look for in the schoolmaster is, that he shall be a good animal. And an animal, a good draught-horse, is all that nine-tenths of the community appear to want in him. Is this, we ask, either humane or politic? While the teacher's status remains what it is, while he continues to be over-worked, underpaid, harassed, dispirited, and confounded, need we wonder if good men leave the profession, and seek occupations in which their lot will be more tolerable, and where there will be a better adjustment of labour and enjoyment?

In Mr. Robinson's resignation of his Head-mastership, Whitty suffers a loss that will not readily be repaired. His management has done much for the Institute, and that in the face of sharp competition in his district, and at a period when the professional race has been keen and exhausting. In the profession he has earned distinction: in commerce may he be *assured* the bays! As editor of the Classical department of this magazine, we owe much alike to his assiduity and to his scholarship. We trust that in his leaving the profession we shall not lose his co-operation, but that his services may still be secured to the magazine and to its readers. Once more, we regret to see a good man renounce the profession.

A FOUNTAIN PEN that always writes and never "leaks," that makes a fair, plain line, and never blackens the fingers, and that, once filled, can be used for days without change, avoiding all the bother and interruption of reaching over to the inkstand for a fresh dip every two minutes, that can be carried in the pocket, and is as handy for use and as neat as a lead pencil, and that writes on any paper however thin or soft; such a pen is worth having. And such a pen is the "Livermore Stylographic Pen." This we know from personal use.—*Editor Chicago Advance.*

The Livermore Company, which originally introduced the Stylographic Pen, have recently made great improvements in their pen, and have reduced the price so that everybody can have a chance to purchase the best article of the kind. By sending \$2 to I. W. E. Dunlap, Manager Stylographic Pen Co., 290 Washington St., Boston, you will receive by return mail one of these famous pens, and also a sufficient quantity of superior ink for six months' use. Full particulars as to different styles and prices can be obtained by sending for circular.