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THE CANADA

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY

AND SCHOOL MAGAZINE.

APRIL, 1883.

A FEW WORDS ABOUT THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

BY FREDERIC HARRISON.

THE stormy antipathies of Thomas Carlyle have to answer for many a miscarriage of historical justice; but for none more unfounded than that superior air with which he teaches the nineteenth century to sit in judgment on the eighteenth. "The age of prose, of lying, of sham," said he, "the fraudulent-bankrupt century, the reign of Beelzebub, the peculiar era of cant." And so growls on our Teufelsdröckh through thirty octavo volumes, from the first philosophy of clothes to the last hour of Friedrich.

Invectives against a century are even more unprofitable than indictments against a nation. We are prepared for them in theology, but they have quite gone out of serious history. Whatever else it may be, we may take it that the nineteenth century is the product of the eighteenth, as that was in turn the product of the seventeenth; and if the prince of darkness had so lately a hundred years of rule in Europe, to what fortunate event do we owe our own deliverance, and indeed the nativity of Thomas Carlyle? But surely invectives were never more out of place, than when hurled at a century which was simply the turning epoch of the modern world, the age which gave birth to the movements wherein we live, and to all the tasks that we yet labour to solve. Look at the eighteenth century on all sides of its manifold life, free the mind from that lofty pity with which prosperous folk are apt to remember their grandfathers, and we shall find it in achievement the equal of any century since the Middle Ages; in promise and suggestion and preparation, the century which most deeply concerns ourselves.

Though Mr. Carlyle seems to count it the sole merit of the eighteenth century to have provided us the French Revolution (the most glorious bonfire record in profane history), it is not a little curious that almost all his heroes in modern times, apart from Oliver Cromwell, are chil-

dren and representatives of that unspeakable epoch. Such were Friedrich, Mirabeau, and Danton, George Washington, Samuel Johnson, and Robert Burns, Watt and Arkwright; and, for more than half of the century, and for more than half his work, so was Goethe himself. It sounds strange to accuse of unmitigated grossness and quackery the age which gave us these men; and which produced, besides, "Robinson Crusoe" and "The Vicar of Wakefield," the "Elegy in a Churchyard" and the lines "To Mary" and "To my Mother's Picture," Berkeley's Dialogues and Burke's Addresses, Reynolds and Gainsborough, Flaxman and Stothard, Handel and Mozart. But one remembers that according to the Teufelsdrockhian cosmogony, great men are dropped *ab extra* into their age, much as some philosophers assure us that protoplasm, or the primitive germ of life, was casually dropped upon our planet by a truant aerolite.

A century which opens with "The Rape of the Lock," and closes with the first part of "Faust," is hardly a century of mere prose, especially if we throw in Gray, Cowper, and Burns, "The Ancient Mariner" and the "Lyrical Ballads." A century which includes twenty years of the life of Newton, twenty-three of Wren's, and sixteen of Leibnitz, and the whole lives of Hume, Kant, Adam Smith, Gibbon, and Priestley, is not the age of mere shallowness; nor is the century which founded the monarchy of Prussia, and the empire of Britain, which gave birth to the republic in America and then in France, and which finally recast modern society and formed our actual habits, the peculiar era of quackeries, bonfires, and suicides. Measure it justly by the light of scientific history, and not by the tropes of some Biblical saga, and it holds its own beside the greatest epochs in the modern world; of all modern eras perhaps the richest, most various, most creative. It raised to the rank of sciences, chemistry, botany, and zoology; it created the conception of social science and laid its foundations; it produced the historical schools and the economic schools of England and of France, the new metaphysics of Germany, the new music of Germany; it gave birth to the new poetic movement in England, to the new romance literature of England and of France, to the true prose literature of Europe; it transformed material life by manifold inventions and arts; it transformed social life no less than political life; it found modern civilization in a military phase, it left it in an industrial phase; it found modern Europe fatigued, oppressed with worn-out forms, uneasy with the old life, uncertain and hopeless about the new; it left modern Europe recast without and animated with a new soul within; burning with life, hope, and energy.

The habit of treating a century as an organic whole, with a character of its own, is the beaten pathway to superficial comparison. History, after all, is not grouped into natural periods of one hundred years, as different from each other as the life of the son from that of his father. Nor, whatever the makers of chronologies may say, does mankind really turn over a new page in the great record, so soon as the period of one hundred years is complete. The genius of any time, even though it be in a single country, even in one city, is a thing too marvellously complex to be hit off by epithets from the minor prophets or Gargantuan anathemas and nicknames. And as men are not born at the beginning of a century, and do not die at the end of it, but grow, flourish, and decay year by year and hour by hour, we are ever entering on

a new epoch and completing an old one, did we but know it, on the first day of every year we live, nay at the rising and the setting of every sun.

But, though a century be an arbitrary period, as purely conventional as a yard or a mile, and though every century has a hundred characters of its own, and as many lives and as many results, we must for convenience take note of conventional limits, and fix our attention on special features as the true physiognomy of an epoch. History altogether is a wilderness, till we parcel it out into sections more or less arbitrary, choosing some class of facts out of the myriads that stand recorded, steadily turning our eyes from those which do not concern our immediate purpose. And so, we can think of a century as in some sort a definite whole, in some sense inspired with a definite spirit, and leading to a set of definite results. And we are quite right in so doing, provided we keep a watchful and balanced mind, in no mechanical way, and in no rhetorical or moralizing mood, but in order to find what is general, dominant, and central.

If we seek for some note to mark off the eighteenth from all other centuries, we shall find it in this; it was the time of final maturing the great revolution in Europe, the mightiest change in all human history. By revolution we mean, not the blood-stained explosion and struggle in France, which was little but one of its symptoms and incidents, but that resettlement of modern life common to all parts of the civilized world; which was at once religious, intellectual, scientific, social, moral, political, and industrial; a resettlement whereon the whole fabric of human society in the future is destined to rest. The era as a whole (so far from being trivial, sceptical, fraudulent, or suicidal) was, in all its central and highest moments, an era of hope, enterprise, industry, and humanity; full of humane eagerness for improvement, trusting human nature, and earnestly bent on human good. It sadly miscalculated the difficulties and risks, and it strangely undervalued the problems it attempted to solve with so light a heart. Instead of being really the decrepit monster among the ages, it was rather the *naïf* and confident youngster. The work of political reformation on which it engaged in a spirit of artless benevolence brought down on its head a terrible rebuff; and it left us thereby a heritage of confusion and strife. But the hurly-burly at Versailles and the Reign of Terror are no more the essence of the eighteenth century, than the Irish atrocities and the Commune of Paris are the essence of the nineteenth. Political chaos, rebellions, and wars are at most but a part of a century's activity, and sometimes indeed but a small part.

In the core, the epoch was hearty, manly, humane; second to none in energy, mental, practical, and social; full of sense, work, and good fellowship. Its manliness often fattened into grossness; soon to show new touches of exquisite tenderness. Its genius for enterprise plunged it into changes, and prepared for us evils which it little foresaw. But the work was all undertaken in genuine zeal for the improvement of human life. If its poetry was not of the highest of all orders, the century created a new order of poetry. If its art was on the whole below the average, in the noble art of music it was certainly supreme. In philosophy, science, moral and religious truth, it was second to none that went before. In politics it ended in a most portentous catastrophe. But the very catastrophe resulted from its passion for truth and reform. Nor is it easy for us now to see how the catastrophe could have been avoided, even if we see our way to avoid such

catastrophes again. And in such a cause it was better to fail in striving after the good than to perish by acquiescing in the evil. If one had to give it a name, I would rather call it the *humane* age (in spite of revolutions, wars, and fashionable corruption); for it was the era when humanity first distinctly perceived the possibilities and conditions of mature human existence.

It would be easy enough to find scores of names, facts, and events to the contrary of all this; but it would be quite as easy to find scores to the contrary of any opinion about any epoch. A century is a mass of contradictions by the necessity of the case; for it is made up of every element to be found in human nature. The various incidents are in no way to be overlooked; neither are they to be exaggerated. To balance the qualities of an epoch, we must analyze them all separately, compare them one by one, and then find the centre of gravity of the mass. England will concern us in the main; but the spirit of the age can never be strictly confined to its action in any one country. Such movements as the Renascence in the sixteenth, or the Revolution in the eighteenth century, are especially common to Europe. It would be impossible to understand the eighteenth century in England, if we wholly shut our eyes to the movements abroad of which the English phase was the reflex and organ. Nor must we forget how much our judgment of the eighteenth century is warped (it is obvious that Mr Carlyle's was entirely formed) by literary standards and impressions. Literature has been deluged with the affectations, intrigues, savagery, and uncleanness of the eighteenth century. Other centuries had all this in at least equal degree; but the eighteenth was the first to display it in pungent literary form. Industry, science, invention, and benevolence were less tempting fields for these brilliant penmen. And thus an inordinate share of attention is given to the quarrels of poets, the vices of courts, and the grimacing of fops. It is the business of serious history to correct the impression which torrents of smart writing have left on the popular mind.

We are all rather prone to dwell on the follies and vices of that era, with which we are more familiar than we are with any other, almost more than we are with our own. It is the first age, since that of Augustus, which ever left inimitable pictures of its own daily home existence. We recall to mind so easily the ladies of quality at the *Spectator's* routs, the rioters and intrigues of Hervey's memoirs, and of Walpole's, and of "the little Burney's;" the Squire Westerns, the Wilkeses, and the Queensberrys; the Hell-fire Clubs, and the Rake's Progresses; the political invectives of Junius and Burke; the courts of St. James's and Versailles; the prisons, the assizes, the parties of pleasure to Bedlam and to Bridewell; the Wells at Tunbridge, Bath, and Epsom; the masquerades at Vauxhall and Ranelagh; the taverns, the streets, the Mohocks, and the duellists; the gin-drinking and the bull-baiting, the gambling and the swindling; and a thousand pictures of social life by a crowd of consummate artists. Perhaps we study these piquant miniatures with too lively a gust. The question is not whether such things were, but what else there was also. The pure, the tender, the just, the merciful, is there as well, patiently toiling in the even tenor of its way; and if we look for it honestly, we shall find it a deeper, wider, more effective force in the main, shaping the issue in the end for good.

Addison and Steele were not the greatest of teachers, but they have

mingled with banter about fans and monsters something deeper and finer, such as none had touched before, something of which six generations of moralists have never given us the like. "To love her was a liberal education." Is there a nobler or profounder sentence in our language? It is a phrase to dignify a nation, and to purify an age; yet it was flung off by "poor Dick," one of the gayest wits, for one of the lightest hours of a most artificial society. Western, be it never forgotten, was the name not only of a boisterous foxhunter, but of the most lovable woman in English fiction. What a mass of manly stuff does our English soil seem to breed as we can up the creations of Fielding! What homes of sturdy vigour do we enter as we turn over the pages of Defoe, and Swift, and Smollett, and Goldsmith, and Johnson; or again in the songs of Burns, or the monotonous lines of Crabbe; or in such glimpses of English firesides as we catch in the young life of Miss Edgeworth, or in our old friend "Sandford and Merton," or the record of Scott's early years, or the life of Adam Smith, or Bishop Berkeley! What a world of hardihood and patience is there in the lives of Captain Cook, and Watt, Brindley, and Arkwright, Metcalfe, and Wedgwood! What spiritual tenderness in the letters of Cowper, and the memoirs of Wesley, Howard, Wilberforce, and scores of hard workers, just spirits and faithful hearts who were the very breath and pulse of the eighteenth century! What a breeze from the uplands plays round those rustic images in all forms of art; the art often thin and tame itself, but the spirit like the fragrance of new hay; in such paintings as Morland's, or such poems as Thomson's, Beattie's, and Somerville's, or such prose as Fielding's, Goldsmith's, and Smollett's!

> How jocund did they drive their team afield!
> How bow'd the woods beneath their sturdy stroke!

If in that mass of toiling, daring, hearty, simple life, we think overmuch of the riot of fashion and the gossip of courts, the fault is, perhaps, with those who look to fashion for the keynote, and care more for crowds than they care for homes.

A century is never, we have said, a really organic whole, but a group of various movements taken up and broken off at two arbitrary points. The eighteenth is as little a whole as any other; but we may group it into parts in some degree thus: The first ten or fifteen years are clearly more akin to the seventeenth century than the eighteenth. Locke, Newton, and Leibnitz, Wallis and Wren; Burnet and Somers; James II., Louis XIV., and William III.; Bossuet and Fénelon, lived into the century, and Dryden lived up to it—but none of these belong to it. As in French history it is best to take the age of Louis by itself, so in English history it is best to take the Whig Revolution by itself; for Anne is not easily parted from her sister, nor is Marlborough to be severed from William and Portland. In every sense the reign of Anne was the issue and crown of the movement of 1688, and not the forerunner of that of 1789. For all practical purposes, the eighteenth century in England means the reigns of the first three Georges. This space we must group into three periods of unequal length:—

1. From the accession of the house of Hanover (1714), down to the fall of Walpole (1742). This is the age of Bolingbroke and Walpole; Swift, Defoe, Pope, Addison, Steele, Bishop Berkeley, and Bishop Butler, Halley, Stephen Gray, and Bradley.

2. From the fall of Walpole (1742) to the opening of the French Revolution (1789). It is the age of Chat-

ham, of Frederick, Washington, and Turgot; of Wolfe, Clive, and Hastings, Rodney, and Anson; of Gibbon, and Robertson, of Hume and Adam Smith; of Kant, Voltaire, Diderot, and Rousseau; of Richardson and Fielding, Sterne and Smollett, Johnson and Goldsmith; of Cowper and Gray, Thomson and Beattie; of Reynolds and Gainsborough, Hogarth and Garrick; of Cook, Watt, Arkwright, Brindley, Herschel, Black, Priestley, Hunter, Franklin, and Cavendish; of Handel, Bach, Haydn, and Mozart; of Wesley, Whitefield, Howard, and Raikes.

This is the central typical period of the eighteenth century, with a note of its own; some fifty years of energy thought, research, adventure, invention, industry; of good fellowship, a zest for life, and a sense of humanity.

3. Lastly come some twelve years of the Revolution (1789-1801); a mere fragment of a larger movement that cannot be limited to any country or to any century; the passion and the strife, the hope and the foreshadowing of things that were to come and things that are not come. It is the age of Pitt, Fox, Burke and Grattan; of Cornwallis and Nelson; of Bentham and Romilly, Wilberforce and Clarkson; of Goethe and Burns, Coleridge and Wordsworth; of Telford and Stephenson; of Flaxman, Bewick, Romney, and Stothard; the youth of Sir H. Davy, Scott, Beethoven, and Turner; the boyhood of Byron and Shelley.

It is impossible to omit this critical period of the century, though we too often forget that it forms an integral part of it, quite as truly as the age of Pope or the age of Johnson. The century is not intelligible if we cast out of it the mighty crisis in which it ended, to which it was leading all along; or if we talk of that new birth as a bonfire or a suicide. Even in art we are apt to forget that the century of Pope and Johnson it was that gave us "Faust," the "Ancient Mariner," "The Task," the "Lyrical Ballads," Flaxman, Stothard's and Blake's delicate and weird fancies, Turner's first manner, Beethoven's early sonatas, and Scott's translations from the German. All that we value as specially distinctive of our age lay in embryo in many a quiet home, whilst the struggle raged at its hottest on the banks of the Seine, or on the Rhine, the Po, and the Nile.

When the eighteenth century opened, the supremacy in Europe belonged to England, as it has hardly ever belonged before or since. In William III. she had one of the greatest and most successful of all modern statesmen, the one great ruler she ever had since Cromwell. The Revolution of 1688 had placed her in the van of freedom, industry, and thought. Her armies were led by one of the most consummate soldiers in modern history. Her greatest genius in science, her greatest genius in architecture, and one of her wisest spirits in philosophy, were in full possession of their powers; "glorious John," the recognized chief of the Restoration poets, was but just dead, and his young rival was beginning to unfold his yet more consummate mastery of rhyme. The founders of English prose were equipping our literature with a new arm, the easy and flexible style of modern prose; Swift, Addison, and Defoe were the first to show its boundless resources, nor has any improvement been added to their art. The nation was full of energy, wealth, and ambition; and it still glowed with the sense of freedom, with all that it shook off in the train of the Stuarts.

We should count the last days of William and the whole reign of Anne rather with the Revolution of 1688, of which they were the fruit, than with the Hanoverian period, for which they

paved the way. And thus we may pass the campaigns of Churchill, and the overthrow of Louis, and all else that was the second and corollary of the struggle with the Stuarts. On the other hand, when we reach the close of the century, England is struggling with a movement which she had only indirectly created, but which she was equally unable to develop or to guide. The characteristic period of the eighteenth century for England is that between the death of Anne and the great war with the Republic (1714-1793). The first fourteen years of the century belong to the history of the English Revolution—the last years to the history of the French Revolution. The eighty years of comparative non-intervention and rest are for Englishmen at least the typical years of the eighteenth century.

It was an era of peace. Indeed it was the first era of systematic peace. In spite of Fontenoy and Minden, Belleisle and Quiberon Bay, it was the first period in our history where the internal welfare of the nation took recognized place before the interests of the dynasty, and its prestige in Europe. The industrial prosperity of the nation, and the supreme authority of Parliament, were made, for the first time in our history, the guiding canons of the statesman. Walpole is the statesman of the eighteenth century; a statesman of a solid, albeit a somewhat vulgar type. If history was the digest of pungent anecdote, it would be easy to multiply epigrams about the corruption of Walpole. Yet, however unworthy his method, or gross his nature, Robert Walpole created the modern statesmanship of England. The imperial Chatham in one sense developed, in another sense distorted, the policy of Walpole; much as the first consul developed and distorted the revolutionary defence of France. And so the early career of William Pitt was a mere prolongation of the system of Walpole: purer in method, and more scientific in aim, but less efficient in result. Alas! after the glorious years as the minister of peace and of reform, Pitt's career and his very nature were transformed by that aristocratic panic which made him the unwilling instrument of reaction. But Walpole has left a name that is a symbol of peace, as that of Chatham and of Pitt as a symbol of war. And thus Walpole remains, with all his imperfections on his head, the veritable founder of our industrial statesmanship, the Parliamentary father of Fox, of Peel, of Cobden, of Gladstone.

That industrial organization of peace by means of a Parliamentary government was the true work of our eighteenth century; for the European triumphs of Anne should be counted amongst the fruits of the heroic genius of William, and the crusade of Pitt against the Republic should be counted as a backward step of reactionary panic. It was not well done by the statesmen of peace, that industrial organization of England; it was most corruptly and ignobly done; but it was done. And it ended (we must admit) in a monstrous perversion. The expansion of wealth and industry, which the peace-policy of Walpole begot, stimulated the nation to seek new outlets abroad, and led to the conquest of a vast empire. When the eighteenth century opened, the King of England ruled, outside of these islands, over some two or three millions at the most. When the nineteenth century opened, these two or three had become at least a hundred millions. The colonies and settlements in America and in Australia, the maritime dependencies, the Indies East and West, were mainly added to the crown during the eighteenth century, and chiefly by the imperial policy of Chatham. So far

as they were a genuine expansion of our industrial life, they are a permanent honour of the age, so far as they are the prizes of ambitious adventure, they were the reversal of the system of Walpole. It was Chatham, says his bombastic monument in Guildhall, who made commerce to flourish by war. It is an ignoble epitaph, though Burke himself composed it. But for good or for evil, it was the policy and the age of the two Pitts which gave England her gigantic colonial and maritime empire. And whether it be her strength and glory as many think it, or her weakness and burden as I hold it, it was assuredly one of the most momentous crises in the whole of our history. A change, at least as momentous, was effected at home from within. The latter half of the eighteenth century converted our people from a rural to a town population, made this essentially a manufacturing, not an agricultural country, and established the factory system. No industrial revolution so sudden and so thorough can be found in the history of our island. If we put this transformation of active life beside the formation of the empire beyond the seas, we shall find England swung round into a new world, as, in so short a time, has hardly ever befallen a nation. The change which in three generations has trebled our population, and made the old kingdom the mere heart of a huge empire, led to portentous consequences both moral and material which were hardly understood till our own day. It is the singular boast of the nineteenth century to have covered this island with vast tracts of continuous cities and works, factories and pits; but it was the eighteenth century which made this possible. Appalling as are many of the forms which the fabulous expansion of industry has taken to-day, it is too late now to deplore or resist it. The best hours of the twentieth century, we all trust, will be given to reform the industrial extravagances of the nineteenth century; but it will be possible only on condition of accepting the industrial revolution which the eighteenth century brought about.

Whatever be the issue of this great change in English life, there can be no question about the sterling qualities of the men to whose genius and energy it was due. The whole history of the English race has no richer page than that which records those hardy mariners, who with Cook and Anson girdled the globe; the inventors and workers who made the roads and the canals, the docks and the lighthouses, the furnaces and the mines, the machines and the engines; the artpotters like Wedgwood, inspired spinners like Crompton, roadmakers like the blind Metcalfe, engineers like Smeaton, discoverers like Watt, canal makers like Bridgewater and Brindley, engravers like Bewick, opticians like Dollond, inventors like Arkwright. Let us follow these men into their homes and their workshops, watch their lives of indefatigable toil, of quenchless vision into things beyond, let us consider their patience, self-denial, and faith before we call their age of all others that of quackery, bankruptcy, and fraud. We may believe it rather the age of science, industry, and invention.

A striking feature of those times was the dispersion of intellectual activity in many local centres, though the entire population of the island was hardly twice that of London to-day. Birmingham, Manchester, Derby, Bristol, Norwich, Leeds, Newcastle, and other towns were potent sources of science, art and culture, and all the more vigorous that they depended little on the capital. A hundred years ago the population and extent of Birmingham was hardly one hundreth part of what it is now. But what a wealth of industry, courage,

science, and genius in that quiet mid-land village lay grouped round Dr. Darwin and his Lunar Society with James Watt and Matthew Boulton, then at work on their steam-engine, and Murdoch, the inventor of gas-lighting; and Wedgwood, the father of the potteries; and Hutton the book-seller, and Baskerville the printer; and Thomas Day, and Lovel Edgeworth, a group to whom often came Franklin, and Smeaton, and Black, and in their centre their great philosopher and guide and moving spirit, the noble Joseph Priestley. Little as we think of it now, that group, where the indomitable Boulton kept open house, was a place of pilgrimage to the ardent minds of Europe; it was one of the intellectual cradles of modern civilization. And it is interesting to remember that our great Charles Darwin is on both sides the grandson of men who were leading members of that Lunar Society, itself a provincial Royal Society. What forces lay within it? What a giant was Watt, fit to stand beside Gutenberg and Columbus, as one of the few single discoveries have changed the course of human civilization! And, if we chose one man as a type of the intellectual energy of the century, we could hardly find a better than Joseph Priestley, though his was not the greatest mind of the century. His versatility, eagerness, activity, and humanity; the immense range of his curiosity, in all things physical, moral, or social; his place in science, in theology, in philosophy, and in politics; his peculiar relation to the Revolution, and the pathetic story of his unmerited sufferings, may make him the hero of the eighteenth century.

The strength of the century lay neither in politics nor in art; it lay in breadth of understanding. In political genius, in poetry, in art, the eighteenth was inferior to the seventeenth century, and even to the sixteenth; in moral, in social, and in material development it was far inferior to the nineteenth. But in philosophy, in science, in mental versatility, it has hardly any equal in the ages. Here, especially, it is impossible to limit the view to one country. Politics, industry, and art are local. Science and research know nothing of country, have no limitations of tongue, race, or government. In philosophy then the century numbers: Leibnitz, Vico, Berkeley, Montesquieu, Diderot, D'Alembert, Condorcet, Kant, Turgot, Hume, Adam Smith. In science it counts Buffon, Linnæus, Lavoisier, Laplace, Lamarck, Lagrange, Halley, Herschel, Franklin, Priestley, Black, Cavendish, Volta, Galvani, Bichat, and Hunter. To interpret its ideas, it had such masters of speech as Voltaire, Rousseau, Swift, Johnson, Gibbon, Lessing, Goethe, and Burke. It organized into sciences (crystallizing the data till then held in solution) physics, chemistry, botany, zoology, comparative anatomy, electricity, psychology, and the elements of social science, both in history and in statics. It threw up these three dominant movements: (1) the idea of law in mind and in society, that is, the first postulate of mental and social science; (2) that genius for synthesis of which the work of Buffon, of Linnæus, and the Encyclopædia itself, were all phases; (3) that idea of social reconstruction, of which the new *régime* of '89, the American Republic, and our reformed Parliament are all products. The seventeenth century can show, perhaps, a list of greater separate names, if we add those in poetry, politics, and art. But for mass, result, multiplicity, and organic power, it may be doubted if any century in modern history has more to show than the eighteenth.—*Nineteenth Century.*

(To be continued.)

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.*

BY WILLIAM LEIGH, FARQUHAR, ONT.

THOSE of you who have studied "Mason's Grammar" will have found that he points out a number of difficulties encountered by students in the grammatical study of English. Perhaps the most prominent difficulty is that of the "Subjunctive Mood," and from the way in which Mason deals with it, it is evident that he has felt the difficulty himself. In saying this, I do not wish you to think that I consider that Mason lacks anything in clearness, or that he does violence to any of the principles of English. Of all the authors I have studied on this subject—Abbott, Mason, Angus, Fleming, and Bain—Mason is the only one, in my opinion, who has interpreted faithfully the teachings of our best grammarians.

The real source of difficulty, it seems to me, however, is the way in which we were taught to distinguish moods. The method was purely mechanical. Now, when Mason wishes us to free ourselves from a tyranny of names, and presents peculiarities, hitherto unnoticed, in a logical manner, we, as teachers, who possess more than ordinary intelligence and a little literary culture, but whose minds have become vitiated by the teachings we received from the old grammars and older teachers, at first do not perceive the distinctions in thought, to express which the English language is so admirably fitted.

It would be presumption on my part to enter into arguments in favour of the new conjugation, for any one who has examined Mason must have found reasons sufficiently cogent to abandon the old method.

It may be well here to observe that in doing away with the Potential Mood there has been recognized that important principle in grammatical science, that all grammatical expedients are to be valued in so far as they explain fully the force and office of those words with which they deal.

The Potential Mood long occupied a conspicuous place in the conjugation of our verbs, but it has by many been discovered to be a useless invention—a deviation from the foregoing rule, not having a solitary circumstance to recommend its retention. It has accordingly been discarded for an arrangement that unfolds the true use of verbs.

It is a matter of surprise how such an arbitrary arrangement as the Potential Mood should be accepted by succeeding generations as the best that could be devised.

The only explanation of this is, that, in times past, teachers supposed themselves to be strictly confined to the authorized text-book, and did not investigate for themselves. The question was not "What does language teach," "What does use teach;" but "What does the authorized text-book teach?" The doom of this system has been sealed, fortunately for the studies of our pupils. Research in all the departments of English grammar has been extended, and it may now with truth, and not with irony, be called a science and an art.

But we shall suppose that we are now beginning a school term, and that we have a class that have been

* A paper read before the West Huron Teachers' Association, Feb. 17th, 1883.

promoted to the fourth form, and is perfectly familiar with the Indicative Mood in simple and compound sentences. The Subjunctive Mood comes up for explanation.

Experience confirms me in the belief that the use of the past tense, as explained by Mason, pp. 433 and 434, is the most advantageous, for that contains the best test of the Subjunctive Mood: viz., to determine whether the supposition corresponds with or is contrary to what is the fact; and I think this needs no great power of discrimination.

Mason has made this point so clear that it would be not only useless but presumptuous to attempt any further explanation. Yet the anomalous use of the past tense, in reference to present time, demands some attention.

I think you will agree with me when I say that all present conditions of things were brought about in past times, either near or remote. Take then an example: "If Noah were here, I should speak to him." Noah's being present would have to be a fact before the speaker, under the circumstances, could speak to him. Hence, in the hypothetical clause the past tense is properly employed to make a distinction between the real and supposed condition of things. In the consequent clause the use of the past tense secures the same end, showing "the want of congruity between the supposition and the fact."

Experience tells us that a serious difficulty with beginners is the use of the Present Indicative in hypothetical clauses. They fail to comprehend the reason for the supposition or what was in the mind of the speaker—to denote which is the office of moods.

Here many who have tried to investigate the matter have experienced a difficulty, and with many investigation has ceased, because they could not tell when to use, and when not to use, the Present Indicative in hypothetical clauses. For this reason I have given this point a somewhat lengthy consideration, and to make the matter perfectly clear we shall take an example in which the present indicative is used in the hypothetical clause. "If the boy is guilty he deserves to be punished." In dealing with this sentence before my class, I was asked by one of my senior pupils, "Why does the speaker put his opinion in the form of a supposition if there is no doubt on his mind?" It may seem strange that, although students daily meet with this use of the Indicative, they are hopelessly bewildered when they attempt to define what was in the mind of the speaker in such cases; nevertheless this is a fact. In clearing the path of investigation for my pupils, I require them first to recite the two views of suppositions, so fully illustrated in Mason's Advanced Grammar, pp. 429 and 433. Then taking an example like the previous one, we pursue the matter in the following way. We shall suppose that the boy mentioned, while in the playground, was guilty of a misdemeanor, deserving corporal punishment, and another boy who witnessed the crime, having informed the teacher of the fact, he sends for the boy, who comes in, and the other boys follow to the anteroom to know the result. After a thorough investigation of the matter, the boy acknowledges the fault, and the teacher is in the act of inflicting the punishment, when a stranger enters the ante-room where the boys are assembled, and asks the cause of the boy's being punished; he is informed of the circumstance, and says, "Well, if he is guilty he deserves to be punished."

Of the boy's guilt there is no doubt, and consequently he uses the Indicative Mood. It may appear to you that I have magnified this difficulty, but I have invariably found

that, simple as it may seem, it is a point which I had trouble in mastering, and which I have found a stumbling block to students.

With the desire to be practical, I have simply attempted to indicate, in terms as plain as possible, the plan which I have found most successful in getting my pupils to master the Subjunctive Mood.

When the use of the Present Indicative in hypothetical clauses is fully understood, little difficulty will be experienced in determining when to use the Present Subjunctive. A few words on this point may not be entirely thrown away. When there are two things that are liable to be confounded, if we get a clear idea when to use the one, the use of the other will be more easily understood. If we know when to use the Present Subjunctive, it will materially aid us in determining when to use the present Indicative in hypothetical clauses.

On listening to a sermon some time ago on Evolution, I heard the minister make use of the following: "If the Mosaic account of the creation be true, Evolutionists are in error." Now, let us consider why did he make use of the expression "Evolutionists are in error." From his sermon and from what was passing in his mind, he was certain that the Mosaic record was true, because only from his belief in the correctness of the account could he make the assertion that "Evolutionists are in error." The speaker misrepresented what was passing in his mind by using the Subjunctive in this condition, instead of the Indicative.

Take another example, the one given in our authorized text-book. By pursuing a similar line of argument you shall see that the speaker misrepresents what is passing in his mind when he says, "If it rain we shall not come." What would lead the speaker to make use of the expression? We must think exactly as he did, and he transfers himself forward mentally to the time of starting. Then the only reasoning he could possibly have, would be its raining at that time. Change the expression to, "If it does not rain we shall come," and all becomes perfectly clear. When, then, you will ask, is the Present Subjunctive Mood used? The best answer that I can give is to be found in Mason's Advanced Grammar, pp. 438 and 439, and in his remarks on the Subjunctive Mood in the preface to his Grammar.

There is a point here to be strictly watched, that is, not to confound this use of the Subjunctive with that found in suppositions respecting the future, treated as "a mere conception of the mind," and to express which the past tense is employed. I may here refer to the infallible guide we used to have for the correct use of the Subjunctive Mood, "Where contingency and futurity are both implied, the Subjunctive; when contingency and futurity are not both implied, the Indicative." This is entirely wrong, and should be vigilantly guarded against as a fruitful source of error, since it contains only a part of the truth.

But the most perplexing problem remains to be considered: viz., whether there is a Future Subjunctive or not. If you examine the works of Abbott, Mason, Angus, Bain, and Fleming, you will find that Bain, Fleming, and Angus have a future tense in their paradigms; Mason has none, and Abbott (if I may be permitted to use the expression), is on the fence.

Were we to decide this matter by numbers, Mason's testimony standing alone would go to the wall; but let us appeal to a higher authority than any of these, viz., Language. What does it say in the matter? Take an example: If Mr. Bishop should advo-

cate the N. P., his popularity with the Reform party would decline (assumed for the sake of argument). The occurrence of the probability spoken of in the sentence, if it should be brought to the test of reality, would be in the future. The mental position in which the speaker places himself is to regard it as past. Let me reconcile these statements, contradictory as they must seem.

The sentence may be re-constructed as follows, and yet convey the same meaning: If Mr. Bishop were to advocate the N. P., his popularity with the Reform party would decline. I think most of you will agree with me, that the verb in the hypothetical clause is in the past tense. But the argument fails when applied to the consequent clause. The best way, then, to dispose of the difficulty is to put ourselves mentally in the speaker's place. The supposition is "a mere conception of the mind." Mentally the speaker projects himself forward to a period to which the probability of which he speaks is a past event.

In simpler language, the speaker views Mr. Bishop's advocacy of the N. P. and his consequent fail in the estimation of the Reformers as having occurred. Bearing in mind the fact that mood has reference to the mental attitude of the speaker, anyone who regards my statement of the question as correct, must admit that the verbs in the example are in the past tense. Consequently, I think, we must come to the conclusion that Mason is right. What the others call future he calls a past paraphrastic.

These are the principal difficulties I have experienced in studying and in teaching this subject, and the method I have taken in overcoming them. If any teacher present has met with the same difficulties and has received the slightest hint that may be of service to him, I shall be gratified. But, in conclusion, let me urge upon you all the necessity of investigating for yourselves, and of accepting nothing unless you are satisfied that it is right.

THE IMPORTANCE OF METHOD IN TEACHING.

BY PRINCIPAL CROCKETT, FREDERICTON, NEW BRUNSWICK.

IT will depend upon the use of the means, or the method employed by the teacher, whether or not he can accomplish the work expected of him. There are two ways by which knowledge is gained: one is finding the knowledge ready made; the other is through the exertion of the mind itself. The method will determine two things—the character and amount of knowledge, and the character of the training acquired in coming into possession of the knowledge. Proper mental training always brings two results—a consciousness of increased power and at the same time a consciousness of the possession of new knowledge. The ready-made knowledge may be got from a book or be given to us by another. Whether the knowledge will be of any real value to us will depend upon the mind's action in connection with it. If the mind put forth no act the knowledge cannot be taken in—it is left out in the cold, to use a common expression—it does not grow, it has no root, it withers away. It is this kind of know-

ledge that can never be found when wanted, or if perchance it may have reached that part of the brain called by physiologists the sensorium, which has the power of reproducing its impressions just as a parrot can, it can be reproduced only at a given signal. The fact, or rule, or whatever it may be, is glibly repeated and passes for knowledge, but the pupil can apply it to nothing except to some particular case with which it was previously associated. When someone else than his teacher questions him, he does not understand, does not know what is meant—the signal is not the same. He often hazards an answer which may be a correct one to another question but absurd to the one proposed, and as ludicrous as the scene which has been described between Frederick the Great and a tall French grenadier who knew only three words of German. He was instructed to reply to the King's three general questions on parade, "How old are you?" "Three and twenty." "How long have you been in my service?" "Three years." "Are you satisfied with your rations and lodgings?" "Both, your Majesty." The King, however, took the very unusual course of inverting the first two questions, and the grenadier of course made himself three years old and twenty-three years in His Majesty's service. The King, amazed at such answers, did not put the other question about the rations, but the inquiry, "Are you a fool or am I?" "Both, your Majesty." Such is often the character of the knowledge which we get ready made, and the application we make of it. No doubt examples as ludicrous have been witnessed by some of yourselves. Let me give you one or two, not for the purpose of making sport, but of illustrating the character of knowledge got ready made without bringing the mind to bear upon it. "What is the Equator?" was a question asked of a class in geography not very long ago. "A line perpendicular to itself and called the meridian." In another class the following questions were asked: "What is the difference between the noun 'book' and book itself?" "What is an abstract noun?" "A collective noun?" To which the following answers were given: "There is no difference." "An abstract noun has no particular calling" "A collective noun is what it wants to make it more complete." In another class the following answers were given to the questions: "What is the circumference?" "Distance round the middle of the outside." "Distance through the middle." "What is the meaning of develop?" "To swallow up." "Give an example." "God sent a whale to develop Jonah." I do not say there are many such cases. I hope there are not, but the existence of any shows that knowledge, however accurately it may be given, may be reproduced in a most absurd form, unless the mind is called into exercise. It must not, however, be assumed that when the knowledge is accurately reproduced it is therefore understood by the pupil or of service to him. A long series of questions may be answered correctly and not one of them be understood. The verbal memory of children is very powerful. They can readily remember sounds without attaching any idea to them, and can readily reproduce them.

The teacher has, therefore, frequently to adopt the other method of securing knowledge, viz.: through mental exertion. He has to train the pupil to do things for himself, to get his own ideas from things. A physical, mental or moral act can be done only by performing it. Every one has to do those things which he would acquire the power of doing. You know yourselves that you could never acquire the power of readily solving

arithmetical problems without performing the operations yourselves, nor acquire a dexterous movement of hand without performing the acts through which the power is acquired. Now look how Nature does. She gives the child no laws, no rules, no principles, no formulas. She simply gives the material, the faculty, and the occasion for its exercise. There is much repetition in her teaching, in order that the difficulty may become easy and use become second nature. She does not tell the child, but prompts him to action and induces him to think what he is doing. She does not explain to him the difference between hard and soft, or between a hot stove and a cold one, but says, "feel them." Lay your facts, she says, side by side and compare them, find out where they are alike and unlike. Her business is the training of faculty and the development of power.

These two methods of acquiring knowledge may both be successful as respects the knowledge, but their effects upon the mind are very different. When the mind's activity consists in merely comprehending the thoughts of others, the truths which have been discovered and explained, it becomes a receptacle, a working one, it is true, working the nourishment into its own substance, but preparing it only for taking in more and making progress. The method which presents the material to the pupil for observation and reflection, and simply stimulates and directs the mind to an orderly plan of study, trains him to form his own ideas of things, to put forth his own efforts in the acquisition of knowledge. I do not mean to put the one method against the other, for both are necessary in our schools; pupils must have assigned lessons to learn from books, when they are sufficiently advanced to master them, but I do say that the one method is too generally followed to the exclusion of the other, the teacher in too many instances becomes a mere hearer of lessons, instead of a trainer.

There is a constantly increasing demand for results of greater commercial value from our school system; and the school must consider the question. If our boys had training in the elements that are common to all industrial pursuits, and our girls training in the principles of domestic economy, all resasonable demands would be met without disturbing the primary aim of the school or increasing the number of subjects in the course.

Such training should embrace industrial knowledge and manual dexterity. Industrial knowledge consists in an acquaintance with industrial materials and processes. Industrial materials are of course the various materials used in the industries, consisting of substances from the mineral, vegetable, or animal kingdom. Industrial processes are those operations by which raw materials are converted into forms for our use.

You have seen that we have in the course the subjects that form the elements of industrial knowledge. Instruction is required in minerals, plants, and animals, and their uses. With respect to the processes, a large number relating to the most useful industries are described in our Readers, and these lessons are required to be supplemented by oral instruction. Industrial drawing, the subject of Form and of Geometry, so far as taught, all bear directly upon many industries.

That they shall result in industrial gain will depend upon the mode of teaching them. Let me give you a few practical hints in the form of some examples.

The subject of Form, which is taught in the first two grades, may be made mainly constructive. During the first year, after the pupil has gained

preceptions of the various forms brought under his notice, proceeded to construct them of such suitable material as can be conveniently had. The ball, cube, cone and cylinder may be formed of clean, moist or moulding sand, or suitable clay. They should be made as accurately as a child can be taught to make them, and considerable pains should be taken to give him the necessary facility of manual movement. During the second year the material should be of a more resisting nature than sand, perhaps pasteboard. As a sample of an exercise, suppose he is required to construct a square whose side is three inches, or any convenient length. Require him to place his ruler upon the piece of pasteboard and mark with his knife along the outer edge. This operation is not so easily done as one might suppose. The ruler has to be correctly applied and firmly held with the left hand, so that it cannot slip and produce a crooked line instead of a straight one. He should also be required to do it with the least amount of waste. He will have to be shown, in the first instance, how to move the ruler as far as possible towards the edge, so that none but the waste parts may be marked off. When this is done he proceeds to cut. His first attempts will be awkward and the line will be imperfectly cut; it will be ragged and probably uneven. He will require to be shown how to steady the pasteboard and how to hold the knife when he cuts. Let him test the accuracy by applying his ruler to the cut. Let it be done again and again, if necessary, but not so often as to discourage him. Let us suppose one side completed.

The second adjacent side is ruled off and completed in the same way. Let him now apply the carpenter's square to test the work (small carpenter's squares can be had for the purpose). He will not only learn the use of this tool, but he will become practically acquainted with a right angle, and his eye will soon detect the slightest deviation from it. The two remaining sides will be constructed in a similar manner, and the square completed. There will, no doubt, be many trials and repeated corrections before a fairly accurate square has been made, but the pupil has made substantial gain. He has learned to use a ruler and knife properly, and acquired some manual neatness and dexterity. Exercises may be proposed on the square, by means of which its geometrical properties may be practically understood. They may be further led to find out that the diagonals of a square are not only equal to each other, but bisect each other —truths they will never forget when taught in this way. If each form is similarly dealt with, the drawings which the pupil makes in his subsequent course will be not only much better executed, but of far deeper interest.

When he has entered upon his course in industrial drawing, the pupil should frequently cut out forms before drawing them, sometimes with scissors as well as with a knife. While studying the elements of geometrical drawing, such as bisecting lines, angles, erecting perpendiculars, etc., he will acquire facility in using the compass. In drawing plans of the school-house, play-ground, etc., of given dimensions, he will become accurate in measuring and accurate in representing measurement.

Arrived at the study of formal geometry, the pupil should, previous to drawing his figures on the blackboard for demonstration, construct them of pasteboard or paper, etc., whenever practicable, and find out the geometrical truths which he is to establish by demonstration. Industrial tools, whose principles depend upon his geometrical truths, should be explained.

In the teaching of arithmetic how many opportunities are afforded of giving a practical character to the work—by associating articles of commerce in the neighbourhood with the questions—requiring the pupils to frame bills of parcels for themselves, and to make them out accurately and neatly! The tables of weights and measures should be determined by experiment and each operation gone through properly, the filling of a gallon or quart from a pint measure, the filling of a pint bottle from a small phial of so many ounces, the measuring of length with a rule or tape-line, finding by measurement the contents of of the play-ground, or some other portion of land, all having in view manual dexterity as well as practical knowledge.

Geography, and even history, may be made highly practical as well as powerfully educative. The great natural forces and products which underlie all industries—the industries of a country depending on its products and forces—the interchange of these—and the brotherhood of man, are fitted to awaken and keep alive an interest in industrial work and workers.

Every good citizen of an enlightened country respects the institutions under which he lives; he moves amongst its people, he is protected and governed by its laws. His training towards manhood lies through a knowledge and discharge of his duties as a citizen as well as a workman. How much valuable instruction of a practical character may be imparted and with what interest it will be received, if, instead of loading the pupil's memory with isolated facts little understood and appreciated because they begin and end in themselves, we group together facts that have a bearing upon the great epochs of our history of civil liberty.

A king's reign is not a division of history. Kings and dynasties die, but the great forces move onwards. What are the moving forces? What are the events associated with such forces? Whatever divisions our text-books may make, it is by some such treatment as I have indicated that we can hope to make history influence character.

It is unnecessary for me to add one word respecting the importance of a study of method and its principles. Neither the proper aim of the school nor the wants of society can be met unless work is conducted upon sound principles of method. It is true that some teachers, and more especially young teachers, are apt to pay more regard to the mechanical processes than to the principles of method, and they cannot of course reach satisfactory results; but no intelligent man would on this ground affirm that method tends only to give a mechanical character to teaching. If method is not fitted to great and important results, why should the institutions of the most enlightened countries take practical steps to give a knowledge of it? Two of the Universities of Scotland, Edinburgh and Saint Andrews, have established chairs of education, and the London University has just announced that it will hold a yearly examination in the art, theory, and history of education. Socrates, the Greek philosopher, regarded method as the first thing. Comenius, Locke, Rousseau, Basedow (of whose work Goethe says, "such methods must promote mental activity and give the young a fresher view of the world"), Pestalozzi, Froebel—all insisted upon the importance of method, and Alexander Bain and Herbert Spencer, two of the deepest thinkers of our own day, tell us that all modern systems of instruction must be based upon nature's plan and nature's method.—*The Present Age.*

MOTIVES IN TEACHING.*

BY THOMAS CHASE.

TEACHERS have an especial need of sympathy, and of being sharpened, as iron sharpeneth iron, by exchanging views and experiences with each other. To prevent our work, which should be a happy and a lively one, from degenerating into a dull, monotonous, lifeless task, and to avoid falling into stereotyped ways, no other influence is so powerful as the example of earnest and successful associates. If we have had difficulties and perplexities in our work, we find—when we come together in a meeting like this—that others have had the same, and thus we are relieved from undue despondency. Some of the problems which we have not solved have been solved by others, and in various ways we are encouraged, or corrected, or find our deficiencies made up by the experience of our fellow-teachers.

Not the least benefit derived from such meetings is an increased appreciation of the dignity and importance of our profession. A high estimate of this is a very different thing from a high opinion of ourselves personally. I have once or twice been present at Teachers' Conventions — not, however, among Friends—where speakers advocating the claims of the profession of teaching to high rank and esteem seemed to be thinking of themselves rather than of their calling. The complaint made was not so much "the value of our profession is underestimated," as "men do not look up enough to us personally." Now, I think the time has passed by when the fact that a man or a woman was a teacher was considered as a presumption that he or she was rather inferior in ability to the average of men. The time has come when a teacher is looked up to in the community, if he deserves it, just as much as if he were displaying the same talent and faithfulness in any other occupation. There is still room for a little elevation in the notions of people in general in regard to the proper remuneration of teachers, and the proper standard of their intellectual, moral and personal qualifications. Friends of education may rightly labour to correct the public sentiment on these points. But, for myself, I may say, that I never felt that I lowered myself in any way by choosing the instruction of youth as my life-work, but, on the contrary, my fear has been, and is now, that I should not come fully up to the standard which befits the most useful and noble of those professions, for his labours in which it is right for a man to receive pay from his fellow-men.

We may be as humble as it befits us to be personally—and I trust we are all humble, especially when we contemplate the grandeur and importance of our work. I would add by the way, however, an earnest caution against undue self-depreciation. It is not a want of humility to be conscious of powers given us by our Creator and improved by our own efforts. It is not a want of humility, but only a proper self-respect, and one which is essential to our highest usefulness, to feel that we have any ability and any skill which we really possess. To deny our own powers, to hang our

* Read before the Friends' Teachers Association of Philadelphia.

heads when we ought to stand erect, so far from being a Christian virtue is unchristian; for the cardinal duty of being truthful in all things demands that we should be truthful in regard to ourselves. But it is certainly helpful for us to know and remember that the work we are engaged in is one of the highest importance and the highest dignity. If the profession of the law, which helps us to take care of our money and settle our quarrels, is a high one—if the profession of medicine, which serves the interest of our mortal bodies, is a high one—what shall we say of that profession which develops and calls out the powers of the mind, moulds to a great extent the character, and has not a little to do with the training of the immortal soul? To belong to such a profession is calculated not to make one proud, but to inspire an honest self-respect, while it is still more fitting that it should awaken a profound sense of responsibility and a most earnest desire to do good.

Two different motives may actuate the teacher, or, in a measure, men in every other calling in life—the desire to win credit for themselves or the desire to do good to others. Not that the lower desire necessarily excludes the higher, not that both desires are not right in their proper place and degree; but for the highest success in teaching, or in any other useful vocation, to do full justice to *the work* in which we are engaged, and *the persons* whose interests are involved in our labour, is the first of all requisites.

Any motive which, in matters where we have to do with our fellow-beings, puts self and self-interest foremost, is radically false and mean; yet the desire to win credit for one's self is the most respectable of wrong motives, and, when joined with the proper amount of knowledge, ability, and tact, will come the nearest of all wrong methods to accomplishing the most desirable results in teaching.

"I wish," one of you says, "to be considered a good teacher, an able man, a learned man, a skilful man." What surer way is there of being *considered* a good teacher than *being* a good teacher? Ambition to excel in one's profession is always laudable. But if I value excellence in my profession simply for the applause or earthly reward it will bring me, the same defect comes in here that we see in other departments of human action. Honesty is the best policy, but, as we are rightly told, he that is actuated by that maxim is not an honest man; he is only a politic man, and so he is in danger of being dishonest whenever, as may frequently be the case, it may seem to him politic on the special occasion to swerve from the path of strict integrity. The purest morality is always the true expediency; but he who makes expediency his rule of life is pretty sure to substitute sometimes the apparent advantage of the moment for the claims of genuine virtue, which often demand self-sacrifice. If a man's ambition is to *be* a good teacher, he is in the right way; he *will* be a good teacher if he has a fair degree of common sense and of the ordinary qualifications of his office. If his ambition is to be *thought* a good teacher, he will sometimes fail, and this from preferring to make a display of his knowledge or skill rather than work patiently in the unconspicuous task of finding out and supplying the exact deficiencies of his pupils, and, if needful, drilling them in the simplest elements of knowledge.

The teacher who is actuated by the lower motive, however, may often furnish a good model in his methods to the more conscientious teacher who, in his very willingness "the lowest duties on himself to lay," may laboriously spend himself in a dry and

lifeless drill, instead of awakening the interest of his scholars by some novel exercise and striking device. The man who wishes to be *thought* a good teacher will always strive to *make himself interesting*; and this, though not the only duty, is one of the most important duties of a teacher. To gain the close attention of the pupils, to make their most repulsive tasks pleasant, or at least cheerfully undertaken, to throw upon their studies all possible sidelights from nature, art, history, and experience, these are things which every teacher should make it his business to do; but, in doing them, the teacher of the lower motive will be satisfied if he has made his scholars and the community around him say, "How much he knows!" "How skilful he is!" The teacher from the higher motive is satisfied only when he sees such results of his labour as can justify him in thinking, "How well I have succeeded in making my scholars understand the subject!" "How much and how well they are learning!" To accomplish this result he will need a combination of more showy and less showy ways—of lively, attractive expositions on his own part, comparatively easy for himself, and winning instant applause, and those old-fashioned, patient, self-sacrificing methods by which the pupil is not only amused, or filled with a little superficial knowledge, but led, encouraged, and not unfrequently compelled to study for himself—to do a reasonable amount of *hard work*—calling forth a little of that sweat of his own brow which is the indispensable condition of success in scholarship no less than in the ordinary business of life.

If I were called upon to name the single quality which would come the nearest to a complete definition of the *best teacher* of intellectual subjects, I should say—The best teacher is he who gets the *largest amount of well-directed and intelligent work* out of his scholars. The great scholar is always substantially a *self-made* man, whether he has spent his childhood, youth and early manhood in the best schools and under the best teachers or not. It is a great advantage to have good guidance in study; and that the teacher is bound to give. It is a great advantage also to have the path smoothed before one sometimes, especially when first entering upon difficult studies; it is a great advantage to have the path shortened sometimes, and especially to have it made more winning and more easily found and kept, by light thrown on it by an intelligent friend who knows in just what places one is likely to be perplexed and hindered without such aid. But the gold of sound learning, such as permanently enriches the mind, "lies engulpht in gravelly beds," whence its future possessor must himself delve it out. You may amuse him by holding up a few nuggets of your own before his dazzled eyes, you may teach him everything else about the gold except how he is to get it for himself, but he will never be the richer till you have taught him with his own strong arms "to wield the pickaxe and to shake the sieve."

We judge a workman by his workmanship; and so we rightly judge a school and a teacher by the knowledge, mental habits, and mental skill, and by the moral character of the scholars whom they send into the world. Of course, proper regard is to be paid, in such judgments, to the quality of the material which has been wrought upon. A goblet of pure gold will still be valuable, even if it has been marred by an unskilful goldsmith, while an earthen vase will still be earthen even if shaped by the most artistic hands. But I know no more legitimate satisfaction for a teacher than to feel that he has moulded something of use and beauty

out of what seemed an unpromising lump of clay. The teacher is not bound to supply a lack of brains; but he is bound to do the best that can be done with the brains that nature has provided. Nor is he bound to *create* a willingness to improve and use the opportunities offered for gaining instruction; but he is expected to do all in his power to cherish and develop such a disposition.

The teacher from the lower motive is in danger of failing just here, in the *final results* of his work. I believe most firmly that the highest results can be won only by teachers who are willing to do a great deal of hard work and patient drilling, which will not be blazoned in the newspapers as the "Quincy System" or by any other title, and will add very little—at least immediately—to their reputation in the school-room or among any but the most judicious parents.

This leads me to say a word about the so-called "New Methods," of which we hear a great deal at present. In a great degree, as all persons who have any extensive knowledge of the history of education know, they are not new methods at all in any other sense than that their more general diffusion and greater prominence before the public eye are new things. Teachers of skill and tact in all ages have known that the living voice is far more potent than the printed page, and that matter, to be learned, must be presented in a form and manner suited to the age and attainments of the pupils. It is true, however, that there has been a recent revival of natural and effective modes of instruction, together with a development, in some single directions, of really original methods. Teachers had become in many of our schools too set in lifeless, mechanical ways, and the mere hearing of lessons had too much taken the place of lively, interesting, and effective teaching. The present danger, I fancy, where new methods are eagerly sought for, is that the students will be amused and interested rather than taught and trained. The rebellion against text-books strikes me as extravagant. I am inclined to think that the best results will be gained by the union of oral teaching, accompanied by lively and telling illustrations, with a judicious amount of text-book study. A good text-book, and such there are on most subjects, although most of our best books are capable of improvement, gives a careful and well-digested systematic statement of the leading and most important facts on any subject, facts, the knowledge of which is indispensable to any one who wishes to be a master of that subject. Presented *alone*, the text-book is often dry and unattractive. Even if learned by heart, it is not understood and is soon forgotten. But if a boy or girl is made first to understand a matter by skilful oral or object lessons, and is *then* given a text-book, he reads it with interest and intelligence, and is often pleased by its complete and logical statement of facts and principles in their regular order.

The mere lesson-hearer was a defective teacher; yet if he made his scholars always *learn* their lessons, he accomplished one of the most important purposes of his office. The mere amuser of his scholars, nay, more, even the skilful expounder who keeps every eye and every ear attentive to him and arouses for a time a genuine interest in his subject, is a defective teacher, unless he also succeeds, either by the aid of a text-book or in some other way, to secure a deep and permanent lodgement of the things he teaches in his pupils' minds.

It would be interesting, had we time, to take up different studies and apply these principles to the methods of instruction in each of them. But, after all, the great desideratum in a

teacher is that he should keep constantly in mind that he has one definite object before him, namely, to develop and train the intellectual powers of his students in the best way and to give them such knowledge as they most need, and as will be most helpful to them His own good sense and tact and judgment, aided by his experience and his observation of the actual methods of other teachers, will guide him better than the most elaborate and the soundest theories. Not but that sound theories, founded upon the facts of human nature and of the constitution of the human mind, and confirmed or corrected by the experience of teachers in all ages, are very valuable, and should be studied by every teacher so far as he has the opportunity But sturdy common sense, quick intelligence, and a sympathizing heart are alone worth more than all the formal rules of pedagogical science without them. Let the teacher remember, moreover, that his true success will be measured not merely by the interesting character of his recitations (although a good teacher will generally, or at least often, make his recitations very interesting), not merely by the reputation he wins for ability and skill, but by the net result of what is carried away from his school by his scholars; first, in mental discipline, training and development, and, secondly, in useful knowledge thoroughly comprehended and permanently retained.—*The Student.*

A BOY'S BOOKS, THEN AND NOW—XI.

BY HENRY SCADDING, D.D., TORONTO.

(*Continued from p. 113.*)

3. *English: (a) Florio's "World of Words."*

I AM now to speak of the early English Dictionaries in this collection. I hope to be brief with them, confining myself, as before, chiefly to the humours of their compilers as displayed in their Title-pages, Dedications, and Prefaces; at the same time not omitting a few specimens of their definitions, orthography, and so on.

I am tempted here to notice John Florio's "World of Words," a copy of which, dated 1598, has by some chance found its way hither. Although this work was intended, in the first instance, to be simply an Italian-English Dictionary, it has acquired a place in the history of our English speech. It is often quoted as being a rather full repertory of the English of the Shakspeare period. "For English gentle-menne," Florio himself says in his Preface, "methinks it must needes be a pleasure to them to see so rich a toong [as the Italian] outvide by their mother-speech, as by the manie-folde Englishes of manie wordes in this is manifeste." (In 1657, a nephew of Milton's, Edward Phillips, published a "General English Dictionary," under the title of "A New World of Words," with direct allusion probably to Florio's book.) When the volume now before us was "imprinted at London by Arnold Hatfield," and offered for sale by Edward Blunt, "at his shop over against the great north dore of Paules Church," Florio himself, doubtless, might still often be seen exploring the contents of Mr. Blunt's shelves. The "World of Words" was dedicated by the compiler to "Roger, Earle of Rutland,

Henrie, Earle of Southampton, and Lucie, Countesse of Bedford." The reason why he names three patrons, and in this order, is, that he likens his book to a "bouncing boie" of his own, who now, "after some strength gathered to bring it abroad," requires, "as the manner of the countrie is," that there should be two male witnesses, and one female, to his "entrie into Christendom." He therefore entreats the three personages named, to act as sponsors to the "young springall," to take him under their protection and "avowe him theirs." Henrie, Earl of Southampton, by whose "paie and patronage" in particular, Florio here frankly says he has lived some years, and "to whom he owes and vows the yeares he has to live," was the well-known friend of Shakspeare. In Southampton's circle, a good deal of quiet joking went on at the expense of "resolute John Florio," as he styled himself; and quite a little feud seems to have sprung up between him and the great dramatist. In 1591, in a work entitled "Second Fruits," Florio had ventured the remark that "the plays that they play in England are neither right comedies nor right tragedies, but representations of Histories without decorum." As being certainly a glance at himself, Shakspeare remembered this observation of Florio's; and in 1597, when "Love's Labour's Lost" appeared, Florio was immediately recognized in Holofernes—Florio, of course, grotesquely overdrawn. In the Preface to the Reader, in this very book, the "World of Words," we have Florio endeavouring to retort by recalling the fact that aforetime Aristophanes brought Socrates on the stage, without doing Socrates any harm; but quite the contrary. "Let Aristophanes and his comedians," Florio says, "make plaies and scowre their mouthes on Socrates; those very mouthes they make to vilifie, shall be meanes to amplifie his vertue." In "Love's Labour's Lost," an absurd sonnet is attributed to Holofernes. There is probably special point in this. We deduce from the Preface here before us, that Florio did indulge in a sonnet sometimes, and that on account of one he had, to his great displeasure, been styled by Shakspeare a "rymer," "notwithstanding he had more skill in good poetrie than my slie gentleman seemed to have in good manners and humanitie." Once more: we may observe in "Love's Labour's Lost," after Holofernes has recited his sonnet, Nathaniel exclaims "A rare talent!"—on which, Dull, in an aside, remarks "If talent be a claw, look how he claws [curries favour with] him with a talent." Here Florio is perhaps twitted with a slip in the "World of Words" where he interprets "artiglie" as "talents, claws, or pounces of birdes or hawkes," spelling "talons" thus.

Some time after King James I. came down from Scotland, John Florio was appointed tutor in Italian to Prince Henry; and in 1611 he issued a third edition of his dictionary, in which the dedication to Southampton and the rest is withdrawn; and one appears "To the Imperial Majestie of the highest born princess, Anne of Denmark, crowned Queene of England, Scotland, France and Ireland." Strange, that it should be one of the works of this very Florio, namely his translation of Montaigne's Essays, that is now preserved as a precious relic in the British Museum, as being the only volume in existence known to have been once the property of Shakspeare, and containing one of the very few of his undoubted autographs.

A few curiosities in English, culled from Florio, may now be given. For example: we have "penteis" for the "eaves of a house or a baie-window, or out-butting or jettie of a house;" commonly now, by a misconception, spelt "pent house;" properly an ap-

pendicium, an annexe or lean-to. A "repast between dinner and supper" is a "nuncheon or bever or andersmeate," nuncheon being, as has recently been explained, noon-shenk · a noon-drink poured out from a vessel furnished with a "shank" or spout. (Luncheon is quite a different word, referring to eating only, taking a lump or lunch of bread, etc., to stay hunger: compare hump and hunch) Ander is undern, an Anglo-Saxon expression for morning. "A pudding or haggas" is spoken of as "a kinde of daintie meate," where "pudding" means an intestine. "Wrangling" is explained "to dodge or chaff aloud that all may hear." An expletive of "theefe" is a "hooker." "Doll" is a term not met with; nor ther does it occur in Shakspeare, I believe, in the modern sense; but we have, instead, "a little pretie childes baby or puppet." A "zany" is "a sillie John [zan is John], a gull or noddie, a vice, clowne, foole, or simple fellowe in a plaie or comedie." (Dabuda, in Italian, was, we are told by Florio, the name of "a famous foole, quoted as wee alledge Will Sommer in jestes" —prior, that is, to the era of Mr. Joseph Miller.) A "boate such as the Indians use, made of one piece," is a "canoa;" and a "rangifero," that is to say, a reindeer, is "a beast in Lapland as big as a moyle [mule], in colour like an asse, horned like a stagge, which they use instead of horses to draw their chariots, and are woonderful swift in going, for in a day and a night they will go a hundred and fifty miles." The "battata" is "a kind of fruite growing in India," meaning what we call the sweet potato (batatas edulis), from which has come the prevailing name of the common potato (solanum tuberosum), quite a different kind of plant. Another esculent mentioned is "a marine fruite called a sea cowcomber or turkie-pompion." "Mandragora" is a drug of "a very cold temperature," and therefore "used to cast menne into deepe sleepes when they must be cut by surgeans, and for many other purposes in phisick." Other curious information in Natural History and Physiology is given. There is a tree in Arabia called rasin, "whereof there is but one founde (at a time), and upon it the phœnix sits." (The story was that the phœnix lived a thousand years, at the end of which time it built its nest, which took fire, and consumed the bird, leaving ashes, however, out of which sprang a fresh bird; and so on.) A serpent, called magiriano, is "saide to growe out of a dead mannes back or chine bone." The lungs are not only the "lights" of any creature, but they are "the guts (*i.e.*, the tubes or ducts) whereby every creature drawes breath." It is curious that this word in the singular, as in catgut, Gut of Canso, gut for an open water passage through a marsh, is passable; while in the plural a substitute has to be employed. There is in Florio much straightforward English. His book was expected to be consulted by the highest personages. It was dedicated, as we have seen, first to Lucie, Countesse of Bedford, for one; and afterwards to Anne of Denmark, Queen of James I. We may gather from this, as from other quarters, that the ladies of Florio's day were not squeamish. As a sample of the copiousness of English speech, take the different shades of meaning given for ragione, reason: "Right, due, knowledge, wit, wisedome, discourse, discretion, judgement, advise, purpose, counsell, case, respect, consideration, avisement, regard, the case, the matter, the state, the meanes, the waye, the fashion, the forme, the proportion, the kinde, the sise, the sort, a rule, the trade, the feate, the manner and sorte, a minde, a counsell, a persuasion, a cause, an account, a reckoninge, busines, quantitie, value: also, justice, doome, or place of justice and lawe."

METRICAL AND INTERLINEAR TRANSLATION OF HORACE.

BOOK I. ODES 8 AND 9.

ODE 8. *Introduction.*—This ode, with several others, is addressed to Lydia. Sybaris, a Roman youth, has fallen a victim to her siren charms, and for dear love of her has given up all the manly exercises in which he had been accustomed to eclipse all his companions. The poet takes the lady to task for this untoward influence of her alluring arts, in so doing paying a delicate compliment to the irresistible power of her charms.

Lydia, by all the gods I charge thee,—say
Lydia, per omnes deos oro te dic
Why by thy love thou sendest Sybaris
cur amando properes Sybarin
To swift perdition? Why should he, who once
Perdere? cur
Endured the heat and dust so well, now hate
patiens solis atque pulveris oderit
The sunny open field? Why with his friends
apricum campum? cur inter æquales
No longer does he ride in martial guise,
neque equitat militaris
Nor Gallic steeds with bitted bridles rein?
nec Gallica ora lupatis frenis temperat?
Why fears he now the tawny Tiber's touch?
cur timet flavum Tiberim tangere?
Why shuns the wrestler's oil with greater care
cur vitat olivum cautius
Than viper's bite? No longer now he shows
viperino sanguine? Neque jam gestat
His brawny arms, all black and blue with blows,
brachia livida armis,
Famed as he often was in games of quoits,
Nobilis sæpe disco,
And for the javelin hurled beyond the goal.
Sæpe jaculo expedito trans finem.
Why lurks he hiding, as they say the son
Quid latet ut dicunt filium
Of sea-born Thetis lurked, upon the eve
marinæ Thetidis sub
Of Troy's sad downfall, lest his male attire
Trojæ lacrimosa funera, ne virilis cultus
Should hurl him forth to slaughter Lycia's bands?
proriperet in cædem et Lycias catervas?

ODE 9. *To Thaliarchus.*—An ode to cheer up a down-hearted friend. Some crushing misfortune has fallen upon him, and looking out upon the snow-clad hills and wint'ry landscape he sees in the prospect an image of his own desolation. "Now is the winter of our discontent" is the language of his soul. "Nay," says the poet, "winter without can be dis-

pelled by warmth and wine within. The storm is always followed by a calm. Leave to-morrow to itself, and enjoy to-day. Youth is still thine, and all the pleasures meet for that happy season."

Thou seest how white Soracté stands with snow
Vides ut candidum Soracte stet nive
Deep piled: no longer can the groaning woods
alta, nec jam laborantes silvæ
Sustain their load, and with the piercing cold
Sustineant onus, acuto geluque
The rivers are bound fast. Dissolve the cold
Flumina constiterunt. Dissolve frigus
By piling plenteous logs upon the hearth,
reponens large ligna super foco
And draw from Sabine jar with liberal hand
atque deprome Sabina diota benignius
The four-year wine. Leave to the gods the rest:
quadrimum merum. Permitte divis cætera:
Once they have stilled upon the raging deep
qui simul stravere fervido æquore
The wrestling winds, the very cypresses
deproeliantes ventos, nec cupressi
And aged ash forbear to fret their tops.
nec veteres orni agitantur,
What may to-morrow be, cease to inquire;
Quid sit cras futurum, fuge quærere;
Whatever lot of days the fates may give,
Quem cunque dierum fors dabit,
Set down as gain: nor, still a boy, despise
Appone lucro: nec, puer, sperne
The pleasures of the dance or love, while yet
dulces choreas neque tu amores, donec
Morose old age is far from blooming youth.
Morosa canities abest virenti.
Seek once again at the appointed hour
Repetantur nunc composita hora
The open fields and parks, where whisp'rings soft
et campus et areæ, susurri lenesque
Are heard at nightfall: while from nook retired
sub noctem: nunc et ab angulo intimo
The pleasing laugh betrays the hiding girl.
Gratus risus proditor latentis puellæ.
Be thine the love-gift taken from the arms,
pignus que direptum lacertis,
Or finger scarcely feigning to resist!
aut digito male pertinaci.

Several similar specimens of Horatian translation have appeared in recent numbers of this Magazine. These, along with the above, have been submitted in the full conviction that the mode of translation exemplified in them is the one best suited to the genius of both languages—the Latin and the English. Purely prose translations of classical poetry must be more or less bald, and deficient in spirit. The delicate sense of harmony and proportion, so apparent in the original, disappears altogether in a version dictated and limited by the laws

of ordinary prose. The bare meaning may thus be got at; but the fine flavour, the pregnant fulness, the exquisite conciseness of expression in such lyrics as those of Horace can never be adequately represented in any prose translation, however scholarly and refined. Even in the most literal of such renderings, diction, more or less poetic, has to be frequently, if unconsciously, employed; and the version may as well have been cast in some poetic mould at once. In fact the poetry of one language can never be translated satisfactorily into the pure prose of another. Convinced of this, scholars have endeavoured to surmount the difficulty in different ways. Some have given us specimens of what are called *free* translations into various forms of English poetry. These are properly not translations at all, but simply poetic paraphrases: and to them what Bentley said of Pope's Homer is always applicable—"It is a pretty poem, Mr. Pope, but you must not call it Homer." Others have sought to introduce the very metres of the original into a language from which they are entirely foreign, thinking by this device to reproduce more faithfully the spirit of the original. The fate of the majority of such attempts, curious and marvellous as displays of human ingenuity, has not been of such a character as to inspire renewed imitations. A dress that may be ever so becoming and graceful to an idea expressed in one language, may sit very awkwardly and stiffly on the same idea expressed in another. Each language has its own natural modes of expression; and it is a perilous enterprise to force the flowing current of thought into channels that serve but to cramp and confine it. Let any one attempt to translate even Burns' trumpet-blast, "Scots, wha hae wi' Wallace bled!" into similar lines of modern English, and he will soon see how much of the inspired spirit of the original is retained. Is there no *via media* then? no way in which the advantages of the literal fidelity of a prose translation and those of a freer poetic version can be combined? We think there is. What may be now called the native verse of England—I mean the heroic verse of Milton, the easy flowing Iambic Pentameter—offers itself as a vehicle by which the full force and significance of the original may be conveyed to the reader. In it both matter and manner, both the outward dress and the inner soul, may be preserved and presented. It admits of almost *verbatim* literal rendering, and yet conserves to the greatest possible extent the essence of the poetic principle informing the whole. As an example of this a quotation may be allowed from Prof. Kennedy's *Virgil*. Let us take one almost at random—not because it is the best specimen. A comparison between the original and the learned professor's version will show that the plan thus briefly outlined has been consistently adopted by him throughout. *Virg. Æn.* viii. 407-415:

"Inde ubi prima quies medio jam noctis abactæ
Curriculo expulerat somnum, cum femina primum,
Cui tolerare colo vitam tenuique Minerva
Impositum, cinerem et sopitos suscitat ignes,
Noctem addens operi, famulasque ad lumina longo
Exercet penso, castum ut servare cubile
Conjugis et possit parvos educere natos:
Haut secus Ignipotens nec tempore segnior illo
Mollibus e stratis opera ad fabrilia surgit."

And now when early rest had banish'd sleep,
And waning night had clos'd her mid career,
What time the housewife first, whose doom it is
With distaff and Minerva's humble toil
To eke out life, the embers and lull'd fire
Awakens, to her labours adding night,
That so she may preserve in chastity
Her husband's bed, and rear her little sons;
Even thus, and not more slothful, at that hour
The Fire-lord rises from his couch of down
To ply the labours of the forge.

What could be finer, or more true to the spirit of the original? And yet it is emphatically a literal translation, much more so than most of the so-called literal prose translations. Here is another short specimen from the same book—*ll.* 589-591:

"Qualis ubi Oceani perfusus Lucifer unda
Quem Venus ante alios astrorum diligit ignes,
Extulit os sacrum caelo tenebrasque resolvit."

As when the day-star from his ocean bath,
Dearer than other lights to Venus, lifts
In heaven his holy face, and melts the dark.

Additional illustrations are unnecessary. As yet we have met with no mode of translation that so fully satisfies the needs, not only of the student who reads merely for examination, but also of those whose chief delight it is to study these ancient masterpieces for far higher objects. Following we need scarcely add *haud pari passu*—in the footsteps of this accomplished and elegant scholar, we have submitted a few specimens, in the hope that they may, to some extent, serve to show that the same methods can be applied to the translation of Horace with results equally satisfactory.

D. SIEVERIGHT SMITH, M.A.,
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THE CLOSE OF THE TEACHER'S WEEK.

THE end of the day and the end of the week,
The blackboard and class-book a silent watch keep,—
And the desks in my school-room are empty.

The winter-night's shadows begin now to fall,
More brightly gleams out the fire-light on the wall,
And slowly the darkness comes up over all.

Soon moonlight will glint on the dark window-pane,
And over the play-ground and down by the lane,
And on all the homes of my scholars.

O hark to the voices that seem now to call:
"Leave school-room and class-book and week's work and all
And come—rest, and Sabbath await you."

E'en so, when the last hour of life's day has run,
May these angel-spirits find life's work well done,
And bid us all to the long, sweet resting.

H. MACM.

TORONTO, Sherbourne Street.

UNIVERSITY WORK.

MATHEMATICS.

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

SELECTED PROBLEMS.

By Angus MacMurchy, B.A., Toronto.

1. If $a+b+c=0$, prove

$$\left(\frac{b^3-c^3}{a^3}+\frac{c^3-a^3}{b^3}+\frac{a^3-b^3}{c^3}\right)\left(\frac{a^3}{b^3-c^3}+\frac{b^3}{c^3-a^3}+\frac{c^3}{a^3-b^3}\right)=36-4(a^3+b^3+c^3)(a^{-3}+b^{-3}+c^{-3}).$$

2. If $(z+x-y)(x+y-z)=ayz$
$(x+y-z)(y+z-x)=bzx$
$(y+z-x)(z+x-y)=cxy$
prove $(abc)^{\frac{1}{2}}+a+b+c=4$.

3. Solve the equations
$(z+x-y)(x+y-z)=ax$
$(x+y-z)(y+z-x)=by$
$(y+z-x)(z+x-y)=cz$.

4. Solve the equations
$yz(y+z-x)=a$
$zx(z+x-y)=b$
$xy(x+y-z)=c$.

5. Prove that if
$ax+cy:by+dz=ay+cz:bz+dx=az+cx:bx+dy$,
then each ratio $=a+c:b+d$;
prove also that $x^3+y^3+z^3=3xyz$.

6. Show that the sum of n terms of the series $1+5+13+29+61+\ldots\ldots$ is $4(2^n-1)-3n$.

SELECTED.

Solutions by Wilbur Grant, Collegiate Institute, Toronto.

(See MONTHLY for March, 1883.

1. y = rate B travels,
$y+2$ = " A "
$7y+7(y+2)$ = distance between towns.
$9(y+1)+9\frac{y+2}{2}$ = " " "

$$7y+7(y+2)\quad 9(y+1)+9\frac{y+2}{2}\quad y=8,$$

distance = 126 miles.

3. Let $x^2+mx+x=0$, $bc=n$
whose roots are $\alpha+\beta$ and $\alpha\beta$
then $\alpha+\beta+\alpha\beta=-m$
$\alpha\beta(\alpha+\beta)=n$
but $\alpha+\beta=-p$
$\alpha\beta=q$
$\therefore -m=-(p-q)$
$n=-pq$
$\therefore = n$ is $x^2+(p-q)x-pq=0$.

4. General expression will be

$$S=\frac{n}{2}\left\{2a+\overline{n-1}cd\right\}$$

S of odd terms =

$$\frac{n+1}{4}\left\{2a+\left(\frac{n+1}{2}-1\right)2cd\right\}$$

S of even terms =

$$\frac{n-1}{4}\left\{2a+2cd+\left(\frac{n-1}{2}-1\right)2cd\right\}$$

$\therefore$ difference $=a+\frac{n-1}{2}cd$.

5. Consider the plank in equilibrium about the edge of the bench on the side on which the weights are placed.

Let w = weight of plank, a = length of plank, x = distance from the weight to edge of bench in first case: taking moments about this edge.

$$\text{I. } w\left(\frac{a}{2}-x\right)=200\times x.$$

$$\text{II. } w\left(\frac{a}{2}-\overline{x+2}\right)=120\times(x+2).$$

$$\text{III. } w\left(\frac{a}{2}-\overline{x+6}\right)=60(x+6).$$

Eliminating a and x we find $w=24$ lbs.

6. Let r = radius of each bullet,
a = specific gravity of 1st bullet,

$a + b$ = specific gravity of 2nd bullet,
k = " " " tube,
$\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$ = volume of each bullet,
$(2\pi r^2 + 2r\pi \times 14r)$ = ... tube.

Find C. G. of bullets.

Let x = distance of C. G. from outside extremity of the heaviest bullet, taking moments about this point.

$$\tfrac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \left\{a + \overline{a+b} + \ldots + \overline{a+6b}\right\} x =$$
$$\tfrac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \left\{a\,13r + \overline{a+b}\,11r + \overline{a+2b}\,9r + \ldots + a+6b\,r\right\}$$
$$x = \frac{7a+13b}{a+3b} \cdot r.$$

The C. G. of tube will be at its middle point, at a distance $7r$ from the same end as above.

Let y = distance of C. G. of whole system from the same end, taking moments about this end.

$$\left\{\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \left\{a + \overline{a+b} + \ldots + \overline{a+6b}\right\} + 30\pi r^2 . k\right\} y$$
$$= 30\pi r^2 . k . 7r + \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \left\{a + \overline{a+b} + \ldots + \overline{a+6b}\right\} \times \frac{7a+13b}{a+3b} r.$$
$$y = \frac{210kr + \frac{28}{3}(a+3b) \times \frac{7a+13b}{a+3b} r^2}{\frac{28}{3}(a+3b)r + 30k}$$
$$= \frac{315kr + 14(7a+13b)r^2}{14(a+3b)r + 45k}$$
$$= 7r\frac{45k + 14ar + 26br}{45k + 14ar + 42br}.$$

7. The forces acting are:

1st. Weight of sphere vertically down through its centre.

2nd. Reaction of peg passing through the centre.

3rd. Tension of string passing also through the centre.

Let A be the peg from which the sphere hangs, B be the peg the sphere rests against, C be the centre of sphere. The triangle ABC will have its sides parallel to the directions of the forces,

$\therefore T : W :: AC : AB :: 2r : b$
$T = \frac{2r}{b} W.$
$R : W :: BC : AB :: r : b$
$R = \frac{r}{b} W = \frac{1}{2} T.$

ARITHMETICAL PROBLEMS.

L. B. Davidson, Head Master Public School, Glen Allan.

1. Distinguish between *Notation* and *Numeration*; *Simple Rules* and *Compound Rules*; *Prime Numbers* and *Composite Numbers*; *Vulgar Fractions* and *Decimal Fractions*.

2. Simplify

$$107 \div \left\{2 + 3 \div [4 + 5 \div (2 + \tfrac{1}{4})]\right\} + (\tfrac{2}{3} + \tfrac{1}{2} \text{ of } \tfrac{2}{3} - \tfrac{3}{10}) \times (\tfrac{1}{2} \text{ of } \tfrac{2}{3} - \tfrac{3}{10} \text{ of } 1\tfrac{1}{3}).$$

Ans. 43.

3. (*a*) Prove $.53\dot{2}1 = \frac{5268}{9900}$.

(*b*) From what kind of *Vulgar Fractions* do we obtain *Circulating Decimals*?

4. The remainder is $\frac{2}{5}$ of the divisor, the divisor is $\frac{3}{5}$ of the quotient, and the sum of the divisor and remainder is 4 less than the quotient. Find the dividend. *Ans.* 381.

5. Find the least number which, when divided by 200, 175, 150, will leave in each case a remainder of 10; and find the largest number which will divide the same three numbers, leaving as remainders 20, 25, 0, respectively. *Ans.* 4210; 30.

6. Find the least sum of money with which a farmer can purchase sheep at $\$5\frac{1}{4}$, pigs at $\$4\frac{1}{2}$, calves at $\$8\frac{1}{10}$, and cows at $\$24$.

Ans. $\$792$.

7. A person walks in 6 days 315 miles, going each successive day 5 miles less than the previous day. How far did he go on the fourth day? *Ans.* 50 miles.

8. The school rate in a section is $4\frac{1}{2}$ mills on the $, the amount of taxable property being $\$180,000$, and the expenses in connection with the school being eight times the collector's fees less $\$90$. Find what part of the whole tax is spent in collecting.

Ans. $\frac{1}{11}$.

9. A farmer at a sale spent \$100 in purchasing sheep. Having lost 7 of them he sold $\frac{1}{4}$ of the number left for \$50, gaining \$2 on the number sold. How many sheep did he buy? *Ans.* 25.

10. James owed John $\frac{1}{3}$ of what John owed George. John gave George 10c. and told him he would give 50c. to James to put the account among them all straight. How much did John owe George? *Ans.* \$3.

11. *A*, *B*, and *C*, can do a piece of work in 25 mins., 30 mins., and 15 mins., respectively. The three begin to work at the same time. Find when *C* may leave that the work may be just finished in 10 mins.

Ans. 4 mins.

12. $\frac{1}{4}$ of my money is in \$20 bills, $\frac{2}{3}$ of the remainder is in \$10 bills, $\frac{3}{5}$ of this remainder is in \$5 bills, $\frac{1}{2}$ of this remainder is in \$2 bills, and the balance, \$10 in silver, consists of 50c. pieces and 25c. pieces, in the ratio of 3 : 4. Find the total number of the various denominations. *Ans.* 50.

13. A farmer divides 100 acres of land between his two sons, so that the elder son's share in addition to 15 acres was to the younger son's share as 15 : 8. Find share of each. *Ans.* 60, 40.

14. *A* pays a tax on his income of 5 mills on the \$, *B* pays a tax on his of $4\frac{1}{2}$ mills on the \$. *B's* tax amounts to 5 cts. less than *A's* though his income exceeds that of *A* by \$100. Find *A's* income. *Ans.* \$1,000.

15. *A* does $\frac{2}{3}$ of a piece of work in 12 days. He then gets his son to help him and they finish the work in 5 days. more. If \$20 be paid for the work, find the daily wages of the son. *Ans.* 60c.

16. A wine merchant has wine worth \$1.75 per gal. which he desires to sell for \$1.50 per gal. and neither gain or lose. In what ratio must he mix water with his wine to accomplish his purpose? *Ans.* 1 : 6.

17. A man spends $\frac{1}{4}$ of his money, then $\frac{1}{3}$ of the remainder, then a certain sum, then $\frac{1}{3}$ of this remainder, and then he has left \$50, or \$25 less than if he had spent only $\frac{1}{2}$ of that certain sum. How much *did he have at first?* *Ans.* \$300.

18. Two trains, 120 ft. and 144 ft. long respectively, are observed to pass each other when going in opposite directions in 4 secs., and when going in the same direction in 12 secs. Find their rates in miles per hour.

Ans. 30; 15.

19. My purse and the money in it are worth \$71.50. If I lose $\frac{1}{11}$ of my money and spend $\frac{1}{13}$ of the remainder, and then sell the purse, gaining $\frac{1}{4}$ of its value, I shall lose on the whole \$8.33$\frac{1}{3}$. How much money had I at first? *Ans.* \$70.

20. I ask a jeweller the price of a certain gold ornament. He replies, "This article weighs $1\frac{1}{4}$ oz., of which 18 parts out of 24 are pure gold. The price of pure gold per oz. is \$20.48, which is seven times as much as alloy is worth, and the making costs me $\frac{1}{8}$ as much as the material." If I give him \$28 in bills which are worth only $\frac{1}{4}\frac{1}{4}$ of their face value in silver, how much silver should he return to me? *Ans.* \$2.20.

21. The beams of wood used in building a house are 6 in. thick by 10 in. wide; 72 of these are used, which together amount to 450 cub. ft. Find the length of each piece of timber. *Ans.* 15 ft.

22. A layer of coal 4 ft. thick underlies the whole of a farm of 100 acres. Find the value of the coal, at \$3.75 per ton of 2000 lbs. (1 cub. yd. of coal = 1 ton of 2240 lbs.)

Ans. \$2710400.

23. A cistern measures in length, depth and breadth, 4 ft. $9\frac{3}{8}$ in., 6 ft. 8 in., 4 ft. 6 in., respectively. Find the number of gallons it will hold. (1 cub. ft. = 1000 oz.; 1 gal. = 10 lbs.) *Ans.* 900.

24. The floor of a room, 25 ft. 6 in. long by 20 ft. 8 in. wide, is covered with carpet 30 in. wide, at 75c. per yd. If the cost of carpeting the floor exceeds that of papering the walls with paper 18 in. wide at 9c. per yd., by \$25, find the height of the ceiling.

Ans. 15 feet.

CLASSICS.

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

PAPERS ON CICERO "PRO ARCHIA."

Selected from Toronto University Examination Papers.

(*Continued from March No.*)

XI.

Translate *Quum multos . . non expetisset?*

1. Give a brief account of the laws relative to Roman citizenship.

2. *Sigaeo.* Where? What was the other promontory opposite, and who was buried on it?

3. *Qui inveneris.* Explain the meaning of this construction.

4. *Noster hic Magnus.* Who?

5. *Sed rustici.* Force of *sed?*

6. *Alternis versibus longiusculis* Meaning?

XII.

1. Derive *monumenta, triumphos, coelum, tumulum, conditione.*

2. What were the circumstances of Cicero's banishment and restoration?

3. Translate *Ergo illi alienum . praedicaretur.*

4. On what grounds were the citizenship of Archias impugned, and on what defended?

5. Write brief notes on Marius, Themistocles, introducing dates where you can.

XIII.

1. Mention some of the principal events of Cicero's life and the dates of the years in which he filled the several magistracies.

2. What other celebrated Roman orators? Dates?

3. What were the circumstances of Cicero's banishment and recall?

4. Give an account of his conduct in the war between Cæsar and Pompey.

5. Which of Cicero's extant speeches were not delivered.

6. State the designations of the principal magistrates of Rome as a Republic.

XIV.

Translate *Quare conservate . . certe etc.*

1. Give different readings and translate accordingly.

2. *Beneficio legis.* To what does Cicero refer? What were the legal claims of Archias?

3. *Auctoritati municipii.* What *municipium?* Distinguish *municipia, coloniae, civitates foederatae.*

4. *Recentiore—periculis.* What?

5. *Ab eo qui judicium exercet.* Explain the meaning and give the name.

6. What orators contemporary with Cicero?

7. *Silvani lege.* When passed, and by what name known? How did Cicero rest his defence of Archias on this law?

8. When, and by whom, and for the infringement of what law, was the poet arraigned?

XV.

Translate *Quam multos . . approbaverunt.*

1. *Multos scriptores.* Name one or more.

2. *Clamore approbaverunt.* What is the Greek term?

3. Translate *Si, quid est in me . fuimus.*

4. What speeches had Cicero delivered before this?

5. State the case for and against Archias citing Roman laws that bore on the points.

6. *Ne nos quidem huic uni studio.* Explain the meaning.

7. *Adolescens.* Discuss the etymology of this word. What is the corresponding Greek term? Give the limits which the Romans assigned to the time between the age of the *puer* and the *juvenis.*

XVI.

Translate *Est ridiculum . . . ascriptus.*

1. *Amplissimi viri religionem.* What is the meaning?

2. *Municipii.* What? Distinguish *municipium* and *colonia.*

3. *Ante civitatem datam.* Explain the meaning.

4. *Ex ille professione collegioque praetorum.* What different interpretations?

5. Give an account of the laws relative to citizenship up to the times of this speech.

6. Under what masters did Cicero study?

XVII.

Translate *Mithridaticum . . . . rebus adjungitur.*

1. *Mithridaticum bellum.* Write a brief account of, with dates.

2. *Non maxima manu.* Where and when did this engagement take place? Who was in command of the Armenian forces?

3. *Urbem Cyzicenorum.* Position?

4. *Apud Tenedum pugna navalis.* Date?

5. *Hujus proavus Cato.* Explain the meaning of *hujus* here. Which Cato?

6. Give some account of the persons mentioned or referred to in this extract.

7. In what year was the oration *Pro Archia* delivered?

XVIII.

Translate chap. iii.

1. *Res maximas.* What achievement?

2. *Prætextatus.* Explain. Describe the *toga prætexta.* By whom was it worn? At what age was the *toga virilis* assumed?

3. *Pio.* Why so called?

4. Write notes on *Lucullus*, *Drusum*, *Octavius.*

5. State what you know of Archias.

6. Who originally presided in all criminal cases? What changes were afterwards effected, and when? Explain the expression *quæstiones perpetuæ*, and distinguish between the phrases in civil procedure of *jus* and *judicium.*

7. What speeches of Cicero were written but not pronounced?

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.

LONDON MATRICULATION EXAMINATION QUESTIONS, 1882.

1. *Mr. Quickly reports to Prince Henry that Falstaff said, "the other day, you ought him a thousand pound." Explain that use of the word* ought; *show how we come by the forms* own *and* owe. *Account also for the forms* durst, quoth, methinks.

Ought was originally the past tense of the verb *to owe.* Its earliest form was *ahte*, *agte*, *aughte*, and then dropping the *e* it finally became *ought.* In this sense it is used in the passage quoted. It has lost that meaning, as the verb *to owe* is now a weak verb with its own preterite *owed*; while *ought* is used as a present tense to signify moral obligation.

Owe meant originally *to possess*, *to have*, as in the line from Shakespeare,—

"I am not worthy of the wealth I *owe.*"

Its secondary meaning was *to have as a duty*, *to be under an obligation.*

Own is a derivative from *owe*, and retains the primary but now obsolete meaning of the verb *owe.*

Owe is found as an auxiliary in Wicklif's Testament: "I *owe* for to be christned" (Matt. iii. 14). In Purvey's revision, "I *owe* to be baptised of Thee."

Durst, past tense of the verb *dare*, Anglo-Saxon *dear.* *Dare* is really a past tense, but is now used as a present, and has a modern weak past tense of its own, *dared.* Original past tense, *dorstè durstè*, hence *durst.* (Compare Greek θαρσεῖν, to be told).

Quoth, originally perfect, now used as a present. The root of the present is seen in *be-queathe.* Anglo-Saxon *cwethan*, to speak, past *cwæth.*

Methinks. *Thinks* is a form of the Anglo-Saxon *thincan*, to seem, and is now only used in the third person. *Me* is in the dative case. *Thincan* must be carefully distinguished from *thencan*, think. The forms, "thee thinketh," "us thinketh," was in use among the Anglo-Saxons.

2. *Take six of our common English prepositions, and after showing of each, as nearly as you can, its original meaning, show in what way it has been taken to represent different relations of place, time, and causalty.*

"Prepositions were once adverbial prefixes to the verb, serving to point out more clearly the direction of the verbal action. By de-

grees they detached themselves from the verb and came to belong to the noun, furthering the disappearance of its *case*-endings, and assuming their office. The oldest prepositions can be traced to pronominal roots; others are from verbal roots."—*Whitney.*

(1) *From*, from the Teutonic root *far*, to go on (hence *fare*). Anglo-Saxon *fram* (Scotch *fra*), *fro*, "to and fro." Its original meaning seems to be, "going forward." The *m* is a superlative suffix. Hence it comes to signify *origin*, and was used to express the relations of *time* or *place*.

(2) *With*. This word has retained its form unchanged, though there was also a more original form, *mid*, now obsolete. It signifies from, against. Few words have retained their old form and meaning so completely.

(3) *Through* seems to be derived from a root *þar*, to bore. The fundamental notion is that of piercing, Anglo-Saxon *þurh*. It appears as an adjective under the form *thorough*.

(4) *In*, connected with *on*, *an*, derived from a demonstrative stem, and indicates *place*.

(5) *By* (Anglo-Saxon *bi*, *big*), indicates a relation of place originally.

(6) *Among*, a compound preposition. Earliest form *gemang*, which means a crowd; hence "in a crowd."

As the inflexions of the language gradually disappeared, these link-words became more important, and naturally assumed the different relations now expressed by them.

3. *Show that the following words were originally compound nouns:*—barn, orchard, stirrup. *Tell what you know of the Teutonic suffixes used in the forming of abstract nouns.*

Barn, from Anglo-Saxon *bere*, barley, and *ærne*, a house for storing. It is a contracted form of *ber-ern*, which occurs in the old Northumbrian version of Luke iii. 17.

Orchard, older form *ortgeard* or *wyrtgeard*, *i.e.*, yard of worts or vegetables, compounded of *ort* or *wyrt*, and *yard*.

Stirrup, for *sty-rope*, *i.e.*, a rope to climb by. The original stirrup was a looped rope for mounting into the saddle. Anglo-Saxon, *stirap*, or fuller form, *stig-rap*, from *stigan*, to climb, and *rap*, a rope.

The following Teutonic suffixes are used in the formation of abstract nouns:—*ness*, as brightness; *hood* or *head*, falsehood, godhead; *rick*, as bishopric; *th* or *t*, as youth, height; *kind*, mankind; *lock* or *ledge*, wedlock, knowledge; *red*, as hatred; *ship*, as friendship.

ONTARIO AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE.

EASTER EXAMINATIONS, 1883.

Second Year.

POLITICAL ECONOMY.

Examiner: W. A. DOUGLAS, B.A.

1. The interests of producer and consumer are identical. In what way?

2. What are the factors that enter into the production of wealth? Name the share appropriated by each of these factors?

3. "There is a tendency to equality of interest." There is a tendency to emigrate. There is a tendency to obtain supplies from certain locations—to adopt the best implements, *et cetera*. Towards what and from what are men's acts tending in all these cases? Illustrate.

4. "We now begin to see that to increase the productiveness of labour is really the important thing for everybody." Name some commodities which labour cannot increase, but which may diminish.

5. "Man alone, no animal more helpless; man in society, no animal more powerful." State the causes of this difference.

6. Certain causes tend to extend the division of labour, others tend to diminish. Name these, distinguishing the former from the latter.

7. "There are no principles in trade." Discuss this.

8. "A camping party exhibits the same tendency to organization that is found in a vast populous country." Illustrate this.

9. Two men working together will accomplish more than two working separately. Name at least two ways in which this can be accomplished.

10. Is the tendency of society to greater

dependence or to greater independence of individuals and nations on each other? Illustrate.

11. Name (1) the beneficial objects that may be accomplished by trades unions: (2) the mistakes they sometimes make.

12. Distinguish nominal and real wages. If the whole body of workmen wish to increase their real wages, on what must they encroach?

13. Name some of the methods of harmonizing the interests of Capitalists and Labourers.

14. Tenant or Mortgagor. Show in what way, if any, the one is more advantageously situated than the other.

15. Money. What are its functions? In what way is gold so suitable for money. The English law of legal tender.

16. Credit cycles. Describe (1) their progress, (2) their duration, (3) dates of depression during this century.

JULY EXAMINATION OF PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS, 1883.

TIME AND SUBJECTS OF EXAMINATION.

CLASS I.—EXAMINATIONS.

Non-Professional Examination.

GRADE C.

Monday, 9th July—2 to 3 p.m., Composition, 3.5 to 5.5, Geography. Tuesday, 10th July—9 to 12 a.m., Natural Philosophy; 2 to 5 p.m., History. Wednesday, 11th July—9 to 12 a.m., Arithmetic; 2 to 4.30 p.m., English Literature and Language. Thursday, 12th July—9 to 12 a.m., Euclid; 2 to 5 p.m., Grammar. Friday, 13th July—9 to 12 a.m., Algebra; 2 to 4.30 p.m., Hydrostatics and Heat. Saturday, 14th July—9 to 11 a.m., Chemistry.

Professional Examination.

Saturday, 14th July—11.5 to 12.35 a.m., Education—1st Paper; 2 to 4 p.m., Education—2nd Paper. Monday, 16th July—Music, Drawing, Drill.

GRADES A AND B.

Tuesday, 17th July, and three following days.

Intermediate, 3rd and 2nd Class Non-Professional Examination.

Tuesday, 3rd July—9 to 9.15 a.m., Reading and Regulations; 9.20 to 10.50, Geography; 10.55 to 11.25, Dictation; 11.30 to 12, Mental Arithmetic; 1.15 to 3.15 p.m., English Literature; 3.20 to 4.50, Chemistry. Wednesday, 4th July—9 to 11 a.m., Arithmetic; 11.05 to 12.05, Botany; 1.15 to 3.15 p.m., English Grammar; 3.20 to 4.50, Latin Authors. Thursday, 5th July—9 to 11 a.m., Algebra; 11.05 to 12.05, English Composition; 1.15 to 3.15 p.m., Natural Philosophy; 3.20 to 4 50, Latin Prose and Grammar. Friday, 6th July—9 to 11 a.m., Euclid; 11.05 to 12 05, Music; 1.15 to 3.15 p.m., History; 3.20 to 4.20, Drawing. Saturday, 7th July—9 to 11 a.m., French; 11.05 to 1.05, German.

IT is well to know an adjective from an adverb, a square from a cube, a parallel from a meridian.

NATURAL scenery is said to have a potent moulding influence upon the young. In fact it is an orthodox doctrine, that great men are never reared upon a prairie.

THE supreme end to be secured at school is not knowledge, but development; and those studies which occasion the best development are, after all, the most useful.—*Dickinson.*

A HALTING PARAGRAPH.—A pup-pup-pup-person would ha-ha-hardly think that there w-w-would be a paper published for st-st-st-st-st-st-stut-tut-tut-tut-er-er-ers, b-b-b-but there is. It is k-k-k-k-called the *V-V-V-Voice*, and it hails from Albany, N-N-N-N-New Y-Y-Y-York. It ape-ape-appears every month and is d-d-devoted to voice culture, and gives special atten-attention to stam-stut-stam-stut-stut-st-st-st-stam-am-ham-mer-amer-am-am-am-ering.—*Detroit Free Press.*

SCHOOL WORK.

DAVID BOYLE, ELORA, EDITOR.

THE BOY'S OWN PAPER.

We cannot too highly commend the *Boy's Own Paper* for perusal by the youth of Canada. It is intended to displace such trash as the *Boys of England* and the *Boys of New York*, not so much by assuming a tone of goody-goodiness, or even by any ostentatious display of morality, as by its common sense, robust treatment of subjects likely to interest young people, wholly apart from "blood and thunder."

We have always regarded the "Correspondence" columns as the weakest portion of this otherwise excellent publication. If, as we are assured, the "correspondence" paragraphs are genuine *replies*, good taste and a knowledge of boy-nature ought to suggest to the editor of this department some regard for the feelings of his querists. Insulting insinuations are quite out of place. Replies should be given smartly, but not smartingly.

In the last number of the last part, p. 352, the following is given in answer to an Orillia correspondent, "It is of the nature of things that amongst our army of readers a few of strong feelings and *weak intellect* will be found. *We sympathize with you in your affliction*, and trust that as you grow older the folly and ignorance which you mistake for patriotism will decrease." The italics are ours, and we submit that the tone of the reply throughout is not in keeping with the character of the journal.

Nor is the information in these columns always correct. The following caught our eye, owing to its local interest (*vide* p. 336):

"The latest survey reports that Lake Superior is 335 miles in length, and its greatest breadth, 160 miles; mean depth, 688 ft.; elevation, 827 ft.; area, 82,000 square miles (!). The greatest length of Lake Michigan is 300; its greatest breadth, 108 miles; but it is generally very narrow as compared with Lake Superior; mean depth, 690 ft.; elevation, 506 ft.; area, 23,000 square miles. The greatest length of Lake Huron is 300 miles; its greatest breadth, 60 miles; mean depth, 600 ft.; elevation, 254 ft.; area, 20,000 square miles. The greatest length of Lake Erie is 250 miles; its greatest breadth, 80 miles; mean depth, 84 ft.; elevation, 261 ft., area, 6,000 square miles. The greatest length of Lake Ontario is 180 miles; its greatest breadth is 65 miles; its mean depth is 500 feet; area, 6,000 square miles. The total of these five great lakes is 1,265 miles, covering an area of upwards of 135,000 square miles."

It would not be easy to mix figures in a worse manner. Think of it! Superior is nearly 200 ft. higher than Michigan, and more than 400 ft. higher than Huron, both of which are on the same level. Even this is not so bad as to be informed that the water flowing from Huron rises 7 ft. to reach Erie, and that there is no difference at all in the elevation of Erie and Ontario, notwithstanding the existence between these two of a little cascade known to the natives as Niagara!

It is because we wish the *Boy's Own Paper* success that we grieve so much to notice the banter and ignorance of the "Correspondence" columns. We shall be happy to receive additions to our club list for supplying the MONTHLY and the *Boy's Own Paper* to every teacher and every school in Ontario.

THEORY AND PRACTICE IN DISCIPLINE.

How many teachers are there, we wonder, whose theory of discipline and their practice harmonize? Are you one of the few consistent ones, reader? We have, most of us, read of the Hoosier schoolmaster who said, "*Moral suasion* is my theory, but *licking* is my practice." With many teachers whom we know nearly as grave an inconsistency pre-

vails. For their theory is the gentlest of gentle persuasiveness, while their practice is often pettiishness, sharp reproof, and impatient expostulation. Alas, for the weakness of human nature. We can appreciate, value, follow the best way in theory, but in practice—it is very difficult. Consistency is a jewel, said the old poet. So it is and a rare one. Few persons are there, even among the best, whose theories of action, and their practice, walk through life hand in hand, like the pattern Darby and Joan, with never a clash or a quarrel. Not that all are conscious hypocrites. But theory is so easily made perfect, while it is difficult to make practice even approximate perfection.

Still while admitting the wide gap which the weakness of human nature leaves between theory and practice, we would, recurring to the special instance concerning which our Hoosier friend made his confession, exhort teachers to endeavour to make narrow this gap in their disciplinary work. If you believe, and surely observation of human nature cannot fail to make you believe, that by means of gentleness, patience, and loving kindness, you can influence your pupils far more effectually, can do much more toward securing perfect discipline, then it is a very unfortunate inconsistency that renders you impatient and fretful. Even though you do not render it glaring by talking very much concerning your excellent disciplinary theories, your weakness in practice will be noted by others, and, so far as perceived, will effectually counteract your influence for good. Your pupils will learn that you "say and do not," and will dispise you, set at naught your wishes, and become far more difficult than before to manage. But worst of all is the direct evil influence which such inconsistency has on your own character. You do not know how it harms you; you do not perceive how through it your standards of truth are lowering; how your power to justly estimate your own failings is leaving you; how you are fast becoming the real, rather than the conscious hypocrite; but the harm is working, nevertheless. Nor do you perceive how with each yielding to impatient impulse, your power of self-control is lessening, and and you are becoming the weak, captious fretful teacher whose presence will demoralize, in half a day, the most excellently disciplined school. In a very short time your discipline power will be utterly lost, and the melancholy record of failure stands against your school work.

Disciplining a school-room is a task not alike difficult to all. To some who have by nature or acquirement a clear knowledge of child nature, and who know just how to take hold of a child so as to influence his mind and action, the work of governing a school well, is very easy. To others who are unfamiliar with children, and who must learn each child's peculiarities before they know how to deal with him, who know not how to wield influence except through direct individual knowledge—the task is a very hard one. There is but one way to make it easy, and this is by cultivating self-discipline. First, to govern one's self well, and then the task of governing others becomes easy.

Above all things, never make a pretence at stern discipline that you cannot enforce. Attempt no disciplinary measures that you do not believe in, if possible, but especially attempt none that you cannot fully carry out. Rather neglect certain details, be lax in unimportant matters, than start on a plan so perfect that neither strength of mind or body will hold out while you are putting it in practice. If you are convinced that you can govern solely by persuasiveness, try the experiment, but don't say too much about it until you have tried—and succeeded. Throw away the rod, if you can, but do not tell the children you have done so, until you have proved your power to control your school, not only without its presence, but without its shadow in the background. We ourselves are not in favour of the rod in use, but we think that, as children are usually brought up, its efficacy in the background cannot be slighted by the prudent teacher. Children are very much like grown people, and if they know that there *is* a punishment somewhere which cannot be escaped in instances of gross transgression there is no doubt that

they will be more likely to avoid the serious offence.

Never threaten, or scold. Never say, "John, if you don't stop that I shall punish you severely." Or, having been so unwise and hasty as to declare an intention to punish —do so. Your failure to carry out your threat will convince the children that you are infirm of purpose and untruthful, and they know by instinct that weakness or falsity can be imposed upon by the daring or disorderly with impunity. Scolding and fretting, and impatience are also indications of weakness, and the child who is not tempted by them to trespass on rules afresh is a very exceptional child indeed.

The general rules of discipline may be varied somewhat for the different classes of children found in different localities, but the qualities they demand in the teacher are in the main always the same. Firmness is needed, also kindness, and absolute self-control. "Let your yea be yea, and your nay, nay." Mean what you say and say what you mean. Seek for a wise and temperate theory, and follow it up with a sensible consistent practice, and the probabilities are that your difficulties in disciplinary work need no longer imperil your happy success.—*Prese. Age.*

THE BELLS.*

A PARODY.

Hear the teacher with the bells—
Rising bells—
What a world of misery their turbulency tells!
How they jangle, jangle, jangle,
Through the icy air of morn!
While the stars that still bespangle
All the heavens seem to dangle
Loosely to and fro in scorn—
Keeping up a hum,
With the baser beat of drum,
To the most merciless measure that so wofully wells
From the bells, rising bells,
Rising bells—
From the jangling and the wrangling rising bells.

Hear the tuneful table bells—
Table bells—
What a world of solid comfort their calling foretells!
And of dainty dishes that delight
Th' school-boy's ravenous appetite!
Soon a thousand flying feet
Begin to fall,
As they hasten swift and fleet,
Stalking, stumbling down the stairs, to find a seat
Within the hall.
Longer and longer still they pour
O'er Pea-pie Association's * plenteous store.
How they swell,
As they tell
Of the music of the bell!
The soft, silvery bell,
The jingling and the tinkling
Of the breakfast bell,
Of the bell, dinner bell,
Supper bell!
The rhyming and the chiming table bell.

Hear the stupid study bells—
Study bells!
How the school-boy's heart with lofty indignation swells,
As their sudden, surly sound
Drives him from the college ground!
Now begins the search for books
With eager anxious looks,
Full of fears,
Lest the long, unending lesson be unlearned,
And his loud and ringing laugh to tears be turned.
Fast and faster fly;
Flitting moments by;
Still he strives with last endeavour
To master, now or never,
Lessons dull and dry and long delayed:
But the bell, bell, bell,
What a tale its terrors tell,
Of despair!
And the tutor's clash and roar
Still another horror pour
On the palpitating bosom of the heir;

* From *The Teacher*, Philadelphia.

* A freshman once, by some stretch of the imagination, mistook the grapes in his piece of pie for green peas. No sooner had he exposed his ignorance than a dozen mischievous boys gathered around him and gravely formed an association, of which they elected him president, with the duty of procuring pea-pies for dinner every day.

Yet the boy he clearly knows,
By the twitching,
And the switching,
How the tutor's fury ebbs and flows;
And his ear distinctly tells,
In the banging,
And the clanging,
How the fury sinks and swells,
By the sinking and the swelling in the anger of the bells—
Of the bells—
Of the bells, study bells—
In the clamour and the clangour of the study bells!

Hear the tame retiring bells—
Retiring bells!
What a world of rest and dreams their monody foretells!
In the late hour of the night,
How we welcome with delight
The soft, measured music of their chime,
When from out their cell
Softened sounds begin to swell
All in rhyme!
And the boys—ah, the boys,
Wicked upper-storey boys,
All in time,
Now are sliding, sliding, sliding,
Down the ancient walls,
Through the misty darkness dimly gliding,
To the distant dancing halls.
How their throbbing bosom swells
At the dying sound of bells!
While in dances with the belles
Keeping time, time, time,
To the prompter's ruder rhyme,
In the dizzy whirl with belles—
Merry belles!
Keeping time, time, time,
In a sort of woful rhyme,
To the sweeter swelling note,
That now begins to faintly float
From the darker corner far remote!
Better far to keep in time,
With a happy Runic rhyme,
To the rolling, rolling bells,
The sweet retiring bells,
To the welling of the bells,
Of the bells, retiring bells—
To the chiming and the rhyming retiring bells.

COUNTY OF WELLINGTON PROMOTION EXAMINATIONS.

(Continued from MONTHLY for March.)

LITERATURE.

1. In conformity with the desolating plan of the campaign, the ruin of the ancient capital of the Czars had been determined. The criminals confined in the different prisons received their liberty on condition of setting fire to the city as soon as it should be in possession of the French army. In order to insure its destruction, the engines and every means by which the fire might have been extinguished were removed or destroyed. The Exchange was the first building that fell a prey to the flames. (*a*) Name the country invaded by the French. (*b*) What is meant by "the desolating plan of the campaign"? (*c*) Whose plan was it to desolate the country? Why? (*d*) Give the name of the ancient capital of the Czars. (*e*) What was "the Exchange"? (*f*) Explain the meaning of "ancient capital," "to insure its destruction," "the engines." (*g*) Who led the French army in the campaign?

2. Their avarice was now satisfied, and the next struggle was for ambition—a struggle which was fatal to these daring men—laying them in succession in a bloody grave. (*a*) When was their avarice satisfied? (*b*) How was their avarice satisfied? (*c*) What is meant by "the next struggle was for ambition"? (*d*) Give the names of the leaders of this expedition. (*e*) Explain the allusion contained in the last clause of the extract. (*f*) In what year was Peru conquered? (*g*) Who was monarch of Peru at the time of its conquest?

3. Give in your own language a description of the Buccaneers.

ARITHMETIC.

1. Find the cost of plastering the ceiling and walls of a room 18 ft. long, 14 ft. wide, the ceiling being 12 ft. high, at 15 cents per square yard. Also, find cost of carpeting the same room with carpet 27 inches wide, worth 90 cents per yard.

2. Find total amount of following bill:—

$7\frac{1}{2}$ yards print @ \$0 19 per yard.
$8\frac{3}{4}$ " cotton @ 0 09$\frac{1}{2}$ "
$13\frac{1}{4}$ " tweed @ 1 15 "
13 " silk @ 2 37$\frac{1}{2}$ "
$\frac{1}{4}$ " velvet @ 8 25 "
57 buttons @ 0 25 per dozen.

3. Find the Simple Interest on \$350 from January 1st, 1883, to April 21st, 1883 (inclusive), at 8 % per annum.

4. The quotient is $\frac{7}{9}$ the divisor, the divisor is nine times the remainder: find the dividend if the quotient is 28.

5. The diameter of the fore wheel of a buggy is $\frac{5}{7}$ the diameter of the hind wheel, and the circumference is to the diameter as 22 is to 7. Find the diameter of the fore wheel if the hind wheel makes 480 revolutions in going one mile.

6. Find the value of $(3.65 - .0078 + 29.\dot{3} - 2.3\dot{4}0\dot{6} + 3070 - .472) \times 46.62\dot{4}0\dot{5}$. Answer to be a decimal.

7. How long will it take a man to walk around a block of 4 town lots lying side by side, each lot being 50 yards long by 72$\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide, if he walks at the rate of 2 miles per hour?

8. $\frac{1}{4}$ of my money is in ten-dollar bills, $\frac{2}{3}$ of the remainder is in five-dollar bills, and $\frac{1}{2}$ of what then remains is in two-dollar bills. I have \$6 in silver; how many bills have I?

9. How many Third Books, each 5 inches wide, 8 inches long, and 1 inch thick, can be packed in a trunk 2 feet 6 inches long, 20 inches deep, and 1 foot 4 inches wide?

10. Express in words 2002.002; write in decimals twenty-four hundredths, five millionths, and define Prime Number, Complex Fraction, and Concrete Number.

Value, 10 each.

NORTH HASTINGS UNIFORM PROMOTION EXAMINATIONS.*

Entrance to Fourth Class.

MARCH 30TH, 1883.

ARITHMETIC.

1. Divide $450 - [(24 - 12) \times 5]$ by $90 \div 6 + 3 \times 11 - 18$.

2. What number divided by 497 will give 46 for quotient and leave 487 for remainder?

3. Express 464350 *sq. in.* in ac., rods, yds.

4. How many times may £10 5s. 3d. be subtracted from £1000 10s., and what will the remainder be?

5. How many rails will enclose a field 7356 ft. long by 2892 ft. wide, if the fence be straight, seven rails high, and the rails the longest possible?

6. What is the smallest sum of money for which I can purchase sheep @ \$5, cows @ \$33, and horses @ \$159 each?

7. What fraction is that which added to the sum of $\frac{1}{8}$, $\frac{1}{12}$, and $\frac{1}{18}$ will make $\frac{2}{3}\frac{3}{6}$?

8. *A* mows 3 acres in $4\frac{1}{2}$ days, *B* mows $5\frac{1}{4}$ acres in $3\frac{3}{8}$ days; in what time will they together mow 10 acres?

9. *A* paid \$11$\frac{3}{4}$ for a coat, \$2$\frac{1}{2}$ for a vest, \$1$\frac{1}{2}$ for a hat, \$4$\frac{1}{2}$ for a pair of trousers; how much did he pay for all?

10. Define—Arithmetic, Abstract number, Least common multiple, Fraction.

GEOGRAPHY AND WRITING.

1. Define—Isthmus, Inlet, Promontory, Lake, Channel.

2. Trace the course of the Mackenzie, the Mississippi, the Nile, the Rhine. State into what body of water each flows.

3. Name the leading Canadian ports on Lakes Huron and Ontario.

4. Where, in Ontario, are silver mines found? Where are petroleum wells located?

5. Sketch an outline map of New Brunswick: mark carefully the boundaries of the Province: locate on it the principal inlets, rivers and towns.

6. What and where are—Canso, Brandon, Fraser, Niphon, Malacca, Ceylon, Madagascar, Liverpool, Glasgow, Dublin?

7. Where is tea produced in greatest quantity? Name one leading export of each of the following countries:—Italy, Hindostan, Mexico.

8. Bound the Arctic Ocean, and the Baltic Sea.

9. State clearly the causes of the Seasons.

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*By the courtesy of Mr. Wm. Mackintosh, I.P.S., Madoc.

GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION.

Subject.	Modifications of Subject.	Grammatical Predicate.	Object.	Adverbial Modifications of Predicate.

1. Analyze, according to the plan given above, these sentences :—

(*a*) The *chambers* of sickness and distress *are mostly peopled* with the victims of intemperance and *sloth*.

(*b*) *They bring down my gray* hairs with sorrow to the grave.

(*c*) At length the freshening western *blast Aside* the *shroud* of battle cast.

(*d*) One *day*, a mutinous party of felons *succeeded* in *seizing* a turnkey.

2. Parse the italicised words in the above.

3. Use correctly *sit*, *set*, *lie*, *lay*, *rise* or *raise*, in the following :—

(*a*) They —— under the trees.

(*b*) —— the things on the table.

(*c*) The hens —— on the eggs.

(*d*) —— the ball on the carpet.

(*e*) —— on the couch and I will —— this robe over you.

(*f*) When the water rises will it —— the boats?

4. Correct, where necessary, and state reason :—

(*a*) They do not attend school very regular.

(*b*) They have went through reduction.

(*c*) I like going to school pretty good.

(*d*) May we carry the ladys basket?

(*e*) He has a twelve foot board.

(*f*) He sold six dozen of eggs.

(*g*) He done his work proper.

(*h*) I will learn you better.

5. Define—comparison, tense, voice, co-ordinate conjunction, conjunctive adverb, personal pronoun.

6. Write the second person singular of each of the indicative tenses of *catch* and *throw*; the comparative of *little*, *restless*, *brief*, *pretty*, and *gay*; and the possessive plural of *deer*, *fly*, and *soldier*.

7. Write a letter to a friend, giving an account of the manner in which you spent Curistmas.

READING.

Third Reader, page 282—"*A great variety of birds*" to "*as I saw used.*"

LITERATURE.

1. In "A Mother's Love" (Third Reader) page 181), what is meant by *inspiring thought*, *the lore they prize*, and *that book*?

2. Explain the following :—*quadrangle of a wooden fort*, *the stimulus given to my fears*, *stirring and romantic sights*, *voyageurs*, *current coinage*, *quintals of fish*, *absorbed in thought*, *a wise old saw*.

3. When was the last war between Britain and the United States? What excuse was given by the U. S. for commencing the war?

4. For what did Midas chiefly value his royal crown? What causes Queen Victoria to value her crown?

5. Express in your own words the meaning of the following :—

(*a*) *The food for grave, inquiring speech he everywhere doth find.*

(*b*) *Fettered in thought and limb.*

6. Jesus asked the lawyer to whom He told the parable of "The Good Samaritan" two questions, and the lawyer asked Him two; write the questions and their answers in full.

7. Write brief notes on Esquimault Harbour, York Fort, Alfred the Great, the Passover, and Esau.

SPELLING.

1. They persisted in accompanying the funeral procession to the cemetery.

2. The dyer who by dying lives, a dire life maintains.

3. The imminent fate which they stood quietly awaiting.

4. A Canadian of Chippewa was noticed appealing for aid with frantic gestures.

5. Lightly they'll talk of the spirit that's gone,
And o'er his cold ashes upbraid him,—
But little he'll reck if they let him sleep on
In the grave where a Briton has laid him.

N.B.—The fifth and sixth stanzas should be read to the candidates by the examiner.

6. The merchant advised his clerk to make a schedule exhibiting the cost of the syrup, ochre, melons, coral, cocoa, canvas, soap, and alum.

7. Chestnut, abridgment, chamois, licorice, molasses.

8. The government of Canada consists of a Governor-General, an Executive Council, a Senate, and the House of Commons.

9. The soil of a great part of Chili, Ecuador, and Tierra del Fuego is sterile.

10. He makes a wry face at the rye bread offered to him.

11. He put a potato, a tomato, a cabbage, and some celery, asparagus, carrots, parsnips, and lettuce near the coulter of the plough.

Entrance to Senior Third Class.

APRIL 6TH, 1883.

SPELLING.

1. He was seen wriggling in the eagle's talons.

2. The mandibles of the spider were buried in his shining throat.

3. He went away from the usual track to examine a tract of land.

4. A beast of draught, futility, hovel.

5. The source of the St. Lawrence is at the head of Lake Superior.

6. Hunting grouse during the drought was an extraordinary freak.

7. Gallant, racers, sieve, scythe, sponge.

8. The hideous uproar assured him that he was the object of pursuit.

9. A perilous adventure once befel my brother-in-law.

10. Came where the industrious bees had stored
In artful cells their luscious hoard
O'erjoyed they seized with eager haste
Luxurious on the rich repast.

11. Desperately, separately, until, fulfil, women's millinery.

12. The bruises elicited a piercing shriek.

13. Asia, Caribbean, Erie, Jamaica.

14. Sir John A. Macdonald, Orinoco, Rhine, Mackenzie, Cobourg.

READING.

Third Reader, page 140—"*Arrowhead's first act*" to the end.

GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION.

1. Write sentences each containing one of the following words and phrases:—trait of character, conspicuous, a full view, morose and untamable, taking some barley broth, previously crouched, shrubbery, wholly destitute.

2. Define *sentence*, *subject of a sentence*, *predicate of a sentence*, *simple sentence*, *analysis*, *complete subject*.

3. Name the marks which are placed at the end of a sentence. Write sentences showing the use of these marks.

4. Divide the following sentences into subject and predicate, thus—*They* | *were silent.*

(*a*) Above it stood the seraphs.

(*b*) Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight.

(*c*) By the Yellow Tiber was tumult and affright.

(*d*) Out of the abundance of the heart the mouth speaketh.

(*e*) Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate.

(*f*) From gold to gray, our wild, sweet day
Of Indian summer fades too soon.

5. Use *is* or *are*, *was* or *were*, *has* or *have*, correctly in the following:—The crows —— stolen a piece of cheese. —— John and his mother at home? —— the boys frightened? The Council —— resolved to economize. ——there birds in the cage? The proper number of pieces —— laid down.

ARITHMETIC.

1. Multiply 37694 by 8796, and divide the product by 59.

2. There are 24 sheets of paper in a quire; how many sheets in 5 dozen packets each consisting of 5 quires?

3. Write out the table you would use in measuring land.

4. Change 345647*d.* into £.

5. How many inches in 8 miles, 136 rods, 4 yards?

6. How much change ought I to receive for a $4 bill tendered in payment of the following articles:—10½ lbs. sugar @ 8c. a

lb., 9 lbs. raisins @ 12c. a lb., 6¼ lbs. currants @ 8c. a lb., and 4½ lbs. butter @ 20c. a lb?

7. John throws a ball 80 yards up the road and another 250 feet down the road; how far will he have to travel to bring both back?

8. Find the cost of a pile of wood 19 feet long, 6 feet high, and 4 feet wide at $3.50 per cord.

9. If 6c. purchase 5 eggs, how much will 6½ dozen cost?

10. Define—Addend, Difference, Multiplicand, Quotient, Reduction.

LITERATURE.

1. What and where are the following places?—Dundee, Detroit, Woolwich, Philadelphia, Cayenne.

2. Who were the following?—Petrarch, John Maynard, George Washington, Casabianca, Robert Bruce.

3. Write the following passages using for the words and phrases in italics other words and phrases which will make good sense:—

(*a*) *Solemn oath* on the *Gospels*.

(*b*) The order was given *to reduce sail*.

(*c*) *Thoroughly domesticated*.

(*d*) Peet's *solicitations* generally *succeeded*.

(*e*) The young *pedestrian's frame*.

(*f*) *Settled our brains* for a long winter's nap.

(*g*) *Insectivorous propensities*.

(*h*) The "Cecilia" was running *at about fifteen knots*.

(*i*) *Ample scope* for observation.

4. Re-write the following passage, using other words or expressions for those in italics:—

I was greatly *shocked* at first to *observe* the *cool indifference* with which the young *aristocrats of song surveyed* their *foster-parents*. After a while it came, in spite of the shameful *ingratitude* it *exhibited*, to be a *constant source* of *merriment* with us to watch the lordly and *impudent nonchalance* with which they would look down on the blue-birds.

5. What lessons are taught by "John Adams and his Latin," "The Discontented Pendulum"?

6. Write from memory one verse of "The Old Arm Chair."

GEOGRAPHY AND WRITING.

1. Define—Valley, Pond, Peninsula, Continent, Cape.

2. Define River. Name the chief river of Hastings' County. Trace its course from its source to its mouth, naming the municipalities through which it flows and also those situated on, or near, its banks.

3. Bound (*a*) Asia, (*b*) the Mediterranean Sea.

4. Into what body of water does each of the following rivers flow?—Mississippi, Orinoco, Columbia, Seine, Ganges?

5. What and where are?—Newfoundland, Ottawa, Winnipeg, Sable, Dover, Washington, Halifax, New York, Paris, Moscow, Turkey.

6. Sketch an outline map of Africa. Locate on it the three most important rivers, and four important capes.

7. Name the countries of North America—

(*a*) In order of their size (*the largest to be named first*).

(*b*) In order of their relative position (*the most southerly to be named first*).

Entrance to Junior Third Class.

SPELLING.

1. He at once threw off his clothes.

2. There was an old prophecy about Bethlehem of Judea.

3. Faust ceased howling and redoubled his efforts to keep himself afloat.

4. May the heart's best impulse ever check them ere they soil the lip.

5. Opinion, repaired to their several homes.

6. Cloak, colts' manes, Herod, chief city.

7. April, February, Tuesday, Mayo, Rawdon.

8. He was smoking at the tailor's.

9. His clothes were thoroughly soaked.

10. The giant was defying the men of Israel.

11. Autumn gives us fruit and sheaves
Ere she leaves.

12. We'll spend Wednesday gaily.

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

THE LAST FORTY YEARS: Canada since the Union of 1841, by John Charles Dent, 2 vols. 4to. Toronto: George Virtue.

THE completion of Mr. Dent's survey of Canadian history from the period of the union of the two older provinces, calls for a few words of comment, in acknowledgment of the successive issues of the work from the publisher. In THE MONTHLY for December last, we took occasion, in a resumé of "Recent Canadian Literature," to direct the attention of our readers to the publication, and to congratulate its author in his successful venture, of writing a picturesque narrative of contemporary history. The plan of the work, as we then described it, is that of grouping the main incidents in our recent history which illustrate the formative periods of the country's growth, into a succession of entertaining chapters, rather than the setting forth in minute detail of the history from year to year. Not only is this method, which Mr. Justin McCarthy has made familiar to us in his *History of Our Own Time*, acceptable to the reader, and we should say easy of accomplishment to the writer, but it marks off the history into transitional periods and, if the narrative be well strung and the author's style graphic, groups it into well-remembered chapters. If Mr. Dent's style is lacking in some of the higher qualities, and his work unequal, the history runs on very smoothly, and his portraiture is generally accurate and well-drawn. His prevailing fault, if we may speak of it as such, is the effort to be judicial, and to narrate the events of which he treats in a dispassionate and unpartisan mood. This deprives his history of much of the life and colour it might otherwise have, though many will say this is how our annals ought to be written. For ourselves, we would forego a little of the honest plodding to have the spice and ginger of the vigorous and independent thinker. Mr. Dent's work, it ought to be said, however, is far in advance of the sort of historical writing we have been accustomed to meet with in Canada, and his volumes consequently deserve to take high rank in Canadian literature.

The history is largely political, and its chief topics, as a matter of course, are those which had their scene of action in Parliament. These events, on the whole, are carefully and laboriously dealt with, and include the historic questions of Responsible Government, the Rebellion Losses, Clergy Reserves, Secularization, Seigniorial Tenure, etc. In connection with the discussion of these topics we have a series of portraits of more or less interest to Canadian readers, embracing sketches of Earl Cathcart, Sir Charles Metcalfe, Lord Elgin, Sir Edmund Head, and Messrs. Baldwin, Mackenzie, Papineau, Lafontaine, Hincks, and other worthies of ante-confederation days. The social and industrial history is little dealt with, though reference is made to the opening of the Grand Trunk Railway in 1851, to the transfer of the Hudson Bay Company's possessions, and to a few other kindred topics. The more recent political history, for obvious reasons, has not been touched upon, the narrative closing with the Red River affair in 1870, the San Juan Boundary matter in 1872, and the "ever memorable" Pacific Railway Scandal of 1873.

In the concluding section Mr. Dent devotes some forty pages to a summary of the literary results of the time in journalism and literature. To the reader, fed upon the bran of politics, and whose love of letters does not extend beyond the margin of a party newspaper, this chapter may supply the place of a personal acquaintance with his country's authors. If it does more than this, and shall incite the reader to further research in the field of Canadian literature, to Mr. Dent, and not to any Royal Society, will he owe obligation. In the space at his disposal, Mr. Dent has made a painstaking enumeration of the literary workmen of the Dominion, a force which, if it had the stimulus of public recognition and favour, might win for the country many and unfading laurels. That Canadian literature has hitherto not had this

recognition, is it treason to cite Mr. Dent by way of explanation? "No people," says our author, "ever developed a national literature so long as they remained in leading strings!"

A comprehensive index completes Mr. Dent's labours on this history—a history which the teaching profession, above all, should be familiar with, and be able to extract from it something more than dates and names—something of the spirit of history and of the life-force behind it.

The mechanism of the book deserves a word of praise, as do the illustrations, particularly the portraits of Messrs. Tilley and Mackenzie.

CICERO'S CATO MAJOR DE SENECTUTE, with notes, by John Henderson, M.A., St. Catharines. Toronto: Copp, Clark & Co., 1883.

ALL who are interested in the advancement of Canadian literature owe a debt of gratitude to those publishers, like Messrs. Copp, Clark & Co., who prefer to encourage native scholarship, in any work they contemplate bringing out, to reproducing adaptations of foreign text-books. Mr. Henderson, whose talent and industry are to be commended, has now given us a text-book peculiarly well adapted to the needs of Canadian students; and it is but simple justice to say that his edition of the *De Senectute* is calculated to do credit to Canadian scholarship and literary taste. The introduction to the work is a brief but interesting summary of the life of Cicero and of the *dramatis personæ* of the dialogue. It is, perhaps, rating the great orator a little too highly to call his "the greatest name in Roman literature;" as the only unimpeachable success he has reached is in his Speeches. The dialogues have always the ring of false metal; they lack the depth of Plato, the wit of Lucian, and the versimilitude of Walter Savage Landor. Mr. Henderson's notes are full, and explain everything that ought to be explained, without descending to the level of a "crib." The vocabulary is specially deserving of praise; the philological part is clear and concise, and gives the student the benefit of the latest results in the science of language. The printing is accurate, and the general mechanism of the book, neat. In this new work of Mr. Henderson's Canadian students have a text-book which is in every respect creditable to the author and to the country.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

THE NEW READERS.

IT is said that Sir John Lubbock once polled a school in London to ascertain the fondness for special subjects on the part of the pupils, with the following results, that 147 liked elementary science best, 38 preferred history, 31 arithmetic, 11 geography, and 2 (!) grammar. We are not told that there was any poll taken for literature, though we may safely assume, if the Readers in use in the schools were attractive, that nineteen-twentieths of the scholars would declare for that fascinating subject. The great preference for science shown in the poll would indicate that the master had a special aptitude for teaching it, and was able to illustrate the subject by no doubt thrilling experiments. It is a truism that any subject can be made attractive to the child-mind if the teacher knows how to handle it; and the moral is, that no one should teach who is not up in his subject and has the gift of making it intelligible to his pupils. Given, the teacher of requisite training and culture, his success will then depend in no little measure upon the tools he works with. Of a school of over two hundred, that less than one per cent. should declare for grammar as the choice of the heart, augurs ill for the text-book and the machinery of teaching. In the case of English grammar, the defect no doubt lies to a great extent in the text-book; and it is safe to say that of the seven hundred works on this usually repellent subject reported to be lodged in the Educational Museum at South Kensington, not seven of them are worthy of reference in that literary treasure-house. A bad text-book and a bad teacher produce their natural fruit. How

long these are to be associated, now that the *Royal Canadian Readers* have made their appearance, may be readily answered. With their use, the bad teacher, so far as literature and the reading taste is concerned, must disappear. The series is so good, and the teacher's own intelligence and methods of instruction are so aided, that the use of the books must, we think, in Canada at any rate, become universal. Throughout Ontario there is a quiet but largely prevailing preference for *a single* set of Readers, and the Department will assume a grave responsibility if it does not sufficiently consider this. We do not wish to embarrass the Executive by any opinion we may express, nor are we in a position to say which series, if any, should be the sole choice of the Department, of those now submitted to it. One of the series we can scarcely be said to have seen. The series for which a snap judgment, in some quarters of the Province, was some time ago extorted, has already been cursorily referred to. But we are in a position to say that no series could have had the benefit of higher or more varied scholarship and practical experience than the "Royal Canadian" has had; and we venture to think that no Reading Books will more beneficially aid the general development of the pupil's intelligence or more gratifyingly shape the intellectual character of the typical Canadian youth, than will the various issues of these admirable Readers. Upon the decision of the acting-Minister and his colleagues in the choice of new Readers great interests will hang, for not only the status of education in the Province, but the moral integrity and independence of all branches of the profession, will be affected by the result arrived at. The matter, therefore, should be weightily considered.

THE PAY OF FEMALE TEACHERS.

THE New York *Tribune*, the best of American dailies, by the way, recently published an account of the "Strike of a Metropolitan Schoolmistress," the incidents of which are of a rather novel and startling character. The lady striker, it is affirmed, is a most experienced, accomplished, and successful member of her profession, and at present in receipt of a salary of $950 *per annum*. As the price of her many and complex services, in continuing to teach the young idea how to shoot, she is understood to have claimed from the School Board of New York the modest sum of $5000 *per diem*. The advance demanded must have been a shock to the members of the Board. The claim, however, is well put forward, and if a little unreasonable, her arguments in support of it are worth considering, in view of the compensation paid for what not a few deem inferior services in the case of other toilers of her sex. Here is her argument:—

"Permit me to inquire, gentlemen, why, if Madame Patti hereafter is to receive $5,000 a night for *her* services, I should not be paid at least as much for mine. She has a genius for singing, and I—it is the verdict of experts—have an equal genius for teaching. We both get our living largely in the use of our vocal organs, she in the opera house and I in the school-house; she by entertaining, I by instructing. What then? Is singing to be regarded as of pre-eminent account and teaching of no account? I am loth to believe, gentlemen, now that your attention has been called to this matter, that you will deny my request, since to do so would be tantamount to an official decision that the woman who entertains is first, while the woman who instructs is nowhere. I have deep and genuine enthusiasm for my vocation; I constantly magnify it; but you can readily understand that such a decision would be well calculated to quench my ardour. We are constantly reminded that 'we should do our utmost to encourage the Beautiful, since the Useful encourages itself.' But I submit, in view of my $950 a year and Madame Patti's $5,000 a night, it is high time that this particular piece of advice was reversed so far as the variety of the Useful known as teaching is concerned. I anticipate the reply that will be urged by those who would fain see my prayer for $5,000 a day denied. They will call my attention to the fact that Patti supplies the world with a luxury, while I merely meet one of its necessities; and then they will go on to remark that political economy and experience alike demonstrate that people are willing to pay far more for the dispensable than for the indispensable, and inevitably they will wind up by echoing the famous exclamation of a brilliant Bostonian, 'Give me the luxuries of life, and I will dispense with its necessities.' But this sort of talk is more showy than forceful. It sounds plausible, but is it more than that? Who

says the American people will pay more for what they could do without than for what they couldn't do without? If the assertion is true, then, by the shades of our forefathers, our Republic must be doomed, since that frugal simplicity which is one of its cornerstones has crumbled to decay. I would not, gentlemen of the Board, be understood as undervaluing the services of Patti; as arguing that they are among the things that we could do without. From all accounts it is worth $5,000 a night to any appreciative audience to hear her sing. I myself have never had that pleasure—I could not spare the price of a ticket out of my $950 a year. . . . In conclusion, permit me to say that even if I am not entirely successful in this application, I shall be quite satisfied if it perchance results in a discussion which leads to the formation of an International Society for the Re-adjustment of Compensations."

"How this appeal will strike the School Board," the *Tribune* remarks, "remains to be seen. We believe that they will deny her application, gently but decisively." To assuage her disappointment, the editor consolingly adds, that "Patti is paid not only more than she with her genius for instruction is paid, but more than is paid to any other sort of genius. . . . Many a newspaper man—we mention this in confidence—is glad to make a $1000 a day, to say nothing of $5000. What shall we say then? That woman is the crown of creation and that the foremost opera-singer is the crown of women? Or shall we say that some people are shockingly overpaid, and that the public is a gorgeous idiot for assenting to the over-payment?" Such are the incidents in this little bit of satire, and the *Tribune's* comments upon it. But is the story told for mere literary effect, or simply to create laughter? Is there not a moral? Does the pay of the teacher, male or female, correspond in any reasonable degree with that of men in business, or even with the skilled artisan? Many workmen earn from $1500 to $2000 a year in manual labour; and professional incomes, even in the case of the class we are accustomed to speak of as "the poor parsons," run up to very respectable, if not colossal, amounts. Some of the latter we have known whom one might accuse of incapacity to spend their fortunes. But where did one ever hear of opulence in the case of a teacher, we were almost going to say, the collective body of teachers? As a class they are notoriously ill-paid, and their incomes are shamefully disproportionate to their services. In the case of women who take to the profession, their remuneration is little better than the pay of a factory hand. It is true that an adequate income possessed by the teacher would make him independent of that beneficent institution, the school-trustee; and with private resources he might crash through a whole jungle of these considerate and worthy gentlemen. Better, therefore, keep him poor and humble! Ah, good friend, are we not both in the same box? The poor editor may any day shake hands with the poor teacher. But can we not together build our airy castles, buy, in fancy, all the personal luxury we can enjoy, including social and professional deference (if we care for this), and immunity from each exasperating annoyance and every menacing trouble? True, we may have no wish to cut a great figure, or go through the world in a more ostentatious manner than comports with modest dignity. Yet who of us will say that a hundred dollars or so added to his income would be an oppressive burden, or keep him awake o' nights thinking how it was possible to spend the augmenting moiety? And is there one of us who feels that intellectual labour has here its adequate compensation or righteous reward? There may be few of the sex Patti's or "Jersey Lily's," though their lives, we may be sure, are not all sunshine; but do the incomes of these favourites of fortune bear any just relation to that of an Ontario schoolmistress? Are "singing and play-acting to be regarded of pre-eminent account and teaching of no account," may well be asked—and by all means, if possible, answered. But such queries are bootless; and to rail at inequalities of fortune is to bay at the moon. Yet might there not be some approach to justice—to humanity, we should add—in remunerating the services of the female teacher wherever employed? A beggarly two hundred dollars for a year's services in the education of youth in this

wealthy Province, is an outrage that should put to shame every community that asks a woman to be content with such remuneration. Judged by the pay, intellectual callings in these days have changed places with those of the cook and the housemaid.

THE "BYSTANDER" FOR APRIL.

THE learned writer of *Bystander* somewhere remarks that "a man's most useful work is done for his own generation." The sentiment does Mr. Goldwin Smith honour, though not a few express surprise that he should use his own pen so assiduously in the service of contemporary thought and opinion, rather than in the production of some great work of historical or literary research for posterity. But this criticism is far from doing Professor Smith justice, as it fails to take into account the influence which his rare gifts enable him to exercise in moulding the thought of the time, not only in Canada, but wherever his writings circulate among the English-speaking people. No one well-informed would say, for instance, that the voluminous writings of Sainte-Beuve, perhaps the greatest of French journalists, are an evanescent contribution to the literature of France, or that the generation to whom they have been addressed is likely to be the only one to profit by the strong thought and incomparable style of that acute critic. The *Causeries du Lundi* have, without a doubt, permanently enriched Gallic literature; and it is no exaggeration to say, that Mr. Goldwin Smith has by *his* writings conferred lasting benefits on that of England. It is the good fortune of Canada that his able pen, at this formative period of our literature, has been so generously at its service, and that the journalism of the country has had the advantage of so inspiring a model of elevated thought and pure style as is his.

In a young country like Canada, the educational value of such work as Mr. Goldwin Smith's, can scarcely be over-estimated. Not only has he done much to make us all enamoured of style, but he has quickened our mental impulses and set before us a higher ideal both of professional work and of aspirational effort for the weal of the country. In the present *Bystander*, his utterances on political topics, and particularly on the danger to the nation of slavish adherence to party, and of party dislike of men of independent views, are not only those of a high-minded publicist, but are the counsels of far-seeing wisdom and the truest patriotism. In another department of the serial, moreover, Mr. Goldwin Smith is doing a great work at the present juncture, when human authority in matters of religion is tottering, and Rationalism and its literature are insidiously undermining the old faiths, in rescuing the religious instinct from the ensnarement of "Satanism," and in pricking the bag of that specious philosophy which would deify intellect and depose "the Living God." Mr. Gladstone, in his recent speech on the Affirmation Bill, reminds us that the specific evil of the time is not Atheism, but those various forms of opinion which teach us that "whatever there be beyond the visible scene, whatever there be beyond this short span of life, we can know nothing of it, and it is a visionary, a bootless undertaking to endeavour to establish relations with it." It is against this error, as it presents itself in contemporary thought, that Mr. Goldwin Smith is doing valiant service in the *Bystander*, while helping to stay and to confirm the faith of many who are perplexed by the problems of unbelief. The notion that Christianity, as the saying is, "has entered on its last phase," is the cunningly-devised fable of an enemy; and the learned Professor in meeting these present-day assaults on the Christian faith is but continuing the work which a quarter of a century ago engaged his pen, when he wrote his famous Oxford lecture on "The Doctrine of Historical Progress." To that lecture we noticed Professor Westcott, in a work on "The Historic Faith," referring the other day in terms of the highest commendation, as exhibiting great insight and breadth of sympathy in dealing with the moral evidences of the truth and power of Christianity. To the thoughtful reader we would commend a perusal of that lecture, as well as the section on "Thought and Opinion" in the current issues of the *Bystander*.