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THE CANADA
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OCTOBER, 1881.

THE REVISED WEBSTER'S DICTIONARY.*

WE owe an apology to the publishers and to our readers for delay in noticing, with some degree of critical minuteness, this important work. Sheer inability to bring within the narrow compass of a book-notice its many and various merits, and the fear of detracting from these merits by an imperfect and hurried notice of them, have combined to postpone our testimony to the value of what happily at this hour of the day can need but little commendation. Webster's Dictionary, in some form or other, has been before the English-speaking public for upwards of seventy years, and to praise it in its latest form is like praising America itself. The magnificent development and

greatness of both are not now matters of question, but of surprise; and in the magnitude and growth of the Dictionary the intelligent observer may trace, not merely materially but typically, the greatness and growth of the American people. The Dictionary is in another aspect one of the finest instances of typical development and survival of the fittest in books that can be found in literature. It has passed through many stages of evolution, and has now but little resemblance to its primitive form; but every stage has exhibited a surprising change of form, structure, and function, and, to continue the language of science, such a rapid course of progressive differentiation that in two generations of speech-dividing men, it is already so noble in appearance, so complex in organization, so exalted in habitat, so robust, so useful, so beautiful, that we cannot without wonder await the developments of continued metamorphosis.

It is unnecessary to trace the growth and development of the germ

* New Edition, with Supplement; an American Dictionary of the English Language, by Noah Webster, LL.D., thoroughly revised and greatly enlarged and improved by Chauncey A. Goodrich, late Professor in Yale College, and Noah Porter, D.D., LL.D., President of Yale College, with an Appendix of Useful Tables, to which is added a Supplement of nearly five thousand new words, with their definitions, etc.; also, a new Pronouncing Biographical Dictionary and three thousand Pictorial Illustrations. pp. 1928. Springfield, Mass.: Published by G. & C. Merriam, State Street, 1880.

of this work as found in Webster's Compendious Dictionary of 1806. This the curious reader will find fully set forth in the *Memoir of Noah Webster* (pp. xvii.—xxii.) by Dr. Goodrich. We shall pass on to the work, itself, only remarking *en passant* that this Memoir is a careful and loving bit of biography. Not much wonder that "Webster" is a household word when, up to 1876, 70,000,000 copies of his Elementary Spelling Book had been sold.

The Brief History of the English Language (pp. xxiii.—xxxix.), by the late Professor Hadley, sound and valuable, like all the work of that accomplished scholar, forms, as far as it goes, a satisfactory introduction to the Dictionary. Its few pages contain more real knowledge of philology than was to be found in the whole of the original Webster. Although brief, it will repay the most careful study. The student desirous of becoming proficient in English, and to whom the labours of Koch, Maetzner, Brachet, Müller, Morris, and Skeat are inaccessible, might here make a good beginning.

Closely connected with this portion of the subject, is the grammatical element of the work. Contrary to what might have been expected, there is no Introductory Treatise on English Grammar as now understood. Whether there is such a thing as English Grammar, properly so called, is a vexed question, and until the matter is finally settled we shall not deplore the absence of a treatise upon it from our Dictionary. What the views of the editors of Webster's Dictionary are upon the subject we shall have to discover from the text, and we regret to observe that they are as hazy and undefined as are those of the majority of mankind. The supremely ridiculous and illogical practice of labelling every word in the Dictionary as some part of speech is continued. No one now-

a-days, we should hope, consults a dictionary to find out what part of speech a word is, and no one would ever have consulted a dictionary for any such purpose if teachers had but remembered that no isolated word ever can be a *part of speech*. With the definitions of the parts of speech we are no better pleased. They are, in many instances singularly inaccurate and defective, and would never pass muster, say at the Intermediate, with examiners who knew their business: see, for example, the definitions of *article*, *adverb*, *gender*, *gerund*, *participle*, and *mode*. Twenty-five lines are given to *idiom*, and we have not the least doubt that it is quite possible for an intelligent school-boy to read and re-read them and yet after all not know what an idiom is; for, as in *case*, *verb*, etc., there is no example to illustrate the definition. The truth is, this part of the work is out of date, and as remote from the accuracy of science as anything can well be. When the publishers are preparing a new edition, let them give the department of *Grammar* to some acknowledged scholar, and the work will be purged of at least 200,000 blunders in parsing, and of shoals of inaccuracies in definition.

The Etymology. The etymological part of the Webster proper was that part upon which the author spent the greater portion of his prodigious labour, and it was precisely that part which proved in use to be comparatively worthless. Every language, "as well in Christendom as in heathenness," every tongue living and dead within his reach, every book in the United States and many out of it, in Cambridge and Paris, was laid under contribution to furnish words resembling in sound or spelling the word he had under consideration. The result was a jumble of words without relationship; innumerable heaps of linguistic detritus brought down by torrents of literature. In truth, Dr. Webster had

not the remotest idea of philology as it is now understood, and soon the melancholy truth dawned upon the American mind that this much-vaunted national work, this national standard, was the laughing-stock of Europe. Happily, however, the enterprise of the publishers proved equal to the emergency. In 1854 the revision of the etymology was entrusted to Dr. Mahn, of Berlin, Prussia. The old cargo of etymology was heaved out, and a new cargo was taken in. It may be truly said that the labours of Dr. Mahn increased the value of the Dictionary one hundred fold, rescued it from becoming a derelict, and launched it upon a new career of usefulness and fame. It has been sold in thousands and its popularity is undiminished. In common with many others we think that the name of Dr. Mahn should now appear on the title-page at least.

But in twenty-five years lexicography has made much progress, particularly in the department of philology. We think that the time has now fully arrived for a thorough revision of Dr. Mahn's labours and for the incorporation into the Dictionary of the vast mass of philological treasure that has been accumulating for a quarter of a century. To the great public this may seem a matter of little moment, but we repeat it on behalf of "all who are interested in philological studies, but especially of the now very large number of instructors and studious persons who are interested in acquiring a more thorough knowledge of the English language," but who in purchasing a work of reference would not willingly forego for the imperfections of one part, the rare excellencies of numerous others. As soon as possible the laws of linguistic growth, as settled by Diez, Littré, and Müller, and as applied by such writers as Brachet and Zeile, should be freely introduced in

considering every word. In the words of Brachet, there are two laws of etymological research: "(1) No etymology is admissible unless it accounts for every one of the letters of the word which it professes to explain; (2) In every etymology which involves a change of letters, we must be able to produce at least one example of a change thoroughly like the one suggested; otherwise, so long as no such example can be adduced, the attempted etymology is valueless." Tried by these standards the latest edition of Webster is wanting. For instance, if a student desires to know how and why the Latin *ab* appears in English as *of* or *off*, and *nutrire* as *nourish*, and *inimicus* as *enemy*, he will search his Webster in vain. He will get but little help in explaining the *b* in *humble*, the final *t* in *tyrant*, or the *s* in *screech*. He will not discover the primitive meaning of *father* and *mother*, nor of *for*, though he will find it confounded with *fore* in *foreclose*, and he may continue to wonder why the pure English *mislike* has been ousted by the mongrel *dislike*. Amongst many other things he will find *calamity* derived from *calamus*, a reed, and not from *columnis*, safe; *province* from *pro vinco*, and not from *providentia*; *portal* from *porto* to carry, and not from radical *por*, a passage; *pin* from *pinna*, and not from *spina*; *pommel*, to beat black and blue, from *pomum*, an apple, and not from *abb* to variegate in colour; *canard* from an absurd duck story, and not from *duck paper* used for fly-sheets; *regret* from *requeritari*, and not from Anglo-Saxon *gretan*, Scotch *greet*, to weep; and that old vagrant *saunterer* from *à la sainte terre*, and not from initial *s* and *ad ventura*, and so on; while such wild game as *tally-ho!* *yoicks!* *fiddle-de-dee*, *statuè* in *Shakspeare*, and many others are not attempted.

The Definitions. This part of the work is on the whole very satisfactory.

Any one using Webster's Dictionary may not only hope to find the word or phrase he is looking for, but also to find an adequate and clever definition of it, and in ninety-nine times out of a hundred he will not be disappointed. Moreover he will very frequently find the thing described in such a manner and so clearly illustrated that he must needs be adullard if he does not understand it. The young student, never out of Canada, and, say, three thousand miles from London, may, Webster in hand, flash light upon multitudes of things that occur to him in his work, or it may be in reading the daily newspaper. The school-boy may soon find out that Amen Corner and Paternoster Row are not wholly devoted to religious observances, that Blackfriar's Bridge may be used by other people than monks, that they are not all saints that live in St. Giles', that the Inns of Court are not tippling-houses, that Mary-le-bone parish does not contain the bones of St. Mary, that Piccadilly is not famous for pickles, that the Serpentine is not specially for serpents, and that Rotten Row has little to do with the state of Denmark. He might visit his uncle in London without fear of "Gog" and "Magog," "the griffin," "bulls" and "bears" on 'Change, or John Bull himself. Without going abroad he may learn what a terrible creature a "beadle" is, what a magnificent creature "Jeames" is, and how dear to society a "lion" is. He may boldly adventure himself into a "Brougham" or a "Gladstone" or a "Stanhope," and go to "the House" and make the acquaintance of "Whigs," "Tories," "Home Rulers," "Parnellites," "the Adulamites," "the Manchester School," "the Free Traders," "the Radicals," and master such words as "Lobby," "Gangway," "the Cloture," and "*La Reyne le veut*." By mere reading, he may, though it is not very likely, become infected with the æsthetic

craze, albeit there is no Æsthete in Webster; and talk correctly of "dados," "lilies," "sunflowers," "tones," and "blue china," and be as correctly "intense" over Whistler's pastels as Mrs. *Cimabue* Brown herself. Puzzled by the odd words he sees in his father's religious weekly, soon he will no more stumble at "rubric," "ritual," "baldachino," "reredos," "vêtements," or be incensed at "incense," nor need he be amazed when two old "Cantabs" or "Oxonians" talk about "wranglers," "optimes," "tripsos," their "little-go" and "great-go," "the wooden spoon" and "the Postmaster of Merton." He may find out, if he will, something about the functions of those mysterious personages, the Lord Chamberlain, the Dean of the Arches, and the Keeper of the Queen's Conscience, and as much as he wants to know of the Two Kings of Brentford, the Vicar of Bray, and the Twelve Apostles of Ireland. He can, if he likes, find out who are the Philistines, the Parvenus, and the Goddams, and possibly discover that the three *F's* are not "fat, fair, and forty." In a word, with Webster's Dictionary he has an *open sesame* to the stores of Literature, Science, and Art.

The Illustrative Citations are from standard English and American writers, and have for the most part been made with labour, patience, knowledge, and skill. They do not always, however, fulfil the requirements of being complete in themselves, of being instructive and interesting. Moreover the exact reference is not given—a matter of great regret. By proper typographical arrangements the locality of every word cited might be given without increasing the bulk of the volume, and the value of work for scholastic purposes would thus be infinitely enhanced. With the multiplication of concordances and indexes, in the production of which just now there is great activity,

with such new and exceedingly valuable material as is to be found in Brewer's "Phrase and Fable," and Adams' "Dictionary of English Literature," and such works as the "Dictionary of English Phrases with Illustrative Sentences" by Kwong Ki Chiu, not to speak of the Philological Society's Dictionary now nearing completion, the publishers will be inexcusable if they do not make Webster's Dictionary a full exposition of what is best in the use of words in English Literature, but also a ready and infallible guide to the very passage containing the word or phrase illustrated.

As it now is, we have searched for many well-known proverbs, much folklore, many familiar passages from standard authors, many household words, but in vain. In our search we have found a good deal of rubbishy quotation, which makes very poor reading indeed. As we often read the Dictionary for the sake of the reading, we would plead for as good selections as possible, and, if it could be managed, a little larger type. But as we cannot have everything in a one-volume dictionary, we will not grumble at the size of the type so long as it remains as clear and beautiful as it now is; but we cannot and will not be content with dry marrowless bones, when rich, juicy, toothsome viands may be had for the asking.

The Vocabulary is full—full to repletion. There are words by thousands. There are hundreds of words that are not heard of or met with even by good scholars in a lifetime. They swarm over the page, they come in appalling and fantastic shapes in the Supplement, they lie as thick upon the pages as the leaves in Valambrosa. Let them come, however, as long as they are real words. Let them all have a place, whether they are "obsolete or new-coined, barbarous, vulgar and affected, temporary, provincial and

local, belonging to peculiar classes, professions, pursuits, and trades, not indeed all received with equal honour and regard, but with their characteristics and defects duly noted and pointed out." But we do protest against the introduction by the hundred of self-explaining compounds, merely to swell the size of the volume and to be able to proclaim "more words and more matter than in any other dictionary in the language." It has been stated that in Webster's Dictionary the word *sea* is compounded with other words 157 times, *heart* 69 times, *head* 37, *horse* 67, and of *dis* 1,334 and of *in* 3,935. This implies a great waste of space, and that, too, where space is needed for something better than mere compounds over which a child could not stumble. Let these obtrusive, superfluous, useless heaps of lumber be removed and give place to something better, or at least to diminish the bulk and reduce the cost of the book.

The Collection of Synonyms is very large, and perhaps as good as any that has been made. Such collections may be useful for the purpose intended, and doubtless are useful in other ways, but their chief use, we have found by experience, is not to discriminate the meaning of words accurately.

The Pictorial Illustrations are worthy of more notice than we can now give to them. In number, in beauty, in attractive power (no slight merit in a dictionary), in value, they surpass anything previously attempted in the same way. We are not of those rigid philologists who hold that "figures, diagrams, and the like are not only superfluous in a dictionary, but pernicious." Dictionaries, whether we like it or not, will not confine themselves to language solely. Most people require information about things as well as about words, and they are best pleased with the work that will best illustrate the object of their search. Publish-

ers, therefore, will strive to please the majority, and we must be content to sacrifice the correctness of theory to the convenience of use. We would give up in a work intended as much for the farm as the forum, as much for the school as the study, as much for the family as for the philosopher, considerable etymology, some dozens of sesquipedalians, and any number of happy citations, before we would consent to part with such well-trying delights of the family and the school as Webster's Illustrations have proved to be. Let any school-boy who is full of curiosity about anything and everything have the run of Webster's Dictionary, and it will go hard but his curiosity will be satisfied and his wits brightened beyond all recognition.

The Pronunciation.—As might have been expected, great attention has been paid to this portion of the work. Many changes have been made in the successive editions, and we may look upon the matter as still in a transition state. The pronunciation sanctioned by Dr. Webster, and in America almost consecrated by his authority, has in multitudes of words been abandoned, and a determined stand has been made against the vulgarities and abominations that threatened under the name of common speech to destroy on this continent the grace and beauty of English. There is now a manifest desire upon the part of all cultured Americans to cease to speak American, and to endeavour to speak English as it is spoken by the most cultured in England, not merely in accent but in intonation and enunciation, so much so that we may hope with the constant intercourse between Britain and America that the two people may soon become of one speech. Webster's Dictionary is still too American in its pronunciation to suit the well-attuned English ear, or of those in Canada who desire to imitate English rather than American. The

introductory essay on *The Principles of Pronunciation* deserves the most careful attention of all who pretend to use the work systematically. We recommend for consideration this portion of the work to all teachers of English, and here we might say to our young readers that it is impossible to learn exact pronunciation from any book. Pronunciation, correct in style and tone, must be learned from the lips of living men; but a good dictionary will be a great help, and Webster will be very helpful, though there is too much Webster in it still.

The Orthography.—All the English-reading world knows of the vagaries of Dr. Webster in the matter of spelling. He constructed a theory, in some respects reasonable enough, but he did not recollect that language is a creature of fashion as well as of habit, and will not be compelled to yield obedience to any theory, however reasonable. What he would not do, therefore, his editors and publishers have done for him—conformed his spelling, or the spelling of what is called his Dictionary, as far as American *amour-propre* would allow, to English methods—treating words as they are and not as they ought to be. Side by side in the text appear, in deference to public opinion, the rival John and Jonathan methods, and there are numerous signs that lead us to believe that the struggle for the supremacy will not be long doubtful. As with the Essay on Pronunciation, so we may remind the student and the teacher of the Essay on Orthography. He will find in it all that can be said in favour of variations from the English method, but he will do well to remember, before adopting the American, that this method is not yet finally fixed, and that of all things in the world language most obstinately resists being improved according to theories and rules.

The Appendix.—Space will not permit of our doing much more than enumerate the various features of the Appendix. It is in brief an *El Dorado* for the student as well as the general reader. There are Explanatory and Pronouncing Vocabularies of Names of Noted Fictitious Persons (but not of our Leonidas, but yet the real person, places, etc.); Modern Geographical Names (but not our Manitoba and Keewatin); Common English Surnames; Pronouncing Vocabularies of Scripture Proper Names; Greek and Latin Proper Names; and Modern Geographical Names; also a new Pronouncing Biographical Dictionary and Explanatory Tables of Quotations, Abbreviations, Contractions, to which is added a Classified Selection of Pic-

torial Illustrations. The Pronouncing Biographical Dictionary deserves special mention, and will be a welcome addition to any reader's literary outfit.

We need hardly say, in conclusion, that we regard this edition as a great advance upon its predecessors. It is a magnificent volume and a credit to all that have aided in bringing it to its present state of completion. If we have criticized some features of it sharply, it is only that what is imperfect may be completed, what is obsolete expunged, and what it lacks in any way supplied. We should be glad to know that a copy of the new edition had found its way into the possession of every teacher and into every school in the land.

G. H. R.

LITERARY STYLE.—III.*

BY W. MATHEWS, LL.D., CHICAGO.

A GAIN, besides completeness in preparation, there must be also careful revision. The history of literature shews that with few exceptions the greatest writers have been the most severe and painstaking in revising and polishing their compositions. The capacity for minute refinement in detail and infinite loving labour has been justly pronounced an instinct of all truly artistic genius. Burke's manuscript was covered with interlineations and alterations; and not till he had examined half-a-dozen proofs of his "Reflections" did he allow it to go to press. When a lady asked Johnson, after he had elaborately revised his early papers in the "Rambler," whether he could now improve any of them,

he replied: "Yes, madam, I could make even the best of them better still." Addison would stop the press to insert a preposition or conjunction. Sterne was incessantly employed for six months in perfecting one diminutive volume. Gray would spend a week upon a page. Robert Hall gave as a reason for writing so little, that he could so rarely realize even proximately his own ideal of a perfect style. Buffon made eleven draughts of his "Epoques de la Nature" before hesitating to the press; and he assured a friend that after passing fifty years at his desk, he was still learning to write. Bossuet's manuscript was so bleared with interlineations as to be almost illegible. Cervantes took twelve years to write the second part of "Don Quixote." It is true that Scott, who was untiring in gathering the materials

* From "Literary Style, and other Essays," by W. Mathews, LL.D., author of "Getting on in the World," etc. Toronto: Hunter, Rose & Co., 1887.

of his novels, wrote in a whirlwind of inspiration, and never spent a moment with the file; but this, instead of justifying the neglect of revision, only explains the slovenliness of much of his composition. His writings abound in Scotticisms, errors in grammar, and other faults of style. When finishing the "Fair Maid of Perth," he was troubled how to pack the catastrophe into the space allotted for it. "There is no help for it," he said; "I must make a *tour de force*, and annihilate both time and space." He too often made these *tours de force*. Beginning his novels with no definite plan, he let his plots construct themselves, the result of which was that his conclusions were often hurried, abrupt and unsatisfactory.

But, it may be asked, is not the best writing, like the best painting, spontaneous, and does not the practised become the ready hand? Did not Cervantes say that the jests of Sancho fell from him like drops of rain when he least thought of it, and do not the works of Raphael and Rubens seem to have cost them, as Hazlitt says, no more labour than if they "had drawn in their breath, and puffed it forth again"? Are not many fine literary productions thrown off like the beautiful Dresden Madonna, which Raphael painted without any previous studies or drawings? We answer, yes; the best writing is spontaneous, but it is the spontaneity of a second and disciplined nature. It is the experience of the veteran accomplishing with ease what seemed impossible to the raw recruit. It was because Gibbon wrote slowly "until he had got his one tune by heart," that he was able to send the last three volumes of the "Decline and Fall" in the first draft to press. It was after years of laborious self-training and experience that Raphael was able to throw his whole idea, in all its perfection and completeness, upon the

canvas, without the necessity of realizing it by piecemeal in intermediate attempts. In all such cases, where miracles of swiftness seem to have been performed, the miracle will melt, if we scrutinize it closely. We shall find that the picture has been painted, and the book written, with such ease, because years of study and practice have so lubricated the mental instruments, that, when the motive power is applied, they work, to a great extent, with the precision and regularity of a machine.

It is hardly necessary to add that one may dawdle too much over his compositions—that he may use the file till it weakens them. There is a medium between the carelessness of Lope de Vega, who wrote a hundred plays in as many days, and the fastidiousness of the poet Dana, of whom Lowell says that he is so well aware how things *should* be done, that "his own works displease him before they are begun;" between the excessive caution of the ancient orator who was three olympiads in writing a single oration, and the reckless haste of the poet whose funeral pile was composed of his own productions. Perhaps the best description of the natural manner in which a great work comes into existence, is that quoted by Hammer-ton from Michelet. The French writer says of one of his own books, that, "*it was produced by the heat of a gentle incubation.*" ("Elle s'est fait à la chaleur d'une douce incubation.")

That the moral character of a writer has much to do with the quality of his work, can hardly be doubted. No man who stands habitually on a low moral and spiritual plane can produce a great work of art, whether in literature, sculpture, or painting. Noble thoughts can come only from a noble soul. It is said that in India a muslin is manufactured which is so fine that it has received the poetic name of "Woven Wind." When laid

upon the grass to bleach, the dew makes it disappear. It used to be spun only by native women who had been trained to the task from infancy; and so nice was the sense of touch required for the spinning of this yarn, that they were constantly waited upon by a retinue of servants, whose duty it was to relieve them of all menial offices that might endanger the fine tactual faculty which long practice and seclusion had bestowed on their delicate finger-tips. So those whose calling it is to spin the fine thread of thought, to be woven in the loom of the mind into the web and woof of a literary production, should jealously exclude themselves from all vulgar and debasing occupations—all that can hurt the delicacy of their minds, or blunt those fine perceptions of truth and beauty which can be acquired by those only who have been trained to the quest of them from early youth.

We sometimes read of model styles; but there is no model style. As in painting, the manner which we admire in Albano and Vanderwerf would be misplaced in the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel, or even the extended canvas of the Transfiguration, so it is only relatively, not absolutely, that any literary style can be said to be the best. Macaulay, who was certainly not lacking in literary taste, went so far as to say that the style of a magazine or review article, which should strike at the first reading, might be allowed sometimes to be even viciously florid. It is not by his own taste, he said, but by the taste of the fish, that the angler is determined in his choice of bait. That is the best style relatively to the individual, in which his particular cast of thought best utters itself, and in which the peculiarity of the man, that which differentiates him from other men, has the fullest and freest play. That is a good style generally, in which the words are vitalized by

the thought, so that if you cut them they will bleed; in which the language is so fresh and forceful as to seem to have been just created; which is so elastic that it accommodates itself unconsciously to all the sinuosities of the thought, so that the thought and the expression are never for a moment separated, but are a simultaneous creation, coined at one stroke. The perfect writer, so far from having any one ideal style, will have a hundred styles, shifting and varying with every variation of his ideas and feelings. His instrument of expression will not be a pipe, but an organ with many banks of keys; capable of giving expression alike to thoughts that require only mellifluous cadences and gliding graces, and to those that demand diapason grandeur or trumpet stop—to the complex harmonies of a Heroic Symphony, or the tumultuous movements of a Hailstone Chorus.

To define the charm of style—to shew why the same thought, when conveyed in one man's language, is cold and commonplace, and, when conveyed in another's, is, as Starr King says, "a rifle-shot or a revelation," is impossible. It is easy to see how a magnetic presence, an eagle eye, a commanding attitude, a telling gesture, a siren voice, may give to truths when spoken a force or a charm which they lack in a book. "But how it is," as the same writer says, "that words locked up in forms, still and stiff in sentences, will contrive to tip a wink; how a proposition will insinuate more scepticism than it states; how a paragraph will drip with the honey of love; how a phrase will troil an infinite suggestion; how a page can be so serene or so gusty, so gorgeous or so pallid, so sultry or so cool, as to lap you in one intellectual climate or its opposite,—who has fathomed this wonder?" There is a mystery in style of which we cannot pluck out the heart. Like that of beauty, music or a delicious

odour, its spell is subtle and impalpable, and baffles all our attempts to explain it in words. Like that of fine manners, it is indefinable, yet all-subduing, and is the issue of all the mental and moral qualities, bearing the same relation to them that light bears to the sun, or perfume to the flower. Not even the writer himself can explain the secret of his art. In the works of all the great masters there are certain elements which are a mystery to themselves. In the frenzy of creation they instinctively infuse into their productions that of which they would be utterly puzzled to give an account. By a subtle, mysterious gift, an intense intuition, which pierces beneath all surface appearances, and goes straight to the core of an object, they lay hold of the essential life, the inmost heart, of a scene, a person or a situation, and paint it to us in a few immortal words. A line, a phrase, a single burning term or irradiating word, flashes the scene, the character upon us, and it lives forever in the memory. It is so in sculpture, in painting, and even in the military art. When Napoleon was asked by a flatterer of his generalship how he won his military victories, he could only say that he was *fait comme ça*.

It was a saying of Shenstone, which almost everyone's experience will confirm, that the lines of poetry, the periods of prose, and even the texts of Scripture, most frequently recollected and quoted, are those which are felt to be pre-eminently musical. There are writers who charm us by their language, apart from the ideas it conveys. There is a kind of mysterious perfume about it, a delicious aroma, which we keenly enjoy, but for which we cannot account. Poetry often possesses a beauty wholly unconnected with its meaning. Who has not admired, independently of the sense, its "jewels, five words long, that, on the stretched forefinger of all time, sparkle forever"?

There are verses and snatches of song that continually haunt and twitter about the memory, as in summer the swallows haunt and twitter about the eaves of our dwelling. Coleridge, Shelley and Poe seem to have written some verse only to shew how superior is the suggestion of sound to the expression of sense. How perfectly in Tennyson's "Lotus-Eaters" is the dreamy haze of the enchanted land he depicts reflected in the verse! How exquisitely do the refinement, the sentiment, the lazy scepticism of the age, find expression in his numbers! "No stanza," says a critic, "but is a symbol of satiety; no word but breathes itself out languidly as if utterly used up, and every line is glutted weariness." So with "the nectared sweets" of Keat's verse; it is so dainty and luscious that "it makes the sense of satisfaction ache with the unreachably delicacy of its epithets." There are passages in Milton, Shakespeare, and Wordsworth, in which the mere cadence of the words is by itself delicious to a delicate ear, though we cannot tell how and why. We are conscious of a strange, dreamy sense of enjoyment, such as one feels when listening in the night-time to the pattering of rain upon the roof, or when lying upon the grass in a June evening, while a brook tinkles over stones among the sedges and trees. Sir Philip Sidney could not hear the old ballad of "Chevy Chase" without his blood being stirred as by the sound of a trumpet. Shelley took fright and fainted the first time he heard a certain magnificent and terrible passage in "Christabel" recited, and Scott tells us that the music of that poem was ever murmuring in his ears. Pope could never read certain words of "Priam" in Homer without bursting into tears; Boyle felt a tremor at the utterance of two verses of "Lucan;" and Spence declares that he never repeated certain lines of delicate modulation

without a shiver in his blood not to be expressed. Who is not sensible of certain magical effects, altogether distinct from the thoughts, in some of Coleridge's and Shelley's verse; in the musical ripple of Irving's words; in the stealthy charm and subtle perfection of Thackeray's and Hawthorne's periods; in the mellow, autumnal hue which falls like the golden lights of harvest aslant the pages of Alexander Smith; in the grand harmonies of Sir Thomas Browne, Jeremy Taylor, and Ruskin; and in the orchestral swells and crashes of De Quincey? How perfectly the impetuosity of Napier's style corresponds to the military movements he describes! As we read his vivid narrative of the Peninsular battles, we seem, it has been said, to hear the tramp of the charging squadrons, the sharp rattle of the musquetry, and the booming thunder of the artillery. Words in a master's hands seem more than words; he seems to double or quadruple their power by skill in using, giving them a force and significance which in the dictionary they never possessed. Yet, mighty as is the sorcery of these wizards of words, that of Shakspeare is still greater. The marvel of his diction is its immense suggestiveness—the mysterious synthesis of sound and sense, of meaning and association, which characterizes his verse; a necromancy to which Emerson alludes in a passage which is itself an illustration, almost, of the thing it describes. Speaking of the impossibility of acting or reciting Shakspeare's plays, he says: "The recitation begins, when lo! one golden word leaps out immortal from all this painted pedantry, and sweetly torments us with invitations to its own inaccessible homes."

Hardly less surprising than this suggestiveness of Shakspeare, is the variety of rhythm in his ten-syllable verse. We speak sometimes of Shakspeare's style; but we might as well

speak of the style of Rumour with her hundred tongues. Shakspeare has a multiplicity of styles, varying with the ever-varying character of his themes. The Proteus of the dramatic art, he identifies himself with each of his characters in turn, passing from one to another like the same soul animating different bodies. Like a ventriloquist, he throws his voice into other men's larynxes, and makes every word appear to come from the person whose character he for the moment assumes. The movement and measure of Othello and the Tempest, Macbeth and the Midsummer Night's Dream, Lear and Coriolanus, are almost as different from each other as the rhythm of them all from that of Beaumont and Fletcher; and yet in every case the music or melody is a subtle accompaniment to the sentiment that ensouls the play. Whoever would know the inexhaustible riches of our many-tongued language, its capability of expressing the daintiest delicacies and subtlest refinements of thought, as well as the grandest emotions that can thrill the human brain, should give his days and nights to the study of the myriad-souled poet. It may be doubted whether there is any inflection of harmony, any witchery of melody, from the warble of the flute and the low thrill of the flageolet to the trumpet-peal or the deep and dreadful sub-bass of the organ, which is not brought out in the familiar or the passionate tones of this imperial master.

Style is often called the dress of thought, an objectionable term, as it seems to imply that there is no vital connection between the two. Style is not a robe which may be put on or off at will; it is the incarnation of the thought. It is the coefficient without which the thought is incomplete. As words without ideas are soulless, so ideas without words are shadowless ghosts. Analyze any masterpiece of

literature, the effect of which is not merely to convey information, or to establish truth by argument, and you will find that the things themselves are identified with the very phrases, words, and syllables, in which they are communicated. True as this is of prose, it is doubly true of poetry; it is a linked strain throughout. So ethereal and evanescent is the poetic spirit, so frail and fugitive is the vehicle in which it is conveyed, that, as a fine poet has said, though this inconvertible diction may be as durable as the firmament, and, like the firmament, may transmit the glories inlaid in it from generation to generation, yet, if you unsettle but a word in it, it breaks like a bubble, and the imprisoned spirit is gone. The spell of the great magicians of language depends upon the very terms they use, and to attempt conjuring with any other is to imitate the folly of Cassim in the "Arabian Nights," who cried "Open Wheat," and "Open Barley" to the door which responded only to "Open Sesame."

Though style is not properly the dress of thought, and it degrades it to consider it as such, there is yet a striking analogy oftentimes between the costume of a period and its style. Look at the writers of the Elizabethan age; how stiff and elaborate, yet how picturesque in their literary garniture, like the garniture of their bodies! The peaked beard, the starched collar, the trunk-hose and the quilted doublet of Bacon, Sydney and Spenser, are in singular keeping with the high sentence, the quaint fancies, and the rich decorations of their style. In Pope's day—the day of powdered queues and purple-velvet doublets, of beaux with cocked hats and lace ruffles, and belled with patches on their cheeks—men dressed their thoughts as finically as they did their bodies. As they carried snuff-boxes and wore rapiers, so they put

titillating ingredients into their styles and stabbed each other with epigrams. To-day dress—at least, men's dress—is neat, plain, close-fitting, business-like; with no waste of material, no ornament to please the eye, nor colours to attract attention; and such are the qualities of our literary composition. Our style is to that of the golden age of English literature what the frock-coat and the stove-pipe are to the doublet and the plumed hat.

In view of what we have said, even though very inadequately, of the value of style, let us ask if it does not merit the most careful and assiduous cultivation? The power of the orator is mighty, but perishable. His words may be preserved, but the attitude and the look, the voice and the gesture, the fire and the imagination which gave a wizard's spell to his speech, are lost forever. The swords of the champions of eloquence are buried with them in the grave. Where is the electric oratory of Chatham, the dithyrambic melody of Grattan, the winged flame of Henry? Gone—vanished forever, as completely as their forms from the banks of the Thames and the streets of Dublin and Richmond. Not so with those utterances which the printing-press has saved from destruction; framed in cunning and attractive forms by a master of composition, they may sway the world when the tongue is frozen and the hand is paralyzed. Committed to the frailest of substances, which a baby's hand can tea., a drop of water destroy, they repeat and perpetuate themselves through successive centuries, in defiance of all the agencies of loss and decay. It is an inestimable privilege to be able to hold converse with the mighty dead through books—to evoke the ghosts of Virgil and Dante, Bacon and Milton, Molière and Pascal, and listen to their winnowed wisdom, as they sit by our firesides and descant

upon human and divine things. But there is a joy which as far transcends this as intellectual activity transcends passivity; it is the ecstasy of creation—the joy of wreaking one's thought upon expression—of giving utterance to the sentiment that has long haunted the brain, and which cries passionately for utterance. How dull and death-like is the life of the book-worm—of the mind which has always absorbed knowledge, and never given it out! Who can wonder that so many cultivated men suffer from mental atrophy, ennui, and melancholy—become shy, suspicious, morbidly self-reflecting and self-conscious—when year after year they hoard information with miserly greed, and never vitalize it by imparting it to others? How many studious and thoughtful men, like the poet Gray, are tormented with an overnice fastidiousness, which “freezes the genial current of the soul,” and extinguishes all the healthy and buoyant activity of the intellect, making their lives as sluggish as “the dull weed that rots by Lethe's wharf,” because they repress the natural instinct of creation, instead of giving to the world (pardon the phrase) their “level best” of expression! The mother of Goethe tells us that her son, whenever he had a grief, made a poem on it, and so got rid of it. How many persons who are dying of “the secret wounds which bleed beneath their cloaks” would find relief in giving voice to their pains in song! How many who make life a selfish paradise would experience a purer happiness if by apt tale, or play, or poem, they would communicate the joys of their deliciously overburdened souls to the souls of others!

The popular writer holds the same relation to the public which the merchant holds to the consumer. He is the mediator between the speculative thinker and the uncultured man. He is the middle man, who stands be-

tween the schools and the marketplace, bringing the lettered and the unlettered together, and interpreting the one to the other. It is his function to work up the raw material, the rough ore of thought, into attractive forms, and by so doing to indoctrinate and impress the great mass of humanity. He thus contributes to that collision of mind with mind, that agitation and comparison of thought, which is the very life and soul of literature and history. To accomplish this mission, he must be a master of language—acquainted with the infinite beauty and the deepest, subtlest meanings of words; skilled in their finest sympathies; and able, not only to arrange them in logical and lucid forms, but to extract from them their utmost meaning, suggestiveness, and force. A man who has something to say, though he says it ill, may be read once. If he is read again, it will be due to some felicity of execution. No one re-reads a book unless drawn to it and lured on by the style, which magnetizes and entrances the reader like a siren, compelling him to go on from the beginning to the end. To be master of such a style—vigorous, luminous, flexible, graceful and musical—which responds to every mood of the writer as the strings or keys of the musical instrument respond to the touch of the master's fingers—to have a prompt command of those subtle, penetrative words which touch the very quick of truth, as well as of those winged words and necromantic terms, freighted with suggestion and association, which are like pictures to the eye, and strains of music to the ear—to be able to pour into language “such a charm, sweetness so penetrating, energy so puissant,” that men will be compelled to listen, and listening to yield their wills—this is to hold a wand more powerful than magician ever waved, a sceptre more potent than king ever wielded. Style, thus

viewed, takes rank with the fine arts, and, as such, is as worthy of study and admiration as those material forms which embody the conceptions of Angelo, Titian, and Raphael.

In conclusion, we are aware that in thus urging the claims of the art of expression, we have exposed ourselves to the jest of Diderot on Beccaria, that he had written a work on style in which there was no style; but one may see and feel the beauty of works of art which he can never execute; and we will willingly become a target for the critic's shafts, if we can but induce any of our readers—especially our undergraduate readers—to study the magnificent mystery of words. We press this matter the more urgently for two reasons: 1. Because, as Prof. Shedd says, the modern mind, especially “the American mind, is full of matter, and overfull of force. . . . The Goth needs to become an artist.” 2. There is a tendency in some of our colleges to neglect rhetoric as a synonym for the shallow and the showy. The only style sanctioned by their professors is apparently the “colourless-correct,” which Julius Hare called Scotch-English, and which Carlyle, himself a Scotchman, likened to power-loom weaving. Its great aim, apparently, is to avoid all impulse, brilliancy, and surprise; and its ideal is reached when a writer, as Coleridge said of Wordsworth, is “austerely accurate in the use of words.” Even at our oldest college, where compositions were formerly required every fortnight for three years, only half-a-dozen essays are now required during the whole four years' course; and the department of “Rhetoric and Oratory,” so long glorified by an Adams and a Channing, came so near to extinction a few years ago, that we are told it only got a reprieve at the very scaffold, at the intercession of some of the older graduates. Again, there are persons who, like

Karl Hildebrand, affirm that nothing in one's native language, but grammar and spelling, can be taught. “I never heard,” says he, “that Pascal and Bossuet, Swift and Addison, or Lessing and Goethe, passed through a course of stylistic instruction in French, English, or German; and yet they are supposed not to have written these languages so very badly.” So, it might be replied, there have been men in every calling—painters, sculptors, musicians, architects—who have mastered their art without technical instruction. But the example of these prodigies of genius proves nothing in regard to the average man. It is true that the highest secrets of a good style cannot be taught, but must be learned by each man for himself, pen in hand; that the knowledge and use of one's native language are grasped, not deliberately, but “by a thousand unconsciously receptive organs.” But the same thing is true of music, painting, and all the other arts, in the acquisition of which the student is advised to begin with a teacher. Let the undergraduate, then, begin early to write—to write while his faculties are plastic, lest, when he is called to posts of responsibility and honour, he have to take up the lament of Italy's statesman, Count Cavour. Bitterly did he lament that in his youthful days he had never been taught how to speak and write—“arts which,” said he, “require a degree of nicety and adaptability in particular organs, which can only be acquired by practice in youth.” To obtain such a mastery of language as we have described is the privilege of but few; but all may make an approximation to it, and of all excellence, here as elsewhere, the first, second, and last secret is *labour*. Intercourse with men of culture, listening to the language of the common people, and the perusal of good authors, it has been truly said, are the basis of a good style; and the true

means of perfecting it, are the habit of thinking clearly, conscientiousness in seeking the expression that exactly corresponds to one's thoughts, and the honesty not to write when one has nothing to say.* Above all should it be remembered, that the veins of golden thought do not lie on the surface of the mind; time and patience are required to sink the shafts, and bring out the glittering ore. The compositions whose subtle grace has a perennial charm, which we sip like old wine, phrase by phrase, and sentence by sentence, till their delicate aroma and exquisite flavour diffuse themselves through every cell of the brain, are wrought out, not under "high pressure," but quietly, leisurely, in the dreamy and caressing atmosphere of fancy. They are the mellow vintage of a ripe and unforced imagination. The fitness of our language for such composition needs no proof, though, perhaps, in no other language has the average excellence of its prose-writing been so far below the excellence of its best specimens. The language which, at the very beginning of its full organization, could produce the linked sweetness of Sidney and the "mighty line" of Marlowe, the voluptuous beauty of Spenser and the oceanic melody of Shakspeare, and which, at a riper age, could shew itself an adequate instrument for the organ-like harmonies of Milton and the matchless symphonies of Sir Thomas Browne; which could give full and fit expression to the fiery

energy of Dryden and the epigrammatic point of Pope, to the forest-like gloom of Young, and the passionate outpourings of Burns; which sustained and supported the tremulous elegance and husbanded strength of Campbell, the broad-winged sweep of Coleridge, the deep sentiment and all-embracing humanities of Wordsworth, and the gorgeous emblazonry of Moore; and which to-day, in the plentitude of its powers, responds to every call of Tennyson, Ruskin, Newman, and Froude—is surely equal to the demands of any genius that may yet arise to tax its powers. Spoken in the time of Elizabeth by a million fewer persons than to-day speak it in London alone, it now girdles the earth with its electric chain of communication, and voices the thoughts of a hundred million of souls. It has crossed the peaks of the Rocky Mountains, and has invaded South America and the Sandwich Islands; it is advancing with giant strides through Africa and New Zealand, and on the scorching plains of India; it is penetrating the wild wastes of Australia, making inroads upon China and Japan, and bids fair to become the dominant language of the civilized world. Let us jealously guard its purity, maintain its ancient idioms, and develop its inexhaustible resources, that it may be even more worthy than it now is to be the mother-tongue, not only of the two great brother nations whose precious legacy it is, but of the whole family of man.

* Karl Hildebrand.

ONLY think of it! Prussia, whose educational system has been so frequently held up to the admiring contemplation of American State teachers' associations and county institutes, is unable to supply us with the text of a law to secure uniformity of textbooks. She is sadly in need of such a statute, if we accept reports that come to us through the Bureau of Education. According to this authority, there are in the Prussian schools

100 different books for religious instruction, 56 for German language lessons, 70 German readers, 19 for literature and pedagogy, 37 Latin grammars, 95 Latin exercise books, 23 French grammars, 85 French exercise books, 35 Greek grammars, 53 Greek exercise books, 109 histories, 70 geographies, 65 text-books of natural history, 34 of physics, 28 of chemistry; 191 of arithmetic and mathematics, and 201 singing books.—*Ex.*

A BOY'S BOOKS, THEN AND NOW—1818, 1881.—IV.

BY HENRY SCADDING, D.D., TORONTO.

(Continued from page 277.)

ALTHOUGH the compilers of the Eton Latin Grammar deemed it most fitting to eliminate from that manual the theological element, care was taken that there should be no deficiency in the supply of religious knowledge to the alumni of the Royal College; and that too in the Latin tongue, as ancient custom demanded. Several authorized books were used in this department of instruction, having the double object in view of imparting the proper information and at the same time promoting skill in the Latin language. The titles of four of them are as follows: *Evangelia; sive Excerpta ex Novo Testamento secundum Latinam Seb. Castilionis versionem* (a translation in purely Classical Latin as distinguished from Jerome's and Beza's), *in usum Classium inferiorum. Selectæ à Veteri Testamento Historiæ; ad usum eorum qui Linguæ Latinæ Rudimentis imbuuntur. Monita et Præcepta Christiana. De Fide et Officiis Christianorum, excerpta ex Thomæ Burneti et Grotii libellis, in usum Juventutis Christianæ.* The only one of these that I have happened to retain is the last-named, which is a concise and most useful compendium with an excellent syllabus at the beginning of the numerous points treated. As stated on the title page, the matter is chiefly taken from Thomas Burnet's book bearing the same name, with additions here and there from Grotius de Veritate. Apologies, which seem almost unnecessary, are offered in the preface for the non-Ciceronian

character of some of the Latin, but the student is told to remember that the matter is here of more importance than the manner: "*non tam verba hic, quàm rem agi.*" I shall quote a passage from the Address to the Reader to shew the strain in which it has been the fashion for divines and others to write, generation after generation, of the condition of things around them, indicating how continually, in the imagination of men, truth and faith are in danger of being extinguished. This little outline of Christian doctrine and practice had been prepared, we are told, in order that young men might go forth from their early training-place imbued with a just respect for the creed which they profess, and fortified in some degree against the prevailing impiety of the times, when so many, instead of valuing and cultivating the religion of the country, either attack it in a hostile spirit or ignore it; while too few have any satisfactory comprehension of the subject. "*Cum tantum abest ut perinde ac de hominum vitâ merita est, laudetur et colatur sacrasancta nostra religio, ut etiam inimice eam nonnulli insectentur, quam plurimi prorsus negligant, paucissimi satis intelligant; non inutilis videtur opera in juventute erudiendâ disciplinæ Christianæ quasi lineamenta quædam tabellâ exhibere; unde Veritatem ejus, naturam et præstantiam intuentes, summâ eam, quâ decet, veneratione adolescentes excipiant; fideque ac moribus ad eam mature compositis, prodeant ex palæstrâ*

literariâin grassantem horum temporum impietatem aliquantum præmuniti."

The edition of the little Eton book now before me, from which I make this extract is dated, A.D. 1779: the words were probably written earlier, as this is an *editio nova*. The memorable declaration in Bishop Butler's "Advertisement" prefixed to the first edition of the "Analogy," in May, 1736, will possibly be recalled: "It has come, I know not how, to be taken for granted, by many persons, that Christianity is not so much a subject of inquiry, but that it is now at length discovered to be fictitious." But, "on the contrary," Butler rejoins, "this much at least will be here [*i.e.* in the "Analogy"] found, not taken for granted, but proved, that it is not, however, so clear a case, that there is nothing in it." Let us hope that the general intelligence of Christian society has advanced since 1736 and 1779. I think the indictment against it, implied in the words of Butler and the Eton writer, would not so readily suggest itself to-day anywhere in the English-speaking portion of the world.

The Eton exercise-books, also, without inculcating dogma, plainly keep an ethical purpose in view. Intended in appearance simply to beget skill in Latin composition, they abound with striking lessons of worldly wisdom; with admirable maxims of prudence, honour, virtue, public spirit and patriotism. "Exempla Moralia" is the title of the principal exercise-book. A pretty complete series of the Eton exercise manuals is in my collection, all of them of rather early date, and very characteristic in their interior and external aspects. 1. "Exempla Minora; or New English Examples to be rendered into Latin." Eton: printed by T. Pote, 1794. This book has the Eton shield on the title-page in the style of the last century; in an oval frame surrounded by palm

branches. A memorandum addressed to Mr. Pote, by T. Morell, author of the famous Greek Prosodial Thesaurus, afterwards edited by Bishop Maltby (with fine portrait of author and editor), informs the reader that he had revised the "Exempla Minora" and had taken the liberty to strike out some and insert others, and had adapted the whole to the grammar rules in such a way that "no one example may prevent or anticipate a subsequent rule." This mem. is dated in May, 1759. 2. "Shorter Examples, or Second Book of English Examples to be rendered into Latin." Eton: printed by E. Williams, "successor to Mr. Pote," 1818. The preface to this book tells us that it is "intended by short examples and familiar diction, to accommodate Youth in the more early Day of their Education and by regular gradation lead to the Third Book or larger Work of Exempla Moralia." 3. "Exempla Moralia; or Third Book of New English Examples to be rendered into Latin." Eton: printed by T. Pote, 1793. This volume shews the Eton shield in an oval frame. From the initials T. M. subjoined to a brief preface, dated 1759, we gather that Morell was the compiler of these examples and that they are "almost all founded on Classical Authorities."

To shew the moral aim of this book, I shall quote rather largely from its contents. From the lesser manuals could be culled any number of passages of like import, only briefer in form and more adapted to the use of the very young. While reading the following, we might imagine them to be fragments of Bacon, or Montaigne or Rochefoucauld:

Dear are parents, children, kinsfolks, friends; but our country alone contains the affections of all these. What good man therefore could scruple to die, if he can be serviceable to his country?

As we are happy or miserable, compared

with others, so other people are miserable or happy, compared with us.

Such a virtue is it to be silent, that he who understands nothing is deemed wise so long as he holds his peace.

No one thinks that he owes us anything, who hath borrowed our time; when this is the only thing which even a grateful man cannot repay.

What the vulgar make light and easy by long suffering, the wise man softens to himself by long meditation.

To do all things as under the eye of some good man always present; and when you have made so great a progress as even to reverence yourself, you may dismiss your tutor.

He that willingly receives a command takes off the severest part of servitude. Not he that is commanded is wretched, but he that does a thing unwillingly.

As for charity, it is never to be expected from a covetous man, who dreads to lessen his own heaps, more than to starve his poor neighbour.

If we consider the excellence and dignity of nature, we shall quickly find how shameful it is to dissolve into a luxurious softness and delicacy; and how becoming, on the other side, to live frugally, temperately, gravely and soberly.

He is not brave and strenuous, who shuns labour, but whose mind gathers strength from the difficulties that surround him.

The honour and comfort of parents consist in a numerous offspring which degenerates not from the ancient virtue of the family.

A fool, like a beast, is no sooner provoked but he grows angry; and which is worse, it appears immediately in his countenance, words and actions; whereas a prudent man is not unseemingly transported by his passion, but stifles his resentment even of the most reproachful injuries.

It is much more tolerable not to acquire, than to lose; and therefore you see these men more cheerful whom fortune never took any notice of, than those whom she hath deserted.

Men in great place are thrice servants: servants to the king; servants of fame; and servants of business.

In war it is of more consequence what sort of soldiers you command, than how many.

We should often turn our thoughts upon ourselves; and look into that part of the wallet which men commonly sling behind their backs, that they may not see their own faults.

The life of the retired, indeed, is more easy and more safe; but the life of those that apply themselves to the affairs of govern-

ment is more beneficial to mankind, and more conducive to glory and renown.

Learn to distinguish what nature hath made necessary, and what is superfluous; what easy laws she hath enacted; and how grateful and pleasant life may be to those who obey them; but how severe and intricate to those who rather trust to opinion than to nature.

Exile is terrible to those who, as it were, stint themselves to one dwelling-place; but not those who look upon the whole globe as one city.

Perfect reason is the proper good of man. Other things are common to him and brute animals. Is he strong? So are lions. Is he beautiful? So is the peacock. Is he swift? So are horses.

The mind attains not virtue but by instruction and continued exercise; to this indeed we are born; and in the best of men, without study and application, there is the ground of virtue, but not virtue itself.

Whatever is probable in appearance, though not altogether certain, yet if nothing offers to destroy that probability, the wise man will take up with it; and this is sufficient for the whole conduct of life.

Some studies are called liberal, because they are worthy of a man who is free born; but there is only one study that is truly liberal, the study of wisdom, sublime, strong and magnanimous; all others are trifling and puerile.

They who have nothing else but the images of their ancestors are noble in opinion more truly than in fact; but he that is endued with virtue has true and genuine nobility.

We cannot otherwise conceive of God than as a Spirit, absolute, free, perceiving and moving all things, and ended Himself with everlasting motion.

Of all gainful professions, nothing is better, nothing more delightful, nothing more worthy a man, even a gentleman, than agriculture.

Praise not thyself, which is both indecent and imprudent; but take care to do praise-worthy things, which will force commendation even from strangers.

To preserve health we must use moderate exercise, and so much meat and drink as may repair the strength and not oppress it; but we must not support the body alone, but the mind and spirits also; for these are extinguished by old age, like a lamp when it is not supplied with oil.

As he is a fool who when he is going to buy a horse inspects only the bride and saddle; so is he most foolish who esteems a man from his dress or condition, which is a sort of dress.

If it happens to any to be gently dismissed by old age, not suddenly torn from life, but

gradually stolen away; has he not reason to thank God that being full of days and infirmity, he now retires to rest, so necessary to man, so grateful to the weary.

I could easily have filled many more pages with maxims and observations such as these, inculcating manliness, truthfulness, a sense of honour, a feeling of moral obligation, and a hundred other estimable virtues and habits. Young minds during their most plastic period, employed for a series of years in the careful manipulation of aphorisms and sentiments, such as those of which I have given specimens, could not fail in numerous instances to be affected and moulded

thereby. At the same time, countless other ennobling, formative forces were brought to bear upon these young minds; for example, a full staff of skilled instructors, themselves strongly charged with the Eton lore, and the very genius of the place, walls, quadrangles, play-fields, teeming with memories and traditions of eminent men subjected in their day to the Eton discipline. Can we wonder at the strong hold on the esteem and love of Englishmen which Eton has acquired; poets, divines, warriors, jurists, statesmen, from Fox and Canning and Wellesley to the late Earl of Derby and Gladstone?

THE NEED OF THE USEFUL IN EDUCATION.

BY W. S. ELLIS, B.A., COBOURG.

FOR a practical people, we inhabitants of Ontario do some strangely impractical things. We pass a compulsory school law, and then set to work with all our might to make ourselves believe that the rising generation is being led, *en masse*, in the paths of learning and virtue; most of us conveniently shutting our eyes to the fact, that the raggamuffin still sports in the gutter, and the "arab" is getting his peculiar learning in a way that has little to do with virtue. Only within the last half-dozen years, have we discovered that the English Language and Literature were worth even a passing glance; and we have not yet found out that anything can be more valuable for a prospective farmer than algebraical equations and Greek roots. We boasted about the non-partizan character of our educational system, then, apparently "just for the fun of the thing," put our heads together, ran that system into the middle of the "political machine," and left it there

in such a way that if it ever comes out in half as good condition as it went in, it will be a strong case for those who believe in "special providences." We have hitherto supported a costly Educational Depository, ostensibly for the purpose of encouraging the trustees of schools to supply their charges with apparatus and reading matter; but in reality to afford the apparatus man an opportunity of gulling the country, and to illustrate to the people at large, that the Sunday school libraries had not appropriated quite all the clap-trap literature extant. There is one thing left, however, of which we may well boast. We have the most elaborate system of examinations ever devised. If anyone doubts it let him be convinced by the following statement, which he can quite likely verify by examples within his own knowledge. A child starts to go to school, say, when he is seven years old, from that time onward for six or seven years in the

Public School, four years in the High School, four years in the University, and three or four years in a professional course afterwards, he is undergoing a constant series of examinations. At last he goes forth one of the best examined specimens that was ever labelled for public circulation. Twenty years of constant examining ought to yield some good results, but unfortunately those who employ him have but little guarantee that they are not dealing with an incompetent after all. Many of us know, to our cost, that such men are often more ornamental than useful: it behoves us, therefore, to make diligent inquiry if we are not doing these things in a way which might be somewhat improved.

There is at present a slight controversy going on about the teaching of Mathematics. If I may add my mite to the discussion, it will be after this fashion: I do not think that our mathematical course is too heavy, but I do think that it is too general. Teachers know well that there are many students, especially among boys and young men, who prefer mathematical to classical or literary studies. By all means let them have their preference; but I would heartily emphasize the statement I have seen and heard frequently of late, viz., that options should be permitted for the more advanced mathematical work.

Further, the course of study for both Public and High Schools should be much more practical than it is. I am inclined to answer in the affirmative a question which has occurred to me more than once, viz: whether the study of Botany should not be made compulsory for all pupils who have reached the grade of the fourth class. Students who can learn Geography can learn Botany, and of the two I believe the latter would be the more pleasing and interesting to the learners. This is not a mere delusion, for

I know from experience with classes how enthusiastically pupils can be induced to work in this direction. Of all the thousands of boys and girls, nay of all the thousands of men and women, in Ontario, how many know that the potatoes and tomatoes they daily see on their tables are at least first cousins? How many know that wheat is a grass, or where to look for the blossoms on a head of timothy? How many can give the family relationships and habits of the most common plants they are daily either cultivating or destroying in their fields and gardens? Most country boys know that sedges will not grow on a gravel hill, nor apple trees in a frog pond, but this is a matter of experience, and it has probably never occurred to them that a scientific reason could be given for it. A gracefully-curved elm branch, with its leaves regularly arranged, was recently shewn to me among a collection of ferns, the owner dilating in an especial manner, on "that perfect little beauty of a fern." This was pure ignorance, which five minutes' judicious teaching would have cured for ever. Next to Botany, and to the same class of students, I would have the rudiments of Chemistry taught, together with a few of its useful every-day applications. I think a comparatively small room would hold all the farmers' and mechanics' wives in the Province who know why they put soda in the bread they bake; who know the distinction between the waters they call "hard," and those they designate as "soft;" or who could give a satisfactory answer to the question, why they, or their servants, use soap in washing. Yet these are things with which every man and woman in the country is coming in contact to a greater or less extent every day. I have yet to meet the first smith who can give an intelligent reason for wetting the coal before putting it in the forge, although he

and his brother workmen have been doing it all their lives. I also have the impression that it would be of more use to the future mechanic, to teach him how to calculate the length of a brace or a rafter, or how to compute the quantity of brick, lumber, plaster, etc., required for a building, than it is to make him a proficient in finding the price of stocks, under certain very improbable conditions, when, in all likelihood, he will never own a dollar's worth of stocks of any kind.

A proper understanding and appreciation of the work of the Meteorological Office, also, would be of vast benefit to the Dominion; yet among the farmers, a class particularly interested, I doubt if ninety-nine out of every hundred do not plate Prof. Carpmael and Mr. Vennor side by side, as a pair of charlatans and humbugs. The elementary principles of Agriculture, the influence of forests on climate, a slight practical acquaintance with soils and rocks, might be made exceedingly interesting to nearly all classes of students. There is scarcely a High School in Ontario in which there are not boys who are destined to pass their lives behind a counter, and who are now busy accompanying Charon over the Styx, or looking after that famous "tenth legion," or lying with the other man "*sub tegmine fagi*," instead of finding out about the details of the manufacture of the goods they will be handling all their lives.

I suppose that most boys and girls have read—in the almanac—that they have such things as livers and kidneys, but where these organs are, or what they are for, is an unexplained mystery. Now I certainly think that it would be more advantageous to all concerned, except perhaps the patent medicine man, for boys and girls to know something about their bodily constitution, than

to be able to factor an intricate algebraic expression. As an evidence that I am not alone in this way of thinking, I would point to the address of Mr. Mills to the Grangers a few days ago, and also to the draft plan of studies he submitted for their approval. This I trust will lead to good results, one of them being to induce the Grangers to cease to trifle with things which they do not understand, more especially the school laws and the Minister of Education.

I have referred to what I believe to be a few of the radical defects of our school system, when viewed from the practical side. I am aware that the remedying of these defects is a far different matter, and one more difficult to deal with. I would, however, venture the following suggestion: That in every large town there should be established technical schools, where would be taught not only the elements of that which is ordinarily called Applied Science; but also the principles of the Manual Trades. These might perhaps be connected with our Collegiate Institutes and High Schools; or else the character of the Mechanics' Institutes might be altered and the Training Schools attached to them. If the people of Canada can afford to support one of the most useless establishments on the face of the earth, in the shape of a Military College, surely we in Ontario should do something for the advancement and proper education of those upon whom we have to depend for the development of the country. It seems to me that we should at once do something to supersede the "rule of thumb" way of doing things, that has so long held sway among the majority, and adopt that plan which will, to the greatest extent, develop an intelligent and skilful class of farmers, merchants, and artisans.

MUSIC AND READING.*

BY J. H. KNIGHT, P. S. INSPECTOR, LINDSAY.

I PROPOSE in this paper to make a comparison between the science of Music and the art of Reading, with the view of drawing out practical suggestions as to methods of teaching not only reading but some other branches of education.

To deal with this subject profitably it will be necessary to consider the place which reading and music take in religious exercises. And if I do not treat the subject as tenderly as some would like, my excuse is that the times demand that we should deal with things as we find them. Our public schools will have much to do with the preparation of the clergy, the choir masters, and the choristers of the future, and if in the past the work has been badly done, it behoves us hereafter to try and do it better.

Some weeks since I read in one of the Toronto papers the statement that there were only three clergymen in that city who were good readers; and so far as I am aware, the statement has not been contradicted. Of course the remark was intended to apply to one denomination only, but when it is remembered that that denomination has nearly forty clergymen in Toronto, it is rather humiliating that ninety per cent. of them are, as far as reading is concerned, so deficient in the art. Now is it any wonder if, under the circumstances, as is sometimes stated, people go to church more to hear the music than for anything else?

I do not pretend to say that in

general the musical part of the services is better than the reading; but were congregations one half as critical about the reading as they are about the music, were they alive to the pleasure afforded by good reading, did they realize its advantages as a means of instruction, they would not tolerate what now they are satisfied with.

If the reading were subjected to criticism as the matter of the sermon usually is, no doubt the clergy would be more alive to its importance. But, singularly, not one person in a hundred seems to think it worth while even to form an opinion, much less to express it, in regard to the reading. And equally singular is it that ninety-nine out of every hundred members of a congregation consider themselves quite capable of giving an opinion in respect to the music.

I am far from supposing that the bulk of those who profess to be judges of music are entirely ignorant of it, for it is satisfactory to know that a musical knowledge is being sought by many, and that a large number of our teachers are making advances in this study. Under the impression that most of you can intelligently estimate the remarks I have to make, I shall now proceed to consider

I. *The importance of learning the Notation.*—Time was when teachers kept their pupils for six months studying the notation of music before they allowed them to touch the piano. Now they go to the other extreme, and let them play tunes before they have well mastered the names of the notes.

* Read before the E. Victoria Teachers' Association at Lindsay, November 26th, 1880.

Such pupils continue year after year blundering over sharps, flats and naturals, unable to distinguish the notes on ledger lines above and below the staff, calling semibreves whole notes, and minims half notes, when a little more time spent over the notation would be of more service to the pupil.

What we have said applies with the same force to reading. Formerly teachers required their pupils to learn every letter of the alphabet, capitals and "lower case" of roman and italics, before they were allowed to read a word. Now they go to the other extreme, a knowledge of the letters being quite a secondary consideration, and pupils are suffered to go on confounding letters which look somewhat alike, such as *p* and *q*, *b* and *d*, *c* and *e*, and consequently miscalling one word and staring at another, when a little more effort at the proper stage would have saved all the trouble.

II. *Lessons must be progressive.*—The importance of making the first lesson as easy as possible, and each subsequent lesson a little more difficult than the last, is well understood by every good teacher. In musical instruction the work of the pupils is divided between exercises and tunes, the former predominating with beginners, especially in instrumental music. Every teacher knows how difficult it is to keep the pupils at the exercises, and prevent their spending too much time at tunes. The tunes are generally more agreeable to the pupils, but the exercises are more adapted to the mastering of each difficulty in its proper place. If a set of tunes could be so arranged as to serve all the purposes of exercises, it would be a great relief to both teachers and pupils; but as this is not likely to be accomplished, it is evident that the best exercises are those which approach the nearest to the character of tunes,

so long as utility is not sacrificed for the sake of an agreeable melody.

With the system of Reading Books in use in the schools of Ontario little is left to the judgment of teachers in the way of progressiveness, as far as mere reading is concerned; but the judicious teacher may do much to adapt his explanations and illustrations to the capacity of the pupils, and also by studying the design of each lesson (if there be any), either for the mastering of some difficulty or the illustrating of some principle.

Take for example the subject of Prosody. The reading books contain selections of poetry as well as prose. No directions are given as to the time

which the study of prosody should be commenced, nor to what extent it should be taught. That a knowledge of prosody will greatly assist in the reading of poetry I think there can be no doubt, and the judicious teacher will introduce just as much as is desirable for the pupils at the proper time.

III. *Every lesson should be properly finished.*—The teaching of music differs from that of reading, in this, that while in reading we usually have but one lesson in hand at a time, in music it is generally desirable to have several exercises in different stages of completeness. Some are nearly finished, others in a less advanced stage, and a few just commenced. A moment's reflection will shew that no exercise should be left until it is perfect, no matter how long it takes to finish it; for if any exercise be not so finished, the pupil is not ready for the exercises that follow, and is in danger of contracting slovenly habits, which are calculated to have a pernicious effect on all future work.

So it is with reading. Unless every lesson is properly finished before proceeding to a new one, the pupils are sure to get into careless habits of reading, and they are not so well prepared for the lessons which follow.

IV. *The correction of errors should receive constant attention.*—It is a mistake to suppose that the imparting of instruction is the chief portion of a music-teacher's work. One pupil cannot keep his wrists high enough, another lifts his fingers too soon, a third keeps them down too long, and a fourth is always losing his place. These, and a hundred other errors, require constant watchfulness, or little mistakes will soon become confirmed habits.

And the same is the case with reading. One pupil draws, another hurries, a third lisps, a fourth drops his h's or his r's, a fifth speaks through his nose, a sixth too loudly, and a seventh too low. Like weeds in a garden, or like tares among the wheat, these errors will appear, and require your constant care and watchfulness to uproot, to kill, and to destroy.

V. *Repetition and Review are necessary.*—It matters not to what state of perfection an exercise may have been brought, it needs occasional repetition to be retained.

It would be well if teachers would encourage their pupils to review their reading lessons, to give an extra finish to a few of the best ones by frequent repetition, and thus to have them fit for use whenever called for.

And here let me urge the importance of memorizing a few select pieces, not only as a matter of convenience when you happen not to have your books with you, but also as a valuable aid to mental training.

VI. *Much is learned by imitation.*—Some music teachers make it a rule to play each new exercise or tune to their pupils as the first step towards teaching it. This plan may hasten the learning of each individual piece, but it is mischievous, as being calculated to encourage playing by ear instead of by note. That the teacher should play for the pupil's imitation is very necessary, but it should be done after the pupil has had abundant opportu-

ity of interpreting the piece himself, and then generally more for improvement of style than to save labour.

Again, this is the case with reading. No greater error can be committed than that of reading a new lesson over to the pupils, or even pronouncing the new words, before they have had an opportunity of making them out themselves by spelling or otherwise. Teachers should read for imitation by their pupils, but as a general rule it should be after other means have failed to accomplish the desired result.

Besides the ordinary lessons of the teacher it is highly desirable that the pupils should have frequent opportunities of hearing music rendered in the best style, not only the pieces they play themselves, but others entirely beyond their reach. Those communities are highly favoured who dwell where the music of the church is of a high order; where the words of Holy Writ are rendered doubly expressive by being wedded to music composed by competent men, possibly no less inspired than those who transmitted the sacred text; where the congregation unite with the choir in the simpler but no less worthy chorale or chant; and where the solemn tones of the organ at first subdue the feelings and excite devotion, and at last with its jubilant yet majestic strains send the worshippers joyfully to their homes. Such Christians need no vulgar minstrel troops nor comic concerts to beguile their melancholy. Their religion is musical, their music is religious.

So are those congregations happy where the reading is of a high order. We speak from an educational point of view, as the religious aspect does not now concern us, and we say that it is useless to expect to raise the standard of reading in our schools, while it is so low in our churches. If our pupils could hear good reading once a week there would be something for them to

imitate. And if the ability to read well were one of the requisites for admission to the ministry, there would be some inducement to our teachers to try to produce good readers.

VII. *Quality is more valuable than quantity.*—At present one of the greatest obstacles to progress is the rage for new music. The consequence is that much valuable time is wasted over the veriest trash, simply because it is new. It is strange that it should be so, because everything is new to us which we have not met before, no matter how old it may otherwise be, and we know from experience that nothing survives for any length of time unless it contains some intrinsic merit. The best music is not always the most difficult, nor is easy music always inferior. But generally speaking that which requires the greatest amount of labour to master gives the greatest satisfaction when mastered, and can bear the greatest number of repetitions. And this is one reason why so little really good music is learned. Beginners are easily captivated with what is attractive and easy, and they will not take upon trust the opinions of those who have had more experience. If they could hear good music oftener, they might be induced to spend their time upon a higher, but less attractive class of music. Their stock of pieces might be smaller, but it would be better calculated to improve the taste, and to afford enjoyment to both performer and listener.

The comparison holds good with respect to literature. The general idea seems to be that the best authors are dry and dull. But those who have had an opportunity of testing the matter admit that there is more solid satisfaction in reading and re-reading a good author than in devouring whole libraries of inferior writings.

One of the first requisites of vocal music is that the words shall be dis-

tinctly pronounced. Solo singing is better adapted for a clear enunciation of the words than a chorus. Compositions in which one note is assigned to each syllable are better than those in which two or more notes are slurred. The chant is for this purpose superior to the ordinary tune. Anthems and similar compositions written specially for particular words, are better than tunes which may be sung to several stanzas or to various sets of words. An instrumental accompaniment, while it helps the singer, often mars the force of the words, especially if it be too elaborate or too loud. But, whatever the character of the music, much more depends on the care and ability of the singers. The prima-donna may receive the applause of the audience, but should you be puzzled to tell whether the version is French, Italian or Spanish, and finally conclude that it is meant for English, the effect cannot be satisfactory. A moderate speed is necessary for clear articulation. The undue haste with which tunes and chants are now rendered is as detrimental to the words as the almost discarded drawl. The singers of comic songs are alive to the importance of making the words plain, and in this they are generally successful. The consequence is that the worst class of music is generally rendered in the best possible style, while the best music is often delivered in the worst manner.

A person who reads for his own information has this advantage, that if he fails to understand anything he can read it over again. But if he listens to another's reading, he may catch the meaning of the writer, or he may not, according to the skill, the care, or the luck of the reader. Many persons spoil the effect, when reading aloud without preparation, by introducing modulations of voice and inflections which are only intended to be used where ample time has been

allowed to study the piece, when a plainer style would be more satisfactory. And even where there has been ample preparation, there is danger of marring the effect by too great attempts at oratorical display.

VIII. *Trifles are worth attention.*—You are aware that a cathedral service consists not only of anthems and similar music which require much labour in the preparation and care in the rendering, but also of responses or short sentences of a simpler character, most of which are daily repeated. In many places these latter are frequently rendered in a slovenly way, the more difficult music being considered worthy of greater effort in the rendering. Chichester Cathedral has always been remarkable for the care bestowed upon the minor portions of the music, and the result is, that no matter what the anthem may be the general effect of the service is pleasing.

Nor is this less important in reading. If you wish your pupils to improve by your example, do not confine your attention to special occasions and to great efforts. Do not say that it is only a few verses of Scripture, only the Lord's Prayer, only dictation, or only an example for grammar. Take care of little things, great things will take care of themselves.

IX. *The teacher should keep in advance of his pupils.*—This must be

done by the practice of music of the highest class, by studying the works of the great masters, and by reading books on the theory of music. It is surprising what a small proportion of teachers of music have even an elementary knowledge of its theory. To have mastered the names of the notes, to know some of the terms, and to be able to play a few tunes, seems to be the stock-in-trade of most teachers. So long as this state of things exists we are not likely to make much advance.

Nor is it less essential in reading. Not only should the teacher have mastered the Readers which he uses as text books, but he should be well read in other authors, not only with respect to detached selections, but, as much as possible, in their complete works. The introduction of lessons in English Literature I regard as a step in the right direction. To read a work well we must understand all about it; and he who has mastered one work is in a better position to master another than when he began. Whatever may be the real merits of our authorized reading books, I think there is too much disposition to underrate their value, and too little desire to make the best of what is good in them. They contain many gems which will well repay study, and I cannot too strongly urge you to give them the attention they deserve.

ORAL INSTRUCTION.—That object teaching and oral instruction have not yielded the results expected is becoming daily more and more evident. In the former, mere observation does not result in insight; the teacher points out the facts which the pupil is supposed to remember until he passes on to a new grade, when they are dropped, and other facts substituted in their places. In oral teaching, as ordinarily practised, the instructor simply takes the place of the book. The remedy for this is simple, although not easily applied. It is to cultivate originality, to teach the student to do his own thinking, to avoid cram, to supply facts only so fast as

they can be assimilated. Experience has shewn that science may be inculcated by the true more easily than by the false method, and with infinitely greater benefit to the pupil. It remains now for the comparatively few teachers who recognize this vital fact to persevere in their endeavours, and to induce others to associate with the same belief. Any change must of course be gradual. Reform must come from without, from the pressure of public opinion; and only when public opinion is thoroughly aroused can we hope for a system of education founded on what Professor Huxley calls common-sense methods.—*Boston Traveller.*

THE LATE PRESIDENT GARFIELD.

In Memoriam.

JAMES ABRAM GARFIELD.

BY "ESPERANCE," YORKVILLE.

THE day is over, and the strife;
Our hearts are starless as the night,
Too darkened to discern the right
In short'ning such a noble life.

God comfort, for He only can!
The wife who mourns her dearest one,
The mother weeping for her son,
And us who mourn the friend and man.

One thought alone brings purest balm:
The storm of pain, the billows' roll,
Served but to speed his willing soul
More swiftly on to Heaven's calm.

Unselfish love would hail his gain,
But we are selfish; and our love
So fraught it cannot rise above
Our own poor personal loss and pain.

He wears the crown; we bear the cross,
Made heavier by this bitter pain,
For some *must* lose when others gain,
And unto us has fall'n the loss.

But this is finite, as must be
All earthly sorrow, earthly bliss;
His gain is infinite as is
The circle of Eternity.

Oh that our hearts the height could reach
Of perfect union with God's will!
We shall not lack for sorrow till
This lesson is no more to teach.

We are as children—needing school,
And wise but loving discipline,
Our poor rebellious hearts to win
To true submission unto rule.

God bring us quickly to the home
Where union shall replace control,
Where, nor in body or in soul,
We shall have will or power to roam.

And since this sorrow *has* been sent,
Teach us to recognise the need,
And e'en while our affections bleed
To own it loving chastisement.

THE FUNERAL DAY.

September 26th, 1881.

BY "FIDELIS," KINGSTON.

GOD's will be done! Alas, we know not why,
In spite of longing love and tender care,
And a great nation's mighty voice of prayer,
The foul blow triumphed, and the good must die!

Yet, in this time of heavy loss and pain,
All party cries are hushed in one great grief,
And in its mourning o'er its fallen chief,
The land divided breathes as one again!

Nor North nor South it knows, nor East nor West,
Its mighty heart throbs with a single beat,
While fall its tears upon the winding-sheet
That wraps to-day its noblest and its best.

Nor North nor South! *All* boundaries are fled
Where noble manhood falls for Truth's
dear sake;
We know no frontier line on land or lake,—
A Continent is mourning for the dead!

And far across the sea that rolls between
Old England and the New, the grief is shared;
Both nations bow their heads in sorrow bared,
And with the mourners weepeth England's Queen!

From Biscay's Bay to Tiber's yellow wave,
Wherever freemen's hearts beat true to-day,
Unseen they join the long and sad array
That bears the martyred ruler to his grave!

Yet still, perchance, his high heroic soul
May guide the people's destinies—"his
trust"—

And from the treasure of his sacred dust
His voice still urge them to the nobler goal.

And from the sorrow—since it must befall—
May seeds of blessing for the future grow,—
A closer human brotherhood below,
More love and service to the Lord of all.

ARTS DEPARTMENT.

ARCHIBALD MacMURCHY, M.A., MATHEMATICAL EDITOR, C. E. M.

Our correspondents will please bear in mind, that the arranging of the matter for the printer is greatly facilitated when they kindly write out their contributions, intended for insertion, on one side of the paper ONLY, or so that each distinct answer or subject may admit of an easy separation from other matter without the necessity of having it re-written.

UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO,

* Junior Matriculation.

MATHEMATICS.—PASS.

Solutions by WILBUR GRANT, Toronto Collegiate Institute. (See C. E. MONTHLY for July-August, 1881.)

8. Solve the equations

$$(4) \begin{cases} xy - yz = 18. & (1) \\ x^2 + z^2 = 4y^2 + 2xz. & (2) \\ x^2 - 8 = 2xy + 2xz. & (3) \end{cases}$$

(1) gives $(x-z)y = 18$.(2) " $(x-z)^2 = 4y^2$,
which give $y = 3$,(2) - (3) $z^2 + 8 = 4y^2 - 2xy$.Substituting from (1) for $2xy$

$$z^2 + 2yz + 44 = 4y^2.$$

Substituting value of y and solving as quadratic in z we get $z = -2$ or -4 ,

$$\therefore x = 4 \text{ or } 2$$

$$y = 3.$$

9. There are two vessels, A and B , each containing a mixture of water and wine, A in the ratio of 2 : 3, B in the ratio of 3 : 7. What quantity must be taken from each in order to form a third mixture which shall contain 5 gallons of water and 11 of wine?

* Let $x =$ quantity of water taken from A . $a =$ " wine " A . $y =$ " water " B . $b =$ " wine " B .

$$\frac{x}{a} = \frac{2}{3} \quad \frac{y}{b} = \frac{3}{7} \quad x + y = 5$$

$$a + b = 11,$$

from which four equations we get

$$x + a = 2 \text{ galls.} = \text{quantity from } A,$$

$$x + b = 14 \text{ " " " " } B.$$

10. A straight line AD is divided into three equal parts by the points B and C ; on AB, BC, CD are described equilateral triangles AEB, BFC, CGD respectively; shew that the three straight lines AE, AF, AG , can form a triangle equal in area to the equilateral triangle AEB .

$$AB = BC = CD \triangle ABE = \triangle BCF \\ = \triangle CDG \text{ in all respects,}$$

 $\therefore FG$ is parallel to AD ;but $\angle DCG = \angle CBF$, $\therefore CG$ is parallel to BF ; $\therefore BG$ is a parallelogram and $\triangle BFC$

$$= \triangle CFG; \text{ but } \triangle FAG = \triangle FCG,$$

 $\therefore \triangle FAG = \triangle ABE$.

PROBLEMS.—HONORS.

1. If a straight line terminated by the sides of a triangle be bisected, no other line terminated by the same two sides can be bisected in the same point.

BE is bisected at F . Suppose GH bisected at F also, join AH .

Because $BF = FE$,

$$\therefore \triangle ABF = \triangle AFE.$$

Because $AE > AH$,

$$\therefore \triangle AEF > \triangle AHF,$$

$$\therefore \triangle ABF > \triangle AHF.$$

But since $GF = FH$,

$$\therefore \triangle AFG = \triangle AFH.$$

But $\triangle ABF > \triangle AFH$,

$$\therefore \triangle ABF > \triangle AGF,$$

$$\therefore AB > AG, \text{ which is impossible,}$$

$$\therefore \text{no line but } BE \text{ can be bisected}$$

at F and terminated by sides.

2. If two equal circles be described cutting

each other in A and B , and from A a chord be drawn cutting them in C and D , prove that the part CD between the circumferences will be bisected by the circle described on AB as diameter.

Circles ABC , ABD are equal, and AB the common chord; CAD any line through A terminated by the circumference. Let E be the point where circle on AB cuts CD . Join BE , BD , BC ,

$$\therefore \angle BEA = \frac{\pi}{2} = \angle BED. \quad 3I, III.$$

Since the circles are equal and AB a common chord the $\angle ACB = \angle BDA$,

\therefore in the two triangles BEC , BED the angles BEC , $ECB =$ angles BED , EDB , and BE common side,

$$\therefore CE = ED. \quad 26, I.$$

4. Prove that

$$\frac{a^2 \left(\frac{1}{b} - \frac{1}{c} \right) + b^2 \left(\frac{1}{c} - \frac{1}{a} \right) + c^2 \left(\frac{1}{a} - \frac{1}{b} \right)}{a \left(\frac{1}{b} - \frac{1}{c} \right) + b \left(\frac{1}{c} - \frac{1}{a} \right) + c \left(\frac{1}{a} - \frac{1}{b} \right)} = a + b + c.$$

Multiplying numerator and denominator by abc and arranging with regard to a

$$\frac{a^3(c-b) - a(c^3-b^3) + bc(c^2-b^2)}{a^2(c-b) - a(c^2-b^2) + bc(c-b)} = \frac{a^3 - a(c^2 + bc + b^2) + bc(c+b)}{a^2 - a(c-b) + bc} = a + b + c.$$

5. If $x+y+z=xyz$ prove that

$$\left(\frac{x}{y} + \frac{y}{x} + \frac{y}{z} + \frac{z}{y} + \frac{x}{z} + \frac{z}{x} + 2 \right)^2 = (1+x^2)(1+y^2)(1+z^2).$$

$$\text{1st side} = \left(\frac{x+z}{y} + \frac{y+z}{x} + \frac{y+x}{z} + 2 \right)^2 =$$

substituting for x

$$\left\{ \frac{y+z}{y} + \frac{y+z}{yz-1} + \frac{y+z}{y} + \frac{y+z}{yz-1} + \frac{y+z}{z} + 2 \right\}^2 = \left\{ \frac{1+z^2}{yz-1} + \frac{y^2+1}{yz-1} + 2 \right\}^2 = \left\{ \frac{(1+z^2)(1+y^2)}{yz-1} \right\}^2 = \frac{(1+z^2)(1+y^2)}{(yz-1)^2} (1+x^2)(1+y^2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{but } \frac{(1+z^2)(1+y^2)}{(yz-1)^2} &= \frac{1+z^2+y^2+y^2z^2}{y^2z^2-2yz+1} \\ &= 1 + \frac{1+z^2+y^2+y^2z^2-y^2z^2+2yz-1}{(yz-1)^2} \\ &= 1 + \left(\frac{x+y}{yz-1} \right)^2 = 1+x^2, \\ \therefore \text{1st side} &= (1+x^2)(1+y^2)(1+z^2). \end{aligned}$$

The following is another solution of same question by A. MacMURCHY, University College:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Sinister} &= \left(\frac{xyz-x}{x} + \dots + 2 \right)^2 \\ &= 1 + y^2z^2 + z^2x^2 + x^2y^2 + 2xyz(x+y+z) - 2yz - 2zx - 2xy. \\ &= 1 + y^2z^2 + z^2x^2 + x^2y^2 + x^2y^2z^2 + (x+y+z)^2 - 2yz - 2zx - 2xy \\ &= 1 + x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + y^2z^2 + z^2x^2 + x^2y^2 + x^2y^2z^2 \\ &= (1+x^2)(1+y^2)(1+z^2). \end{aligned}$$

7. A waterman rows a given distance a and back again in δ hours, and finds that he can row c miles with the stream in the same time as d miles against it. Find the time each way, and the rate of the stream.

Let $x =$ rate of rowing.

$y =$ " stream.

$z =$ time it takes to row down stream.

$$(1) (x+y)z = a.$$

$$(2) (x-y)(\delta - z) = a.$$

$$(3) \frac{c}{x+y} = \frac{d}{x-y}.$$

$$\text{from (3)} \quad \frac{x}{y} = \frac{c+d}{c-d}$$

$$\frac{x+y}{y} = \frac{2c}{c-d} \quad \frac{x-y}{y} = \frac{2d}{c-d}$$

$$\text{dividing (1)} \quad \frac{z}{y} = \frac{a(c-d)}{2c}$$

$$\text{dividing (2)} \quad \frac{\delta - z}{y} = \frac{a(c-d)}{2d}$$

$$\therefore \frac{z}{\delta - z} = \frac{d}{c} \quad z = \frac{bd}{c+d}$$

$$\delta - z = \frac{bc}{c+d} \quad y = \frac{2bd}{a(c^2 - d^2)}$$

8. ABC is an isosceles triangle, D the middle point of the base BC . If any straight line drawn through D meets one side in E

and the other produced in F , then AE , AC , AF are in harmonic progression.

Triangle ABC is isoscles and BC bisected in D . Draw BG parallel to AC , triangle $DBG =$ triangle DCE in all respects.

$$\frac{FB}{BA} = \frac{FG}{GE} \text{ and } \frac{FE}{FG} = \frac{AE}{BG}$$

$$\therefore \frac{GE}{FG} = \frac{AE - CE}{(BG) = CE}$$

$$\therefore \frac{FB}{BA} = \frac{CE}{AE - CE}$$

$$\therefore \frac{AF}{AB} = \frac{AE}{AE - CE}$$

$$AF \cdot AE - AF \cdot CE = AB \cdot AE.$$

$$AF \cdot AE - AF(AC - AE) = AB \cdot AE.$$

$$AB = AC,$$

$$\therefore AB(AE + AF) = 2AF \cdot AE.$$

$$\therefore AC = \frac{2AF \cdot AE}{AE + AF}$$

$\therefore AE$, AC , AF are in H.P.

13. Four points, moving each at a uniform speed, take 198, 495, 891, 1155 seconds respectively to describe the length of a given straight line. Supposing them to be together at any instant at the same end of the line, and to move in it from end to end continually, what interval of time will elapse before they are together at the same point again?

L. C. M. of numbers equal 62370,

$$\frac{62370}{198} = 315, \quad \frac{62370}{495} = 126,$$

$$\frac{62370}{891} = 70, \quad \frac{62370}{1155} = 54.$$

Each has made an even number of motions, except the first, in the time 62370 seconds, \therefore time required will be

$$62370 \times 2 = 124740 \text{ seconds.}$$

PROBLEMS

for Entrance and Teachers' Examinations, by W. S. ELLIS, B.A., Mathematical Master, Cobourg Collegiate Institute.

1. A woman bought 12 yards of dress goods at 75 cents per yard, and 8 yards of lining at 20 cents per yard; but the clerk made a mistake and charged her with 8 yards

of dress goods and 12 yards of lining; who profited by the mistake, and how much?

Ans. The woman; \$2.20.

2. A dealer purchased a number of sheep and $1\frac{1}{4}$ times as many lambs; he paid the same sum of money for lambs that he did for sheep, and altogether he expended \$192. How much did he pay for each lamb, having given that he bought 54 sheep and lambs?

Ans. \$3 $\frac{1}{2}$.

3. The average attendance at a school during a half-year, consisting of 150 teaching days, was 88; there were 112 names on the roll; how many absences were recorded? What was the average number of absences for each pupil?

Ans. 3600; 32 $\frac{1}{2}$.

4. A certain quantity of zinc was melted with 20 pounds of lead, the zinc being $\frac{1}{4}$ of the united mass; what fraction of the weight of lead was that of the zinc.

Ans. $\frac{1}{4}$.

5. Find the smallest square number that will exactly contain each of the divisors, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10.

Ans. 176400.

6. What is the smallest number to which if 3 be added, either 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, or 10 may be subtracted from the result an exact number of times?

Ans. 2517.

7. A man purchased a watch and chain, giving \$110 more for the former than the latter; and $\frac{2}{3}$ of the price of the watch was $2\frac{2}{3}$ times that of the chain: determine the value of each.

Ans. Watch, \$140; chain, \$30.

8. Two articles are together worth \$37, the difference of their prices is \$13; find the value of each.

Ans. \$12 and \$25.

9. It costs 20 cents per line to insert an advertisement in a newspaper the first time, 5 cents a line for each of the 10 subsequent insertions, then $2\frac{1}{4}$ cents a line always after that; now if a man is charged \$4.80 for a space of 6 lines, how often should his advertisement have appeared?

Ans. 15 times,

10. A merchant purchased a certain number of pounds of an article for \$12, had he purchased 10 pounds more he would have been allowed a discount of 10 per cent. on the

whole, and the price would then have been \$18. How many pounds did he buy at first?

Ans. 15.

11. One number is 3 times as great as another, how many times will the cube of the first contain the cube of the second? Why is this answer an invariable quantity? From this determine the dimensions of a cubical block just equal in volume to 64 cubes, each 2 inches on an edge.

Ans. 1st, 27; last, 8 in.

12. *A* bought a farm, and spent in repairs 8 per cent. of the assessed value, which was $\frac{3}{4}$ of the price he paid for it. *A* then sold the farm to *B* for such a sum as to clear \$1000 above all expenses, receiving \$2000 down, the rest to be paid at the end of a month; but within the month *B* became bankrupt, paying 85 cents on the dollar of his indebtedness; on this account *A*'s gain was reduced to \$196; what did *A* give for the farm, and what did he sell it for?

Ans. \$6000; \$7360.

Solution. $1000 - 196 = 15$ per cent. of selling price less 2000; \therefore selling price is \$7360. $7360 - 1000 =$ total cost. $= 6360$. $6360 = (\frac{1000}{100} + \frac{1000}{100} \times \frac{3}{4})$ of 1st cost, \therefore cost $= \$6000$.

13. A tank that holds 2500 gallons is supplied with 8 emptying taps, 4 large and 4 small; when 2 of the large ones and 3 of the small ones are opened together the tank is emptied in $9\frac{1}{4}$ hours; but when 3 of the large ones and 2 of the small ones are opened the tank is emptied in 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ hours; find how many gallons run through each tap per hour.

Ans. 100; 25.

Solution. 2 large and 3 small in $9\frac{1}{4}$ hours empty tank; 3 large and 2 small in $7\frac{1}{2}$ hours empty tank. If $\frac{1}{4}$ be multiplied by $\frac{1}{4}$ the result is $\frac{1}{16}$; \therefore times would be same in both cases; but since only $\frac{1}{4}$ of the time is taken in the first case, if the quantity of water remains unchanged the capacity of the taps must be increased by multiplying each by $\frac{1}{4}$, thus 2 large $\times \frac{1}{4}$ and 3 small $\times \frac{1}{4}$ in $9\frac{1}{4}$ hours empty tank; 3 large and 2 small in $7\frac{1}{2}$ hours empty tank. Now since times and quantities of water are same we get, 2 large $\times \frac{1}{4}$ + 3 small $\times \frac{1}{4} = 3$ large + 2 small, or 1 large = 4 small; from this the result is easily obtained.

14. What is the smallest sized hall that can be floored with boards either 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, or 12 inches wide, and either 10, 12, or 15 feet long?

Ans. 60 \times 70 feet.

"TWICE ONE IS TWO," OR "TWICE ONE ARE TWO"?—The difficulty presented by this question is most readily resolved by looking into the meaning of the word "is." Now, in the sentence "twice one is two," the equivalent of "is" is not "exists," but "exists in a particular manner or relation." "Is" is, therefore, a copula carrying over between "twice one" and "two" the idea of some relationship. This relationship is one of identity or of absolute naming, so that when "is" is given its auxiliary form, the sentence appears thus—"twice one is equal to two;" or thus—"twice one is called two." As an auxiliary, the form "is" rather than the form "are" is required, because the substantive is merely "one," a singular, modified by an adverb "twice," an adverb, truly, affecting very intimately its substantive, but still merely

performing the functions of an adverb, and accordingly varying the sense, but not the grammatical structure. Our correspondent will see that the reason necessitating "is" in the sentence given equally necessitates "is" in such a sentence as "twice two is four;" and though "twice two are four" is often heard it is none the less incorrect. Of course, the propriety of "two twos are four" is not hereby called in question, for here the *substantive* is plural, and the verb must therefore be plural in form. It is further to be remembered that "two" is as well an adjective as a substantive, and that sometimes the mere adjective is used where a substantive following such adjective is implied. In these cases the number of the verb is determined by the implied substantive.—*The Oracle.*

CONTEMPORARY OPINION ON EDUCATIONAL TOPICS.

HARVARD LECTURES ON
PEDAGOGY.*LANGUAGE AND ITS METHODS OF
INSTRUCTION.

LANGUAGE, we should bear in mind, is not a perfect machine, but one of the clumsiest; and no human mind can properly grasp it without having the natural process partly interfered with. The learning to read and write must likewise be accomplished by arbitrary processes; hence the great diversity in the methods of teaching it. Of these methods, many and various, we may first mention the *Spelling* method, as described by Quintilian, where spellings and meanings were inculcated by floggings, but no attention was paid to the sound of the letters; hence the great confusion in this latter particular in Roman letters. We then come to the artificial methods, one of which consisted in the twisting of forms of animals, trees, etc., into shapes of letters, as now shewn in old missals; another, by taking the initial letter of objects, as A, apple, etc. The next may be called the poetic method, the alphabet being taught by a series of doggerel rhymes. A fourth was by cards, a fifth by colours, another by dolls pasted over with letters. Basedow improved on these by making the letters out of sweet biscuits, till at last the children cried for the alphabet. Still another method was gesticulating with the assistance of a stick the various forms of the letters.

The first serious or at all philosophic attempt was by Gedike, which he called "Reading without A, B, C." It was a species of syllabic method, which his disciples transformed into the *euphonic* method, so ably ridiculed by Pinkerton. Pestalozzi would teach the children to spell forty or fifty words

by rote, to train the ear before commencing to learn the words. In France they inaugurated a "Mouth Consciousness" system. The pupil was required to go through a series of mouth gymnastics to develop a consciousness of the various positions of the mouth in the pronunciation of words. Each letter had a gymnastic name. P was called the "lip-shut-light" letter; M, the "lip-mum" letter, etc. Modified, this system has been very useful in the teaching of deaf mutes.

Scriptology, introduced and so named by Ratich, consisted in the writing of a number of red letters, over which the pupils wrote in black. We then come to the phonetic method as introduced by Bell, Lancaster, and others, and suggested still earlier in Germany, and which has reached its fullest development in Bell's system of visible speech. Graser introduced in 1817 a method which seems to me the most important. His precepts were: (1) Let the student write; (2) let him keep at it; (3) give him a stage of preparatory training. He writes words instead of letters, and analyzes them until he comes to the simplest letter of the alphabet. This method, though so well adapted to the German angular writing, has its defects with our English round hand. Jacotot followed with the sentence method, or the teaching of simple sentences. The child sees the sentence written, pronounces it, and writes the first word, and so on, till all the letters are written; and not till then is his attention called to the alphabet. From these sentences he is taught history, geography, arithmetic, etc., a series of selections doing duty as a universal text-book. Looking at these methods it is easy to see the confusion resulting, which was made worse confounded by the attempts made to introduce the Latin grammar methods.

In order to get any light on this matter we

* By Prof. G. S. Hall. Reprinted from the *New England Journal of Education*.

must ascertain, first, the way in which a child learns to speak; second, the various supposed origins of speech; third, we must learn from physiology. The infant makes noises, first, spontaneously; second, initiative or passively, the words being reflexes from the ear; and, lastly, consciously, when the child learns its will and the sign by which he can express it. Following the same idea there are three great sources from which language is said to be derived. One tells us that it comes from interjectional and exclamatory signs of emotion, differentiated and combined to suit man's varying wants. Another, that it is imitative of the noises of nature, such as cracking, whistling, etc. A third, that it is a conscious innovation; that people met together and agreed to say this for this thing, and that for another, etc. Here we have precisely the three stages by which the child learns to speak, and the teaching of reading or writing (which are much the same), if it be philosophical, must be based on the same process. Following these premises, we find ourselves not entirely with Graser, if nearly so, but following the methods employed in the best German schools of to-day.

The infant uses his hand with gesture; in like manner let the little child scribble without restraint or copy, and thus educate his eye and train his hand. Then give him a copy, preferably a word, not a letter, and let him copy it in a cursive hand. Let short sentences follow until the child can write the whole alphabet. Then call his attention to the phonetic sign; let him make it, sing it, and sound it. Training then may be given in other sounds, foreign to our language, for vocal gymnastic exercise. So let the child proceed to composition, the mind advancing synthetically and analytically at the same time. Thus the child first acts spontaneously, then imitates a copy, and lastly sees the way himself.

Of course, no method can be followed but imperfectly, and is open to criticism. The child will learn to speak or spell many words, the meaning of which he has no idea. Let him do so. It is his most receptive time. If he does not learn them then, it will be a

harder task to acquire them in after-life. Some of our most simple words he cannot possibly understand. But as well say that a child should have blinders on its eyes, as that it should be trained to speak only the vocabulary which the teacher prepares for it.

ENGLISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH.

AN American friend of mine, in response to the question by an Englishman (an exceedingly positive and dogmatic person, as it chanced), "Why do Englishmen never say 'I guess'?" replied (more wittily than justly), "Because they are always so positive about everything." But it is noteworthy that whereas the American says frequently "I guess," meaning "I know," the Englishman as freely lards his discourse with the expression "You know," which is, perhaps, more modest. Yet, on the other side, it may be noted, that the "down East" American often uses the expression "I want to know" in the same sense as our English expression of attentive interest "Indeed."

Among other familiar Americanisms may be mentioned the following:

An American who is interested in a narrative or statement will say "Is that so?" or simply "So!" The expression "Possible!" is sometimes but not often heard. Dickens misunderstood this exclamation as equivalent to "It is possible, but does not concern me;" whereas in reality it is equivalent to the expression "Is it possible?" I have occasionally heard the expression "Do tell!" but it is less frequently heard now than of yore.

The word "right" is more frequently used than in England, and is used also in senses different from those understood in our English usage of the word. Thus, the American will say "right here" and "right there," where an Englishman would say "just here" or "just there," or simply "here" or "there." Americans say "right away" where we say "directly." On the other hand, I am inclined to think that the English expression "right well," for "very well" is not commonly used in America.

Americans say "yes, sir," and "no, sir," with a sense different from that with which the words are used in England; but they mark the difference of sense by a difference of intonation. Thus, if a question is asked to which the reply in English would be simply "yes" or "no" (or, according to the rank or station of the querist, "yes, sir," or "no sir,") the American reply would be "yes, sir," or "no, sir," intonated as with us in England. But if the reply is intended to be emphatic, then the intonation is such as to throw the emphasis on the word "sir"—the reply is "yes, *sir*," or "no, *sir*." In passing, I may note that I have never heard an American waiter reply "yessir," as our English waiters do.

The American use of the word "quit" is peculiar. They do not limit the word, as we do, to the signification "take leave"—in fact, I have never heard an American use the word in that sense. They generally use it as an equivalent to "leave off" or "stop." (In passing, one may notice as rather strange the circumstance that the word "quit," which properly means "to go away from," and the word "stop," which means to "stay," should both have to be used as signifying to "leave off.") Thus Americans say "quit fooling" for "leave off playing the fool," "quit singing," "quit laughing," and so forth.

To English ears an American use of the word "some" sounds strange—viz., as an adverb. An American will say, "I think some of buying a new house," or the like, "for I have some idea of buying," etc. I have indeed heard the usage defended as perfectly correct, though assuredly there is not an instance in all the wide range of English literature which will justify it.

So, also, many Americans defend as good English the use of the word "good" in such phrases as the following; "I have written that note good," for "well;" "that will make you feel good," for "that will do you good," and in other ways all equally incorrect. Of course, there are instances in which adjectives are allowed by custom to be used as adverbs, as, for instance, "right" for "right-

ly," etc., but there can be no reason for substituting the adjective "good" in place of the adverb "well," which is as short a word and at least equally euphonious. The use of "real" for "really," as "real angry," "real nice," is, of course, grammatically indefensible.

The use of the word "elegant" for "fine" strikes English ears as strange. For instance, if you say to an American, "This is a fine morning," he is likely to reply, "It *is* an elegant morning," or perhaps oftener by using simply the word "Elegant." It is not a pleasing use of the word.

There are some Americanisms which seem more than defensible—in fact, grammatically more correct than our English usage. Thus, we seldom hear in America the redundant word "got" in such expressions as "I have got," etc., etc. Where the word would not be redundant, it is yet generally replaced by the more euphonious word "gotten," now scarcely ever heard in England. Yet again, we often hear in America such expressions as "I shall get me a new book," "I have gotten me a dress," "I must buy me that," and the like. This use of "me" for "myself" is good old English, at any rate.

I have been struck by the circumstance that neither the conventional, but generally very absurd, American of our English novelists, nor the conventional, but at least equally absurd, Englishman of American novelists, is made to employ the more delicate Americanisms or Anglicisms. We generally find the American "guessing" or "calculating" if not even more coarsely Yankee, like Reade's Joshua Fullalove, while the Englishman of American novels is almost always very coarsely British, even if he is not represented as using what Americans persist in regarding as the true "Henglish haccent." Where an American is less coarsely drawn, as Trollope's "American Senator," he uses expressions which no American ever uses, and none of those Americanisms which, while more delicate, are in reality more characteristic, because they are common, all Americans using them. And in like manner, when an American writer introduces an Eng-

lishman of the more natural sort he never makes him speak as an Englishman would speak; before half a dozen sentences have been uttered he uses some expression which is purely American. Thus no Englishman ever uses, and no American may be recognized at once by using, such expressions as "I know it" or "That's so," for "It is true," by saying "Why, certainly," for "certainly," and so forth. There are a great number of these slight but characteristic peculiarities of American and English English.—*R. A. Procter, in the Gentleman's Magazine.*

THE TEACHER'S VEXATIONS.

THERE are two sorts of vexations that haunt the work of the teacher. There is the vexation that plunges its object into a slough of worryment. The public school-teacher, like any public character, is at the mercy of public rumour; even more is the teacher in the private school or the family the butt of the personal whims and neighbourhood gossip of patrons. As a great deal of such criticism, even of mediocre teachers, is unjust, and as a strong personality in the school-room, like a lively boy in a meadow, wakes up all the hornets and mosquitoes within his beat, this sort of vexation is a perpetual worryment. It is useless to fret against it. It is one of the perquisites of the profession. But the faithful teacher may remember that his position is one of the noblest on earth, and, calling to mind the example of the Great Teacher, bear his worryment with all the religious consecration and fortitude he may command, trusting to time and God's providence for his reward.

But there is another sort of vexation which too many teachers make a worryment through their own ignorance, their narrow professional outlook, and their own personal conceit. The teacher, in any kind of school, is greatly exposed to criticism of the higher sort. He professes the ability to do, and demands a

living and public respect for doing, the most delicate and important work of instructing the minds and training the character of children. Every parent of children, every superior person, every good citizen has the right to test this pretension, by all fair methods, and to publish his conclusion in all charitable and effective ways. And, as the best of us are somewhat afflicted with partisanship and various infirmities of temper, the teacher must be prepared for a good deal of valuable advice and criticism delivered in ways not the sweetest, often coming down like an avalanche. Just now the air is full of this sort of criticism of schools and teachers. The superior people of the country are thoroughly awake to the education of their children, and are determined to find out the "true inwardness" of everything calling itself a school, and to take the measure of everybody that assumes the great name of Teacher. This inquiry will not decline, but increase. For years to come, the schoolmaster and mistress will be compelled, more and more, to work under fire of remark, suggestion and censure from the whole upper region of American life.

Now, the test of a real teacher is the ability to use this sort of vexation as an inspiration. It is enough to condemn any instructor of children to see him closing up against this legitimate examination by the upper side of the community. If any man or woman cannot discern the meaning of this great awakening of public interest in school affairs—cannot feel encouraged and ennobled in becoming the centre of such observation—cannot separate the gold from the dross in this mountain of advice—cannot learn to aspire through all the trials of the profession, the people can well afford to dispense with a servant so blind and deaf and unimpressible. The humblest teacher that has the "root of the matter" in him, may learn in this valuable school of public life the soul of the teacher's gospel—the gospel of Aspiration.—*New England Journal of Education.*

CONTRIBUTORS' DEPARTMENT.

PROFESSIONAL SELF-RESPECT.

To the Editor of the C. F. Monthly.

SIR,—I have been greatly delighted with the tone of the articles, whether editorial, contributed, or selected, appearing in the MONTHLY—so much more dignified and manly than the bulk of what passes under the title of Educational literature. May that quiet dignity which proceeds from self-respect continue to distinguish your columns, till the miserable self-conceit and puerility that have so long disgraced alike the literature of the profession and too many of its members, shall have given place to an independent, self-reliant, manly bearing, commanding the respect of those whose respect is worth having.

In the May-June number (page 202), appears an article containing some statements in the way of advice to young teachers to which, however, decided objection must be taken. If *tact* on the part of a young teacher consists in seeking out the salient weaknesses of parents, that he may ingratiate himself by taking advantage of them, then *tact* is a thing which no teacher who respects himself will wish to possess.

It is true that mothers and fathers (but in proportion to their want of education and knowledge of the world) are inclined to think their own children the best of the race and as near perfection as may be; but that teachers should be advised deliberately to take advantage of this amiable weakness in order to acquire influence with parents is not only *infra dignitatem* but dishonest and utterly contemptible. And the succeeding paragraph, in which the teacher is told to avoid talking politics unless with a man of the same opinions as himself; to be sure to take sufficient notice of heads of families, when, by the use of a little *tact*, on your part, you can leave upon their minds a good impression of yourself, and, what is equally important,

an exalted one of their own opinions and abilities—savours altogether too much of scheming and toadyism. Popularity gained by such tactics is not worth having. It is the stigma of pedagogy, that too much of this time-serving, cringing spirit has characterized it in the past. True, there is great competition among teachers just now, and if you don't make yourself a favourite with the ratepayers they can easily replace you. Granted. But till we can get a body of men and women in the profession who are willing to lose their situations rather than lose their self-respect, teaching will not reach the social level that we bespeak for it. The only popularity a teacher should want is such as is consistent with a straightforward, manly bearing, and a personal independence which waives no right of manhood, whether social, religious, or political.

A. MCGILL.

Ryckman's Corners.

THE SCRIPTURES IN OUR SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of the C. E. Monthly.

SIR,—Your remarks in the September number of the MONTHLY, on Religious Instruction, are full of interest. No one should deplore the absence of the Bible from our schools more than the truly conscientious teacher. The teaching of secular subjects is by no means the most important thing in education, and yet those "educational race-heats" choke off everything in the shape of purely moral training. Of course a good moral example is an excellent thing to place before the pupils, but it is in itself quite insufficient. Unfortunately the juvenile mind is more susceptible to evil than to moral tendencies. It therefore needs its attention to be drawn expressly to the principles which govern the life of the teacher, who is an example for good to his pupils. This is a matter of great moment. The future of our

youth depends upon it to a much greater extent than is generally recognized.

Dr. Wilson very properly lays great stress upon that informal dropping of the seed, which should form a part of every teacher's system. But he also says "it would seem to be by no means beyond the range of probabilities that a selection of approved Scripture lessons, unobjectionable to Catholics and Protestants, might be determined on for such a simple daily service." This, I think, is exactly what is required. The reading of a short passage, chosen at random, followed by the authorized prayers, is in many cases little more than a mockery, and I think I am safe in saying that it is entirely unproductive of the good required.

For some time past I have made a selection of lessons from the historical portion of the Bible, commencing with the account of the Creation. I have found that a few verses read, and rendered into English intelligible to very small children, has been successful in creating an interest, and in fixing the attention. The law requires the teaching of the Commandments. What will impress them better, or interest the pupils more, than the account of the children of Israel at Mount Sinai? I had much more difficulty in teaching the Commandments before we came to this lesson than subsequently.

I am convinced that a set of lessons unobjectionable to both religious sects could be determined upon without much difficulty, and that such a set of lessons would prove a boon to teachers and a blessing to the country.

Yours etc., TEACHER.

Madoc.

THE INTERMEDIATE EXAMINATION.

To the Editor of the C. E. Monthly.

SIR,—Your strictures in the September number of the MONTHLY upon the *modus operandi* of the Intermediate Examination, "that pestilent visitor of our High Schools," have been made not a day too soon. I am sorry indeed, that they did not appear sooner. When masters consider how much in many instances, I may say in almost every instance,

depends upon the results of these examinations, it becomes absolutely necessary, that the Minister of Education should exercise the greatest care in seeing that the reading of the candidates' papers is conducted in the most satisfactory manner possible. If this examination is to continue the test by which teachers' positions, salaries, and reputations, are to be determined, it surely is high time that the Minister of Education is compelled to adopt a different method of selecting sub-examiners and of assigning their work. Impecunious lawyers and law-students have no right to supplant teachers in the work which specially belongs to them, and for which they surely ought to be better fitted than those who have had little or no experience in the business. As a teacher of many years' experience, and as an examiner of teachers for the last nine years, I consider eight hours a day too many for the majority of examiners to sit and read papers that should be valued as accurately as possible. I agree with you, that, during the examination, examiners should be required to give their attention fully to the work in hand; and that no such practices as you mention should be tolerated. If teachers and inspectors were assigned to this work, they could have no reasonable excuse for attending to any other business during the reading of the Intermediate papers. When I consider the cost of this examination to the country, and the miserable results, chiefly growing out of the system under which it is conducted, I think it time for its abolition to be made a live question with the High School Masters. Surely Head Masters of High Schools are fully competent to judge whether a pupil is fit for promotion from the Lower to the Upper school. The University examinations are now taken as the standard for Non-professional First Class certificates. I think that Third and Second Class certificates may be provided for in a similar manner. Can't some well-digested scheme be arranged and submitted to the Minister, and if possible have this bugbear, the "Intermediate," abolished? Hoping that others interested may take up the matter.

I remain, etc. A. M.

HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

UNIVERSITY EXAMINATIONS.

AT the late Senior Matriculation Examinations no scholarships were awarded. This means that the University Examiners are raising the standard so as to put it on a level with that of the First Year Examinations, or that a worse class of students than usual presented themselves. We are of the opinion that the former alternative is the one to choose. If this surmise be correct, we may say that the action of the authorities has been taken not a moment too soon. It is well known that this examination has been regarded as a sort of back-door into the University, and, as the Scholarship-men have seldom held their own at subsequent examinations, the honors obtained have not been highly valued by the general public. In some respects, indeed, Senior Matriculation resembles a "consolation match." As there must be a considerable amount of expense connected with holding the examinations, it seems to us that the wiser plan would be to require those who wish to enter at the First Examination to pass the same test as the students who go up in May. This course would secure uniformity, lessen the cost, and throw more money into the general Scholarship Fund. We have always regarded the Senior Matriculation Examination as an anomaly. Why should a candidate for matriculation not come up at the First, Second, Third, or Final Examination, as it may suit his convenience? It is not well that restrictions of any kind should be placed on a young man's obtaining his degree.

It would not be out of place for the University Senate to exercise more care in selecting examiners. The wholly unsuitable character of the papers set by one examiner at the June Matriculation Examination has been the subject of adverse newspaper comment,

and we believe we express the general feeling when we say that the strictures were deserved. An examiner troubled with crotchets is as bad as an examiner deficient in scholarship. It is one of the misfortunes of a new country that there are few men whose ability is so generally admitted that they can resist the temptation to obtain a reputation for profundity at the expense of the educational interests of the Province. An examiner of students prepared in schools in all parts of the country should remember that his line of questioning will largely decide the course pursued by the teachers of his subject, and that while his main duty is to find out how much the candidate knows, he should perform it in such a way as to direct the energies of the masters into the proper channel. Last month we advocated, in connection with the Intermediate, the necessity of appointing as sub-examiners only those who possess some experience in teaching and examining. We believe that the adoption of the same course by the Senate would be productive of considerable advantage to education. It is true that even the exaction of this qualification might not always secure competent examiners, but it is equally true that the course we suggest would render the desired result more probable. We are altogether opposed to the appointment of raw Honor men. For some time after his success the medallist labours under the delusion that his judgment is as unimpeachable as his scholarship, and eagerly seizes the opportunity afforded him by an examinership of proving to the world the correctness of his opinion. The feeling is quite natural. Every one remembers the story of the Cambridge Wrangler who mistook for a tribute to his own genius the ovation to the Queen when she happened to enter the theatre at the same time as himself. Of course there is a difficulty in procuring com-

petent men, but we believe the masters of the Province, who are especially interested in this question, would prefer the longer retention of competent men to the present unsatisfactory arrangement.

In his publication of the results of the Matriculation Examinations this year, the Registrar did not indicate in the *Globe* and *Mail* the schools in which the successful candidates were prepared. This seems to be an uncalled-for change. These examinations are regarded as the main tests of the efficiency of a school, and it is only right that the practice that is pursued elsewhere should be maintained in Toronto University. In the "Essays of a Country Parson," the changes of opinion to which mankind are subject are likened to the swinging of a pendulum. There is much force in the simile. A few years ago there was a perfect mania for this mode of publishing results. Now the pendulum has swung round through the whole arc.

LEGISLATIVE AID TO HIGH SCHOOLS.

THE proposal made by the High School Masters, that each school should receive as a fixed sum from Government one quarter of the amount paid in teachers' salaries, deserves the serious consideration of the Department. We cannot say as much for the proposal to continue the Grant on the result of the Intermediate. The resolution passed on this subject must not be regarded as expressing the general opinion of the masters. It was carried by a very narrow majority, and then on the supposition that its adoption would in some inscrutable way increase the income of the smaller schools. We hope that in the best interests of education the Minister may see fit to abolish the Intermediate as a general examination for High School pupils. Of course, it must be retained for teachers and for the professions that accept it as their Matriculation examination. Some of its effects are so pernicious that, as matters stand, no good it accomplished can justify its maintenance. Surely faithful discharge of duty on the part of the

masters can be secured by some other expedient, and inefficiency cured by some less drastic remedy—by a remedy that will not punish the just as well as the unjust.

The resolution referring to salaries, if carried out by the Department, is, we believe, as reasonable a proposal as has yet been made. We make bold to state that in the long run the amounts paid in teachers' salaries by Boards generally vary directly as the *quantity* and *quality* of the work done—and this is just what we want. It is true that there may be for a time places in which the masters may be underpaid; but work tells, and if one Board will not pay a master for his services another will. There are two advantages connected with this mode of distribution we particularly admire, and they are (1) the greater stability of the Grant—for the larger portion will depend on local effort—and (2) the fact that all remedies will be applied gradually. But next month we propose to take up this whole question in detail,

HIGH SCHOOL SECTION.

THE following is a summary of the proceedings in the High School Section at the August meeting:

On Tuesday morning the only subject of discussion was in reference to a motion by Mr. Millar, of St. Thomas, which was seconded by Mr. Reid—to the effect that the regulation of the University requiring attendance on lectures at an affiliated College should be rescinded—which was put to the vote and declared lost.

On Wednesday the resolutions prepared by the Joint Committee appointed last session to consider the manner of distributing the Legislative grants to High Schools were considered clause by clause. The following were adopted:—1st. That the fixed grant to each High School or Collegiate Institute be one-fourth of the amount paid for teachers' salaries. 2nd. That a portion of the grant be given on general average attendance, and that a further sum of say \$3 per pupil be granted on the average attendance during the preceding year of those who pass the

Intermediate Examination. 3rd. That the clause in the statute relating to the establishment of Collegiate Institutes should be repealed in so far as regards the required attendance of a certain number of boys in Latin or Greek. 4th. That in the opinion of this section Collegiate Institutes should continue to exist, but that the basis of establishment and continuance should be broadened by including girls as well as boys, and by recognizing other studies as well as Latin and Greek; to which was added, that in the opinion of this section no school should receive a total grant of less than \$400, or more than the highest grant paid to any school this year. 5th. That in the interest of secondary education it is desirable that a minimum fee of say \$5 per annum should be established in all High Schools, provided some arrangement be made to meet the case of those towns which contain High Schools, and whose Public Schools contain no Fifth and Sixth Classes.

Moved by Mr. McHenry, seconded by Mr. Bowerman, and carried, That in the opinion of this section the standard for admission to High Schools should remain as at present, but that some suitable elementary text-book in English History should be prescribed for Public Schools.

Mr. Millar moved, seconded by Mr. Hodgson, That this section think that questionable advertising and like methods of inducing students to remove from institutions to which they fairly belong for the purpose of building up large Collegiate Institutes and High Schools have the effect of lowering the professional respect of teachers. Carried *nem. con.*

What questionable advertising meant was not plain, and the Executive Committee was

requested to define it, and report at the next annual meeting.

A motion by Mr. McHenry, seconded by Mr. Fessenden, was carried, requesting Messrs. Seath and MacMurchy to prepare a resolution anent the retirement of Dr. Tassie.

The section then proceeded to the election of officers for the next year.

It was moved by Mr. Strang, seconded by Mr. Reid, That the Executive Committee for the ensuing year be composed of Messrs. McHenry (Chairman), Fessenden (Secretary), MacMurchy, Purslow, McGregor, and A. Millar (Walkerton); and that the Legislative Committee be composed of Messrs. Seath, Millar (St. Thomas), and Hunter. Carried.

Mr. Strang moved, and Mr. Robinson seconded, That in the opinion of this section it is desirable that the course of study prescribed for the town school should be revised so as to make it more flexible, especially in the case of girls, and to secure the payment of greater attention to the higher English branches. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Robinson, seconded by Mr. Hodgson, That in the opinion of the High School section the amount of Latin and French prescribed for the Intermediate is too great, and that the programme should be amended by striking out *Cicero Pro Archia*, or some equivalent, and a portion of the French. Carried.

Moved by Mr. A. MacMurchy, seconded by Mr. H. J. Strang, That the cordial thanks of this section be conveyed to Dr. Tassie for the careful attention which he gave the interests of the High School section while he acted as their representative on the Senate, and that they desire to express their regret at his withdrawal from a profession in which he laboured so long and successfully. Carried.

PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

[Contributed to, and under the management of, Mr. S. McAllister, Headmaster of Ryerson School, Toronto.]

LONDON SCHOOL-BOARD EXAMINATION PAPERS.

*Scholarship Examination, Wednesday,
June 29, 1881, 9.30 to 11.30.*

ARITHMETIC.

1. If a certain number be taken from two million and two, the remainder will be seven hundred and nine thousand and eight. What is the number?

2. If a tradesman makes $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ profit on every shilling's worth of goods he sells, what amount of goods must he sell a year to be in receipt of an income of £100?

3. Simplify the following fractions :—

$$\frac{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4}}{2\frac{1}{2} + 3\frac{1}{4} + 4\frac{1}{8}} \div \frac{\frac{2}{3} \text{ of } \frac{3}{4}}{\frac{2}{3} \text{ of } \frac{3}{8}}$$

4. A man after paying income-tax at the rate of $2d.$ in the pound, found he had £178 10s. left. What was his original income?

5. A man bought a horse and saddle. The saddle cost a third of the whole, and the horse cost £60. What was the cost of both?

6. Find the difference between $\frac{6}{7}$ of a guinea and $\frac{3}{4}$ of a shilling.

7. If 18 men can dig a trench 36 yards long in 24 days by working 8 hours a day, how many men will dig a trench 48 yards long in 56 days, working 9 hours a day?

8. What sum of money will produce £591 12s. 4d. as simple interest in 4 years at $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.?

9. How much paper $\frac{3}{4}$ yard wide would be needed to paper a room 30 feet long, 24 feet wide, and $12\frac{1}{2}$ feet high?

10. If by selling oranges at 24 for 1s. 6d., I gain 50 per cent., at what price ought I to sell them per dozen to gain $66\frac{2}{3}$ per cent.?

HISTORY.

1. State what you know of the following

persons :—Hereward, Becket, John Hampden, Wiclif, Milton, Lord Clarendon.

2. What were the grievances which Magna Charta was intended to remedy?

3. Give some account of the circumstances in which the English possessions in France were acquired and lost.

4. What kings were sitting on the throne at the commencement of each century from 900 to 1800?

5. Give some account of the conquest of Scotland.

6. Explain the following terms :—“Vilain,” “Homage,” “Lord Paramount,” “High Treason,” “Free Trade,” “Attainder,” “the Repeal of the Corn Laws.”

7. Give the dates of the following events :—The Battle of Bannockburn, the trial of the Seven Bishops, the abdication of James II., the beginning of the American War of Independence. State what you know of them.

8. Trace the descent of Queen Victoria from Henry VII.

9. What are the chief differences between England as it is now and as it was in the days of King Alfred.

10. What great changes took place in the condition of the working class between A.D. 1066 and A.D. 1600?

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

1. Parse the words in italics in the following passage :—

*No mate, no comrade, Lucy knew ;
She dwelt on a wild moor—
The sweetest thing that ever grew
Beside a cottage door.*

2. Analyse the foregoing passage.

3. To which parts of speech may the word *that* belong? Give instances.

4. Give instances of (a) nouns that are sometimes singular and sometimes plural, (b) nouns that have no singular, (c) nouns that have a plural form but a singular meaning.

5. What do you mean by (a) a transitive verb, (b) a copulative verb, (c) the passive voice, (d) a direct object? Give examples.

6. Parse fully the words in italics in the following sentences:—He *became* a great man. He *laid* the book down. The book *lay* on the table. He *is gone*. He *is ruined*.

7. What diminutives are formed from *leaf, duck, brook, lamb, hill, goose, part, cat, man*?

8. Analyse the following sentences:—(a) I have what I want. (b) Where he lived no one knew. (c) The place where he lived is now sold. (d) He lived where he could.

GEOGRAPHY.

1. What seaports would you pass in sailing from Hamburg to Cadiz?

2. What are the chief causes that determine the climate of England?

3. Describe the course of the Rhine, stating what tributaries it receives, and what towns stand on it.

4. Where are the following places, and for what are they famous:—Quebec, Quito, Teheran, Agra, Dantzic, Florence, Bergen, Limerick, Glasgow, Leipsic, Odessa, Trieste, Buenos Ayres?

5. What accounts for the situation and importance of the following towns:—Hull, Liverpool, Birmingham, Leeds, Merthyr Tydvil, Bristol?

6. Where are the following English possessions, and state what are their exports:—Newfoundland, Jamaica, New Zealand, New South Wales, Queensland, Ceylon, British Columbia?

7. State from what countries we get the following commodities:—(a) Sugar, (b) coffee, (c) cotton, (d) raw silk, (e) copper, (f) mahogany, (g) oranges, (h) raisins, (i) cork.

8. Name the principal (a) lakes of America, (b) rivers of South America, (c) mountains of Hindostan, (d) seaports of Russia, (e) islands in the West Indies,

9. What are the great differences between the Old World and the New?

The following are some of the remarks of the examiner, Canon Daniel, upon the results of this examination:—"Some of the papers would afford amusing problems to those persons who believe that there is always a good reason for a wrong answer. One candidate calculated that over fifty miles of paper would be required to cover the walls of an ordinary room. Great numbers of candidates failed to solve the simple problem concerning the horse and saddle. The most common faults in the geography papers were: (1) Inaccuracy; (2) bad arrangement; (3) irrelevancy. Among some of the more extraordinary answers were the following:—"The climate of England determines to be rather unhealthy on account of its having so many smells and stinks, such as tanners and many others." "The Old World naturally was Europe, and now the new world is Europe, Asia, etc." "Buenos is in Germany; Ayres in France." The history papers contain statements of a still more startling character:—"Milton wrote a sensible poem, called 'Canterbury Tales.'" "Henry II. got drinking intoxicating liquors until he was commonly called drunk." "Magna Charta was so that the people should not worship the place where Moses died." "Magna Charta was ordered by the king to be beheaded. He fled to Italy, but was captured and executed." "Free Trade means not connected with any other establishment, and charging no discount." One boy describes Henry II. as doing penance for his share in Becket's death by walking barefoot and receiving "wacks with a berch." The grammar questions were creditably answered; the parsing in particular was very good; but the answers on the analysis of sentences were not satisfactory. The ludicrous answers given above are not without their value, but should not be regarded as a fair sample of the answers submitted to me. Bearing in mind the age of the candidates, I feel bound to say that the results of the examination are most encouraging to all who are interested in elementary education."

PHILOSOPHY OF QUESTIONING.

I.—CLASSIFICATION.

1. Introductory, preliminary, or experimental question.
2. Exposition or questions of instruction.
3. Review, test, or examination questions.

II.—LAWS OF QUESTIONING.

1. Questions should be definite.
2. Questions should be logical.
3. Questions should be adapted.

III.—OBJECT OF QUESTIONING.

1. To increase the pupil's knowledge.
2. To develop originality.
3. To develop individuality.
4. To awaken thought.
5. To deepen impression of thought.
6. To promote progress.
7. To cultivate a love for study.
8. To develop mental power.

IV.—CAUTIONS.

1. Vary the questions.
2. Ask an easy question at first.
3. Do not suggest the first words of the answer.
4. Do not ridicule an answer.
5. Do not lean in slavish dependence upon the text-book.
6. Learn to teach without the text-book.
7. Let pupils question one another.
8. Challenge pupil's knowledge.
9. Do not let the question carry with it the answer.
10. Avoid set questions.
11. Avoid general questions.
12. Avoid direct questions.
13. Be critical but not hypercritical.

—*New York Teachers' Institute.*

MOSES.—*Teacher*: Why did Moses' mother hide him among the reeds? *Pupil*: Because she didn't want to have him vaccinated.

COMPARISONS ARE ODIUS.—The correspondent who sends the following vouches for its actual occurrence: *Teacher*: Compare the adjective *ill*. *Scholar* (after a little consideration): *Ill*, worse, dead!

HOW TO CONDUCT A RECITATION.

I.—DIRECTION.

1. A brief reproduction of the preceding lesson.
2. A brief review of the preceding lesson.
3. Rehearsal and critical examination of the daily lesson.
4. Recapitulation of the daily lesson.
5. Adequate preparation for the advanced lesson.

II.—CAUTIONS.

1. Teach one thing at a time.
2. Begin at the beginning.
3. Fix and hold the attention.
4. Cultivate exact, concise, and ready expression.
5. Comprehend the difference between "hearing a recitation," and teaching.

III.—RESULTS.

1. The development of the faculties.
2. The acquisition of knowledge.
3. The application to the uses of life.
4. The cultivation of self-reliance and self-possession.
5. Be thorough—not "how much," but "how well."

Employ that method which will best enable you to effect the desired results.

The learned Dr. Arnold, of Rugby, was once asked why he took such great care to prepare himself for each recitation. He replied that "he would rather his pupils would drink from a fresh and living fountain, than a dead and stagnant pool."—*New York Teachers' Institute.*

THE DESCENDANTS OF HAM.—The question was, "What people are considered to be descended from Ham?" "Niggers," answered one boy about the middle of the class. "Right," said the master; "but the correct word is——?" "Kniggerbockers," shouted out the master's favourite at the foot of the class,

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

CÆSAR'S BELLUM BRITANNICUM, with Introductory Notes and Complete Vocabulary. For the use of Intermediate and University Classes. By John Henderson, M.A., Classical Master of St. Catharines Collegiate Institute. Toronto: Copp, Clark & Co. 1881.

THIS text-book is distinguished from most of its class by a Life of Cæsar prefixed to the text, of sufficient length and interest to teach the student something more than a bare outline of facts with regard to the great man, a portion of whose writings they are about to study. This "Life" is simply and unambitiously written; it gives all the important facts, put together in a manner sure to impress the memory. The view of "Cæsar's character," given separately at the conclusion of this brief biography, is an excellent thought; it sums up and points the teaching of the preceding pages. This is followed by a "Chronological Table of the Times of Cæsar," which puts the biography of Cæsar and the contemporary history of Rome in a tabular form, together with the synchronous development of Roman literature, given in a parallel column. At page 19 there is a brief account of the sources of Roman history from the earliest times, with a list of the principal Roman historians, their dates, and chief works.

A singularly "happy thought" on the part of Mr. Henderson has been to furnish a list of the several Roman invasions of Britain. This is well thought of in connection with such a cardinal event in history as Cæsar's invasions of Britain. It is most useful that the student should be able to run his thoughts at a moment's notice over the steps by which Roman supremacy was secured in Britain. No edition of the *Bellum Britannicum*, of all the text-books we have seen, has such ample and well-digested tables as these. The text is fairly printed; the notes are well written, evincing scholarship and an intelligent perception of the needs of pupils.

The vocabulary has the merit of giving a little more etymology than some publishers think good for the youthful mind. A useful feature in this edition is the frequent reference to Harkness's grammar, as also to that which Mr. Henderson does well to commend, the grammar of Messrs. Allen and Greenough.

SHAKESPEARE'S TRAGEDY OF CORIOLANUS, edited, with notes, by William J. Rolfe, A.M. New York: Harper & Brothers; Toronto: Willing & Williamson.

THIS edition is worthy of a place with the others of Shakspeare's selected plays which have been elucidated by Mr. Rolfe. He adheres to his usual method, which indeed could not well be improved, and the manner in which he executes his plan only calls for fresh praise. It is an eminently useful little book, and *Coriolanus* is a play which, despite the simplicity of its motive, requires a good deal of explanation. In one passage we find Mr. Rolfe's notes and text at variance; we refer to Act i. sc. iii. line 42, where he admits Collier's reading,

"At Grecian swords conterning,"

to be "on the whole the best emendation that has been proposed." Yet he follows the Cambridge editors in substituting "sword" for "swords," an uncalled for and ill-judged alteration. It is singular, too, that having very properly placed weight on the use of the word "contemning" instead of "condemning" in the above passage, Mr. Rolfe should have omitted to perceive that the same substitution would remove the difficulty in Act i. sc. viii. line 15, where Aufidius objects to the "condemned seconds" of the Volsces who have interfered between him and Coriolanus.

Rather a curious effect is produced by the illustration of the "hungry beach" whose pebbles were hyperbolically supposed by Coriolanus to "fillip the stars." The artist has made the downward blow of the breaker very actually and positively shoot the stones straight up into the air, quite regardless of the fact that both Shakspeare and Coriolanus describe it as an "impossibility!"

EDITORIAL NOTES.

THE DEAD PRESIDENT.

OUR last number had passed from under our hands before the grim Conqueror, with the odds tremendously in his favour, had ended the play of life and death which for eighty days had drawn all eyes to the bedside of the stricken President, and in spite of a nation's prayers and a world's solicitude, had closed a tragedy which will live long in the hearts of millions. Elsewhere in the present number the mournful event, which well lends itself to treatment by the elegiac muse, receives a fitting, sympathetic tribute. But here, also, we may be permitted to hang the garland of a few prose-words upon the tomb of a true man, who, seeking neither honour nor place, but in the path of duty called unexpectedly to the highest seat in the nation, won both imperishably. The universality and spontaneity of the grief which the death of President Garfield has called forth has only been equalled by its intensity, an intensity which the minute detail of each day's record of progress or relapse from the period when the miscreant's bullet sped its way into the sufferer's side, did much to call forth. But there was more than this to quicken the sympathy and to deepen the sorrow of the millions on both sides of the Atlantic who daily scanned the bulletins for tidings of the President's condition, and who were at last to learn that the struggle was over and that the surgeon's skill and the tending hand of love could do no more. There was more even than the spectacle of pain resolutely endured, of heroic fortitude and Christian resignation. There was the knowledge that the chosen of a great nation had fallen a martyr to the disease which has long been preying upon its vitals, and who, strong in a patriot's strength, had given his life to cleanse it of its foulness. Nor was the sacrifice that

of a mere politician, actuated by the motives of his kind, and looking no higher than the downfall of a clique opposed to him. The man and the work were far other than this. Death, no doubt, brings its idolatries, and the press has probably spoken extravagant words of Garfield. But this is true of the man, that in him were embodied the worthiest qualities of human nature. Few, indeed, have come to the Presidential office better fitted, morally and intellectually, to preside over the nation. His whole career as a public man testifies to this. But of the elements that were great in him none shine so conspicuously as his honesty and his courage. Eighteen years of public life left no stain upon him, while his loyalty to duty and his fearlessness in pursuit of it, whether as soldier, schoolmaster, or statesman, are noble incentives to his countrymen. His sense of honour was ever acute, and he frowned upon boss-rule as if it were the plague. Had he lived what work, we ask ourselves, would he not have done! How he would have repressed machine politics, and what a crusade he would have led against the spoils system! But alas, this was not to be, and the chance that was the nation's has for the present passed by. Yet do we hope that whatever is good in the nation has received a new impulse from his life and death. Those who believe in the deep, strong current of the Divine influence in human affairs will feel that certainly there was a design in the sacrifice he was called upon to make. An event which so impressed itself upon all, hushing the clamour of faction and quelling, we trust not merely momentarily, much of turbulence and wrong, was surely fraught with some lasting, beneficent purpose. The surge of moral emotion throughout two continents, which bespoke reverence for exalted worth and keenest sympathy with the mis-

fortune that had laid him low, must surely issue in some good, at least to the people of his own nation. Whatever the lesson is to bring forth, we will hope the best from the change in the national administration. President Arthur has said that "all the noble aspirations of my lamented predecessor which found expression in his life . . . will be garnered in the hearts of the people; and it will be my earnest endeavour to profit, and to see that the nation shall profit, by his example and experience." In this the new Chief Magistrate will best commend himself to universal approval, and most effectually impress the lesson which the tragic death of President Garfield is peculiarly fitted at the present time to teach to the American people.

THE 1881 GILCHRIST SCHOLARSHIP.

UNDER peculiarly annoying circumstances Mr. W. H. Huston, of Whitby, an ex-pupil of the Collegiate Institute of that town, has lost the Dominion Gilchrist Scholarship for the year, though he has the honour of winning the position in the competition which should have entitled him to the prize. It seems that competitors for the scholarship are ineligible if, on the examination day, they have exceeded their twenty-second year. The regulations governing the competition, issued by the Ontario Provincial Secretary, not clearly stating the above fact, and Mr. Huston being in doubt whether the competitor must be twenty-two at the time of his notifying the Government of his intention to compete, viz., on the 1st of May, or at the date (the 20th of June) when the examinations are simultaneously held in the Dominion, he applied to the Provincial Secretary to be definitely informed upon the point. The official reply to the interrogation was duly received by Mr. Huston, and was to the effect that "a candidate who has not completed his twenty-second year at the time of his application is eligible for the scholarship." Thus assured, Mr. Huston, who, by the way, completed his twenty-second year on the 17th of June, came up for his examination

on the 20th of that month, with the result which, in due time, was reported by the authorities in England to the Provincial Secretary's office, and through that channel to Mr. Huston,—that he had won the prize, but that as he had reached his twenty-second birthday three days before the date of his examination, it had been given to the next eligible candidate—a student of Dalhousie College, Halifax. The keen disappointment which this unlooked-for decision occasioned Mr. Huston may be imagined, and all will sympathize with the young gentleman in his loss and annoyance. Manifestly, a compensation should be made by the Provincial Secretary, to atone in some degree for the misleading information he supplied, which resulted so untowardly to Mr. Huston. This will be the merest act of justice, and we trust that the Government will see that it is promptly and handsomely done. In any case, Mr. Huston may properly plume himself upon the honour of winning the Scholarship, and we congratulate him and the school in which he received his training, upon his success.

"THE SCHOOL JOURNAL" AND THE INSPECTOR FOR WENTWORTH.

OUR flabby contemporary, *The School Journal*, in its issue for September, continues its inane attacks on the Hamilton Collegiate Institute and its Principal, who is also Supervisor of the City Schools. Neither the Institute nor the official referred to are in need of defence from our pen. We have no intention, therefore, to take part in the fray. Our present purpose is to say a word in regard to the *Journal's* dragging into the controversy the Inspector of Wentworth, whom, in an article on "Questionable Advertising for Pupils," it accuses of subservience to the Head of the Hamilton school system, and insinuates that he acts as "drummer" to the Collegiate Institute, in the County over which he has jurisdiction. Nothing, we need hardly say, could be further from the truth, as all will admit who

know anything of Mr. Smith's honesty of purpose and his sturdy independence. It is true that the Hamilton school system is under the direction of a United School Board, and that it avails itself, in the inspection of the City Public Schools, of the services of the Inspector of the County. That this arrangement, which obviously has many advantages, and we believe has worked satisfactorily, should be prejudicial to other High Schools in the County, or be detrimental to its educational interests, we shall want the assurance of a higher and more disinterested authority than the *School Journal* before we believe it. At present, it suits the *Journal's* selfish purpose to decry the arrangement, to depreciate the work of the Hamilton Institute, and to awaken distrust of both Principal and Inspector, whom it charges with acting collusively, though each official has his own distinct and well-defined duties prescribed for him by an intelligent and sagacious School-Board. To the dispassionate onlooker, particularly if he is acquainted with the facts, it will seem strange to find a journal declaiming against the injury to one school, as the result of "questionable advertising," while by the use of similar methods it is at the same time doing all it can to injure another. The anomaly, however, is susceptible of explanation, and is to be found in the simple fact (let us speak low) that in the Hamilton Schools they do not use the text-books of the publisher of the organ that defames them. Need we say a word more?

ST. GEORGE'S SOCIETY AND MR. GOLDWIN SMITH.

EMERSON'S aphorism, "God taunts the mighty land with little men," almost unconsciously occurs to one on learning that some mental pigmies, at a meeting the other evening of the St. George's Society of Toronto, had rejected a motion to elect Prof. Goldwin Smith an honorary member, on account of his holding certain opinions respecting the future destiny of Canada. The affair is almost too ridiculous for discussion, but it might be worth while reminding these super-loyal

St. Georgites that their society exists for benevolent and humane purposes and not for jingo propagandism, and that if certain of its members want to do knightly service in the cause of Canada they had better do battle with the dragon of Party in their midst than go out of their way to gratuitously insult an estimable, unoffending private gentleman. It is not a little curious to note that while these "tailors of Tooley Street" were making such a pitiful exhibition of themselves, the object of their ill-nature was being accorded the honour of election to the presidency of a section of the Social Science Congress at Dublin, and had just declined the high compliment of being asked to accept the mastership of University College, Oxford—tributes not undeserved to the worth and scholarly repute of this distinguished English gentleman who yet prefers to call himself a Canadian.

THE ILLNESS OF DR. RYERSON.

IT is with unfeigned regret that we learn of the serious indisposition of the Rev. Dr. Ryerson, the venerable ex-Chief Superintendent of Education, whose advancing years forbid us to indulge the expectation that he can long continue to be in our midst, while they the more keenly remind us of his many past services to the country, in the important and responsible post with which his name and his work is honourably associated. We are sure that every one of our readers will learn of this announcement with deep regret, and all will be very solicitous about his condition and will gladly hail more favourable news. In extending our sympathy to the distinguished gentleman, and in wishing him still further length of years, each individual member of the teaching profession, of the Province at least, we are confident, will join with us. There is no one connected with education in Ontario to whom the hearts of those engaged in teaching more warmly go out than to Dr. Ryerson. His recovery will hence be heartily prayed for, and should death overtake him, his loss, we know, will be profoundly deplored.

A CORRESPONDENT, in the Contributors' Department of the present issue, rather trenchantly comments upon some portion of the article on "The Teacher out of the School Room," which appeared in the number for May-June last. While we are in hearty sympathy with our correspondent in his desire to see the profession manifest a more manly and independent spirit in their contact with parents, we think that he hardly does the writer of the article justice in the criticism he passes upon it. The writer, it seems to us, though he perhaps lays himself open to misconception, is endeavouring to set before the teacher the advantages of a *bonhomme* manner over that which induces friction and combativeness, and suggests the exercise of a little of the art of a man-of-the-world in contact with his fellows, which without trenching upon principle delights every one within reach of its influence. His counsel to avoid controversy and to refrain from discussing politics except with a man holding the same opinions as himself is, doubtless, open to a construction against which the writer has perhaps not sufficiently guarded himself. But the unprofitableness of political controversy needs hardly to be dwelt upon, and the teacher, as a rule, will unquestionably do well to abstain from it. In this, as in other subjects where difference of opinion exists, it is largely a question of the *via media*. Much will be gained by the exercise of the judicial faculty, and the teacher's strength will always be found in taking, if not a neutral, then a strictly impartial, side in all discussions into which he may be led.

OUR readers who have been looking for a really good class-book in English history will, we incline to think, say that they have at last got one in Sanderson's "History of the British Empire," just published by Messrs. Blackie & Son, of London, and for sale by the Messrs. Campbell, of Toronto. We were fortunate enough to take the little work up and examine it the other day, and were much struck, by its spirited narration of the facts

in English history, and its clear, lucid and compact style. Teachers will not do amiss to look at the work. While referring to English history text-books, we may at the same time direct the attention of our readers to another admirable "Outline" of the subject, recently published by Messrs. Longman & Co., from the pen of Dr. S. R. Gardiner, Professor of Modern History at King's College, London. This little work is freshly and vividly written, and evidently comes from the hand of a master of the subject.

A WORTHY EXAMPLE.—A member of the corporation of Dundee, Scotland, Bailie Harris, with commendable liberality and public spirit recently presented the munificent sum of \$100,000 to the High School of the town, with the object of aiding higher education. The same gentleman donated a further sum of \$50,000 to the School Board, to be expended in providing a secondary school for the growing wants of the community. To what nobler objects can a citizen devote his means? The example is worthy of being followed by some of our Canadian men of wealth. May this paragraph furnish the needed incentive!

FROM want of space we have been obliged to defer notice of the opening of the Sessions of the various Universities in our midst, many of the proceedings at which we should have liked in the present number to have commented upon. We can only meantime acknowledge receipt of the Calendar for 1881-2 of University College, Toronto; that of the Toronto School of Practical Science; and the syllabus of lectures to be delivered at McGill Medical School, Montreal.

CORRIGENDUM.—By inadvertence, a correction of the press led to the substitution of the enigmatical letters *abb* for the words *the verb*, in line 14 from the bottom of page 371, occurring in Principal Robinson's instructive and entertaining article on the "Revised Webster." Our readers will please make the correction.