

THE NOBLE NATURE.

It is not growing like a tree
In bulk, doth make man better be;
Or standing long an oak, three hundred year,
To fall a log at last, dry, bald, and aere:

The lily of a day
Is fairer far in May,
Although it fall and die that night—
It was the plant and flower of Light.
In small proportions we just beauties see,
And in short measures life may perfect be.

—B. Jonson.

CLASS MANAGEMENT.

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Class management is one of the most important parts, if not the most important part of the teacher's work. On its success all school work depends, and, hence, failure here, cannot help affecting his position as a teacher. It is true that some have a better faculty for managing classes than others; but it must not be supposed that the teacher who has not this quality naturally, cannot obtain it, for it can be obtained, and to do this should be the aim of every teacher.

There are a great many things which unite in making class management successful. The principal of these are: (1) The obtaining and retaining of the attention of the class; (2) Proper distribution of class work; (3) Using of proper language by the teacher; (4) Some means of impressing the knowledge gained; (5) The teacher's tone, manner, position, &c.

Now, obtaining and retaining the attention of a class may be said to be the great secret of class management; and in no way can this be better obtained than by the teacher coming before the class with a thorough knowledge of the subject to be taught. If a teacher is forced to keep continually looking at the book to keep the run of the lesson, and determine what to ask his class, there can be no interest in the lesson.

However, it is perfectly right, in my opinion, for a teacher to have a text-book to which he can make occasional reference to settle a doubt, or refresh his memory upon some particular point. But a few moments' thought will be sufficient to enable us to see which would be most likely to obtain and retain the attention of the class—the teacher who is chained to the text, or the one who can teach the subject without the aid of the book. In the first instance, the teacher's mind has no wider scope than the text, and his questions and suggestions must, therefore, be limited, and he will be very likely to insist upon the children answering in the words of the text. In doing this he makes a grave mistake, for the teacher should insist upon the pupils answering any question asked them in their own language—encourage them to talk freely, without being afraid of making mistakes; and if they do make mistakes, even these may be turned to practical account for their benefit, for in no way can a teacher better impress a point upon a pupil's mind, than by gently, yet firmly, leading him to see his mistake, and help him to correct it.

But, to return to the teacher who does not need to be constantly referring to the text. He can take a wider scope than the other, and, by introducing thoughts and suggestions of his own, in his own language, make the lesson interesting to his class, and thus secure their attention. Again, in the matter of questioning, he is not confined to the narrow limits of the text, for his superior knowledge of the subject will enable him to frame questions of his own which, though intelligible, will be different from those found in the books; and consequently the pupil will have to use his thinking powers in answering; and here another point is gained in the teacher's management, for all questions should be such as will make the pupil

use his thinking powers, or exercise some of the other faculties of the mind.

Now, to have a thorough knowledge of the subject, the teacher should specially prepare each lesson he assigns his class—not only prepare what is in the text, but draw upon his mental storehouse for anything he has learned about the subject from other sources; and by weaving this into the lesson he will give a novelty to it, which will at once awaken the pupil's interest, and thus he can very easily retain the attention of his class.

Another point in class management, and one closely allied to that just discussed, is that relating to the proper distribution of class work. It is often very useful in reviving the interest of the class when it has begun to flag, or in securing their interest at the outset, to ask them to answer a few questions simultaneously. After these have been answered, the class should be questioned individually, skipping about from one member to another, thus avoiding any routine. Further, the distribution should be such that each member of the class will have some thing to do, for "we learn to do by doing;" and if the work is confined to a few members of the class, the others will naturally lose their interest in the lesson.

In explaining any point to a class, or offering any suggestion, the teacher should be careful to use such language as will be readily understood by the pupils. The object of explaining anything is to make it clearer, and this cannot be accomplished when the words used in the explanation are not understood by the class. A teacher should, therefore, use as simple language as possible, and remember that terms that are perfectly plain to him are very likely to be unintelligible to his class. In all cases he should speak properly, for in no way will a teacher give more effectual instruction in grammar, than by his own use of our language. He should also be very careful in using any expression which is not chaste in every particular.

When the subject of the lesson has been thoroughly explained, the teacher should employ some means of impressing the knowledge gained. This may be accomplished by means of review questioning; but a very good way to do, I think, is to get the class to make a summary of the lesson in which the chief points are brought out, and thereafter causing these to be committed to memory—thus affording exercise for the pupil's faculty of memorizing.

Again, a teacher should, while before the class, avoid taking an indolent or unbecoming attitude,—when he moves he should do so quietly and gracefully, and with a continual remembrance of the fact that now he has the attention of the class, they watch his every look and motion, and these teach, as well as his questioning and explaining.

His manner, also, should be animated, cheerful and sympathetic, but firm. Children get their first knowledge by observation, and when under the supervision of a teacher, they will very readily notice his manner. If he is pleasant and cheerful and moves actively, the pupils will be inspired by his example, and try to follow it; but if his manner is dull, and his movements plodding, his pupils will soon fall into the same form of procedure. By being sympathetic in his manner a teacher will lead his pupils to respect him, and when he has won their respect he will have little difficulty in making them obey his commands. The sympathy, however, should be blended with firmness. In managing a class nothing is more influential or commanding than the tone of the teacher's voice. Let these tones be modulated in accordance with his real position, with his subject, with his mode of discussion, and the character and circumstances of his class, and his end is accomplished, and that in the midst of difficulties and obstructions.

Another suggestion I might offer in regard to questioning a class is, to give such questions that

in answering the pupils will need to make use of the matter contained in a whole paragraph or even more.

In short, class management depends upon the teacher leading his pupils to think for themselves, and to express their thoughts in their own language; on his using of proper language, and on his example in regard to position, manner and tone. If he manages these things properly, he will have recourse to the mental, moral and physical natures of his pupils; and in training these natures by his management, he must remember that to be successful he must centre his ambition upon the task; and, also, that the children's knowledge does not depend upon what they learn but upon what they remember.

HISTORY AND POETRY IN GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES.

[Continued from last Number.]

We now come to the third layer of civilization in this island,—the layer which was deposited by the Teutons, who immigrated into this country from the northern part of the land which we now call Germany. This deposit began to be laid down in Great Britain in the middle of the fifth century; and the character of this contribution to British habits is best indicated by Mr. Isaac Taylor in his 'Words and places.' He says: "England is pre-eminently the land of hedges and enclosures. On a visit to the continent, almost the first thing the tourist notices is the absence of the hedgerows of England. The fields, nay, even the farms, are bounded only by a furrow." And he points to the universally recurring terminations *ton, ham, worth, stoke, fold, park, and bury*—all of which convey the notion of enclosure or protection—as proof of the seclusiveness of character of the Anglo-Saxon, of how strongly "imbued was the nation with the principle of the sacred nature of property, and how eager every man was to possess some spot which he could call his own."

Now, if the learner is armed with the knowledge and the meanings of these words, and with some power of tracking them under their different forms, he has the power of fixing upon the chief Anglo-Saxon settlements in Britain and in other countries. We have, for example, the name *Haddington*, as the town of the sons of Haddo; *Smyington* and *Thankerton*; *Campbelton* and *Hartington*; *Boston*, which is St. Botolph's town; *Northampton* and *Southampton*; and many more. But the suffix *ton*, as the most common local termination of our British local names, is worth a little more examination. The word is the Low-German form of the High-German *sun* (a hedge); and the word *sun* or *ton* meant in the older times a place surrounded by a hedge, or fortified by a palisade. In this sense it indicated a croft, a homestead, or a farm; and this sense it still retains in Scotland. Thus the isolated *ton* might become the nucleus of a village, the village might grow into a town, and the town into a city with millions of inhabitants.

In the same way, a *stoke* is a place stockaded, a place surrounded and guarded by stocks and piles. The word takes the four different forms of *stok, stoke, stow, and stol*. We have it in *Stockbridge*, the suburb at the bridge over the Leith; in *Stockholm* and *Woodstock*; in *Stoke-upon-Trent*; in *Stow*; and in *Bristol*, which was in the oldest English *Drigstow*.

Another highly significant suffix is *burgh, borough, or bury*, which comes from the old verb *berrgan* (to shelter or cover). The last is the distinctively Saxon form; the two first are Anglican or Norse. But, indeed, the root has spread itself over many countries; and we find it in Spain in the form of *Burgos*; in France, as *César's burg*, or *Cherbourg*; in Asia Minor, in the shape of *Pergamos*. We have it also in Germany in *Augsburg* (that is, the