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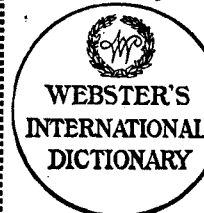
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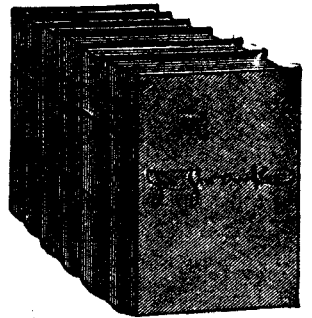
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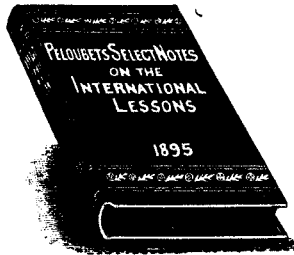
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Editorial Notes.

A MERRY CHRISTMAS to you all.

WE are obliged to hold over "Answers to Correspondents," by the English editor, until next number.

ONE of the grossest outrages upon all sound and sensible ideas of education of which we have heard in a long time is reported from Kansas, where a boy was recently "sentenced to school for six months, without missing a day," as a punishment for petty larceny. This is exalting the school with a vengeance—associating it in the child-mind with prisons, penitentiaries, and other places of punishment. And what an insult to the teachers, to put their work on a level with that of jail-keepers!

MR. CORLISS, the first part of whose article on Grammar appears in this number, has a rollicking way of casting aside antiquated notions, haling us forward to the purely inductive methods, and holding us logically to them, which makes his paper very readable, whether we agree with him at all points or not. In order to give him a fair chance, we must suspend our judgments until we see the rest of his article in next number. Meanwhile even those who may be burning to come to the defence of the old-fashioned or new-fashioned text-book must admit that he makes some good points in his breezy and stimulating fashion.

SEVERAL contributors who have kindly sent us articles for publication, at the instance of the Teacher's Institutes, have requested that their Mss. be returned to them after publication. It is not often convenient to do this, as by the time copy has passed through editor's, compositor's, and proof-reader's hands, it is not usually in a very presentable shape. Probably it will serve the writers' purpose to receive instead a few extra copies of the numbers of the JOURNAL containing their articles. These we shall be glad to send. If we forget it in any case, and extra copies are desired, please drop us a reminder by postal card.

WE ARE saddened to learn from the Michigan *Moderator* that Capt. H. A. Ford, of Detroit, who was an occasional contributor to this journal, and whose acquaintance some of our readers probably made at teachers' institutes, is dead. He fell dead while taking a street car to go down town to his work in the *Christian Herald* office. Though not personally acquainted with Mr. Ford, we had, through correspondence, formed a high estimate of his character, and of his zeal and ability as an educator. We beg leave to tender our sincere sympathy to his sorrowing widow, who is also a teacher, institute worker, and writer of ability. The paper in which we find the record is dated Nov. 1st, but the paragraph escaped our notice until a few days since.

THOUGH our position forbids discussion of political matters, and we think we can best serve our readers by holding ourselves pretty strictly to educational topics, it is but meet that we should join with our contemporaries of all classes, and with the whole people in deploring the great loss the country has sustained in the death of Sir John Thompson, Premier of Canada, who died suddenly at the Queen's Castle, on Wednesday last, just after he had been sworn in as a member of the Imperial Privy Council, a position of the highest honor and dignity. Sir John, not only during his brief career as Premier, but during the whole of his service as a cabinet minister, had made for himself an enviable record for ability and integrity. He was easily the foremost man in the ranks of the Conservative statesmen of Canada and his place will be hard to fill.

ALL who have to do in any way with the requirements in English for entrance to Colleges and High Schools, will be in-

terested in the report of the conference of committees appointed by the Associations of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, the Commission of Colleges in New England on Admission Examinations, and the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of New England, respectively. The findings and recommendations of this thoroughly representative body are entitled to the highest consideration, and the general principle on which their recommendation is based will, no doubt, commend itself to thoughtful educators, even when that principle involves the division of the books set for examination into two classes: those to be read as literature, the test being the student's general knowledge of their subject-matter; and those to be studied in detail with regard to diction, grammatical form and literary structure, as well as subject-matter. Wisely, too, we think, the reading of the first class to be prescribed is first in order and larger in quantity. The memorization of a considerable amount of English poetry is also an excellent feature. The whole report, though somewhat lengthy, will repay careful reading.

MEMORANDUM FOR TEACHERS AND STUDENTS.

THE following circular has been issued by the Education Department:

The new curriculum of the University of Toronto will necessitate a rearrangement of the High School courses of study. The modifications will come into operation in September, 1895, and an announcement giving complete details will probably be made by this department next May.

While the examinations for the Primary, Junior Leaving and Senior Leaving Examinations will be based after 1895 on the courses prescribed by the new curriculum, the just claims of candidates who have been preparing the subjects of the present curriculum will be recognized in the examinations of 1896. It may be further assumed that in the new High School course the subjects prescribed for Part I. of the new matriculation curriculum, viz.: Arithmetic and Mensuration, English Grammar and Rhetoric, English and Canadian History, and Physics, will be required of all candidates at the Primary examination, and that the standard set for matriculation in these subjects will be adopted as a standard for the Primary. The Department is not in a position to make any further statement on the subject of the coming changes than that now made.

JOHN MILLAR,
Deputy Minister.

Education Department, Toronto, December, 1894.

English.

All articles and communications intended for this department should be addressed to the ENGLISH EDITOR, EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL, Room 20, 11½ Richmond Street West, Toronto.

MATRICULATION EXAMINATIONS IN ENGLISH IN THE MIDDLE STATES.

AT THE meeting of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland in Dec. 1893, a committee of ten was appointed "to consider the present usage in the matter of entrance examinations in English language and literature in the colleges of the Association, and to present, if deemed wise, a scheme of uniform entrance requirements in English, to be offered as suggestion or recommendation to the several colleges of the Association."

The report of this committee has recently been made public and is an interesting exposition of the present condition of opinion in the scope and character of English work over a large extent of the United States. One feature of the report will be noticed by the Ontario teachers, namely that the secondary schools of the neighboring Republic are, unlike our own, still hampered by a conflict of classes to meet the requirements of different universities, an evil they are striving hard to get rid of.

The report in the main is as follows:—

"The first meeting of the committee was held at the University of the City of New York on Thursday, Friday, and Saturday, February 22, 23, and 24, 1894, and was called to order by the Chairman. Mr. William H. Maxwell was elected Secretary. All the members of the committee were present at the sessions. It was ordered that circulars of inquiry be sent to the colleges of New England, the Middle States, and Maryland, and also to the preparatory schools of the same states, asking for a statement of experience in English work and for an expression of opinion as to the desirability of certain specified forms of entrance requirements now in use. The recommendations of the committee of ten appointed by the National Educational Association were in the main endorsed by the committee. The following recommendations in particular were favorably considered:

1. That any examination set should be based upon the reading of certain masterpieces of English literature, not fewer in number than those at present recommended by the Commission of Colleges in New England on Admission Examinations.

2. That certain of these books should be of a kind to be read by the candidate as literature; and that others—a limited number—should be carefully studied under the immediate direction of the teacher.

3. That each of the whole number of books should be representative, so far as possible, of a period, a tendency, or a type of literature; and that the whole number of works selected for any year should represent with as few gaps as possible the course of English literature from the Elizabethan period to the present time.

4. That the candidate's proficiency in composition should be judged from his answers to the questions set, which should be so framed as to require answers of some length and to test his power of applying the principles of composition.

5. That formal grammar and exercises in the correction of incorrect English should in no case be more than a subordinate part of the examination.

It was further agreed that the task of working out in detail the application of these general principles could best be done by small sub-committees, which were then appointed. The general committee then adjourned, to meet in Philadelphia, May 17, 18, and 19, at the University of Pennsylvania.

It will be noted that the conclusions reached seemed to make it impossible for the committee

to adopt the system of requirements for admission now in use in most of the colleges of New England under the initiative of the New England Commission. The adoption of this system would have given the very great advantage of securing uniformity of usage in the colleges of New England and of the Middle States, and the argument in favor of adopting it was strong because the system had proved to be in many respects of practical value. But expressions of opinion to the effect that these requirements, useful as they have been, were no longer fair or complete tests of the results of the best methods of teaching English, came in great numbers, and from persons of great authority, in reply to the requests for information sent out by the committee; and the conclusion was finally reached that a new system of requirements must be framed. To make such a scheme of requirements without the aid and co-operation of the New England colleges seemed unwise. Friendly correspondence was therefore opened with Professor Poland, Secretary of the Commission of Colleges in New England on Admission Examinations, and by the courteous invitation of that body the Chairman of this committee met the commission for conference at its annual meeting, held in Boston, April 20. After some discussion, the Commission appointed a committee of three, consisting of Professor Winchester, of Wesleyan University (Chairman), Professor Albert S. Cook, of Yale University, and Professor Le Baron R. Briggs, Dean of Harvard College, to meet in Philadelphia, May 17, and to act in co-operation with the representatives of the Middle States and Maryland. By a subsequent action of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of New England, Mr. John Tetlow, Headmaster of the Girls' High and Latin Schools of Boston, and Mr. W. C. Collar, Head Master of the Roxbury Latin School, were appointed as delegates to represent the New England Association at this Philadelphia conference. These delegates, collectively representing the colleges and the preparatory schools of the New England States, the Middle States, and Maryland, met as had been agreed, in Philadelphia, May 17, at 7.30 p.m. The three delegations then organized themselves into a conference, with the understanding that the conclusions reached and the plans adopted should be presented for subsequent ratification by the separate committees. Professor Francis H. Stoddard was elected Chairman of this Conference, and Mr. William H. Maxwell was elected Secretary.

The conclusions reached by the Conference were embodied in a final report, which was signed by each of the members. The committee presents these conclusions as a part of its own report and adopts them as the basis of the recommendations which it makes to the Association.

REPORT OF THE CONFERENCE.

A Conference on Entrance Requirements in English, consisting of a committee of ten appointed by the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, a committee of three appointed by the Commission of Colleges in New England on Admission Examinations, and a committee of two from the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, met in Philadelphia, May 17, 18, and 19, 1894, and adopted the following report, with the understanding that it should be presented for ratification to each of the bodies represented in the Conference:

GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS.—The Conference recommends:

1. That the time allowed for the English examination for entrance to college be not less than two hours.

2. That the books prescribed be divided into two groups—one for reading, the other for more careful study.

3. That in connection with the reading and study of the required books parallel or subsidiary reading be encouraged.

4. That a considerable amount of English poetry be committed to memory in preparatory study.

5. That the essentials of English Grammar, even if there is no examination in that subject, be not neglected in preparatory study.

Although the Conference believes that the correction of bad English is useful in preparatory study, it does not favor an examination in this subject as a requirement for admission to college.

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS.—The Conference recommends that the following scheme of entrance requirements in English be adopted by the various colleges.

Entrance Requirements.

NOTE.—No candidate will be accepted in English whose work is notably defective in point of spelling, punctuation, idiom, or division into paragraphs.

I. *Reading*.—A certain number of books will be set for reading. The candidate will be required to present evidence of a general knowledge of the subject-matter, and to answer simple questions on the lives of the authors. The form of examination will usually be the writing of a paragraph or two on each of several topics, to be chosen by the candidate from a considerable number—perhaps ten or fifteen—set before him in the examination paper. The treatment of these topics is designed to test the candidate's power of clear and accurate expression, and will call for only a general knowledge of the substance of the books. In place of a part or a whole of this test, the candidate may present an exercise book, properly certified by his instructor, containing compositions or other written work done in connection with the reading of books. The books set for this part of the examination will be:

1895: Shakespeare's "Twelfth Night"; "The Sir Roger de Coverley Papers" in *The Spectator*; Irving's "Sketch Book"; Scott's "Abbot"; Webster's "First Bunker Hill Oration"; Macaulay's "Essay on Milton"; Longfellow's "Evangeline."

1896: Shakespeare's "A Midsummer Night's Dream"; Defoe's "History of the Plague in London"; Irving's "Tales of a Traveller"; Scott's "Woodstock"; Macaulay's "Essay on Milton"; Longfellow's "Evangeline"; George Eliot's "Silas Marner."

1897: Shakespeare's "As You Like It"; Defoe's "History of the Plague in London"; Irving's "Tales of a Traveller"; Hawthorne's "Twice Told Tales"; Longfellow's "Evangeline"; George Eliot's "Silas Marner."

1898: Milton's "Paradise Lost" Books I. and II.; Pope's "Iliad," Books I. and XXII.; "The Sir Roger de Coverley Papers" in *The Spectator*; Goldsmith's "The Vicar of Wakefield"; Coleridge's "Ancient Mariner"; Southey's "Life of Nelson"; Carlyle's Essay on Burns"; Lowell's "Vision of Sir Launfal"; Hawthorne's "The House of the Seven Gables."

II. *Study and Practice*.—This part of the examination presupposes the thorough study of each of the works named below. The examination will be upon subject-matter, form and structure.

The books set for this part of the examination will be:

1895: Shakespeare's "The Merchant of Venice"; Milton's "L'Allegro, Il Penseroso, Comus, and Lycidas"; Macaulay's "Essay on Addison."

1896: Shakespeare's "The Merchant of Venice"; Milton's "L'Allegro, Il Penseroso, Comus, and Lycidas"; Webster's "First Bunker Hill Oration."

1897: Shakespeare's "The Merchant of Venice"; Burke's "Speech on Conciliation with America"; Scott's "Marmion"; Macaulay's "Life of Samuel Johnson."

1898: Shakespeare's "Macbeth"; Burke's "Speech on Conciliation with America";

DeQuincey's "The Flight of a Tartar Tribe"; Tennyson's "The Princess."

REQUIREMENTS FOR AN ADVANCED EXAMINATION.—The Conference recommends that the following scheme be offered as a suggestion or recommendation to colleges desiring to set an advanced examination in English.

Advanced Examination.

NOTE.—The Candidate may choose either I. or II.

I. A detailed study of a single period of English literature, and of not fewer than three authors belonging to it; as, for example, of the age of Queen Anne, with special reference to Pope, Swift, and Addison.

II. (a) Old English (Anglo-Saxon), chiefly simple prose and grammar, or

(b) Chaucer: "Prologue, Knightes Tale and Nonne Prestes Tale," including vocabulary, inflection, and prosody.

In presenting this report the committee deems it wise to offer a few words in explanation of the separate sections, in order that intelligent action may be taken upon the report as a whole.

1. The inquiries made by the committee lead to the belief that the preparatory schools desire the limits of the English examination to be closely defined. To meet this desire, as well as to promote the critical study of English literature, the books set for examination are divided into two classes: those to be read chiefly for their substance—that is, their literary or historical value—and those to be studied in detail with regard to diction, literary structure, and grammatical forms, as well as with regard to subject-matter.

2. The system of examination suggests principles upon which selections of books can be made. In order not to disturb existing courses in the preparatory schools, the books set in the requirements under the years 1895, 1896, and 1897 are identical with those named in the present New England list. In the selections for 1898 certain distinct periods and types of literature are represented, historical sequence is considered, and prose and poetry have about equal representation. A recommendation for a joint committee of selection for subsequent years is elsewhere embodied in this report. It is the opinion of the committee that the division into the two classes mentioned in section one and the adoption of definite principles of selection will prove of distinct advantage in making lists for future years.

3. The system suggested is a useful one for an association such as that of the Middle States and Maryland, which has in its membership colleges, scientific schools, and institutions somewhat diverse in character. The requirements can be divided, and thus flexibility of amount as well as uniformity of kind can be secured in preparatory school work. In some institutions desiring a less extended test, either section one, or section two, can be made to stand for the entire requirement in English. In other institutions the first section may be offered as a requirement for preliminary examination.

4. The system suggested gives opportunity for examination by presentation of original note-books certified by an instructor, containing the record of work done by the pupil when reading the books set, and containing essays written on topics taken from the books read. This method, usually spoken of as the "Physics Method," is strongly urged by many teachers. The committee is not prepared to advise that the note-books be in any case taken as a substitute for the whole of the entrance examination, but is inclined to the opinion that the method can in many cases be employed to advantage in testing a portion of the work.

5. The requirement suggested for advanced examination, when such examination is found desirable, is one which does not conflict with the ordinary admission requirement and does not anticipate any part of the English work

usually required in college. In presenting this requirement it may be well to say that it is not thought probable by the committee that any very general demand now exists for a system of advanced examinations in English. Yet in several institutions the plan of permitting advanced standing to be taken, on passing tests known as advanced examinations, has been for some years in use in Latin, Greek, German, and French, and in mathematical and scientific branches, and has been successful in enabling earnest students to obtain the greatest possible benefit from their college and university work. The committee, therefore, feels that the present is a favorable time for the formulation of such a requirement for English work.

The committee makes the following recommendations to the Association:

1. The adoption of the scheme of requirements for admission as herewith given, and its presentation to the various colleges as officially recommended by the Association.

2. The adoption of the scheme of requirements for advanced examinations in English as herewith given and its presentation to the various colleges as officially recommended by the Association.

3. The appointment of a committee of three persons, to act in co-operation with a committee of the Commission of Colleges in New England on Admission Examinations, and a committee of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, if such committees be appointed, to select a list of books for the examination requirements of the year 1899, to consider such further business with reference to English Entrance Examinations as may be presented, and to report at the next annual meeting of the Association.

- JAMES W. BRIGHT.
- GEORGE R. CARPENTER.
- WILSON FARRAND.
- EDWARD L. GULICK.
- JAMES MORGAN HART.
- ROLAND S. KEYSER.
- WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, *Secretary*.
- FELIX E. SCHELLING.
- ALBERT H. SMYTH.
- FRANCIS L. STODDARD, *Chairman*.

June 20, 1894.

For Friday Afternoon.

WHEN JIMMY COMES FROM SCHOOL.

WHEN Jimmy comes from school at four,
J-e-r-u-s-a-l-e-m! how things begin
To whirl and buzz, and bound and spin,
And brighten up from roof and floor;
The dog that all day long had lain
Upon the back porch, wags his tail,
And leaps and barks and begs again
The last scrap in the dinner pail,
When Jimmy comes from school.

The cupboard latches click a tune,
And mother from her knitting stirs
To tell that hungry boy of hers
That supper will be ready soon;
And then a slab of pie he takes
A cookie, and a quince or two,
And for the breezy barnyard breaks,
Where everything cries "How d'ye do?"
When Jimmy comes from school.

The rooster on the garden fence
Struts up and down, and crows and crows,
As if he knows, or thinks he knows,
He, too, is of some consequence;
The guineas join the chorus, too,
And, just beside the window-sill,
The redbird swinging out of view,
On his light perch begins to trill,
When Jimmy comes from school.

When Jimmy comes from school, take care!
Our hearts begin to throb and quake
With life and joy, and every ache
Is gone before we are aware;
The earth takes on a richer hue;

A softer light falls on the flowers,
And overhead a brighter blue
Seems bent above this world of ours,
When Jimmy comes from school.

—J. N. Matthews in *Ladies' Home Journal*.

THE STORM-KING.

BY LIZZIE WILLS, TORONTO.

THE Storm-King rides abroad to-night,
Wrapped in a robe of cloud;
Nor moon, nor stars can pierce with light
Its thick, enfolding shroud,
The North Wind drives the Storm-King's car,
And blows a bugle-blast;
The wheels spin 'round, and near and far
The snowflakes white are cast.
Flitting, fluttering, flying,
Whirling 'round and 'round,
Eddying, floating, creeping,
The snowflakes reach the ground.

The Storm-King rides abroad to-night,
His steeds they prance and dash;
They scale the heaven's highest height
Urged by an icy lash.
Now faster, faster whirl the wheels,
And faster falls the snow,
While far and near the bugle-peals
Are echoed, high and low,
Flitting, fluttering, flying,
Whirling 'round and 'round,
Eddying, floating, creeping,
The snowflakes reach the ground.

The Storm-King rides abroad to-night
In state, triumphantly;
He reigns in all his sovereign might
O'er earth and air and sea;
On hill and dale, on moor and field,
His standard flies unfurled;
All nature to his power doth yield,
The Storm-king rules the world.
Flitting, fluttering, flying,
Whirling 'round and 'round,
Eddying, floating, creeping,
The snowflakes reach the ground.

HOW TO TELL SAXON WORDS.

OUR articles: a, an, the. All the pronouns: we, this, which, etc. All auxiliary verbs: have, may, will. All adjectives compared irregularly: good, bad, little. Nearly all irregular and defective verbs: am, go, ought. Nearly all prepositions and conjunctions: and, with, by. Nearly all the words which in any of their forms undergo vowel changes. Adjectives with two comparisons: old, older, oldest, elder, eldest. Adjectives changed to nouns: strong, strength. Nouns changed to verbs: bliss, bless. Nouns forming plurals by vowel change: foot, feet. Verbs with strong preterites: fall, fell. Verbs changed by form from intransitive to transitive: rise, raise. Parts of the body: head, ear, skull (not face). The senses: sight, touch, smell. Infirmities: blind, lame, deaf. The elements: fire, wind, frost (not air). Products: grass, corn, bread. Fuel: coal, wood, peat. Domestic animals: cat, dog, horse.

All words beginning with wh, kn, sh, : when, know, shine. Most words beginning with ea, ye, gl, th : each, yearn, glad, thus. Most words ending with t, th : beat, truth.

Most compound and derivative words, the elements of which exist and have a meaning in English; horseback, shipwreck, winsome. Most words with Anglo-Saxon prefixes and suffixes. — *Lockwood's Lessons in English*.

ENGLISH PRONUNCIATIONS.

HERE are some curious pronunciations (all of names in England), which we give for the benefit of our young readers, and also the old ones: Abergavenny is pronounced Abergenny. Beauchamp is pronounced Beecham. Brougham is pronounced Broom. Bulwer is pronounced Buller. Cholmondeley is pronounced Chumley. Cirencester is pronounced Sisister. Cockburn is pronounced Cobun. Grosvenor is pronounced Grovenor. Hawarden is pronounced Harden; Holburn is pronounced Hobun. Knollys is pronounced Knowles. Wemyss is pronounced Weems. Taliaferro is pronounced Tolliver. Thames is pronounced Tems. — *Exchange*.

The Educational Journal

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A JOURNAL DEVOTED TO LITERATURE, SCIENCE, ART,
AND THE ADVANCEMENT OF THE TEACHING
PROFESSION IN CANADA.

J. E. WELLS, M.A., EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

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Editorials.

TORONTO, DECEMBER 15, 1894.

*THE ART OF COMPOSITION.

Professor Alexander and Mr. Libby have made a valuable contribution to the study and practice of Composition in our High Schools and Colleges, which has already received some notice in our columns. The book is, so far as we know, unique in respect both to its conception and to the skill and fulness with which the theory is applied in the design and structure of the work. If the book is extensively used in the schools and for the purposes for which it is intended—and from what we learn as to the demand which has already been developed for it, it is evident that it will be widely used—the result cannot fail to be marked. The good taste and judgment shown in the selection of the “models,” the skill with which these choice extracts are analyzed and criticized, and the excellent and valuable collection of themes for exercises given in the “Practice lists” which follow each set of extracts, should ensure it a warm reception and a constant use by teachers who know a good thing when they see it, quite apart from the view propounded by the authors as

**Composition from Models:* For use in Schools and Colleges. By W. J. Alexander, Ph. D., Professor of English in University College, Toronto, and M. F. Libby, B.A., English Master in Parkdale Collegiate Institute. Toronto: The Copp, Clark Co., Ltd.

the foundation thought and reason-for-being of the work.

It would be an injustice, we think, to represent the book as fit only for school or college use. There are thousands of men and women whose school and college days are past, and who are actively engaged in industrial, or business, or professional pursuits, to whom its reading would be a source of pleasure and profit were it once placed in their hands. They would enjoy it for the excellence of the “models” themselves, these being a succession of literary gems, wisely varied in length, subject, style, and character, each well worth reading for its own sake. Few would rise from the perusal of these in connection with the examination of their respective merits and the sources of these merits which follows, without having their literary tastes both improved and stimulated, and thus being prepared to take up good authors with increased zest in their hours of recreation—a most desirable result.

The plan of the book has already been partially disclosed. It is very simple and is carried out with admirable fidelity. First comes the model—the literary extract. These models are carefully graded in regard to length and difficulty, culminating towards the latter part of the book (which, by the way, is a fairly well printed volume of about five hundred pages) in complete essays, stories and speeches, some of them occupying from fifteen to twenty pages. These models are of three classes, distinguished as Narrative, Descriptive, and Expository, with numerous subdivisions of each class. Following each model, or set of models, is the Examination, a brief and more or less critical inquiry into the sources of their varied excellencies. Next, but by no means least valuable, from the teacher's point of view, are the Practice Lists above referred to—carefully selected lists of subjects for compositions to be written by the students. Besides being chosen with studied reference to the resources and capacity of the student at the given stage of progress, these have the additional merit of having a general resemblance to the subjects of the models which precede them.

All this praise we can cheerfully give to the volume before us, without, as we have intimated, committing ourselves fully to the broad theory on which the system is avowedly constructed. That theory is stated in the introduction as follows: “All literary skill is based on imitation. Every young author begins by imitating others.” This broad statement we hesitate to accept in its widest interpretation. There is, of course, an unconscious imitation in almost everything we do, the extent of which it is impossible to gauge. But is there not, also, an element of originality or individuality, which shows itself, to a greater or less degree, in the first efforts of all young writers—an element which it is desirable to encourage, even at the expense of apparently inferior finish? For our own

part, we should hesitate to advise any student to attempt consciously and designedly the imitation of any model, however excellent, for the same reason that we should be unwilling to furnish him with a rule or a model for the solution of a problem, until he had first exhausted his own resources in the attempt to find his own solution. The danger of forming a semi-mechanical habit of imitation is, of course, reduced to the minimum when series of models are set before him in constant succession. But it surely is not necessary to attribute to imitation solely the great advantage which the student is sure to derive from the close study of good authors. It is by reading and listening that the vocabulary is acquired, and the want of words to express ideas is, we opine, one of the chief difficulties which the young writer meets in his early attempts at writing. Then again, thought suggests thought, and mental activity stimulates brain action and tends to increase the ability and foster the habit of expression.

But all this is by the way. The book is a valuable one, whether the basal theory of its authors be correct or not, and we hope to hear of its wide circulation.

IN THE RIGHT DIRECTION.

WE have received the following for publication:

The following resolutions were passed at the Waterloo County Teachers' Association.

(1) That the Model and Normal School terms be extended to at least one year.

(2) That candidates for admission to the Model School hold at least a Junior-Leaving certificate.

(3) That the age of candidates for admission to the profession be not less than twenty-one.

(4) That the amount given by the township for the school section be \$200 for each section and \$100 for each assistant.

CHAS. G. FRASER,

Sec'y - Treas.,

Waterloo Co. Teacher's Association.

Berlin, Dec. 5, 1894.

The above resolutions are practical and to the point. The first three bear directly upon the questions which are being so freely discussed in our columns. They include the three reforms in regard to which there seems to be a very general agreement among those who have written on the subject, viz., lengthening of the terms of professional study, raising the standard of admission, and limiting the age qualification more strictly. Is there any reason to fear that the adoption of either of these reforms, or of all combined, would result in a scarcity of available teachers? We should like to know the views of those who have the best opportunities for forming sound opinions upon these points. If the adoption of the three reforms at once would be too sudden a change, they might be introduced gradually, or one at a time. But surely these conditions are not too strict for the proper guarding of the entrance to the profession in the Province of Ontario.

THE SEASON OF GIVING.

CHRISTMAS-TIDE is emphatically the time of giving. As a rule, in the affairs of our every-day lives, we are much more intent on getting than on giving. Even in what seems to be our giving we generally give in order that we may get. The capitalist gives his money, the professional man his skill, the laborer his toil, mainly for the sake of what he expects to receive in return. The lofty New Testament ideal—if we may follow the old translation, which is at any rate in keeping with the spirit of the great Teacher's sayings—to give "hoping for nothing in return,"—is, there is much reason to fear, seldom attained even by the best of Christians. It is true that we are also taught that "it is more blessed to give than to receive," but, just as the man who believes that "honesty is the best policy," and acts on that principle, is not an honest man, and has no right to expect the proverb to hold good in his case, so anyone who should give for the sake of the reward would have no right to claim or expect the promised blessing.

Yet the joy of pure unselfishness, of a free outpouring of the best and richest that one has or can attain, for sweet charity's sake, desiring only the pleasure, the happiness, the higher good of those to whom it is given, expecting, desiring nothing in return, is unquestionably among the highest of human joys.

It is well that there is one season of the year set apart by common consent in Christian communities, in which everyone feels called upon to think of others, to do something for others. There is something in the custom which has a softening, elevating influence on the heart of everyone who enters into the spirit of the Christmas and New Years' giving.

Much of Christmas giving is, of course, such only in form. Many, it may be feared give reluctantly, only because they fear to break through the meshes of custom. They give because they think they are expected to give, and will be accounted mean, unkind, or unloving, if they do not

give. Verily they have their reward, but it is not the reward either of generous affection or of twice-blessed charity.

But who can doubt that it is a good thing, an uplifting time, when parents and children, brothers and sisters, friends and neighbors, are led, even by a mere social custom, to think about each other, to study each other's tastes, and to spend not merely a little money, but more or less of time, and thought, and loving care, in seeking to do others a real pleasure,

while ago, a story which described a poor woman as bursting into tears on receiving some pretty embroidery wrought upon the garment made for her little child by some kind fingers which had been no doubt impelled by a mother's heart. The woman may have become charity-hardened, so that the ordinary plain gift would have been received without any deep emotion of gratitude, but this proof that someone really entered into her feelings, and sympathized with her mother heart, broke through the encrustations of years and touched the deepest and best feelings of her nature. The story, whether fact or fiction, has in it a moral which those who enter into the spirit of the Christmas season—the season that reminds us of the greatest of all gifts, the gift of Him who, out of the boundless depths of a Divine love, gave Himself for others—would do well to heed.

But the Christmas-time is above all the children's time. A good man has said that he who makes a little child happier for one hour is a co-worker with God. Teachers above most others ought to be able to sympathize with the child-nature, to understand the cravings of the child-heart. Many of them among our readers will, we feel sure, enter heartily into the generous, self-forgetting, joyous spirit of the time, and will gladly join as they have opportunity in the plotting and the planning which fill the weeks preceding Christmas with a spirit of mystery.

It is a truly educational work, to draw out the more generous and loving impulses of a child by encouraging him or her in thinking and

working to confer a happy surprise upon some one else.

Let us cultivate such impulses. One may thereby be doing more in an irregular, incidental way, for the development of that which is best worth developing in the child's nature than can be done by weeks or months of ordinary school routine.

Pardon our little sermon. We have been preaching quite as much to ourselves as to others. Accept, dear readers, our most sincere wishes that you each and all may have a happy and profitable holiday time.

CHRISTMAS.

By LIZZIE WILLS, TORONTO.

THE bells ring out upon the frosty air
Across the snow,
Now loud and clear, their joyous music swells,
Now faint and low.

The old, old story, ever, ever new,
They tell again,
That angels bright, to wand'ring shepherds told,
On Bethlehem's plain.

"Fear not," they said, "We wondrous news indeed
To you proclaim;
This day, a Saviour unto you is born,
Jesus His name.

"He, the Messiah, Son of God, Most High,
Foretold for years,
Now, in the fulness of God's chosen time,
A babe appears.

"Peace upon earth, good-will from God to men."
So ran their song.
The angels, circling round the throne above,
The notes prolong.

And every Christmas brings to us more near
That glorious day,
When Christ, the Prince of Peace, o'er all the earth
Shall reign for aye.

by causing them to feel that they are loved and cherished.

Still more noble and elevating are the thoughts of loving-kindness which go out beyond the precincts of the home, the family, and even the wide circle of friends and relations, and plan deeds of kindness to the homeless, the friendless, the afflicted and desolate, scattering among them, to the extent of one's ability, not simply the gifts of a cold charity, but the tokens of a genuine Christian love which indeed careth for them. We read somewhere, a little

Special Papers.

*ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

BY C. V. CORLISS, PRINCIPAL NORWICH PUBLIC SCHOOL.

IT HAS for some time seemed to me that something must be wrong somewhere with our grammar-teaching. We give this subject a prominent place in our school programme, we work very hard in trying to present the subject clearly to our pupils, and yet we meet with very indifferent success in teaching it. Perhaps you may put this down as an experience merely personal and not general; be that as it may, the fact of being strongly imbued with this feeling has called forth the following remarks.

The field is a large one, so large, indeed, that it would be vain to try to cover it except in the most general way.

Is, then, grammar a science? Can it be taught as such? Is the training we aim to give by this subject the same in kind as that aimed at in teaching what are usually called "The Sciences"? Are the methods of study and the kinds of conclusions arrived at similar to those of "the Sciences"?

Many persons seem to believe that what is termed Science is of a widely different character from ordinary knowledge, and that the methods employed in ascertaining scientific truths are of a kind distinct from the processes by which we discriminate the true from the false in ordinary life. But any person who gives thought to the matter will soon perceive that no solid ground exists for the view that science is in any way different from common sense. Common sense applied anywhere, in any field, is science, exactly in so far as it fulfils the ideal of common sense—that is, sees phenomena as they are, and reasons with rigid exactness from observed facts, in accordance with the dictates of sound judgment.

Why not, then, teach grammar as a science? Why not include it in "The Sciences"? Do we not, here, begin with observation? Has not this subject its special range of phenomena? Do we not aim at rigid accuracy in drawing conclusions from observed facts?

The first requisite in all true science is correct seeing. We must try to see, not this or that, but what is, what it is, how it is, and why it is.

Does a definition help correct seeing? Does it not rather hinder seeing? Does it not bias? Does not many a child see by definition a thing that is not there? Will not the definition limit his seeing, or rather, cumber the mind in seeing? Will it not rather hinder than help correct seeing? Will not the child's judgment regarding a certain observation be warped by trying to see so-and-so per definition? Would it not be more truly scientific for the child to show you what he sees, in the way he sees it?

Has a definition then, no place in grammar teaching? Certainly, yes. What is its place? At the beginning, in the middle, or at the end? We must defer the answer a little.

Ancient scientists seemed to see the phenomena of nature in groups. These groups were separated by gaps in many places so wide that in order to suppose any relation between the groups it was necessary to hypothesize a tremendous natural (or rather, unnatural) revolution, catastrophe, or cataclasm. Modern science, by wider and closer observation, finds that the phenomena of nature glide into one another by gradations so infinitesimal as to be almost insensible. Do the phenomena of which grammar takes cognizance differ in this respect from those of the rest of nature?

The phenomena to be observed in grammar are those of language. Language is the expression of mental activity; hence it is simple or complex, according as mental activity is simple or complex. The human mind develops. Its activities hence correspondingly grow in com-

plexity. There must be then a corresponding progress in the complexity of its expression. Since development, either in the race or the individual, is gradual, we must expect to find in language those minute gradations from phenomenon to phenomenon that are to be found elsewhere in nature.

You who are teachers need no further illustration of this than the insensible shading of the noun into the infinitive, of the infinitive into the participle, of the participle into the adjective, of the adjective into the adverb, of the adverb into the preposition, of the preposition into the conjunction. Indeed, it would be possible to arrange the phenomena of grammar into an unbroken series. In the very nature of things it must be so, it could not be otherwise.

Is, then, grammar a science? Why not make it so? Are not its phenomena serial like those of other sciences? Does it not have a connection with other sciences. True grammar sends out its ramifications into philology and psychology directly, and indirectly through these is united with the great group of studies known as "The Sciences." Just in proportion as grammar is true does this assertion hold.

In science, as the embodiment of human research after truth, grammar has a place. As the phenomena within the scope of a single science shade into one another, so do the sciences shade into one another. All are one; each is a part of all.

Unfortunately (for antiquated methods) nature does not define. She simply develops, unfolds, progresses, through her various phases. All science takes the phenomena of nature as it finds them, and starting with these, proceeds by careful arrangement to draw certain conclusions. It is we who define; and sorry work we make of it, particularly in grammar, as experience teaches. Too frequently, I fear, we close our eyes to the beautiful serial order of natural phenomena, and spend precious time in useless quibbles over definitions, when in the very nature of things we cannot define.

Let us keep the children in our charge occupied with that which must interest them, because it is natural. Let us keep them comparing, observing, putting like with like, drawing conclusions—but let us waste no time in quibbling over definitions that do not exist, except tentatively and for convenience.

The use of a term naturally long precedes the tentative definition of it. We long used the name "flower" before we could define the term. Perhaps some of us who are not rigidly exact botanists might even yet be puzzled if asked to define it. Yet we use the term intelligently. It may make a profitable language exercise occasionally to try defining, but only after a term has been in frequent and continued use. Even then we must make the children feel that their definition is only tentative—correct up to date—not final.

I believe the subject of grammar will acquire a new charm when we intelligently grasp this great principle—that right inferences, correct reasoning, exact thinking, depend upon accurate seeing—a solid foundation, in which individual observation of things as they exist is unbiased by the restraining effect of definitions.

We learned to speak at the maternal knee by hearing speech. If this was exact so was ours at that time: if this was inaccurate so was ours,—we became correct or incorrect speakers according to the speech heard. So here: children learn the accurate use of a scientific term by hearing it used with precision. Mother's definition of a chair would not have added to our conception of it, nor would it have enabled us to use the term more precisely. But when we called a sofa a chair, she called us to order. Her view of language teaching was very sensible. No doubt our curiosity was aroused when she told us the thing observed was not a chair. But curiosity, after all, is not an unhealthy mental state. Our curiosity was more aroused than it would have been if she had opened the dictionary and instructed us in the correct definition of the term. We soon

came to use "chair" quite accurately, and are better able to define it to-day than the day when we received maternal correction. We should train the children in the accurate use of language in grammar as elsewhere, by letting them always hear the terms employed used with precision. What child could learn to speak accurately if the "chair" were one day called "sofa," the next, "table," and the next something else? Have you never heard the teacher—nay, have you not seen the authorized text-book itself—call a clause a "sentence"? an adjective phrase, a "preposition phrase"?

But enough in regard to the place of definition in grammar-teaching, or in the teaching of any science. One word of caution before leaving—we who teach must, from the very beginning, have no confusion in the mind with regard to the correct use of the terminology employed.

Correct, unbiassed seeing is, then, the foundation of all accurate knowledge. The science of grammar must have its foundation laid in accurate observation. The extension of knowledge of the subject must be by continued observation.

Where are we to find the phenomena of this subject? Where must we expect to observe them? In the grammar text-book? In scraps of expression on the board, given at random by teacher or scholar? In strings of isolated words collected by teacher or pupil and ticketed "name-words," "quality-words," or "action-words?" This is not language, at least considered as it must be in the study of grammar. Grammar deals with language as the expression of thought. It deals with words in their relations. Words in relation to nothing may come within the domain of lexicography, etymology, or philology—but they are entirely outside the scope of grammar. But, if the teacher asks for a sentence and the pupil answers, "The boy hit the cat," is this not the expression of a thought? Who did the thinking? Did the teacher? Did the child? No, there was no thinking, hence no thought to express. The child was unconscious of having thought. Even if he did think, he did not express it; and the teacher who bases any or all of his teaching on scraps given by himself or pupils—yes even given by the authorized text-book, or some journal of education—is doing the most pernicious kind of work possible in this subject.

So far from laying a solid foundation in observation, the child is not yet where he has the phenomena before him to observe. Ask him to SEE! See what! See language that expresses nothing either to teacher or to scholar.

The child who begins a grammar lesson based on such ridiculous scraps of expression, has his mental appetite—if he ever had any—about as much stimulated and satisfied as his physical appetite would be by trying to eat froth.

"The boy hit the cat" might express something if taken in proper connection. Previous expression should lead to the notion of some particular youth and some particular cat. This expression would then express. But here is just the rub. Isolated statements of this kind do not express. It is only in their connection that they express or acquire significance. Examine any half-dozen consecutive so-called sentences in our authorized text-book on grammar, and see how much they express to us even. How much less, if possible, must they contain for a child.

On opening the text-book here are the first five sentences met with:

- (1) "I know it." Know what?
- (2) "So here she comes." Who comes?
- (3) "We saw her in the street." Saw whom?
- (4) "She climbed up the mountain." Who did?
- (5) "You know they left last night." Who left?

Is it any wonder that children's notions in grammar are vague? What could be vaguer than the material on which they are founded, if that is found in our authorized text-book? But my purpose this afternoon is not to criticise our text-book or any other book. I am here to discuss principles. If you will permit a short

*Read at the last meeting of the Oxford Teacher's Institute, and published by request of the Institute.

diversion, however, I will suggest that when the convention is over we all make a collection of grammars and have a bon-fire, after which we begin to teach the subject in real earnest.

Again to our subject. The page of literature is the proper and the only proper field of observation of the phenomena of grammar. Except in your own hands or those of advanced students the text-book has no place. Let us banish the text-book, good or bad, forever from the hands of the children in our charge, and teach the subject by contact with the things to be observed. What botanist would prefer plucking a specimen from its surroundings and taking it into his classroom, if he had the opportunity of taking the children into the green and sunny fields? The very flower has lost half its significance in the plucking, but it is still a flower. Not so with the grammatical specimen when plucked. What geologist, in searching, would prefer a case of collected fossils, to taking his class to the Rockies to scan the strata and collect their own fossils, if it were convenient—nay, even possible, so to do. But the fossil is a fossil still, even though but one of a collection. It is ten-fold more a fossil, for it has nearly lost the little intellectual life it possessed in its native position. Linguistic fossils, tabulated and cased, may do for the philologist, not for the grammarian. We have the green fields, the sunny slopes, the towering Rockies, within easy reach of the pupils. And what do some of us do? I fear there may be a few fossil-gatherers left, in the remote corners of our country—if, indeed, they are not reduced to the likeness of what they gather—who, sometimes at least, say “Children, close readers, take grammars.” Or worse still—“Give me a SENTENCE, Mary,” “another, Johnny,” “another, Kate,” virtually saying, “Children, turn your backs on the verdant hills, the heaving Rockies, and examine these specimens. True, it is pleasant yonder, and there is much more to be learned there; but there are beauties you should not see at present. See! I have some specimens I have collected. Here! And you, Johnny, you remember the trilobite you once saw; take your jackknife and whittle me one. And James and Henry will each cut out or find an orthoceras and an ammonite or two. And Mary and Jane will please make a few hepatics of tissue paper, and we shall have an interesting lesson in geology and another in botany.”

Yes, fellow teachers, I contend that any selection that is suitable to be used as a literature lesson is suitable for an observation lesson in grammar, at the very beginning. Any selection that you can successfully teach literature from, you can teach grammar from, with success. How can a child understand any sentence if he does not know the thing spoken of? What true literature can there be if the thought is not extracted from the language under consideration? How can this be done if the thing thought about is not clearly discriminated from what is thought about it? Right here, then, we have the starting point in teaching grammar.

Don't attempt to teach the general notion of sentence. Say nothing about subject or predicate. When these terms are introduced don't drag in a definition. The young grammarian will be puzzled, cumbered, biased by a definition of any one of the terms employed. Let him get his notion of the term cleared up here, just as in the nursery he learned to call the right thing “chair.” When the definition is introduced it will be as a language lesson. But even then, he must feel the definition to be the result of a language lesson merely; it will grow in clearness and precision as he progresses. To-day, he finds the expression of one thought is named “sentence.” To-morrow, the expression of two thoughts is named sentence. Perhaps, the next day, the expression of one thought, of two, of three, or even of four thoughts is named sentence, and he is eager to tell what a sentence is. He attempts it as a language lesson. The day following the expression of an inquiry is named sentence. The

child is still, under your direction, selecting subject and predicate. He has had his first lesson—the prelude to so many through life—his first invaluable lesson on the necessity of suspending judgment. The true grammar-work marches majestically along, and he becomes delighted with his growing feeling of increased mental power.

Pray, do not mistake me just here and think that I do not appreciate language-teaching. It is simply indispensable. Every subject implies, nay necessitates, language-teaching, in its development. But, language-teaching is incidental here as everywhere. Every lesson is a language lesson. You cannot have mere language lessons. Language is the expression of thought; expression can spring from no source except thinking. Hence all language-teaching results from teaching the matter of the subject in hand.

You will find ample room for training in accurate expression here, by having the child describe with precision the phenomena observed. Very little precious time is lost in useless defining. Once accept a definition as final and the interest virtually ceases. The learner is fast widening his notion of subject as he finds it expresses not only the person or thing asserted about, but also the object inquired about or exclaimed about. Similarly his notions of predicate and sentence are widening and deepening as he meets with sentences having one, two, or even three or four predicates, and but one subject. But, so far from hastening the little fellow on, in half-a-dozen lessons, to define, it is most important that we should, in a practical way, train him to exercise that reserve of judgment which is to be of so great service to him all through life.

(Concluded in Next Issue.)

WE would advise our readers to send a postcard to E. L. Kellogg & Co., of New York, for their catalogue of Teachers' Helps. It describes scores of books that will aid you in your work, save time and labor, and enable you to have a goodschool. To anyone answering this advertisement, and sending 10 cents, a copy of McMurry's “How to Conduct the Recitation” will be sent with the catalogue.

Examination Papers.

THE HIGH SCHOOL SENIOR LEAVING AND UNIVERSITY HONOR MATRICULATION.

PHYSICS.

- (a) Distinguish between *force* and *acceleration*.
(b) A football, moving with a velocity of 20 feet per second, by a kick has its direction turned through an angle of 60 degrees, but the velocity is unchanged. Find the direction and magnitude of the velocity given it by the kick.
- A rifle bullet loses $\frac{1}{20}$ th of its velocity in passing through a plank. How many such planks would it pass through before coming to rest, assuming the resistance of the planks to be uniform?
- A wire of length $5a$ is bent so as to form 5 sides of a regular hexagon; find the distance of the centre of gravity from either end of the wire.
- (a) Explain the *triangle of forces* and give full instructions for verifying it by experiment.
(b) A body of 65 lbs. is suspended by two strings of lengths 5 and 12 feet, attached to two points in the same horizontal line, whose distance apart is 13 feet; find the tensions of the strings.
- A piece of platinum weighing 451 grams and of specific gravity 22 sinks freely in water. Supposing the water apart from its buoyant action, to offer a resistance to the motion equi-

valent to an upward pressure of 205 grams, find the space fallen through in 10 seconds from rest. [$g = 980$.]

6. Explain how to find, by means of the balance, the specific gravity of *alcohol*, and also of a *piece of wood*. What error will probably enter in the latter determination?

7. A light, elastic spherical surface of radius a is filled with air at atmospheric pressure and at a temperature of 20°C . It is immersed in water to a depth of 15 metres, and the temperature there is 8°C . Find its radius when in this position, the water barometer being at 10 metres.

8. (a) Describe an experimental method of determining the latent heat of vaporisation. Obtain requisite equations and state where errors will likely occur.

(b) 500 cubic centimetres of mercury at 56°C . (specific gravity 13.5) are put in a hollow in a block of ice and it is found that 159 grams of ice are liquefied. Find the specific heat of mercury.

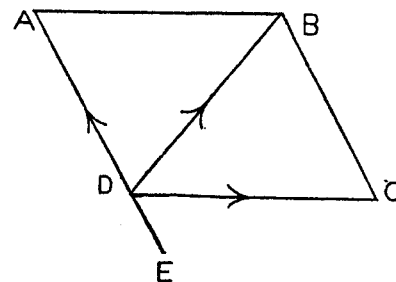
9. (a) Explain *extra current* and the use of the condenser with an induction coil. (Give diagram of connections.)

(b) You are given a tangent galvanometer whose resistance is a ohms, a Daniell battery and a number of standard coils with the resistances (b, c, d ohms) marked on them. How would you proceed to find the internal resistance of the battery, and also of another coil? (Give formulas ready for computation.)

10. The terminals of a battery of 5 Grove cells, the total electro-motive force of which is 9 volts, are connected by 3 wires (in parallel arc) the resistance of each of which is 9 ohms. The current through each wire is six-sevenths of an ampere. Find the internal resistance of each cell. (By a diagram show how to join up.)

SOLUTIONS.

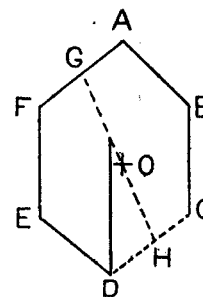
BOOKWORK NOT GIVEN.



- Let DC represent original direction and velocity, i.e., 20; let DB represent new direction and velocity, i.e., 20; $\angle DBC = 60^{\circ}$.
 \therefore DBC is equilateral, $\therefore BC = 20 = AD$.
 \therefore kick must be given in direction of DA, and velocity 20 ft. per sec. $\angle EDC = 60^{\circ}$.

2. The energy of a moving body of constant mass varies as the square of the velocity. As velocity decreases from 20 to 19, energy decreases from 400 to 361.

Energy expended in overcoming resistance of one plank = 39, \therefore No. planks = $\frac{400}{39} = 10\frac{10}{39}$.

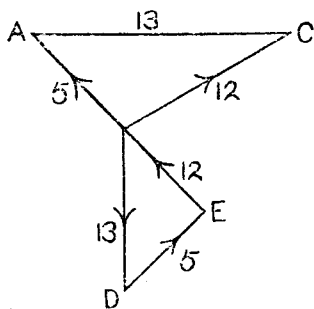


- O = centre of hexagon.
Wt. acting at O represented by $4a$.
“ “ “ “ “ “ a .
 \therefore C. G. is $\frac{1}{3}$ GO from O.

From H to C. G. = $\frac{a}{2}\sqrt{3} + \frac{1}{5}\frac{a}{2}\sqrt{3}$.

$$HD = \frac{a}{2}$$

Hence by 1-47, D to C.G. = $\frac{a\sqrt{133}}{10}$



4. (b) Let t = tension in BA
 t' = tension in BC.

$\triangle BDE$ has its sides parallel to direction of forces t, t' and 65.

Then by principle of \triangle of Fcs. :

$$\frac{t}{65} = \frac{12}{13} \therefore t = 60.$$

$$\frac{t'}{65} = \frac{5}{13} \therefore t' = 25.$$

5. Buoyant effect of water = $\frac{1}{2}$ of 451 grs. = 20 $\frac{1}{2}$ grs.

Total resistance = 205 + 20 $\frac{1}{2}$ = 225 $\frac{1}{2}$ grs. = $\frac{1}{2}$ total weight.

\therefore acceleration due to gravity = $\frac{1}{2}g$ = 4.9 m. per sec.

$$s = t^2 \frac{a}{2} = \frac{100 \cdot 4.9}{2} = 245 \text{ m.}$$

7. Volumes of spheres are proportional to cubes of radii.

New volume due to change of temp. = $\frac{2}{3}\frac{2}{3}$ old vol.

New volume due to change of pressure = $\frac{2}{3}$ old vol.

New volume is $\frac{2}{3}\frac{2}{3} \times \frac{2}{3}$ of old vol.

$$\text{New radius} = a\sqrt[3]{\frac{2}{3} \times \frac{2}{3} \times \frac{2}{3}}$$

8. 1 c.c. water weighs 1 gramme.

500 c.c. mercury weigh 500×13.5 grs. = 6750 grammes.

To just melt 159 grammes ice requires 159×80 calories = 12720 calories.

Let x = No. calories reqd. to raise 1 gr. Hg. 1° C., i.e. the specific heat of Hg.

Then $6750 \times x \times 56 = 12720$ cal.; $x = .03 +$

9. (b) Introduce galvanometer in circuit and obtain deflection. Then introduce coils b , or c , or d , or combinations, until an angle is obtained whose tangent is one-half the tangent of original deflection. Then resistance introduced is equal to the original resistance. From the resistance introduced subtract a , i.e., the resistance of galvanometer, and you have the resistance of battery.

In obtaining the resistance of the given coil, obtain deflection with coil in circuit first. Then introduce resistance by adding the given standard coils until the tangent is halved. Subtract from the resistance added the ascertained resistance of battery and known resistance of the galvanometer.

$$10. \quad C = \frac{E}{R+r}$$

When there are three paths of equal resistance the total resistance is one-third the single resistance of each path.

$$\therefore 3 \times \frac{6}{7} = \frac{9}{3+r}$$

$$r = \frac{1}{10} \text{ ohm.}$$

Arrangement :



OUR TREES.

GIVE your pupils the following questions and ask them to find out for themselves the correct answers. At the end of a week of observation have them tell you on paper all they know about our trees.

- What are our most common forest trees ?
- Where are the tallest trees in the woods ?
- Where are the shortest ? Where the thickest ?
- What tree is the hardest to climb ? Why ?
- What kind of a tree makes the best fish-pole ? Why ?
- Where do you go to look for fish-poles ?
- What other trees do you generally find where fish-pole trees grow ?
- Where does the hard wood grow ?
- What trees have limbs almost to the ground ?
- Name some evergreen trees.
- What trees have the greatest number of leaves ?
- What trees does the wind find it hardest to get through ?
- What use can be made of such trees as the above ?
- Name some trees which bear flowers.
- When do the maple and basswood trees flower ?
- What kind of flowers do the balsam and pine trees grow ?
- How can you tell the age of a tree ?
- Which trees rot the quicker, hard-wood or soft-wood ?
- For what is cedar used ? Why ?
- Make drawings of the various kinds of leaves found on trees.
- In what part of the woods are the branches on the trees farthest from the ground ?
- Which do you think is our most graceful tree ? Which the prettiest ? Which the stately ? Which gives the most shade ? Which the most useful ? Which the most common ?
- What trees bear nuts ? Which trees are the most useful to birds and wild animals ?
- Name some of the enemies of trees.

ANSWERS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

THOS. H. BLACKLOCK, Campbellville, asks for solutions to problems 3 and 4, H. S. Physics, page 71.

ANSWERS :

No. 3, page 71, H. S. P.—Pressure on top is nothing ; pressure on bottom is the weight of the water = $25 \times 20 \times 15$ ccm. = 7,500 grams ; average pressure outside is of water $\frac{1}{2}$ cm. deep = 7.5 cm. ; total pressure on side $25 \times 15 \times 7.5 = 2812.5$ grammes ; total pressure on end $20 \times 15 \times 7.5 = 2250$ grammes.

No. 4, page 71, H. S. P.—The additional pressure will be 100 grams for every 4 square cm. of area on inner surface ; additional pressure on bottom = $\frac{25 \times 20}{4} \times 100 = 12,000$ grammes.

This is pressure on top also. Additional pressure on side $\frac{25 \times 15}{4} \times 100 = 9,375$ grammes.

Additional pressure on end $\frac{20 \times 15}{4} \times 100 = 7,500$ grammes.

SUBSCRIBER, Belleville, asks for solutions to Senior Leaving Physics paper, and for suitable texts for the course in this subject.

ANSWERS :

For solutions see another column. There is no good text that covers completely the course. You will find the following helpful : Maguire's Mechanics, Hamblin Smith's Hydrostatics, Silvanus Thompson's Magnetism and Electricity, and Hamblin Smith's Heat.

THE best of men who ever wore earth about him was a meek, patient, humble, tranquil spirit ; the first true gentleman that ever breathed. — Decker.

Hints and Helps.

A FEW SUGGESTIONS ABOUT DISCIPLINE.

BY JEAN L. GOWDY, PRIN. PEABODY SCHOOL, MINNEAPOLIS.

THERE are comparatively few principles which are really valuable guides for us in discipline.

The reason is, I suppose, that child nature is as yet little understood. We shall all herald the coming of paidology with true interest.

There are, however, four rules which have helped me and which I try always to keep in mind.

First Rule.—Never antagonize children. If the teacher is a tyrant, always contriving ways and means of abridging the freedom of her pupils, they will as surely retaliate by being dishonest, tricky, eye-servants, as any other human beings in bondage.

"Don't do that," and "Stop that," are expressions that are very hateful to children, and if they obey these commands it is only that they fear the consequences.

Is this the ideal of obedience we wish to set before our children ?

Let it be influence and not tyranny that governs your school. Influence is gained by sympathy and your influence will always be in proportion to your intellectual sympathy.

Make the children feel that you are their friend and helper and not a police officer. I will illustrate by one or two simple incidents that come to my mind.

Marbles began to appear about three weeks ago. I always dread marble-time, it means tardiness, idleness, and dirty hands, so I began to devise means of keeping them away from school.

I said to the children, "I have noticed two things in particular about marble-time, one is it causes tardiness; and if you look at your hands I think I need not tell you about the other thing I have noticed. Tardiness we can never make up. Time lost is lost forever. There is no water in our building as there is in most buildings, and you lose your precious school time when you must go home to wash your hands. What had we better do ?"

The children at once agreed to leave their marbles at home and play after school, and they did so too. Every one was pleasant about it, and each thought he was following his own good judgment.

One day last fall as I came to school I noticed that our usually neat yard was literally strewn with papers. The boys had been making what they call paper snappers. As fast as one was broken it was thrown down and another made.

I was provoked, and my first impulse was to scold, for I learned this before I knew the better way, and the power of habit is strong, but instead I asked the boys to show me one, to unfold and refold it, to show me how they made it pop so loud, where they learned to make them, etc. By this time there was a crowd of interested boys around me. Then, I said, "Those are quite funny play things but they don't seem to help the appearance of our yard, do they !" Without a word they commenced picking up the papers. When it was clean again, I said, "Play with the papers all you wish, but keep the broken ones in your pockets, and when you pass into the room put them into the waste basket." I had no more trouble and soon they disappeared entirely. These are small things, but I have only small things to give you from my own experience and straws show which way the wind blows.

Second Rule.—If you must punish let it be retributive punishment.

This is Nature's way, and it is the only punishment in which the child sees absolute justice.

We are called upon now for related work, why not related punishment also ?

Require the untidy child to clean his desk and the floor around it if it has been soiled by his carelessness; the idle child to make up time lost in idleness; the one who breaks his pen carelessly to furnish a new one or to be marked zero in his lesson, having no pen with which to write.

The child who quarrels or calls names may lose his playtime until he has decided to be polite on the play ground.

The dishonest child should be made to feel that he has lost your confidence and cannot be

trusted until he proves himself trustworthy. Watch him closely though, and meet him half way. I have known cases where it was a good thing for a child to feel that his conduct had the disapproval of all his playmates as well as of his teacher and the principal.

I remember a boy who was rude and idle in school, disturbing all around him. Twice in one morning he was sent to the office. The second time the principal took him back to his room she said to the children, "Harry's behavior is a disgrace to your room. His parents send him here to learn and instead he idles away his time and steals yours and mine. Something must be done, what shall it be?" "Whip him," suggested one child. "Oh no," said the principal, "I am not here to whip children, my business is to help and teach you."

They decided that it would be best to send him home to stay until he was ready to work with the rest, and be gentlemanly.

"Very well," said the principal, "They do not want you here. Harry, come with me."

The child followed her from the room sobbing in a most heartbroken manner.

"This punishment," said she, "made a deeper impression upon him than any amount of whipping could have made, as he saw the justice in it, and knew that it was a last resort.

When the principal saw that he had been sufficiently punished she again took him to the room and asked the children if they would not forgive him and try him again. They signified their willingness and Harry was restored to his seat a subdued child.

It is often better to give an obstinate child a choice between two things. "You may stay and do your work properly or be marked zero in your lesson," or "I will give you a quarter of an hour to do this properly and if it is not done then, I will go home with you and see your parents." Let the child feel that the decision rests entirely with him and do not appear anxious or disturbed about his choice.

Third Rule.—Instead of moralizing or lecturing, try stories, illustrating the truths and lessons you wish to impress upon the mind.

I once knew a school to be cured of dishonesty and tricky conduct, by reading to them the Lincoln Stories, by J. B. McClure, a book I would recommend to all teachers. Nothing was said of the lessons or morals of these stories, but they were allowed to sink into the children's hearts and so quietly and surely did their work.—*Popular Educator.*

STAYING AFTER SCHOOL.

WHAT are you keeping them for?" said Miss Wiley to Miss Sprague, to whose room she had come at noon.

"Why, to make up their work, of course," was the reply.

"Wasn't there time in school hours?"

"Time for most of the class, but some of these were idle, and some are dull and slow, so they have to stay."

Here a boy came up with his slate, and Miss Sprague looked over his work.

"All right but this last problem. Look that over and find your mistake."

A girl came with sentences "left over" from the language lesson. Her errors were noted, and she was sent back to her seat.

In the lull, Miss Sprague said a little sharply, "I don't see how *your* pupils all get their work done at exactly the same time, so all can be dismissed."

"They don't all do the same work. There is no set, definite amount that must be done in a given lesson. John works hard all the time on one problem, while Henry gets seven or eight done. Henry is so much ahead to be sure, but I'm not going to keep John at noon to finish, and so punish myself, and keep him at work more hours than the law allows."

"That must be a nice, easy way to get along, but I can't reconcile it with my conscience," said Miss Sprague, tartly.

Miss Wiley felt herself growing tart too; and as another delinquent brought his slate up at that minute, she "took herself off."

Which one was right?

As I am Miss Wiley, of course I think I am. Suppose the last lesson of the morning is one in arithmetic. We are in simple interest. I have been at the board for half an hour working with them, "explaining, persuading, expanding;" all have worked with zeal; they've heard so often about reckoning interest, and now they

are really doing it, and "it isn't a bit hard." Then I say, "Open your books at page 203, and you'll find a great many of these problems, and I want you to see how many you can do by yourselves before the bell rings."

Then they "buckle to," and, before the bell, two or three have them all done, and some are still staggering among the first easy ones. The bell rings; I praise their diligent work and tell them how easy it will soon seem to them all, as they clear and put away slates. They all go out into the hall together, happy and content.

Some days when the work is not so new and fascinating, I have to urge lazy or flagging ones, and often assist dull and stupid ones. But when school is out I want to be too; and I want no one to stay unless he stays of his own free will, to ask assistance.

If a test or a composition is not finished at bell time, all stay as a matter of course until they have finished. But we try to begin in time, and those who are through first take little books from our library, to read until the bell rings.

Miss Sprague puts in a half hour's more work in a day than I do; the same children are there at noon and in the afternoon, languidly or sullenly "finishing up their work;" they expect nothing else; they will be the failures of the class in spite of her, and she might better save her own strength.

Miss Sprague lately admitted that "she didn't know but that I was right after all."

"Out West," in *Missouri Teacher.*

"THE SCHOOL-ROOM VOICE."

BY CAROLINE B. LEROW.

THERE is no doubt whatever that in many instances the teacher herself creates in the school-room the inattention, disorder, and rebellion which she is constantly endeavoring to prevent or remedy. What may be termed the "school-room voice" is more provocative of disorder and disobedience than all other causes combined.

We are all susceptible to the influence of voices. Occasionally we hear one which rouses every element of our nature into the most violent and what often seems the most unreasonable antagonism to the speaker. "I can never hear that woman speak," said a bright young college student of one of her instructors, "that I don't just long to cuff her ears; yet she is one of the loveliest members of the faculty."

We are all familiar with that quality of voice whose effect is described in the significant words, and really the metaphorical expression is often the literal truth. We generally conceive, too, a dislike for the person whose voice is not agreeable to us, and are obliged to go through an elaborated logical process of mind in order to free ourselves from the prejudice so engendered—fortunate if we can succeed in our endeavors.

Children are even more susceptible to voices than are adults. They are quickly won or repelled by them, and although they are themselves probably ignorant of the cause, certain tones arouse in them an obstinate, sullen, and rebellious spirit. Contempt, too, for the speaker is sometimes excited, as in the case of the bad boy who whispered to his neighbor while he pointed to his "esteemed principal," "Jest hear her! You might know we'd got company. She's got her *dressy* tone on."

Tones make far more impression than words. Try to call a child to you, and no matter what hard words you use to him, if the tone is a caressing one he readily responds to it. Call him the most endearing terms in a harsh tone and he is effectually repelled. We hear persons talking in an adjoining room. Perhaps not a word of their conversation is intelligible to us, yet we confidently assert, "They are very angry," or, "They are very much amused," or, "Somebody is in trouble."

A good voice is an excellent thing in either man or woman, but to the teacher it seems to be one of the essential elements of success. The susceptibility to its influence upon the part of the child, the fact that he cannot escape from it no matter how irritating it may be, and the necessity for the teacher to be talking during the greater part of the time, all emphasize the necessity for the tone to be an agreeable—
—at any rate, not a disagreeable—one.

There are many teachers who contend that pleasant tones are impossible in the school-

room; not that they are not desirable, but that the largeness or the noisiness of the room, the inattention or disorder of the pupil, make the use of them out of the question. Such teachers believe and maintain that it is only loud, hard, sharp tones that can have the effect of securing the attention or quelling the disorder of a room full of children, and regulated their voices on that assumption. There could be no greater mistake made.

Moreover, no bad quality of voice can be constantly used without its having a bad physical effect upon the speaker. A natural tone is always an agreeable tone. Natural voices can never, at least, give offence, although some possess far more sweetness than others. A hard, sharp, or nasal tone is indicative of a wrong use of the vocal organs, and this wrong use persisted in produces incalculable injury to the throat and lungs. Teachers, more than any other class of persons, are prone to this misuse of the voice and the consequent physical suffering and disability.

Teachers should be able to talk easily, to talk agreeably, to talk in such a way as to produce no injury to the vocal organs, and at the same time to do this talking—a vast amount of which is so necessary—in a way to secure attention, command respect, and quiet disorder. All this is a very easy thing to do, provided the teacher knows—as she should know—how to do it.—*The School Journal.*

AN ELEMENT OF DISCIPLINE.

SUPERINTENDENTS and school commissioners will corroborate the statement that more teachers fail for the lack of government than from any other one cause. Many teachers fall by the wayside before catching a glimpse of the beauty of the teaching profession. The excuse offered may be, "I do not like teaching," but the real cause is, in many cases, that the teacher cannot easily manage a school.

The ability to wait quietly for order is one of the great secrets of controlling pupils. This power, if possessed, is not sufficiently exercised by many young teachers. When the school-bell rings after each intermission, the teacher will very soon have a quiet, orderly school if she persistently *waits* for order. If it requires one minute, wait; if it requires five minutes, wait; but have order before doing anything else. The ordinary school will become quiet in less than a minute. If a pupil does not put himself and his desk in order immediately, a glance from the teacher is usually sufficient. A kind word in private, too, may help the matter, for, it may be that the pupil is willing to do right if he knows how.

The object of perfect quiet after each recess is manifest. The noise of intermission dies into silence, and the study hour or recitation starts from absolute stillness, instead of, it may be, a jostle and an uproar. If disorder occurs at any time it can be effectively dealt with by stopping the recitation until order is restored.

Disorder can frequently be prevented by allowing proper time to execute orders. Many times have I seen teachers strike the bell as a signal for pupils to rise, and then strike it again for them to pass, long before the rising signal had been, or could have been obeyed. This is a sure way of throwing pupils into confusion. No matter in what way classes are called, the signal for rising should be obeyed by every pupil before the signal is given for passing.—*A. W. Emerson in Educational Gazette.*

Question Drawer.

IN answer to various subscribers who have written us for copies of Wells' and Sykes' Notes on High School Reader Lessons, we may say that the book is just now out of print. The publishers (W. J. Gage Co.) are getting out another edition, which they hope to have ready in about two weeks. Orders will be filled as soon as books can be procured.

THE student who goes up to one of our great seats of learning becomes one of the heirs to the best thoughts of the best men of all the ages, and both mind and heart are enriched thereby.—*Hon. Arthur Hill, Saginaw.*

Primary Department.

RETROSPECT AND PROSPECT.

RHODA LEE.

THE Christmas term is nearing its close. A few more days and school will present its usual holiday, deserted appearance. Much of the joyous Christmas spirit creeps unconsciously into the school-room during these last days, and we would not have it otherwise. We should rather encourage the glad, generous spirit that naturally fills all hearts at this time of the year. It is always advantageous to utilize when we can any unusual outside interest. The interest that is felt in the holiday season can be made use of in such work as language, composition, reading, spelling, and even in arithmetical problems. Try, too, to find time for an occasional story. Dickens' Christmas story never grows old. It is always a favorite both before and after Christmas.

The last days of the term are generally happy ones to the children, but as a rule the feelings which possess the teacher are not those of unmixed joy. There are sure to be failures of some sort to recall, and many mistakes to record. A retrospect of this kind is desirable, but it must not be allowed to discourage one. We must try to see wherein we have erred, and from the experience avoid a repetition of the mistakes; there is no need to be disheartened. However, never take school hours for a meditation of this sort. Perplexing questions, as far as possible, should be considered and solved outside of the school-room. If not solved at once, keep them away until they are. Try to banish all worry and anxiety from the class-room. The depression consequent upon bringing your burdens to school with you can not be confined to yourself; it is bound to have a benumbing effect upon the children.

It seems to me that the greatest discouragement in teaching arises from the difficulty experienced in making time and work agree. How frequently we hear it said — "It is perfectly impossible to teach according to the best methods and get over the work of the term. To get through, one must do nothing but the plainest and most solid work. There is no time for the fancy touches, not even for the truly educational method that should be followed." This very familiar complaint is fortunately not hopeless. The suggestions I have to offer may perhaps help some one.

First divide and carefully plan the work of the session, giving each month its particular part. Each month and week as they come should also be well planned, time being allowed for reviews and examinations. In thus laying out the work of the term remember that teaching is cumulative in effect and allow longer time for the first lessons in a subject than the last. Strength is gained with every exercise, and power thus given to grasp with greater ease and in larger quantities than at the beginning.

Prepare the work for the day. There is no more certain way of wasting time than by beginning a lesson without knowing exactly what and how to teach. Having

prepared the work of the day fix your thoughts on that part alone, and not on the ominous whole to be covered.

Keep the children mentally active. Do not make the mistake of giving long lessons. It is not possible for little children to give their best attention for more than twenty minutes at a time. Make the lesson short, bright, and impressive. Work with the children, teach through the eye rather than the ear at first, and never attempt any "fancy touches" that you are not sure will prove useful.

At the beginning of a term, when frequently a bright young girl, fresh from the training school, and filled with enthusiasm and ambition, comes to take charge of a class in the school, we hear such remarks as "She will soon get over that," or "That kind of thing is all right for a fancy Normal School lesson, but she will find that it doesn't pay in actual work." Sometimes these encouraging remarks reach the ear of the new comer and she falls quickly into the rut so easy of access, and adds one more to the list of very commonplace teachers. In many other cases sayings such as I have quoted serve only to strengthen the determination to show that it does pay to teach by the very best and most approved methods, to have a happy, wide-awake class, and throw one's whole soul into the work. And let me add that with all this the work of the term can be covered if the teacher have system, tact, and hopefulness. The last mentioned quality is one of the very necessary characteristics of the successful teacher. There are few difficulties that cannot largely be overcome by a confident and hopeful spirit. Do not allow yourself to become discouraged. Do not begin next session with the intention of doing just as you did during the last. Determine to make it more of a success; put heart and soul into your work; try untried plans; respond to suggestions; be on the watch for helps and hints for your work; improve every opportunity. To my mind come these exquisite lines of Tennyson, where he says:

"I hold it truth with him who sings,
To one clear harp in divers tones,
That men may rise on stepping stones,
Of their dead selves to higher things."

NUMBER PROBLEMS.

FOURTHS.

THE children having cut their circles into halves, using the dark or strong line for that division, each half should be divided into halves by cutting through the middle line. Have the parts counted, and have the children notice that the circle is now divided into four equal parts. Give name for each part, and write it in words and figures on the blackboard. Also give the word *quarter* as meaning the same thing. Have fourths put together to form a circle and call the children's attention to the fact that it is no longer a whole circle, although equal to one. Have the children tell how they would divide anything into fourths, using the circle for illustration. They have now learned that in one circle there are four fourths. Have the circle

divided into halves, and the number of fourths in one and two halves counted. Have the children notice that one circle, two halves, and four fourths are equivalent.

Have fourths taken away from the circle successively, and these facts taught: $1 - \frac{1}{4} = \frac{3}{4}$, $1 - (\frac{2}{4} \text{ or } \frac{1}{2}) = \frac{1}{2}$, $1 - \frac{3}{4} = \frac{1}{4}$, $1 - \frac{4}{4} = 0$. Have the children find what must be put with $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, and $\frac{3}{4}$ to complete the circle.

Next have them find how many times $\frac{1}{4}$ must be taken to make $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, and 1 . Also into how many equal parts $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, and 1 must be divided to get $\frac{1}{4}$. Lines, slips of paper, paper squares, and oblongs should also be divided into fourths by the children.

Until perfectly familiar with the subject the children should use their circles when questions are given.

PRACTICAL PROBLEMS.

1. How would you cut an apple into fourths?
2. If Mary divided an apple equally among 4 girls, what part of the apple would each girl have?
3. If John eats $\frac{1}{4}$ of his candy each day, how many days will it last?
4. Carrie has spent $\frac{1}{4}$ of her money. What part of it has she left?
5. Mrs. Brown divided $\frac{3}{4}$ of a pie equally among 3 boys. What part of the pie did she give to each?
6. How could I get $\frac{1}{4}$ of a melon, if I had $\frac{1}{2}$ of one?
7. Jack sold all but $\frac{1}{4}$ of his papers. What part did he sell?
8. Jane's father gave her 1 dollar and told her to keep $\frac{1}{2}$ of it herself, and divide the remainder equally between her two brothers. What part of the dollar should she give to each?
9. Which would you rather have $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{2}{3}$ of a pie?
10. Arthur wishes to earn a dollar. He earned $\frac{1}{4}$ of a dollar on Monday, and $\frac{1}{2}$ of one on Tuesday. What part has he yet to earn?
11. Mr. Smith sold $\frac{1}{2}$ of his sheep to Mr. Brown, $\frac{1}{4}$ to Mr. Jones, and kept the remainder himself. What part of his sheep did he sell? What part did he keep for himself?
12. Lucy picked a quart of berries. She gave $\frac{1}{2}$ of these to Ella, and $\frac{2}{4}$ to May. What did she have left?
13. Ella saved 1 quarter of a dollar each week for 3 weeks. What part of a dollar did she save? How many more quarters must she save to have a dollar?
14. How many slates at a quarter of a dollar each can Cora buy with 1 dollar?
15. If Fannie had $\frac{1}{2}$ of a peach, into how many equal parts must she cut it to get $\frac{1}{4}$ of a peach. How should she cut $\frac{3}{4}$ of a pear to get $\frac{1}{4}$?

—Primary Educator.

STORY FOR REPRODUCTION.

PINKIE.

A LONG time ago there lived in Massachusetts a little girl called "Pinkie," because her cheeks were so pink and pretty. There were in the family her father and mother, two sisters and three brothers.

School-Room Methods.

METHOD OF TEACHING HISTORY.

It is a wise plan to have the pupil read about a given subject in a continuous and connected way before he is given formal lessons upon it.

This reading the teacher should guide. At the outset he should try to lead the learner to see that the real history of a people includes everything about them; that it is, therefore, an aggregate of innumerable facts; that it is impossible, as it would be undesirable, for the most painstaking historian to present all these facts, or a millionth part of them; and that whoever has anything to do with history is compelled to select his materials from indefinite details. Such selection becomes possible because historic facts are not of equal value. The historian fixes upon those only which he thinks will help him show the grander features of a people's origin, rise, progress, vicissitudes.

The most elaborate history, therefore, is a merciless abridgment. A school history abridges such abridgment, and the boy or girl who would conquer a school history must be trained to a further abridgment still. When it comes, then, to getting a lesson, the attention should be focused upon those few things that are of chief consequence. These once firmly grasped become, as it were, centres about which, as in a crystal, subordinate matters will tend to arrange themselves with greater or less system and tenacity. If such minor matters are retained in the memory in considerable number, very good; if they are speedily and largely forgotten, as is more likely, there are usually left hints or traces of them that, however vague or shadowy, are still serviceable to the pupil when he would refer to them for subsequent purposes.

And here a caution should be given about memorizing history. It is desirable, on the one hand, to have at command the more important facts of history. It is clear, on the other hand, that the most precious things history has to offer may be missed by one who is chiefly employed in memorizing it. When history is viewed as an assemblage of unrelated facts, conquering it naturally takes the form of committing it to memory. When it is looked upon as a development,—a chain of causes and effects,—it appeals more directly to the reason and understanding.

Many, if not most, of the facts of history the pupil is destined to forget. He should be so trained, therefore, that when the unavoidable oblivion comes, he shall yet retain something of interest in reading history, something of power in following up a line of ordinary investigation, something of a disposition to seek for the underlying causes of events, something of a grasp of the mightier tendencies and movements of history, and some inkling of that conception of history that makes it a teacher of the present out of the wealth of its past.

Whatever methods the versatility of teachers may devise for class instruction, two points should not be overlooked: (1) the stimulation of thought, and (2) excellence in reproduction. When the former is the object, the pupil should be encouraged to express himself freely; his inadequate expression must be tenderly dealt with, and in general, his mind must not be unduly burdened by anything that would prevent right thinking, as, for instance, by a struggle to repeat matter from memory. The pupil's genuine thought is a kind of crude or raw material which it will take time to work into shape. To encourage such thought, a certain sort of distracting criticism should be avoided.

When, however, a subject has been grasped, and it comes to presenting it, then a different treatment is needed. It is a good plan to assign the pupil matter beforehand to study for presentation,—matter that he knows he will be called upon to present. His aim should be to use his own language freely, to recite promptly and fluently and accurately, and to do all this with a good voice and a pleasing manner. The pupil should have as good a chance as his elders, who, if they are to speak in public, usually desire to make special and precise preparations for such speaking. The two ideals for thinking and reproducing should be kept distinct, at least for a time. To think on one's feet and to present the results of such thinking in good forcible English,—this is the flower of prolonged and successful discipline.

The importance of collateral reading to the teacher can hardly be overstated. It is essen-

SELECTIONS FOR MEMORIZING.

AMONG the beautiful pictures
That hang on Memory's wall,
Is one of a dim old forest,
That seemeth the best of all.
Not for its gnarled oaks olden,
Dark with the mistletoe;
Not for the violets golden,
That sprinkle the vale below;
Not for the milk-white lilies,
That lean from the fragrant hedge,
Coquetting all day with the sunbeams,
And stealing their golden edge;
Not for the vines on the upland,
Where the bright red berries rest,
Nor the pinks nor the pale, sweet cowslips,
It seemeth to me the best.

I once had a little brother,
With eyes that were dark and deep;
In the lap of that dim old forest
He lieth in peace asleep.
Light as the down of the thistle,
Free as the winds that blow,
We roved there the beautiful summers,
The summers of long ago.
But his feet on the hills grew weary,
And one of the autumn eves
I made for my little brother
A bed of the yellow leaves.

Sweetly his pale arms folded
My neck in a meek embrace,
As the light of immortal beauty
Silently covered his face;
And when the arrows of sunset
Lodged in the tree-tops bright,
He fell, in his saint-like beauty,
Asleep by the gates of light.
Therefore of all the pictures
That hang on Memory's wall,
The one of the dim old forest
Seemeth the best of all.

THE BODY HOUSE.

THERE are queer little houses
We all of us know,
And we carry them with us
Wherever we go.

Are they built, do you think,
Of wood, brick or stones?
No; these funny houses
Are all built of bones.

With flesh they are cushioned,
Without and within,
And drawn over the whole
Is a pretty white skin.

Though you each own a house,
I'm sure you'll confess
That its use and its name
You never can guess.

I suppose I must tell you,
So, list, and you'll hear:
Your queer little house
Is—your body, my dear.

—Selected.

A CURE FOR TARDINESS.

WE have a specific for the cure of tardiness. It is:—Create a sentiment against it. The particular means by which we have accomplished this is the card system. Each pupil who comes tardy to school is sent to the principal's office for a tardy card, which is punched opposite the month in which the case of tardiness occurred; and this card the pupil takes to his teacher, where it is kept on file for use, should he again come late. The cards are made so as to last for a year.

Out of a school of 800 pupils we have had but 250 cases of tardiness this year, and last month only 15 cases. We have 18 rooms in our school.

To show the decrease in tardiness since the system in use was introduced, let me give some statistics. During four (4) months in the spring of 1891, we had 732 cases of tardiness. This was when there were 17 rooms and about 700 pupils enrolled, and was before the card system was introduced. During nine (9) months of the school year 1891-2, with a school of 800 pupils, we had, after the introduction of the card system, 781 cases of tardiness. During nine (9) months of 1892-3, with an average enrolment of 825 pupils, we had, under the card system 284 cases of tardiness. This is a perceptible decrease, you will see.—M. H. Miller, in *Popular Educator*.

They were all happy children, and loved their little sister Pinkie.

One warm day Pinkie went to the barber's with her brother Will. She was interested to see the man cut off Will's hair so short. When they got home she rubbed her little fat hand over his head, and laughed because the short hair pricked her.

Every morning Pinkie used to go with Will to drive the cows to pasture. Roses grew on each side of the long lane which led to the pasture. Coming home Pinkie used to pick some of the pretty roses for her mamma.

When Will was at work or school, Pinkie used to play with Smut, her black cat.

I am afraid Smut was not always just happy. If Pinkie was sick, Smut had to be sick too.

The next morning after Will's hair had been cut, Pinkie asked her mamma for the scissors. Mamma thought Pinkie wanted to cut roses.

What do you think she did? She took Smut into the wood-shed, and cut off her fur. Kitty cried and scratched, but Pinkie held her fast.

Mamma, hearing the noise, came out to see what the trouble was. There sat Pinkie, with her hands scratched and apron torn, clipping away with the scissors as fast as Smut would let her. Mamma took away poor kitty, who ran and hid behind a barrel.

"What made you do so?" asked mamma. "Why, I wanted Smut to look like Willie."
—Primary Educator.

QUESTIONS REQUIRING THOUGHT.

In what direction is a little girl running when the first sunshine of the morning comes directly on her face?

In what direction will your shadow fall at six o'clock on a summer evening?

You see a rainbow in the evening: is it east or west of where you are standing? Why?

What direction is opposite S. E.?

In what part of the sky is the sun in the middle of the afternoon?

A ship was sailing southeast and was struck squarely on the left side by a steamer; in what direction was the steamer going?

Explain the difference between a picture and a map.

Explain the use of: express companies; the postal system; railways.

Of what use are the telegraph and telephone wires which we see on the roads and streets?

If a street runs north and south, which way do the houses on its east side face? Which way do the houses on the west side face?

Tell in what way farmers make money from sheep.

Name a tree of the forest which produces a valuable article of food.

Distinguish between an orchard and a forest.

What is meant when we say that the water of the Great Lakes is "fresh"?

—Eaton's *Common Sense Questions in Geography*.

tial not only to his equipment as an instructor, but to his influence over the reading habits of his pupils. The text repeatedly limits to a single sentence the record of events rich in life, picturesqueness, and color: and much of the value and charm of history is missed if there is no acquaintance with this underlying wealth. The enthusiastic interest that comes to the teacher from such enlightenment is pretty sure to extend by a subtle contagion to his pupils. It stands to reason that sympathetic advice about reading from one who has travelled the recommended way and brings back glowing accounts of it, is more likely to win young people than perfunctory directions from one who has never been over the road at all. — From "Suggestions to Teachers," in *Fiske's History of the United States*.

EXERCISES IN FIXING CORRECT FORMS.

(To correct the use of two negatives, as, "I ain't got no pencil"; "I didn't have no time." Exercises given to primary grades.)

Teacher—To-day I will play that I am borrowing. I will ask you to lend me something. Please lend me your knife.

Pupil—I ain't got no knife.

"Johnny, please lend me your knife."

"I haven't got no knife."

"Katie, please lend me your knife."

"I have no knife."

"Katie's answer was right. I like the way in which she said it. Listen; I will ask her again. Katie, please lend me your knife. Johnny, please let me take your knife."

"I have no knife."

"Please let me take your watch. Please let me take your umbrella."

"I have no umbrella."

"Please lend me your pen."

"I have no pen."

"Will you give me an orange?"

"I have no orange."

"Let Katie take your book."

"I have no book."

The continuation of this exercise makes it necessary that every child use the correct form. The teacher should emphasize the correct form rather than the incorrect, calling attention to the one who gives the right answer and not to the wrong one.

(To fix the correct form of the pronoun used in the nominative case.)

Teacher—John and Peter may run across the room. John, tell me what you and Peter did.

Answer—Me and Peter run across the room.

"Peter, tell me what you and John did."

"I and John ran across the room."

"The polite way is to name John before you name yourself. Now tell me again."

"John and I ran across the room."

"Now, John, Peter told me very nicely. Listen while he tells me again. Now you may answer the question. What did you and Peter do?"

"Peter and I ran across the room."

"Kate, in what class are you?"

"I am in the highest class."

"In what class is Mary?"

"Mary is in the highest class."

"Katie, tell me in what class you and Mary are."

"Mary and me are in the highest class."

"Do you remember how Peter told me who ran across the room. Peter tell us again. Now, Kate, tell me who are in the highest class."

"Mary and I are in the highest class."

"Who lives on 10th street? John, Jack, Mary? Mary, you may tell me what three children live on 10th street."

"John, Jack, and I live on 10th street."

"Susie and Belle may take these pencils."

"Susie, what girls have my pencils?"

"Belle and I have your pencils."

"Belle, what girls have my pencils?"

"Susie and I have your pencils."

This exercise will need to be repeated many times in the ordinary school-room, but the children never tire of the practice when varied as above suggested. The right form is emphasized, and the children are required to use it over and over again. This accomplishes much more than the repetition of a rule. The use of the right form becomes habitual only through practice. Written exercises in filling blanks may be assigned after the right ideal of the form is fixed in the minds of the children.

The mistakes which occur in the use of irregular verbs are always to be found in the use of the past tense and the perfect participles. There

is no need of drilling upon all of the several forms. Centre all the attention upon those where the difficulty is found. Exercise:

Teacher (writing upon the board)—"Mary, what am I doing?"

"You are writing upon the board."

"John, what did I do?"

"You wrote upon the board."

"Kate, what have I done?"

"You have written upon the board."

"Mary, tell Kate what I did upon the board."

"Miss A. wrote upon the board."

"Susie, tell Kate what I have done."

"Miss A. has written upon the board."

"John I will give you my chalk. What did I do?"

"You gave me your chalk."

"Kate, what have I done?"

"You have given your chalk to John."

"Susie, what did I do?"

"You gave your chalk to John."

"See this piece of paper. What am I doing?"

"You are tearing the paper."

"What did I do?"

"You tore the paper."

"What have I done?"

"You have torn the paper."

"Mary, tell Kate what I did."

"Miss A. tore the paper."

"Kate, tell Susie what I have done."

"Miss A. has torn the paper."

"See the crayon. What am I doing?"

"You are breaking the crayon."

"What did I do?"

"You broke the crayon."

"What have I done?"

"You have broken the crayon."

"Tell John what I have done."

"Miss A. has broken the crayon."

"Tell John what I did."

"Miss A. broke the crayon."

In the above exercises the teacher must insist upon close attention to the form of her question, and exact answers. After a few such lessons, the children will become accustomed to the correct form and will observe its use in the class, and then it will be possible to call the attention of the pupil, by word or sign, to his use of the incorrect form, and such a correction will not interrupt the current of the lesson. After these exercises have been given, the teacher may insist upon the correct use in all the exercises of the day. Frequently the pupils become critics, and report any departure from the new ideal that has been presented to them. In selecting forms for drill, choose those that have been used incorrectly. Drill upon one until that is fixed before attempting another.—From *Daymarks for Teachers*, by Sarah L. Arnold.

HOW TO TEACH GRAMMAR.

This old-fashioned way of teaching grammar is perfectly absurd. Rules are all right now and again, but as the language we speak was a language long before the rules were rules, then I say let the rules keep modestly in the background. What our pupils require now-a-days is novelty. This amuses them and makes them think. My theory as to the teaching of grammar has the merit of being absolutely new, and of necessity will induce a tremendous amount of original thinking just on that account. I have heard teachers proceed partly along the lines I suggest, but they did not appear to do so with anything like system; they just seemed to have snatches of inspiration at brief intervals without logical continuity, and so their good intentions were not wholly efficacious.

The teacher should approach the subject by explaining to the pupils what grammar is. An explanation of this sort is always extremely interesting, and the longer it can be made, the better. The pupils will revel in it. Then he (or she), *i.e.*, the teacher, you know, should inform the class that far more can be learned by hearing improper forms of expression, than by a constant study of correct literary language.

This object may be admirably effected if the teacher will follow a few simple directions. In the first place he should ignore the *ing* sound in present participles; 2nd, he should practice sedulously the use of double negatives; 3rd, he ought to be as tautological as possible; and 4th, he should not fail to introduce in his speech all the slang of the day. There are other directions that might be given, but these seem to be most easily complied with.

If time is limited we should say so, thus: "We ain't goin' to have a full half-hour to this lesson to-day." If doubtful as to any matter, the pro-

per form is, "It is not so, I don't think." Should he refer to continuous forward motion, he ought to say, "The travellers proceeded on." If teaching arithmetic, he should, when necessary, speak about "reducing figures down," and if a pupil is not behaving as well as usual, that pupil should be warned against the possibility of finding himself "in the soup." It is also in good form to tell a girl that you will "stand her up in the corner if she does not conduct herself properly."

By following such a course the beauties of our language will come out strongly by contrast, and besides this, the teaching of grammar may be carried on while engaged with every other subject on the programme.

A.

WORK IN BUSINESS ARITHMETIC

Write a promissory note.

Write a note payable to bearer.

Write one payable to order.

One payable to individual only.

Write a demand note.

Write one without interest.

Write one bearing the legal rate of interest.

Write a negotiable note and endorse it.

Write a note specifying time and place of payment.

Write a joint note.

Make a bank check to your father.

Write a draft upon some bank; a time draft; a sight draft.

How is money exchanged between different countries? Give process of such.

Is a note made by a minor, or on the Sabbath, legal?

Suppose a note falls due upon the Sabbath, when is it legally due?

What is meant when we say "a note has gone to protest?"

Do all notes have three days of grace?

When a bill is protested for non-acceptance, what is the result?—*Florida School Journal*.

THE MONTREAL "WITNESS."

ONE of the sights of Montreal is a visit to the *Witness* office, which, for internal elegance, convenience, and completeness of equipment has few rivals anywhere. One's attention is arrested on the sidewalk by seeing through a window a Chinaman patiently turning a crank with the air of one who has a contract for a century of faithful labor, and means to fulfil it. The Chinaman is made of wood, and for steady, patient, endless toil commend us to a wooden Chinaman. Making bold to go in we find ourselves in an enviable public office with tiled floor, hot-house flowers and what not. Then we were piloted up a spiral stair, through the great editorial room, to the battery of linotypes which are the marvel of the nineteenth century as Gutenberg's movable types were of the awakening life of the fifteenth. The great Hoe press of the *Witness*, which prints almost any number of pages, from two to thirty-two, is the very most complete machine anywhere. Close beside it you are shown on enquiry a patch on the floor which marks the spot where exploded the famous bomb some months ago, which the *Witness* doubtless owed to its active and effective war against gamblers and bunco steers, a class which, by exposure and careful caricature it has managed to drive from the city, or at least to deprive of the open tolerance and public freedom which they before enjoyed at the hands of sympathetic officials. The stand for law and order taken by the *Witness* lately resulted in an investigation of the police and detective system of Montreal, which has revealed the need of some revolutionary change. The paper is devoted to temperance and all good things. It claims to be independent in politics, and has certainly opposed with equal vigor the Conservative government at Ottawa and the Liberal Mercier government at Quebec. It is at all events a clean family paper, very carefully edited and one of the prettiest in get up and typography that comes to our office.

No one should teach in the schools who has not an enthusiasm for the work, a natural capacity for it, and a thorough training.—*New York Tribune*.

Literary Notes.

A CHOICE CHRISTMAS GIFT.—In the selection of a choice Christmas gift, or an addition to one's own library, both elegance and usefulness will be found combined in WEBSTER'S INTERNATIONAL DICTIONARY, which is the last of the various revisions and enlargements of the original "Webster." The International represents fifty times the amount of literary labor that was expended upon the earliest edition, and is, without question, the most complete and reliable work of the kind ever published in a single volume. It is warmly endorsed by eminent scholars throughout the English-speaking world, and is a most useful book for the library, the school, the family, the student, and in fact for all who read or write the English language.

THE Christmas Number of Scribner's Magazine presents a remarkable list of popular writers, including Rudyard Kipling, Robert Grant, H. C. Bunner, Brander Matthews and George W. Cable. In illustration it shows a number of novel features. The number opens with a noble poem by Rudyard Kipling, entitled "McAndrews' Hymn," which gives the philosophical reflections of the old Scotch engineer of an ocean liner. Another poem with striking pictures is "The Woodcutter's Hut," by A. Lampman. H. C. Bunner contributes another of his suburban sketches, in which he quaintly tells "The Story of a Path" from its origin to the present day. Robert Grant, whose story, "A Bachelor's Christmas," was the great success of the last December number, contributes another Christmas tale which should meet with equal favor. It is called "The Matrimonial Tontine Benefit Association." Other fiction is an amusing railway story by Francis Lynde, entitled "By Special Invitation;" the pathetic tale of a spiritualistic medium entitled "Minnehaha," by Eva Wilder McGlasson; the story of a sensational discovery in Egypt, "The Mantle of Osiris," by Walter L. Palmer, and the concluding chapters of "John March, Southerner," together with the fine pictures by clever artists with which almost every article is copiously illustrated, complete one of the most entertaining and artistically attractive numbers of this magazine.

THE Atlantic Monthly for December contains a memorial article on Dr. Holmes, by the editor, in which mention is very properly made of Dr. Holmes' constancy to that magazine, which had the honor of giving to the public so many of his earlier productions. Mr. William Sharp gives certain letters of Walter Pater, together with some interesting personal reminiscences. An Old-Time Sorosis is an exceedingly interesting account of a Ladies' Literary Society in Norwich, Conn., early in this century. Mr. Franklin Eastman, whose pungent Letter to a Western Friend attracted a good deal of attention, contributes an equally plain-spoken epistle to an English friend. Miss Agnes Repplier considers "Ghosts" in her most delightful manner, and rightly deprecates the attempts now made to lure them from the seclusion in which they habitually dwell. The study of Reginald Pole is concluded, his life as Archbishop of Canterbury being also a history of the attempted restoration of the Church of Rome in the England of Queen Mary. A Christmas flavor is given to the number by Sir Edward Strachey's Christmas at an English Country House, a charming contemporary sketch; and the graceful tale, "The Christmas Angel," Mr. C. Edward Walker's "Suggestions on the

Architecture of Schoolhouses," is an earnest plea for greater beauty in such structures in America. The most noteworthy pieces of fiction in the number is the conclusion of Mrs. Foote's striking novelette, "The Trumpeter." Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston.

MESSRS. HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & Co., of Boston, New York, and Chicago, have recently published as Number 68 of their Riverside Literature Series (paper, 15 cents) Oliver Goldsmith's "The Deserted Village, The Traveller, and Other Poems." This edition which has been prepared especially for use in schools, contains a Biographical Sketch, an Introduction, Explanatory Notes, and several pages of some of the best known familiar quotations from Goldsmith's writings. In this book will be found all of Goldsmith's most famous poems. The auxiliary matter is new, interesting, instructive, and of high literary merit. Every boy and girl should have an adequate acquaintance with Goldsmith. This excellent number of an admirable series makes it easier to do so.

The Youth's Companion has just published a calendar for 1895 which is a work of art—indeed, three works of art in one. Scenes typical of three seasons of the year, Winter, Summer, Autumn, are shown. The first picture represents a mother and son pausing in their walk in a snowy field, across which a rabbit is running, much to the amusement of the boy. The artist in the summer scene has pictured three children rowing down a winding river; and were it not for the apples which fill the pan in her arms, one would scarcely imagine that the graceful girl in the third picture was typical of Autumn. Around the pictures are grouped the monthly calendars, tied together by ribbons. This attractive calendar and a full Prospectus for 1895 will be sent free upon application, to anyone considering a subscription to The Companion. From no other paper can so much entertainment and instruction be obtained for so little money (only \$1.75 a year). If you subscribe now you will receive the paper until January 1, 1895, and for a full year from that date, including the Thanksgiving, Christmas and New Year's Double Numbers. The Youth's Companion, Boston, Mass.

THE complete novel for the December issue of Lippincott's is "Mrs. Hallam's Companion," by the well-known writer, Mrs. Mary J. Holmes. It follows from America to Europe, and back again, the fortunes of a young lady who deserved a better position than that of a "companion"—and found it. A short story by the author of "Dodo" will attract general attention. In this case expectations will not be disappointed, for Mr. E. F. Benson has written nothing better than "A Creed of Manners." Miss Ellen Mackubin tells of "A Live Ghost." "A Western Daisy Miller," by Claude M. Girardeau, has the flavor of the prairies, if not of the newer regions beyond. Dr. Charles C. Abbot's account of "An Odd Neighbor" reads like truth rather than fiction. True, too, and historical, are Charles Howard Shinn's recollections of "Don Jaime, of Mission San José." Calvin Dill Wilson has an interesting paper on "Shooting Bob White," and Alvan F. Sanborn another on "Living Pictures at the Louvre." Under the caption "Shall I Study Medicine?" Dr. A. L. Benedict gives some valuable figures and facts concerning doctors and their various experiences. Esmé Stuart writes of "Some Notable Women of the Past," and copies some of their letters. The closing instalment of "Talks with the Trade" discusses "The Personal Element" in literary

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business. The poetry of the number is by Florence Earle Coates, Susie M. Best, H. Prescott Beach, and Clarence Urmy.

Book Notices, etc.

A Tale of Two Cities, by Chas. Dickens, Boston, U.S.A.: Ginn & Company, 1894.

It is sufficient to say of this book that it belongs to the admirable series of CLASSICS FOR CHILDREN, published by this firm, and is uniform with the numerous other volumes of the series. It is, therefore, beautifully printed on good paper, and neatly bound, and in every respect a most attractive and healthful volume to put into the hands of children, young and old.

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OFFICIAL CALENDAR OF THE Educational Department

December:

15. Municipal Council to pay Secretary-Treasurer Public School Boards all sums levied and collected in township. [P. S. Act, sec. 118.]
- County Councils to pay Treasurer High Schools. [H. S. Act, sec. 30.]
- High School Treasurer to receive all moneys due and raised under High School Act. [H. S. Act, sec. 36 (1).]
20. Reports of Principals of County Model Schools to Department, due.
- Reports of Boards of Examiners on Third Class Professional Examinations, to Department, due.
- Last day for notice of formation of new school sections to be posted by Township Clerk. [P. S. Act, sec. 29.]
22. High Schools close, first term. [H. S. Act, sec. 42.]
- Public and Separate Schools close. [P. S. Act, sec. 173 (1) (2); S. S. Act, sec. 79 (1).]
25. New schools going into operation. [P. S. Act, sec. 81 (3); sec. 82 (3); sec. 87 (10); S. S. Act, sec. 4.]
- Alterations of school boundaries in unorganized townships take effect. [P. S. Act, 41 (2).]
26. Annual Public and Separate School meetings. [P. S. Act, sec. 17; sec. 102 (1); S. S. Act, sec. 27 (1); sec. 31 (1).]
- Last day for submitting by-law for establishing Township Boards. [P. S. Act, sec. 54.]
31. Semi-Annual Reports of High Schools to Department, due. [H. S. Act, sec. 14 (12).]
- Protestant Separate School Trustees to transmit to County Inspector names and attendance during the last preceding six months. [S. S. Act, sec. 12.]
- Rural Trustees to report average attendance of pupils to Inspector. [P. S. Act, sec. 206.]
- Semi-Annual Reports of Public School Trustees to Inspector, due. [P. S. Act, sec. 40 (13).]
- Semi-Annual Reports of Separate Schools to Department, due. [S. S. Act, sec. 28 (18); sec. 62.]
- Trustees' Report to Truant Officer, due. [Truancy Act, sec. 12.]
- Auditors' Report of cities, towns and incorporated villages to be published by Trustees. [P. S. Act, sec. 107 (12).]

SELECTIONS FOR LITERATURE.

ENTRANCE.—1895.

Fourth Reader.

- Lesson I. Tom Brown.
Lesson V. Pictures of Memory.
Lesson X. The Barefoot Boy.
Lesson XVIII. The Vision of Mirza.—First Reading.
Lesson XX. The Vision of Mirza.—Second Reading.
Lesson XXIII. On His Own blindness.
Lessons XXVI. From "The Deserted Village."
Lesson XXXII. Flow Gently, Sweet Afton.
Lesson XXXVII. The Bell of Atri.
Lesson XLII. Lady Clare.
Lesson LXVIII. The Heroine of Vercheres.
Lesson LXXVI. Landing of the Pilgrims.
Lesson LXXXIX. After Death in Arabia.
Lesson XCI. Robert Burns.
Lesson XCIV. The Ride from Ghent to Aix.
Lesson XCVI. Canada and the United States.
Lesson XCVIII. National Morality.
Lesson CI. Scene from "King John."

SELECTIONS FOR MEMORIZATION.

Fourth Reader.

1. The Bells of Shandon, pp. 51-52.
2. Mary in Heaven, pp. 97-98.
3. Ring out, Wild Bells, pp. 121-122.
4. Lady Clare, pp. 123-124.
5. Lead Kindly Light, p. 145.
6. Before Sunrise, p. 199.
7. The Three Fishers, p. 220.
8. Forsaken Merman, pp. 298-302.
9. To a Skylark, pp. 317-320.
10. Elegy, written in a country churchyard, pp. 331-335.