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EXAMINATIONS 1893.

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1. DOMINION DAY (*Saturday*)  
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Legislative grant payable by Provincial Treasurer. [P. S. Act, 122 (2).]
4. Primary and High School Junior Leaving, and University Pass Matriculation Examinations begin.
5. Examination for Commercial Specialists' Certificates at Toronto.
13. High School Senior Leaving and University Honor Matriculation Examinations begin.
15. Public School Trustees Semi-Annual Reports to Inspector, due. [P. S. Act, sec. 40 (13)]
20. Reports on the High School Entrance Examinations, to Department, due.  
Reports on the Public School Leaving Examinations to Department, due.

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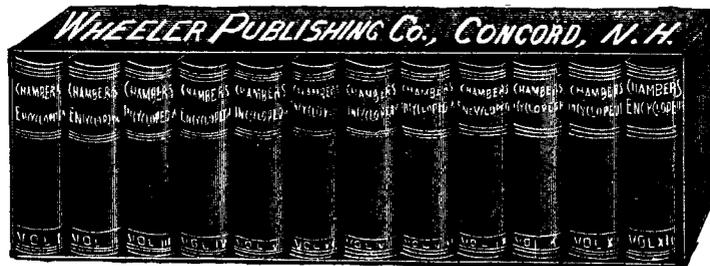
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TORONTO, JULY 1, 1893.

Vol. VII.  
No. 6.

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## Editorial Notes.

THE request of one or two of our subscribers that we should publish time-tables of the coming examinations came to hand too late to be complied with in the last number of the JOURNAL, and the date of the present number is too late to be of much use. We have, therefore, thought it better to use the space for other matter, knowing that the Department will see to it that the time-tables are issued and distributed in good time.

IN accordance with our established custom, we shall, after the next number of the JOURNAL, that for July 15th, give our readers their annual rest for a month. No numbers of the paper will be issued in August. We may safely assume that our readers will, during the holidays, turn their attention to other kinds of literature, and they will be right in doing so. Change in the subjects and lines of thought are as restful to the mind as change of occupation is to the body. The next number, being really a holiday number, will be of a somewhat general character, with less of the practical element than the ordinary numbers.

We commend to the special attention of teachers the suggestions given by the mathematical editor in this number, touching the use of simple diagrams in connection with arithmetical problems. We have vivid recollections of the help derived in early days from such methods. They are wonderfully effective in clarifying ideas and processes which might otherwise remain indistinct and confused. The

method, is, of course, vastly more helpful if the pupil can succeed in making his own representations. It matters little how crude these are, provided the main features of the problem are correctly reproduced. A few hints from the teacher will often set a discouraged pupil on a new track which will lead him into the open and enable him to enjoy his work in the sunshine of clear perceptions. Try it.

IN a series of "Chats about Children," which are being published in a popular journal, occurs the following:

In an interview, Mrs. Pearsall Smith told her domestic experiences with a naughty boy. Scolding and punishing had no effect. Then a happy inspiration came to her. She took every possible occasion of praising the child. He got the fullest credit for his moments of good humour, was told 'What a comfort to have such a good boy!' and when he was naughty, he was told what a treasure he was to his mother. The result was that in a very short time the evil spirit was completely exorcised, and the little fellow became noted for his goodness.

The above illustrates well the old adage that truth lies between extremes. The idea of reforming a naughty boy by indiscriminate praise, irrespective of his deserts, is so absurd that one half suspects Mrs. Pearsall Smith to have been joking or ironical when speaking with the reporter. Children have a keen sense of justice and undeserved praise is likely to be scarcely less mischievous than undeserved blame. And yet the teaching of the extract is true at the bottom. We have no doubt that many a so-called incorrigible has been made such by persistent nagging and fault-finding, while judicious and even generous praise is one of the most potent uplifting forces which can be brought to bear upon child-nature.

TOUCHING the difficult question of the management of large graded schools and other institutions in which a number of assistants are employed, we have observed that two distinct ideals seem to be set up by different men, leading to two distinct modes of procedure. There are principals or heads whose one idea seems to be to do everything in the way of management and government themselves, so far as is at all possible. There are others who have the happy faculty of knowing how to avail themselves to the fullest extent of the special abilities of those under them, calling in at every point as far as possible, the aid

and co-operation of colleagues. The latter is, to our thinking incomparably the better method. The first man, however able, is almost certain to alienate his fellow-workers, or at least to have them stand aloof and wash their hands of responsibility, while he himself is pretty sure to break down or die with overwork and worry in a few years. The other causes his colleagues to feel that the responsibility as well as the work is largely theirs. By consulting them on all occasions, deferring to their opinions when he can, and constantly utilizing their aid, he can accomplish larger and better results than are within the power of any one man, and at the same time bind his coadjutors to himself in the bonds of confidence and true loyalty. We all believe in that which we personally have had a hand in planning and doing.

IT is, of course, an excellent rule for a teacher, as well as for everybody else, never to use a long word when a short one is at hand which will serve the purpose quite as well, or better. But we question whether a mistake is not often made by teachers in assuming that a child is unable to understand the meaning and use of any word which is not short and easy. Children have a wonderful facility for acquiring language. They will often not only grasp the meaning but make the application of a longer word more quickly than adults. We are convinced that an injustice is done them often by too studied a choice of what are regarded as words that a child can understand. Few things are more helpful, both to writing and conversation in maturer years, than a good and copious vocabulary, and very often the child is deprived of its rightful heritage in this respect by teachers and parents in consequence of the mistaken idea that they can understand only the smaller words. True, the child, like its seniors, may occasionally use a big word inaccurately and provoke a laugh, but this is merely an incident of education. The best rule is always to use, and teach the child to use, the best word available to express the idea, be it a long word or a short one. We know children of eight or nine years, who, notwithstanding occasional laughable blunders, have really a better vocabulary, and consequently greater facility of expression, than many of their seniors, who think they must talk child language to them.

## Hints and Helps.

## THE PLAYHOUR IN A COUNTRY SCHOOL

FRED BROWNSCOMBE, PETROLIA.

## IX. OUTDOOR GAMES.

**BASTE THE BEAR.**—The "bear" kneels on the ground and the master stands beside him and endeavors to touch one of the other players in the act of striking the bear with his cap or knotted handkerchief. The person so touched becomes the bear, and the former bear becomes the master. Or the bear kneels in a circle secured by a rope held by the master. If the master can touch any of the assailants without letting go of the rope or dragging the bear out of the ring, the boy so touched becomes bear, selects his own keeper, and the sport is continued.

**HAT-POST.**—A stake is driven into the ground, one end of a six foot rope tied to it and another end given to a boy to hold, and all the other boys place their hats about the post or stake. These boys must now endeavor to steal away their hats without being touched, while the first boy tries to prevent them from so doing. Each must get his own hat first, after which he may help get others. Any player touched is out of the game; if touched while making off with a hat he must replace it. When all the hats are gone, those persons touched undergo some penalty, as that described in Hopping Hats or Broken Down Tradesman, after which the first one caught becomes "it" for a new game. The guardian of the hats may touch any player at any time, provided he does not let go of his rope. If all the hats are obtained without anyone being caught, the guardian undergoes the penalty and remains in office during next game. Should he guard so well that all or any players give up, all so giving up must suffer the penalty.

**DEFENDERS.**—A cap or handkerchief is laid upon the ground and about it group the defenders, while the attacking party stand five or six yards off. When the game commences each player of both parties stands upon one foot and anyone who touches both feet to the ground is out of the game. The object of the attacking party is to secure the hat as many times as possible, as each capture counts one point; and of both parties, to overthrow the other, for the side that has one or more players left when their opponents are all out, counts one point for each so left. The attacking party hop towards the others and some strive to overthrow them, while one or more seek to get the hat. The hat secured, all rest on both feet and the attackers go back (leaving the hat) and shortly begin again. When all of one party are out the sides exchange places. Twenty points constitutes the game.

**DUCK ON THE ROCK.**—A base is drawn about ten yards from the duckstone, which is a large stone surmounted by a smaller one called the duck. The players now gather behind the duckstone and "pink," that is, pitch their stones towards the base line, to determine who is to be "it." This is the player whose stone is furthest from the line, who thereupon remains near the duckstone, while the others commence the game by pitching (not throwing) their stones in the attempt to knock off the duck. After each player has thrown he stands near his stone, and, watching his opportunity, seizes it and carries it "home" to pitch it again. The guardian may touch anyone off the base carrying a stone, or who has touched his stone, and the person so touched becomes the guardian. When at any time the duck is knocked off, all shout "Duck's off," and those whose stones are out, seize them and run home, for the keeper may not touch anyone till he has replaced the duck. When one player's stone strikes another's, the stones are said to "kiss," and the two owners may carry them home without being liable to be touched.

## DRAWING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

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(1) *Drawing is one of the four fundamental studies*, number, language and music being the others. All other studies addressed to the mind are branches of which these are the foundation. For example, writing is a combination of language and drawing; geography, of number,

language and drawing; botany, of language and drawing, etc.

(2) Drawing is the basis of a very large number of branches. It is the basis of—*The Mechanical Arts*; *The Decorative Arts*—frescoing, embroidery, tapestry, and lettering; *The Plastic Arts*—carving, modeling, molding and sculpture; *The Reproductive Arts*—etching, engraving, lithographing, printing and photography; *The Productive Arts*—which include original work in any department.

(3) *Drawing is largely the basis of the trades.* The stone cutter cuts a capital from stone; the draughtsman draws it on paper. The mechanical process differs, but the mental process is the same. The blacksmith *draws* a horseshoe with his hammers; the draughtsman draws it with his pencil; both require the same cerebral activity. In like manner the carver draws with chisels, the mason with a trowel, the carpenter with various tools, the painter with a brush, the tailor with shears, etc.

(4) *Drawing is one of the surest means of acquiring knowledge.* To represent an idea by drawing it, requires a thorough study of it.

(5) *Drawing shortens the school course.* By cultivating the perceptive powers the time is shortened in acquiring those studies that wholly, or in part, depend on observation.

(6) *Drawing is the basis of observation.* To reproduce objects requires habits of closest scrutiny. On the other hand to have drawn objects stimulates closer observation of those objects.

(7) *Drawing is a third language*—oral language, written language, drawn language. The drawn language is supplementary to written language. Where written language is weak, drawn language is strong, and vice versa.

(8) Drawing cultivates the hand and lays the foundation for technical education.—D. R. AUGSBURG, in *N. Y. School Journal*.

## HONORABLENESS IN SCHOOL.

BY REV. NEWMAN SMITH.

HONESTY among pupils is one of the possible school virtues. And honesty in study is a preparation for honesty in life. There is such a thing as honest study, and also there are habits of shirking lessons, inattention, and making believe to know, which are not honest habits. Then there is a still finer virtue even than honesty; or rather I should say the homely, substantial virtue of common honesty is capable of taking on a finer quality, as good iron may be tempered into bright steel. Honesty, when it is tempered and brought to its finest quality, becomes honorableness. The honorable man lives clear above the ways of the low-browed man who is just honest enough to keep his business under cover of the law; and the honorable boy at school will not be content just to edge along under the rules. School life offers many opportunities for tempering a soul to high honorableness. A boy can learn to be honorable in all things with other boys and towards his teachers, never telling an untruth, never taking a mean advantage, never speaking a base word, never hurting one weaker than himself. In school life one can gain a wholesome spirit of good comradeship, learning not to be shut up in himself, but to live heartily and happily with others. Opportunity also is afforded in school life for the exercise of pluck and determination, for gaining that strength of will which men and women need so much to acquire in order that they may live worthily.

To give up a school task half-mastered, to fail of putting all the child's will into the child's work, is as cowardly in the boy or girl as it would be cowardly for a man to be afraid of standing up for the right, or for a woman to hesitate to make a sacrifice of her ease in the service of love.

And if we are to have brave men—and God knows how much the world needs them—we must put value on child courage in standing up to the tasks and the duties of school life. It requires moral courage sometimes for a youth at school or college to keep himself clear from questionable customs; to refuse to join in anything unseemly; to risk giving offence rather than laugh at the coarse jest or listen to the vulgar song; to follow alone, if need be, the low, clear voice of duty and pure home love, and to do under any temptation the one right thing. But the making of men is in such valor of soul.

## CHILDREN'S LIES.

BY THEO. B. NOSS, CALIFORNIA, PA., STATE NORMAL SCHOOL.

All phenomena of child-life have interest for the true teacher. The little vices as well as virtues reveal the workings of the mind. The lies of young children may often show but little moral guilt; yet they will always be regarded with apprehension by the wise teacher or parent.

Several months ago, at my request, a member of our senior class began a collection of data in regard to the falsehoods of young children. The following is the report which he submits:

"This study of falsehood in children has been for the most part a direct observation of the children of the model school and of the town for the last five months.

The children were observed in their school work, at play along the street, and wherever it was possible to gather information on the subject. Commonplace lies, rather than unusual ones, have been noted and those of ordinary children, rather than of the exceptional. The observations were recorded as soon as possible after they were made. The examples here given are fair specimens of the false statements noted.

It seemed fitting to divide this collection of promiscuous lies into classes according to their motive:

*First, Selfish Lies:* Willie aged nine to Frank aged eleven, 'Give me an apple?' Frank, 'Have no more.' He had two in his pocket at the time. Three out of sixteen children were seen to peep into a book in a review in geography. There were three claimants to a paper of very neat writing, when the teacher asked whose it was. A little girl of eight denied positively that there were any freckles on her nose, when it was asserted by another pupil that there were. These lies are among the most common, and are the result of a somewhat biased feeling toward self.

*Second, Boastful Lies:* One girl aged nine said she could run as fast as a man. Another quickly replied that she could run as fast as the train. A boy aged twelve said he could jump over a barrel. 'That's nothing,' replied another of ten, 'I can jump over a house.'

*Third, Lies to Surprise:* A very little girl said it rained so hard at her house that she couldn't see out of the window. Girl of eight said she saw a pile of earth around an ant's burrow, three feet high.

*Fourth, Lies for Contrariness:* Girl of nine spelled gas with two s's. 'Why, Mary, are you not wrong?' 'That is the way it is in my book.' When shown her own book, she replied: 'Well, I'm sure when I looked before there were two s's.'

*Fifth, Lies for Sympathy:* Nine-year-old boy described untruthfully the way a big boy had treated him. Girl of eleven told her mother that the teacher had slapped her ears. He had only slightly shaken her.

*Sixth, Gossip Lies:* When the teacher wanted to know which of a large class of small singers had purposely made a very rough sound, one boy, and then several, pointed to one of the best boys in the room.

*Seventh, Opinions set up without direct observation of Facts:* Almost a whole class were unhesitating in the assertion that a bean would shrivel up, if put in water.

*Eighth, Lies to Please:* Boy of ten told a favorite girl, that she had the 'prettiest black hair.' Hair was auburn. Little girl said her teacher knew everything.

*Ninth, Fear of Punishment:* Mother coming home from church: 'Harry, did you eat that pie?' 'No, ma'am.'

Big Brother: 'Now, Harry, you did eat that pie.' 'Yes, ma'am.' Big brother had eaten the pie himself.

*Other kinds Noted:* Those told to help friends out of difficulties, those to hurt others, yarns, etc.

These are but a small part of the examples of observations made; the data here given being of necessity small. Children were seen to be more careful not to make a misrepresentation of facts taken in through senses than older persons. They also give more credit to what others say than do older people.

Girls seemed less worthy of confidence than boys, but they were not so apt to tell careless falsehoods as boys. Many little ones of from six to ten years were seen to be much afraid of making a misstatement of any kind. They use, 'I was told so,' 'I think so,' 'perhaps,' etc., very often.

We feel like discussing this theme a little further.

It seems to us that the first thing to be done in

a classification like the foregoing is to separate the untrue statements of children into those which are intended to deceive and those which are not. The boy who said he could "jump over a house," the girl who insisted that there was a double *s* when she last looked, the boy who told an auburn-haired girl that her hair was black—these children could hardly have spoken with the expectation of being believed. They probably felt that "a whopper is not a lie."

Having separated deliberate, purposeful lies from fairy tales and honest "whoppers," the motive back of the lie becomes a very serious study. Some of these, even, may be justified in the mind of the child. For instance, one of the false claimants to the pretty specimens of writing may have thought only to balance her profit and loss account, having been deprived of some former credit honestly earned. Others may have been mistaken, and still others meanly avaricious of honor, but unconscious of the real seriousness of that particular untruth, and amenable to a little reasoning.

Lies of cowardice are the most common among children. The little boy who took upon himself his big brother's fault probably did it because he feared the big brother more than he feared his mother.

After these lies of *acquisition* and lies of *avoidance* come two other classes of lies similarly opposed to each other. These are the lies of *friendship* and lies of *enmity*.

The lie told to shield a friend is one too commonly condoned, because its motives lie rooted in our better nature and its sanction is the moral thoughtlessness of the liar. It represents a species of loyalty that effectually pleads in extenuation. Nevertheless, it is a lie, and the child should be made to feel that silence is better, that truth is above all things.

The malicious lie is perhaps the lowest descent of human depravity, but even this may be the result of a temporary and abnormal condition of body and mind, and not the natural fibre of the character. Teachers should hesitate as though a death sentence were upon their lips before pronouncing a child innately wicked.

This communication from Dr. Noss is a contribution to a discussion of vital moment. We should be glad if other leading teachers of the country would similarly state for us the results of their observations in this important matter.  
—N. Y. School Journal.

## School-Room Methods.

### A SNAIL AT SCHOOL.

BY H. M. ATKINSON.

Some years since while out chestnutting, I found a belated snail, which I picked up, and the next day it served for the subject of an object lesson. After drawing from the little ones all they knew about snails—which was very little—I told them all I knew, which was not much more—but which aroused their interest. I produced Mr. Snail, who seemed to take in the situation and began to perform at once. Slowly emerging from his shell, he thrust out his eye-points and began to creep in a winding path along the table. As he passed each child he was greeted with exclamations of delight. One noticed his soft, pinkish body, another his pretty shell, a third his silvery track. This was pleasure, but when he was touched and returned into his house they thought the fun was over. Then I gathered them around me in a quiet circle to await his re-appearance. I was somewhat anxious, for I was not sure that he would again appear and I wanted the children see him put forth his curious eye-points. We were rewarded, not once, but many times, until each child had seen this strange performance.

All that week we studied the snail, his habits, his structure, his use, etc., etc. He was drawn on the black-board, modelled in clay, and when he fell from the third-story window and was crushed to a shapeless mass, his untimely end was deeply lamented by us all, and his memory was kept green in the minds of his little friends until a snapping turtle and some caddis-worm cases took his place.

If any one should care to give this lesson without having the necessary information, I will give the result of my study of the subject, which I found in several books, but I condense it from "Calkin's Manual of Object Teaching."

Before giving the lesson have several snail shells and live snails if possible. Let them be examined and talked about before giving much information. At the proper time tell the children that the turn of the shell is called a whorl; that the whorls together are called a spire; the point of the spire is the apex; the opening of the shell is the mouth or aperture; the line dividing the whorls is called a suture.

The shell is sometimes called the snail's house, but it can never move about without it. The snail has but one foot. This can be seen if the snail be placed on a piece of glass. As it begins to move, it puts out four horns or feelers, called tentacles; on the tips of two of these can be seen black dots—these are the eyes of the snail. Let pupils see how it eats by placing it on a leaf of lettuce or cabbage. It breathes by holes in the side of its body.

Snails and slugs are soft-bodied animals; they have no bones or joints in their body. They have cold blood and are covered with a skin, from which oozes a gummy fluid.

In the autumn, land-snails bury themselves in the ground, closing the mouth of the shell with a film of gummy mucus; in this condition they remain until the warm spring weather revives them.

Snails are hatched from very small, jelly-like eggs. A single snail will lay from fifty to one hundred eggs, which hatch in two or three weeks; at first the young snail has a very small shell, containing only a whorl and a half, but which will grow as the snail grows.—*National Educator*.

### LEAD THE CHILDREN TO THINK.

RECENTLY a Third Reader teacher said to me: "My pupils have a perfect understanding of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, but I can't teach them to solve a problem combining two of these rules, let alone all four of them."

"What effort have you made?" I asked.

"Well, I have worked them over and over for the children. I have kept them in and made them study, and I don't know what to do next."

"Have you taught them *how* to study?" I asked.

"I have told them to study."

"Let's try showing them *how* to study," I suggested. Then I put this problem on the board:

"John Jones sold 5,625 bushels of wheat at \$2 a bushel, and received in payment 132 acres of land at \$50 an acre, 45 head of horses at \$65 a head, and 5 town lots at \$125 each; With the money he received he bought sheep at \$3 each; how many sheep did he get?"

"They will never do that, for it's twice as difficult as any they have ever failed on," said the teacher.

"Now children," said I, "here is an example that I want you to work for me from your seats. But first I want to tell you that it is bristling with question marks. Let's read it over carefully, and then we will go hunting for question marks." In a few moments I was greeted with a score of uplifted hands.

John—"What did Mr. Jones get for his wheat?"

Mary—"What did he pay for the land?"

Sarah—"What did he pay for the horses?"

William—"What did he pay for the lots?"

Susan—"What sum of money did he pay for the land, horses and lots?"

Martha—"How much did he get in money?"

Samuel—"How many sheep did he get for the money he received?"

"Very good, children. We have found that there are eight question marks hidden in this example, and here we have eight questions. Now I think we can answer all those questions in fifteen minutes."

Before fifteen minutes had passed several hands were up, and at the end of that time nineteen of the thirty-five had done the work neatly and correctly, and the failure of a majority of the others was due to mistakes in multiplication and division. The teacher was apt and willing, and, after a week's drill in this way, she informed me that they could not only solve any ordinary example combining four fundamentals, but that they had learned to look out for question marks in their other lessons, and also in the actions of themselves and their associates.

Teachers—I mean teachers, not shoemakers, are more and more agreed that good work in the schoolroom does not consist in cramming the child with facts, but in teaching how to think.—

*Educational News.*

## For Friday Afternoon.

### FALSE KINDNESS.

THE softest little fluff of fur!  
The gentlest, most persuasive purr!  
Oh, everybody told me that  
She was the "loveliest little cat!"  
So when she on the table sprung,  
And lapped the cream with small red tongue,  
I only gently put her down,  
And said "No, no!" and tried to frown;  
But, if I had been truly kind,  
I should have made that kitten mind!

Now large and quick, and strong of will,  
She'll spring upon the table still,  
And, spite of all my watchful care,  
Will snatch the choicest dainties there;  
And everybody says, "Scat! Scat!  
She's such a dreadful, dreadful cat!"  
But I, who hear them, know, with shame,  
I am the only one to blame,  
For in the days when she was young,  
And lapped the cream with small red tongue,  
Had I to her been truly kind,  
I should have made that kitten mind.  
*Marian Douglas, in Harper's Young People.*

### JOE'S WAY.

THE boys were waiting in the road  
For Joe to come and play;  
"We'd like to know what keeps you so,"  
Impatiently cried they.  
"We've waited nearly half an hour;  
Do hurry Joe," they cried.  
"I'll be there—when my work is done;  
Not till then," he replied.

"Come on, come on; the work can wait,"  
They urged, "till by-and-bye."  
"It might, of course, but I don't think  
It will," was his reply.  
"When I've a task to do, I like  
To do it right away;  
'Work first,' my father says, 'then fun';  
And what he says I say."

Hurrah for Joe! Such talk as that  
Is what I like to hear;  
But many boys will not agree  
With Joe and me, I fear.  
Play first, and last, and *all* the time,  
Would suit most boys I know;  
But that, I'm very glad to say,  
Is not the way with Joe.

When you've a task to do, my boys,  
Don't put it off, and say,  
You'll do it when you've had your fun,  
But *do it right away*.  
This "putting off" soon forms, my lads,  
A habit to deplore;  
Who promptly does his work enjoys  
His pleasure all the more. —*Selected.*

### THE BROOK.

From a fountain  
In a mountain  
Drops of water ran  
Trickling through the grasses;  
So our brook begun.

Slow it started;  
Soon it darted,  
Cool and clear and free,  
Rippling over pebbles,  
Hurrying to the sea.

Children straying  
Come a-playing  
On its pretty banks;  
Glad, our little brooklet  
Sparkled up its thanks.

Blossoms floating,  
Mimic boating,  
Fishes darting past,  
Swift, and strong, and happy,  
Widening very fast.

Bubbling, singing,  
Rushing, ringing,  
Flecked with shade and sun,  
Soon our pretty brooklet  
To the sea has run.

—*Ellen Soule Carhart.*

# The Educational Journal

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

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## Editorials.

TORONTO, JULY 1, 1893.

### MORAL PRINCIPLES AND THEIR APPLICATION.

WE read a little story the other day which, whether the incident related was true in fact or only imaginary, conveyed a lesson which is often needed. An elder sister, left by some sad event in the guardianship of two younger children, was very anxious to discharge her responsible trust in the most conscientious manner. In the course of her duties she one night felt called upon to charge them very seriously to be honest in all their dealings with others. She urged them to regard scrupulously the rights of property, and never suffer themselves under any circumstances to be tempted to take that which was not rightfully theirs. She also, no doubt, warned them against falsehood, the twin-sister of theft, and besought them to be always strictly and honorably truthful. The lesson made considerable impression upon the minds of the children. Not long after the young woman had occasion to go, accompanied by the children, to the house of a poor woman. While there she happened to spy a rare and valuable bit of old china on a shelf, amidst the cheap household crockery. Presently she, with studied indifference, led the conversation into a channel which gave her an opportunity to refer to the article on which she had set covetous eyes. Ascertaining that the old woman was quite ignorant of its value, she, by a warning glance, restrained

one of the children who was about to call attention to it. The upshot was that by pretending to have taken a fancy to it on account of its oddity, and at the same time disparaging it on account of its dinginess, she carried off at the cost of a single dollar an article which she well knew to be worth twenty or thirty. Whether she was or was not conscious of wrong-doing, the children were quick to perceive that the transaction involved the essence of both falsehood and theft, and speedily concluded that their sister did not practice what she taught. The effect of the example in counteracting the effect of the teaching may readily be conceived.

Such incidents are, unhappily, all too common. It was but the other day that an incident came to our own knowledge in this city which was, in its essential features, apart from its immediate relation to children, almost the exact counterpart of the above. A lady of considerable wealth saw in the window of a small shop an article of *vertu*. Shrewdly suspecting that the proprietor might be ignorant of its value, she entered the shop. Pretending to be in search of something else, she drew attention, as if by mere accident, to the article in question, and, after some conversation, offered the woman half-a-dollar for it, "on account of its oddity." By affected indifference and hurry she induced the woman, who was ignorant of the price, to let her carry off for fifty cents a purchase which she believed to be worth twenty-five or thirty dollars, thus robbing the poor to add to the stores of her own abundance. Are there not thousands of well-to-do bargain-hunters all about us who would not hesitate to do the same or a similar thing and rather pride themselves on their sharpness?

These incidents suggest one particular in respect to which moral training in the schools is very much needed. It is hard to keep from despising the man or the woman who can do so mean a thing as either of those above noted, and yet one must suppose that either of the persons referred to would scorn to steal a sum of money or other valuable from a neighbor or to tell a deliberate falsehood. Yet, analyzed into its ultimate moral elements, there is no essential difference between such an act of robbery and one of the transactions in question, which probably cost the doer scarcely a qualm of conscience. The explanation is that so few have ever been taught to think closely about the moral quality of actions. But it is evident that no nation can ever become truly great or noble so long as a large proportion of its citizens will do mean and dishonest things, even in ignorance or thoughtlessness. We

hear a great deal about patriotism in these days. To our thinking the man or the woman who trains up a larger or smaller number of the future citizens to be high-minded men and women, scorning to take an advantage of a fellow-citizen's or a stranger's ignorance or weakness, is doing an incomparably nobler and more patriotic work than he who trains the young to "salute the flag," or to shout themselves hoarse at the mention of the name of Queen or country. Much of our so-called patriotic teaching is in its essence little better than inspiring the young with jealousy, or distrust, or even hatred of other nations. The true patriotism is that which constantly remembers that it is not great armies, or brave soldiers, "high-raised battlement or labored mounds," but "men, high-minded men," and women, which constitute a state. The kind of moral training needed in our schools is a training broad-based upon the sublime principles of the Sermon on the Mount, principles whose embodiment may be found in the one great law, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself," and whose working rule is "Whatever ye would that others should do to you do ye even so to them." The briefest study of those principles, or the slightest honest application of that rule should be sufficient, one would suppose, to stamp all such transactions as those above described with their true brand.

Can any reader doubt that such training of the heart and conscience, instead of being the last thing to have a place in the school, should take front rank, as of the very first importance. True morality is not a thing to be learned from a text-book, but neither, for that matter, is any other thing which is real education. We are not sure that a text-book might not be found of equal value in this as in any other study. But all true education is that which comes through the exercise of the pupil's own faculties. So the essence of all true moral training consists first in the development of moral thoughtfulness, and second in the habit of taking counsel first of all with conscience, thus developed, and making the right and wrong of a thing the first and ruling question in every case. Nor do we believe that this training of the conscience is by any means so difficult a matter in the case of children, especially young children, as is often supposed. Let any teacher, for example, try the experiment with his or her class. Tell them a story such as one of the incidents above related, intimating to them beforehand that their opinions are to be asked as to whether the person buying the article did right or wrong, with reasons for their opinions. Let the story be told in a simple, straight-

forward manner, without anything to indicate the teacher's opinion or feeling in regard to it. We should be much disappointed if a majority of them did not at once perceive the true character of the transaction. If any failed to do so an admirable opportunity would be afforded for a little Socratic teaching; a true "development" lesson. A few questions, of a suggestive kind, would stimulate both reason and conscience. An impression might thus be made, not through dogmatic teaching, but through the strengthening of the pupil's own moral perceptions, which would, perhaps, raise a number of them forever above the possibility of being guilty of a meanness of the kind indicated. It is, of course, but one of many kinds of temptation, to which they are, or will be, all exposed. The cursed greed of gold is one of the worst vices of the age. The same principle is involved in every form of gambling, horse-racing, etc. Thousands are trying every day of their lives to get possession of the property of others without earning it, or giving any fair equivalent. This is the essence of dishonesty. Against this, those who have the care of the young, whether in the home, or in the school, or elsewhere, should direct their efforts, if they would build up a noble-minded race of men and women.

#### HOW TO BRING UP A BOY.

THE following passage from an article by Frances E. Willard, published some time since in *The Ladies' Home Journal*, are full of suggestions for the receptive teacher.

A boy is an oblong box of stored-up electricity. Repression is precisely what he cannot put up with; he was made to react mightily upon the world, and he wants to get about it. Destiny for him is largely based upon his mother's "Do" or "Don't." If she is a woman with a doleful "Don't" in her soul, he is handicapped from the word go. But if the dulcet "Do" is her keynote, he is almost sure to win the race of life. It is the glory of kindergarten training that the child is there drawn out to do things useful and good. He is led onward into those habits of healthful activity which are the basis of the only happy life. It is the sorrow of ten thousand nurseries that the constant command is: "Don't do this," or "Don't do that, you noisy, naughty boy." It is a crime of modern life that children are brought up by servants rather than by mothers. To overreach his nurse is one of a boy's earliest lessons; and to overreach the sex to which that nurse belongs, and which he early learned to judge by the earliest specimen of it that thwarted his small purposes, is not

unnatural to many "a boy grown tall." The average boy, brought up by his mother, judges all women in his estimate of her; the largest good she can bring to women-kind and to humanity is to build her best self into that boy's character. If she is steady-minded, even-handed, royal-hearted, he will be so. That the father is a powerful factor in home training everybody knows, and that he ought to be one still more powerful all earnest men confess; but forever it remains true that each boy's life says to each mother—

This heart first caught its steady stroke,  
This blood its crimson hue, from thine.

Or, as the quaint old proverb has it—"God could not be everywhere, so He made mothers." And, to the everlasting credit of those sacred guardians of the cradle, let it be said that no credentials are stronger than these words: "He is a mother's boy."

#### THE "SUPERVISOR" SYSTEM.

AS most of our readers are no doubt aware, an educational innovation was made a year or two since by the Public School Board of this city, by the appointment of several supervisors, according to the system pursued in some American schools. We took exception to the innovation at the time, believing the system to be indefensible in principle and being *morally* certain that it would be found injurious in practice. If we are correctly informed the Board has now concluded either to cancel the appointments and return to the old arrangement, under which each school principal is held responsible, as he ought to be, for the management and discipline of his school, or at least to suspend the operation of the new system for the present. We speak with reserve, for full information in regard to the action of the Board has not yet been given to the public. It is believed, however, that the majority of the members of the Board have been so impressed with the force of the view urged by Dr. Stowe Gullen, one of their members, to the effect that the Board has no legal power to appoint supervisors, that they have rescinded their former action and recalled the appointments, at least temporarily. Mrs. Gullen's argument is in substance as follows: Under our educational system there are two responsible bodies, viz., Board of Education and School Board. By act of the Legislature the "Board of Education," and it alone, has the power to *create* an educational office, while the School Board has the right to appoint the given individual to said office. The supervisorship being a cross between the functions of a principal and that of an inspector, is, in consequence, a new office, and so one which a School Board has no power to create

Leaving the legal point to be decided by the proper authorities, we are impressed with the force of Dr. Gullen's objections on other grounds to the supervisorship system. Some of them are somewhat as follows:

One main object of the training schools which have been established and are maintained at large expense is to train teachers in the theory and practice of school management as well as of teaching. Therefore if our school principals need what she calls "police supervision" the fault must lie with the much-vaunted institutions which trained them, and consequently the latter demand immediate attention.

Turning to consider the effect of the supervisor system, Mrs. Gullen points out with much force that its tendency is to be destructive of the harmony and goodwill which should always exist between teachers and officials, and between teachers and taught, for their normal mutual relations are interfered with by the interposition of a new set of officers between the teachers and the two Public Boards to which alone they are ultimately responsible, also, as she might have added, between the principals and the pupils who should know no school authorities but their teachers and principal; also between teachers and the principals to whom alone they should be responsible. Nothing weakens the hands of one in a position of authority so much as for those under him to be aware that he is not the ultimate authority.

On economical grounds the innovation is shown to be no less indefeasible. It would seem impracticable, under any circumstances, to save enough from the salaries of principals to pay the supervisors. The attempt to effect this could hardly fail to result in a serious lowering of the standards of education and efficiency in the principalships and a corresponding degradation of the schools.

From every point of view the supervisor system seems to be a mistake. It will be a matter for congratulation if the fact is recognized so soon, and a prompt return to the old plan resolved on.

THE youth who is taught from his earliest years to believe in God and a future life, is brought continually under the influence of the strongest conceivable, the strongest possible, motive to seek purity of heart and life. If the ever present conviction, "Thou God seest me," inwrought into the deepest fibres of mind and conscience, cannot overcome temptations and tendencies to depravity, nothing can. Besides the force of such a notion as this, all considerations of mere caution and propriety and utility, becomes utterly futile, insignificant, puerile. All merely materialistic and utilitarian doctrines of science are of the earth earthly, and tend inevitably to shut up the sight within the narrow horizon of this poor life. The good old teachings were redolent of Heaven and immortality.

## English.

Edited by Fred. H. Sykes, M.A., EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL, Toronto, to whom communications respecting this department should be addressed.

## ENGLISH SYNTAX.

The need of a companion volume to carry on into the realm of syntax the work of Mr. Morris in his *Historical Outlines of English Accidence* has long been felt by every teacher and student of English grammar. That no serious attempt has until now been made in English to supply this want, is one of the many evils due to the lack among the majority of English scholars of anything like an historic interest in their own speech. Mr. Kellner's new volume, *Historical Outlines of English Syntax*, is therefore entitled to thoughtful consideration, if only that it offers discussions in this long-neglected field. But this new work quickly wins strong approval for its own sake. The author assumes at once the only sane position, that English syntax is to be discussed with propriety—not on a *priori* grounds—but historical and comparative grounds. The cognate dialects, and Latin and Greek are laid under contribution, while the course of development of the structure of our language is pointed out with the rare clearness afforded by a mass of quotations from the invaluable series of *Early English Texts*.

Syntax, the author holds, is divided into (1) syntax of the sentence, (2) syntax of the parts of speech, (3) order of words, and a strictly scientific treatment of grammar would not separate accidence from syntax, since every grammatical form is the result of a syntactical relation. The study of English syntax must first deal with the original form of syntactical combinations, and then learn by the aid of psychology, history, popular speech, how they became what they now are. For instance, the explanation of Shakespeare's "These Kind of Knaves," cannot be a logical explanation. No one would endeavor to say that it is a sense construction corresponding to "The family were assembled," since you could not say "These family." Historically treated, the rise of the expression becomes clear. We find the following stages: (1) *alles cynnes men* (omnis generis homines), men of every kind. With the loss of the possessive form of the adjective, this became (2) *alle kynnes men*, and with the introduction of the Romance *man(n)er*, (3) *all man(n)er men*. These show that in O.E. people in thinking of classes of things thought of the things themselves first, and of the classes only as an accessory quality. But in the thirteenth century the more abstract expression came in, by which the class was made prominent, (4) all man(n)er of men. Shakespeare then shows the older and more concrete mode of expression, but under a modern garb.

This same concreteness of expression is at the basis of such a construction as Thackeray's "Who is to prevent me marrying." Psychology points out that in older periods of English the person or thing acted as the real subject of feeling or thought, and not the abstract notion of "my marrying."

Syntax therefore is clearly an historical science, and its history is affected by many causes, to most of which psychology and comparative grammar give us the key. Psychology points out the nature of *analogy*, by which forms are associated. "I am friends with him," for example, is an analogous construction growing out of "he and I are friends." "In his heart of hearts" is analogous to such phrases as "the king of kings." A second factor in the history of syntax is the *decay of formal endings*, so "with his words" takes the places of O.E. *his wordum*. Then there is a tendency for *concrete combinations to be supplanted by abstract ones*, so for the absolute dative in O.E. *him lyfigendum*, comes the modern "in his lifetime." *Economy* (ellipsis) explains the comparatively modern "He is at a friend's." Tautology explains "the most unkindest cut of all."

It is impossible here to follow the author through the various divisions of his work in his treatment of the sentence under predicative, attributive, and adverbial relations; of the parts of speech; of the order of words, and of the influence of Latin and French upon English syntax. There is scarcely a page, however, in which one is not forced to pause at interesting

observations. Substantives used adjectively such as Carlyle's "quack theory" are of recent date (p. 28); the appositive in M.E., as in "no morsel bred" (Chaucer), tended to supplant the participial genitive till checked by French influence. There is a want of concord in phrases like "in his capacity as a justice," which is still more striking in Chaucer's "His top was dockud lik a preest biform" (p. 29). The use of an adverb instead of an adjective is found in M.E., but the adverb follows the noun. The adverb preceding the noun is recent, and probably due to Greek influence, as in "the then world" (p. 31). The absolute participle in O.E. had dropped out of use as early as the fourteenth century; the attempts of Wyclif and Milton to reintroduce it, were under the influence of the Latin (p. 34). Substantive clauses with "that" taking the place of the subject (as in Macaulay's "That there should have been a likeness is not strange") are to be found only in Modern English. Space is lacking to note the discussions of "It is me," (p. 42); "There is no more such Cæsars" (p. 46); "Sow well, reap well," i.e. paratactic combinations (p. 52); "You know that he is a clever man" (p. 57); "God saw the light that it was good" (p. 58). I have a mind [which] presages, i.e. omission of the relative (p. 62). Equally interesting are the discussions of the parts of speech: collectives as class names as "fairy," for one of the fairy; proper nouns as common, as a "lazar" for a leper; the *pluralis majesticus* and *pluralia tantum*; historical, present, etc. For these and an abundance of other topics we refer the student and teacher of English grammar to Dr. Kellner's volume, a work which in its careful scholarship and scientific character is one of the few entirely good elementary books on the study of English. The character of this book will make every scholar of English look forward hopefully to the large edition that the author promises, in which he will "give an account of other people's opinions, make constant use of what comparative grammar offers to explain English syntax, and show clearly the development of every idiom, by giving instances from all points of English, at intervals of fifty years."

## JUNIOR THIRD CLASS LITERATURE.

## HANNAH BINDING SHOES.

BY MISS M. A. WATT.

*Introduction.*—Materials to be used in lesson: A chart of the zones (made in the Geography class on large paper, the Torrid zone red and orange; Temperate, green; Frigid, white) with pictures of whales, etc., pasted in places of resort; a map of North America.

The average class receives a first impression that there is something funny in this poem; children are often scornful toward unpleasing or old persons. Therefore to prepare them to take an interest, the teacher must take the initiative and remove this impression by reading the poem after saying that "some children appear to think there is something funny in this poem; listen and tell me if you see anything funny in it." The emphasis on "some" as opposed to the superior judgment of "you" gives them a feeling of grandeur and responsibility as critics, and they will respond indignantly, that "they cannot see anything to laugh at," for the feeling of sadness must touch the most unthinking and uncritical mind when it gives a fair hearing to the poem.

Having secured their interest thus, and given them a feeling of superiority, they are prepared to discover wonderful things in the poem they formerly disregarded. The first difficulty with a junior third class will be to arrange the story in chronological order, the third and fourth stanzas preceding, in point of time, the first two. This must be overcome by the teacher relating the story, by transposing and paraphrasing as she reads from beginning to end, asking the pupils to explain where possible, the question, "What do you think that means?" or "Why did she do that?" being frequent. Having arrived at a general idea of the lesson, return to the first stanza.

*First Stanza.*—"Poor lone Hannah." (*Lonely*) What idea in "lone?" Why "poor?" (The picture is referred to). "Sitting at the window binding shoes." (Used to be a means of earning money at home; done in factories since sewing machines came in). Ask, "Why did she sit at window?" Accept answer if reasonable, but reserve full approval for the one which is correct, namely, "to be sure to see every vessel passing."

Explain "muse," and, if necessary, "faded." Do not dwell on the rest of the first stanza until the third is reached, unless to ask what is implied by "bright-eyed beauty once was she."

*Second Stanza.*—Why do the neighbors in passing answer Hannah when she asks for news from the fishers? What answer do they give? Write out, or state without writing, the answer you would give her? Why would you answer kindly? (Lesson of respect for the troubled and the sad though crazed, sympathy for the distressed even though so unattractive to childish eyes as to be "faded, wrinkled.") What sad lines are there in this stanza? And what do you understand by them? What is meant by repeating, "Hannah at the window binding shoes?"

*Third Stanza.*—Here we must impress upon the children that this all occurred twenty years before. How do you know the time? What words in this stanza show it must have been some years since? What line in another stanza expresses just the opposite? *The story*: Ben, *Who? What? How?* (Meaning of woos, sues). When. Result of wooing?

"Skies aglow," "waves laughing," "leaves window," all showing joy.

*Fourth Stanza.*—A change of scene. *May is passing*, "pigeon coos," "mild south-wester." Why should these cause Hannah to shudder? Pupils may essay to answer but their answers will probably be mere conjecture and it is not advisable to prolong their unsatisfying efforts to answer what they cannot be expected to know. Take next line, "Round the rocks," etc. Ben is gone! Where? Has his going any connection with the "May is passing," "pigeon coos," or "mild south-wester?" Now, get your chart and the change will be a rest to the childish brains. Explain the effect of spring on north polar regions—ice floating, whales coming southward, Ben and other whalers going northward for the season. Therefore everything springlike and otherwise joyous has the dread meaning of parting to Hannah and Ben.

"Lonesome" different meaning from "lone" in first stanza. "Silent" why? Meaning of "Hannah's at the window binding shoes" in this stanza, following "Hannah leaves her window," in previous one.

*Fifth Stanza.*—"Tis November." Time has passed. Should Ben be home or is it late? Prove that it is late for him by quoting line or lines? Where is Newfoundland? Marblehead? (Get map and mark the spot; mere verbal telling is worse than useless, and after finding place on map, point out its direction from where pupils are). Draw a word-picture of Hannah's feelings, watching, anxious, fearing, expecting, dreading, hoping, too wretched to weep, afraid to weep lest she miss seeing a sail, afraid to weep lest she convince herself of what she fears. The children will feel, and feel deeply, what it is to be hoped they may never have in their personal experience. We hear great talk of ungodliness and lack of moral training in our public schools, but if the teacher will bring out the teachings of the beautiful extracts in our series of Readers, the children will gladly take in the moral lessons hidden in them, and like Oliver Twist, "Ask for more," or as the patent medicine advertisements say, "They will cry for it." The hunger will grow, and maybe your roughest boy will say, forgetting his former fear of being laughed at, "Hannah had a hard time, hadn't she. I feel sorry for her." And don't despise the faintest growth of feeling, it will help you to help the boy, and help him to better things.

*Sixth Stanza.*—The teacher reads this, emphasizing "twenty" in first line and in third line "seasons;" "never one;" "still" "hopeless," with downward inflection; "faithful" lingeringly upward; and the last line slowly. The words which will call for explanation may be "bleach," "ragged," "seasons," "chase," "sails," "hopeless," "faithful." Now, ask your class again, "Do you see anything funny in this poem?" and instead of the former answer "We don't see anything to laugh at," you will get the answer, "No, it is very sad," and your class will express the answer in their faces and attitudes.

*General review.*—Where did Hannah live? What did she do for a living? What words describe her looks? Her feelings? Why does she look thus? Why feel thus? Write, to make plain, the first four lines of stanza two, (the general opinion being that "no neighbors pass.") What "fisher" does she particularly wish to hear from? Explain "endless voyage," "heart's drift." Give force of the apostrophe in "heart's." When is Hannah away from the window? Tell Hannah's story as told in stanzas

## Special Papers.

## THE PLACE OF ENGLISH IN A HIGH SCHOOL COURSE.\*

BY WILLIAM HOUSTON, M.A., TORONTO.

I HAVE to state at the outset that my purpose in this paper is to magnify the importance and value of "English" as a culture subject, and to bespeak for it a larger share of attention than it has heretofore received in secondary school programmes. If it receives more there, it will also receive more both in the primary schools below and in the colleges and universities above. The little prominence hitherto allowed this subject is a serious defect in all parts of our educational courses; and though there has been some improvement in that respect of late years, there is not only room for but urgent need of much more. To turn out a few high class English scholars is not enough to aim at in Schools and Universities. That is good so far as it goes, but what is most needed is that every member of the community who receives an education at all shall be able to use the English language with facility and correctness, shall have some scientific insight into the phenomena of language in general and of his own language in particular, and shall derive from the study of the best literature that enjoyment for which nothing else in life is an adequate substitute.

For the purposes of this paper therefore, "English" may be defined as including (1) the act of expressing thought in language, (2) the scientific study of language used in the expression of thought, and (3) the æsthetic study of literature which exhibits a markedly artistic structure. The first is the exercise of composition; the second gives rise to the special sciences of grammar, philology, rhetoric and prosody; the third has for its aim to promote culture through the education of that faculty by which we appreciate the beautiful. "English," so defined and treated in accordance with the definition, is obviously more important as a means of culture than any other subject. No other is so widely and profoundly potential as an instrument of discipline. No other can be put to such various educational uses—the development of practical skill in adapting means to an end, the training of the reasoning powers by the generalization of principles from facts or laws from phenomena, and the cultivation of the taste and judgment by the intelligent contemplation of the noblest works of art which human genius has been able to produce. In these respects neither the study of foreign languages and literatures, whether ancient or modern, nor the pursuit of science whether deductively or inductively, can compare with the study of English, for the latter affords the student-in-training opportunities for every kind of culture discipline, and that in the most advantageous way. True, English has not been generally so regarded or used. It will be my aim expressly to explain how it ought to be used, and incidentally to show how it ought to be regarded, as an instrument of educational discipline.

## I. THE PRACTICAL TREATMENT OF ENGLISH.

For High School purposes this may be regarded as the teaching of composition. I believe I am safe in assuming that the art of expressing thought in language is systematically practiced and taught in every secondary school. It is also systematically practiced and taught in primary schools and universities. Why, then, is English so badly spoken and written? There must be something defective in the methods used, or the results of educational effort so generally put forth and so earnestly devoted would not be so unsatisfactory.

\* A paper read before the Higher Education Section of the "Dominion Teachers' Association" at Montreal, on the 8th of July, 1892.

It would serve no very useful purpose to confine my remarks to mere fault-finding.

It is better to fight for the good than to rail at the ill.

I prefer to indicate what I believe to be a useful method of teaching composition, and leave to teachers the task of comparing it with the methods they have been in the habit of employing. My first word on this part of the subject must be a warning against dependence on text-books. No treatise on composition or rhetoric will do the student so much good as to make it worth his or the teacher's while to depend on it. Skill in the expression of thought is acquired by practice in the expression of thought, and it can be acquired in no other way. The old educational adage, "We learn to do by doing," is precisely applicable here, and there is no other way of learning to "do." All the instructions contained in all the books ever written will not make the student write better English. Good English is not written by rule, but as a matter of habit, just as good English is spoken; and correct habits in the one case, as in the other, must be reached through a long course of training consisting of abundant practice under judicious oversight. Preliminary directions are of little use even when given carefully by the teacher and understood perfectly by the pupil. Their chief effect is to hamper and restrain, thus accentuating the tendency to artificial and mechanical modes of expression. The utmost freedom should be allowed with a view to the development of originality alike of thought and of form. The teacher's function should be limited in the main to criticism. It is far more effective to point out after work has been done how it might have been better done, than to give directions beforehand in the hope that they will be followed. The attempt to obey them is sure to induce failure in matters that are more important than even forms of expression, important as they unquestionably are. In my opinion, the so-called "teaching" of composition, which is really a process of "training" rather than of teaching, might be greatly improved in schools if the subjoined general rules were followed by teachers. They are doubtless practised now, some by one teacher and some by another, but I have never yet found a school in which they have been adopted and acted upon as a system. I may remark that they are based on long experience in that best of occupations for learning how to write and how to train others to write—daily journalism:

1. Let the practice consist in writing original essays on assigned topics. Other modes of practice may be useful; this is indispensable. Writing from dictation, paraphrasing the discourse of another, changing the construction of sentences, writing isolated sentences of special types—all of these may be so used as to be helpful, but not all of them together, along with all other forms of exercise that can be devised, will be half so useful as essay-writing. A pupil may become quite apt at sentence construction and yet break down when he tries continuous discourse. He may know all about paragraphing by reading a treatise on rhetoric, and may remain quite incapable of arranging his own thoughts in succession to each other with either grace or precision. A great mistake has been made and much precious time and toil have been lost in trying to teach English pupils to use their own language as they would be taught to use a foreign language. Every book on English Composition constructed in imitation of the Ollendorf manuals—such as the language lessons of Mr. Swinton and Mrs. Knox—and most of the so-called "exercises" in our grammars, should be consigned to oblivion. The pupil was at five years old far past the stage which most of these imply. At that age he could frame every kind of "sentence" with marvellous precision and rapidity; why then keep him practising that at which he is already an adept? Two things he cannot do, and to these his practice should be directed: he cannot

three and four." Why are the "skies aglow" and the waves "laughing?" Meaning of "hale," "clever" (two meanings according as it is used in different districts, let pupils decide whether it means "good natured and kindly" or "talented," in this district, judging by its suitability). Tell why Hannah shuddered to hear the pigeon and to feel the wild winds blow. What do you understand by the last four lines of fourth stanza? Where is Marblehead? In what zone? Where is Newfoundland? North or south of Marblehead? In what direction did Ben go? What might happen to him there? Why do men try to catch whales? Name uses of products of whale? How did Hannah feel now? How many months elapse between incidents of fourth and of fifth stanzas? What can you tell about the polar regions about November? Why would you prefer to leave them before that? Why did Hannah not weep any longer? What do you understand by "wasted?" Why "hoarsely?" What question did she ask? What answer did she get? How did the people feel who answered her thus? Why did Hannah seem "old?" How many years between incidents of fifth and of sixth stanzas? What effect had they on the shore? What on Hannah? What on the news of Ben? (quote line for each answer). Name emphatic word in line five of last stanza. Why is she now "silently" gazing? Does she ask any questions now? How does she feel now? Where is she still? If Ben had come back how would they have felt? Would she know him, or he know her? Why? Sketch an outline of what you think happened to Ben. In what line do you find, in so many words, the statement of Ben's death? (Mention that this is a marked characteristic of poetry, it implies without direct statement). The pupils will recognize this by reference to familiar poems as, "The Wreck of the Hesperus," "Casabianca," and (may we call it a poem) the "Child's Dream of a Star."

*Structure of the poem.*—This lesson is for so junior a class that metre and versification cannot be thoroughly explained, but there is much that may properly be examined, and which the pupils will be glad to tell you. The repetition of "Hannah," and "shoes," with a change of meaning at end of each stanza; the shortness of the first, third and seventh lines in each stanza, all unrhyming; the frequency of the sound of "oos," in "shoes," "muse," "refuse," "news," etc.; all these come within the range of delighted perception.

To finish the impressing of the feeling of the extract ask for *volunteers* to read. This leads to criticism and there will be close attention to see if the portion read answers to the teacher's request for "the gayest stanza," "the most lonely," "the saddest," "the prettiest," "the stanza that tells of the wedding," "of the departure," "that describes Hannah in her first watching," "in her last watching." And now, if not before, you may expect that question, "Miss So and-so, is this a true story?" Your answer will be eagerly listened for. If you say "No," the interest fades and the enjoyment of the story is gone, for childhood longs for the true, and you have a power to influence toward truth by using this characteristic as a motor. Boys will say to you, "did you ever read 'Peck's Bad Boy,' or 'Adventures of Jesse James?'" Then is your opportunity to say (perhaps you must, to be truthful, acknowledge that you have read them, but, notwithstanding, you can say) "Well, Jack, but wouldn't you rather read something true, not made-up things that never happened (or if they did happen, should never have been chronicled). Read some of the 'Battles' of the British army or navy if you want adventures. Have you such-and-such a book? 'Try to get it.'" Be sure to show a sympathy with their need of reading. Therefore, in regard to the truth of the poem under consideration, say that you think it a very possible story, though unable to say positively that it is true, you are sure (are they not also), that it could, very easily, be true.

To cause gross nature to pass from the life of the senses to the intellectual life; to make study agreeable, to the end that the higher pleasures of the spirit may struggle successfully against the appetites for material pleasures; to put the book in the place of the wine-bottle; to substitute the library for the saloon; in a word, to replace sensation by idea—such is the fundamental problem of popular education.—*Compayre*.

speaking or writing simple sentences without falling into conventional errors, and he cannot be trusted to arrange his thoughts into an effective logical and rhetorical sequence. For each of these kinds of training the writing of original essays is the best possible kind of exercise, and at the most he can get so little of it that to waste any of his time on anything less useful is the height of pedagogical folly.

2. When a subject for composition is assigned, take care that the pupils have something to say about it. They cannot profit by an exercise in the expression of thought if they have no thoughts to express. Composition is the production of the form, but form can come into existence only as the embodiment of the results of mental operations. With young pupils the object-lesson is a useful exercise preliminary to essay-writing; those more advanced may be profitably asked to write on themes taken from literature, history, or science. No matter what the topic may be or whence it may have been taken, it should be made the object of a Socratic discussion in the class before the pupils are asked to write on it. Twenty persons know more about any topic than any one of the twenty knows, and all will write better for being made to "pool" their knowledge before they begin. Writers on rhetoric divide their subject into "Invention" and "Style"—finding something to say, and saying it. Surely the former is no less important in relation to composition than the latter. Occasionally, to vary the exercise, each pupil may usefully be asked to write on some subject of his own choosing, for he will then, if ever, write with that degree of enthusiasm which is necessary to any marked degree of success.

3. After essays have been written by a class, the teacher should do his correction of errors in the class. It is not necessary—in some cases it may be injurious,—to connect errors with those who have made them, but each error detected and corrected by the class as a whole is for all practical purposes a training for each member of it in the detection and correction of similar errors. The teacher who marks his pupils' mistakes and then hands back their essays does not know his business. No good teacher will ever point out an error to his class until he has given the pupils an opportunity to discover it for themselves. Expertness in the detection is of far greater importance than expertness in the correction of errors, for the former implies the latter. He who knows that an expression is wrong can generally be trusted to find out some way of putting it right.

4. In the correction of errors never accept an emendation that is not based on a reason, or make a correction for which a finally conclusive reason cannot be given. The ordinary rules of syntax are quite worthless as reasons for making corrections, because they do not preclude further questioning. No attention should be paid to them; and to ask a pupil to memorize them is sheer waste of time.

5. After the essays, or some of them, written by a class, have been corrected in this way, the pupils should be asked to write again on the same subject. Their knowledge of it will have been improved, and their power of expression will have been strengthened. Even without intermediate class discussion re-writing is more useful as a training than first writing, but its usefulness is greatly increased by previous criticism.

6. Do not limit the practice of the pupils in writing and re-writing to what the teacher can overtake in his reading of the essays. It is not necessary that he should read all that are written, and it is necessary that they should write a great deal. By selecting a few essays and a few errors for thorough discussion after writing, by varying his selection so far as membership of the class is concerned, he can keep in touch with all his pupils without requiring their practice to wait on his leisure or convenience.

7. Finally, let the exercise of composition, and especially the correction of defects of form, be made incidentally a means of intellectual

training. The general principles of language—including those of both grammar and rhetoric—may be usefully and effectively taught in their applications to particular cases.

#### II. THE SCIENTIFIC TREATMENT OF ENGLISH.

The incidental elucidation of general principles is, however, by no means all that should be attempted; the English education of the pupil will remain lamentably defective if he is not trained systematically to investigate linguistic phenomena for himself. Language used in the expression of thought presents for consideration phenomena of four distinguishable classes: (1) those relating to the logical structure of the sentence, (2) those connected with the meanings and forms of words, (3) those met with in the analysis of continuous discourse, and (4) those peculiar to the verse forms employed in the writing of poetry. The investigation of phenomena of the first class gives rise to the science of "grammar;" of those of the second class to the science of "philology;" of those of the third class to the science of "rhetoric;" and of those of the fourth class to the science of "prosody." If anyone prefers other names for these sciences I care not, nor do I object much to the ordinary inclusion of prosody under rhetoric, though I do not see what is to be gained by it.

Here I must repeat the warning already given against the use of text-books. The training of the pupil will depend on his being allowed to investigate for himself, while this is absolutely prevented by requiring him to learn from a manual the results of the investigations of others. It will not do to speak of "good" text-books, for the better the treatise the worse a text-book to learn from it really is. The more it does for the pupil the less it leaves him to do for himself. The use of text-books is based upon, and must be justified by, the implication that linguistic knowledge is the thing to be secured, whereas the great aim should be to train the pupil to acquire knowledge for himself all the rest of his life. If the teacher succeeds in awakening his scientific curiosity respecting the wonderful phenomena of language, and in supplying him with a scientific method of investigation, it matters little how much he can be said to know of linguistic lore when he leaves school. Better far that he should go forth with the habit of closely observing facts for himself and of bringing to bear upon these facts a trained intelligence. He may reach wrong conclusions. What if he does? That can be said of the greatest linguists as well as of him. The pupil's own compositions and his ordinary reading lessons afford abundance of material for inquiry. All that is needed besides is an expert teacher with a black-board and a piece of chalk.

It is not necessary that I should dwell at length on the nature of inductive inquiry into the character of phenomena; it will be enough to speak of results. In grammar the investigation is an inquiry into the nature of the sentence. The aim is to ascertain how words that, taken individually, say nothing, have been made to say something. The inquiry must begin with the sentence, and the first step must be analysis. The sentence must be resolved into those parts or elements which perform functions in the making of the assertion. Whether the analysis is carried so far as to divide the sentence into words or not matters little. The term "part of speech" is in this connection entirely misleading, and should be dropped out of grammar. The attention of the pupil should be wholly directed to function performed; a description of a function is a definition; the name is given simply for convenience. The pupil should always be expected to discover functions and construct definitions for himself; the names, which are purely conventional, should then be given to him. The ordinary teaching of grammar, by giving names and definitions of the so-called "parts of speech," is worse than useless.

Much the same line of remark will apply to philology, which is an inquiry into the meanings

and forms of words. The pupil should be taught to look into the words in daily use, to investigate their pronunciation and spelling, to detect and account for differences of meaning, and to pass in the case of both form and meaning from the forms now in use to those which preceded them. The history of words—usually called "derivation"—is so large a subject that a pupil in school can do little at it, but he can be sent out with a deepened interest in words and a habit of patient and rational investigation of their real nature. Such an interest and a habit are in themselves a most valuable equipment for life, inasmuch as they add to its zest while helping to make their possessor a more intelligent reasoner about the practical processes of common life.

Those phenomena of structure which come under the terms "rhetoric" and "prosody" are equally interesting in themselves, and equally effective for culture purposes. The means by which discourse is made effective, the use of figurative language, the causes which make statements clear or the reverse, the arrangement of thoughts, the qualities of prose and verse which gratify or offend the ear—all these and other matters may be subjected to inductive investigation in such a way as to send a pupil out well educated, however little of previously ascertained truth he may know, and this should be the constant aim in the scientific treatment of English.

#### III. THE ÆSTHETIC TREATMENT OF ENGLISH.

Art is the natural language of joy. We have all been created with a capacity for the enjoyment of what is beautiful, or suggestive of beauty, through the imagination. The artistic impulse finds expression in different forms of art—architecture, sculpture, painting, music and poetry; and just as art excels every other source of pleasure or means of obtaining it, so poetry excels in the same way every other form of art. It is therefore fitting that poetry should be studied in schools, and the pupil can get in his course no better, and, in the higher sense, more useful equipment than a love for the best literature and a capacity for comprehending and appreciating it. Here again I must sound a note of warning against the use of text-books, and especially of annotated editions of texts. The pupil's attention should be directed to the text rather than to anything about it. As a work of art it has taken a certain form in the poet's hands, and as a work of art it should be studied. The opinions of great critics respecting it are valuable enough after the pupil has formed his own, but they should not be thrust on him until he has had a chance to form his own. Annotations that contain only information necessary to the comprehension of the text may serve a useful purpose, but everything in the shape of explanation of structure, appreciation of effects, and estimation of artistic merit should be kept out of the pupil's view. The matter of greatest importance is to secure his intimate acquaintance with the poem as a work of art. Nothing can take the place of this. If the poem is brief, and especially if it is a composition of a high class, it may advantageously be committed to memory. Such acquisitions are treasures of satisfying pleasure for after life which cannot be lost and cannot be replaced.

It is impossible in this brief sketch to lay down directions for a study so delightful and so difficult as the study of poetry; but I may be pardoned if I add a warning against unwise examination questions. The tendency of those generally asked is to magnify the importance of mere information—historical, geographical, mythological, scientific, and so on. Such information may be useful, nay indispensable, to the student, but to bring it into prominence in examinations is to mislead the inexpert and to constrain the expert teacher of literature to neglect what is of greater, and to direct the pupil's attention to what is of less importance. Nothing more calamitous could happen him. Poetry so studied is uninteresting and unim-

proving, and such study is rightly regarded by the utilitarian as a waste of time. He must be met and answered on higher ground. The chief end of poetry is to give pleasure, and all treatment of it in schools that does not keep this end constantly in view is a blunder, and worse.

CORPORAL PUNISHMENT.

A PAPER READ BY MR. SPENCE, PRINCIPAL CLINTON ST. SCHOOL, BEFORE THE TORONTO PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

[CONCLUDED].

Let us now see the kind of boy produced by the other method of treatment. His offences bring upon him a castigation. How does he feel after it? Not pleased, you may be sure; not fully satisfied, either, that he deserved it; very often determined to do the thing again to spite the teacher. His ugly natural evil passions are aroused. The blows have snapped asunder the friendly tie that may have been established between you by days of kind treatment. Do you think he respects and loves you as much as he did before? It would be unnatural to suppose so. Children do not readily forgive even their parents for beating them. Much less will they forgive their teacher. A little three-year-old girl was forbidden by her father, one day, to run through a puddle of dirty water again as she had just been doing, under penalty of being whipped. Almost as soon as his back was turned she ran through it. He took a lath and gave her a slap on each hand. She ran crying to the house to tell her mother, but turned when she reached the verandah, and in a voice broken by sobs, but full of indignation, said to her father, "I don't like you; you'll never go to heaven!" He has never struck her since and never will. This true incident is mentioned to illustrate the feeling that is aroused even by parental whipping.

It is worth while to try to recollect the number of boys who are made the subject of corporal punishment. They form but a very small proportion of our pupils. The same three or four boys are strapped month after month and year after year. Why is it that in spite of these incessant and innumerable floggings, the boy has not improved permanently? Possibly for a few days he may conduct himself so as to avoid a repetition of the castigation, but when the memory of his physical suffering has become a fading dream, he lapses and is again beaten, and so on to the end of his school career, or until he becomes too big and too strong to be safely beaten. As no moral faculty was aroused or appealed to by his numerous beatings, so no permanent improvement could take place. His skin and conscience hardened together, and the more frequent the flogging, the greater the hardening, until at length he suffers nothing morally and very little physically. He has come to look upon himself as the butt upon which his teacher can exhaust her ill-temper. He has become firmly convinced that she cares nothing for him. He broods over his fancied and real wrongs until every good quality of his heart has been stifled, and the worst passions reign supreme. The boys who are strapped at school are the boys who are cuffed and kicked at home. They soon come to believe that every one's hand is against them, and in self-defence they take up the cudjels and try to make things unpleasant for their tormentors. Very often they are not chiefly to blame. If the truth could be known, probably the parent is the chief sinner. His child has inherited his ugly nature, and is being punished for the sins of his father. Sometimes it is the teacher's own fault; much oftener than we are willing to admit.

Just after the discussion of this subject was announced to take place in our Association, the learned and humane editor of the *Toronto News* advocated increased frequency and severity of corporal punishment, alleging as a reason that the need of it was seen in the bands of young hoodlums that infested the street corners of our fair city. He surely must know that these are

the very boys who have been flogged and cuffed from infancy up. Their very coarseness and brutality and wickedness are the result, largely, of this kind of treatment which he thinks so elevating and useful. A better argument against corporal punishment could not be found. Look at them for a moment, the product of coercion. Vile manners, viler language, vilest moral nature! Degraded, debased, brutal, quarrelsome, ignorant Ishmaelites! It is possible, perhaps, to whip one devil out of a boy, but he returns with a host of other devils to resume his former place. The strap never awakens sympathy, it never arouses respect, it doesn't create love, it doesn't strengthen weak moral nature, it doesn't develop manly dignity; but it provokes a revengful spirit, it sets enmity between teacher and pupil, it lowers the boy in his own and his fellow-pupils' estimation, it prevents his obtaining a liking for school and education, it degrades a boy into a brute who, when he reaches manhood, will use his "education of the strap" to make other human monsters by a similar method. If there is any boy on earth who should not be strapped, it is the very boy who gets it so frequently and so savagely. The very fact that it is given to him, proves that he has in his heart those very passions and tendencies that we ought to aim to eradicate, root and branch. Kindness, forbearance, encouragement, sympathy, friendship, love, forgiveness, approbation, constant and never-failing, are the only means to drive out of these boys the pernicious inclinations implanted and developed by the mistreatment of their parents, and originating from heredity.

Doubtless some of these very boys are so very unmanageable that at first sight it seems impossible to control them by moral suasion. I am fain to believe that in many cases even a kind, judicious teacher may have, as a last resort, advocated and used corporal punishment. It is not beyond the realm of doubt that the beating, even then administered, has produced a better result than another kind talk would have done. It seems highly improbable that the regretful, sympathetic words of a patient, long-suffering teacher would not have awakened more contrition than the flogging aroused. Human nature, especially child nature, is woefully weak, and we ought not to forget that the hardened, petrified moral susceptibilities of these unfortunate children are the result of long-continued neglect, abuse, and evil associations, and, therefore, the awakening, disintegrating process will be equally long. Nearly all his inclinations tend to place him in antagonism, and to bring inevitable disaster upon him. Surely so long as he makes even the faintest attempt at self-government and reformation, even if these efforts are but the rare oases in the moral desert, we should not despair of arousing into vigorous life that self-respecting feeling which, if once rooted in good soil, will develop into an indestructible principle, especially if cultivated and irrigated with sympathy, patience, and kindness, by the genuine, enthusiastic teacher, who never yields to the remembrance of former failures, but who adheres firmly to the glorious old maxim of "try, try again."

THE knowledge of the principles of a language presupposes the most subtle logic and soundest judgment.—*Diderot.*

MUCH of the selfishness of the world is due, not to actual hard-heartedness, but to a similar lack of imaginative power.—*Felix Adler.*

AFTER all, the great safeguard for good and happy discipline is to fill the time with work.—*Fitch's Lectures on Teaching.*

SPECIAL COURSE IN SHORTHAND.—To cover the requirements of the Provincial Educational Department, for specialists, certificates will be given at the Galt Business College and Shorthand Institute during the holidays. Term to commence July 10th. This will be a good opportunity for teachers and students who are preparing for advanced and professional work. For circulars address the Principal, Business College Galt, Ont.

Mathematics.

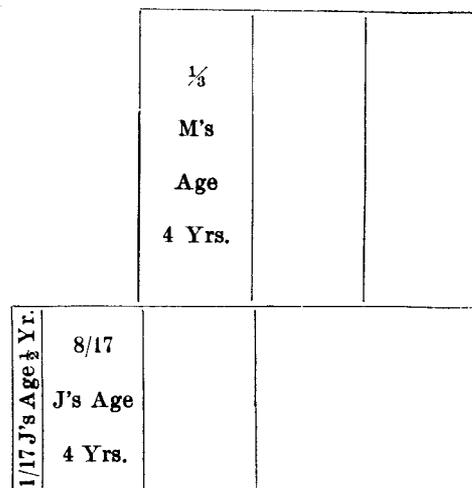
GEOMETRICAL REPRESENTATIONS OF ARITHMETICAL RELATIONS.

It is well known that Newton applied geometrical methods of representation in his *Principia* to investigate the laws of motion, and almost every teacher has made use of straight lines and rectangles to give his pupils visible representations of the properties and the relations of fractions. Is it not possible to make more extended use of geometrical diagrams to give junior pupils distinct conceptions of the abstract relations of numbers? The following case reported by A. B. GUILFOED in the *New York School Journal* will answer the question better than can be done by a long dissertation:

The other day I got a surprise from a ten-year-old boy. The following example had been assigned and the children had been called upon to use squares in the picturing of the work:

"Mary is 12 years old;  $\frac{1}{3}$  of Mary's age is equal to  $\frac{2}{3}$  of John's age. How old is John?"

The little fellow had an arrangement of squares that is worthy of being reproduced.



Mary is 12 years old, John is 8½ years old.

The idea of placing a part of one figure against a part of another and completing the diagram to find its value was original with him. I had never seen it used before. He was not a little pleased when I informed him that he had given me a new idea.

Now would not any teacher feel gratified to find his pupil showing so much original grasp of abstract, intangible relations as this solution proves to have been in the possession of this child? The geometrical solution of little Miss Hilda Hudson,—also ten years old—given in this column in April 1892, and numerous observations and experiments of our own made at different times with pupils varying in age from 10 to 25 years seem to show conclusively that to most learners of mathematics these geometrical representations have a peculiar clearness of their own, calling in "the trusty eye" to the aid of the understanding. It seems quite possible that following exercises in counting beads, beans, sticks, etc., and arranging them in groups, one might contrive next a series of geometrical representations of numbers to illustrate multiplication and division of whole numbers, and the solution of problems founded upon these operations. The writer recalls an experiment with two pupils who were led to solve a large number of applied questions on the four simple rules by means of strips of pasteboard cut out one inch wide and marked off in squares. A pair of scissors supplied the means of taking off the exact number required, and the pencil was used only to set down the number of units in figures. The same result could have been attained by means of a graduated ruler, and a series of lines and rectangles drawn with pencil or crayon. These pupils "hated arithmetic" as they had previously

learned it, but they immediately took great interest in the subject when the numbers were represented by something tangible and visible. One of them afterwards graduated at a university.

The area of a rectangle can be made to represent a vast number of arithmetical relations, and the historical fact that it was the basis of the method by which the greatest mathematician made some of his greatest discoveries, is sufficient to show that probably we could use geometrical figures to great advantage even in the second stage of elementary arithmetic. In *Mechanics, Theory of Equations, etc.*, as every one knows, the graph is of eminent service, and has latterly been employed in *Chemistry* as a means of comparing and studying the properties of the elements, and the results have been almost startling, inasmuch as chemists have been able to predict the properties of certain bodies before they had been discovered! Very likely a number of progressive teachers, who read the *JOURNAL*, have made some ingenious applications of geometrical representation in their own classes, and from them we should be glad to receive an account of their operations. It is almost certain that arithmetic would assume a new meaning and a new interest to most pupils if the subject or any considerable part of it could be adapted to visible representation, and this increased interest would make it far more *educative* than it now is. Clearness and impressiveness seem to belong to these methods wherever they have been successfully applied, for even the grammatical analysis of sentences has before now been treated luminously by means of lines, and logic has been worked out both geometrically and algebraically. Almost every teacher has noticed that pupils take more interest in mensuration than they do in common arithmetic, and probably the explanation lies in the use of diagrams which assist the understanding through the eye.

Here is a simple application of geometrical representation of an abstract relation which may be suggestive. To show that when the interest on any sum for a certain time and at a certain rate is  $\frac{a}{b}$  times the principal, then the discount (true) on any sum for the same time and rate is  $\frac{a}{a+b}$  times the principal.

**SOLUTION.**—Take a line  $b$  units long to represent the principal, and produce this line  $a$  units to represent the interest, thus

Then the whole line is  $a+b$  units long and represents the amount of the principal. Then since the principal is the present worth of the amount (definition of present worth),  $a$  represents the discount on the amount. What fraction then is  $a$  of  $b$ , and of  $a+b$ , i.e. how often is each contained in it respectively? The

answer is that the *interest*  $a$  is  $\frac{a}{b}$  times the principal  $b$ , and that the *discount*  $a$  is  $\frac{a}{a+b}$  times the

sum of which it is the discount. If figures, as 100 and 5, be used at first instead of  $b$  and  $a$ , the learner will see the relation more quickly. One might give many simpler illustrations, but the purpose of this article is suggestive rather than didactic, and we leave the subject for the present, hoping by and by to return to it with a sheaf of examples and illustrations gleaned from the letters of teachers who are daily handling junior classes in arithmetic. We invite them to experiment, observe and report the results.

#### CORRESPONDENCE.

T. P. KING.—Your enclosure is under consideration.

J. R. WILL, Chesterfield, solved No. 50 very concisely as follows: Had he worked throughout the job the boy would have received  $\frac{1}{3}$  of \$21 = \$7. But he assisted with only  $\frac{2}{3}$  of the work; he receives  $\frac{2}{3}$  of \$7 = \$2.80. Thus the

man gets for the extra  $\frac{1}{3}$  day's labor \$7 - \$2.80 = \$4.20, i.e., he gets \$3.36 per day; hence boy gets \$1.68 per day. Solved also by K. M. Ross, Richard's Landing and by several others.

No. 51.—K. M. Ross sends the following solution:

If first kind could do work in 4 weeks  
∴ second " " 5 " "  
∴ the difference would be 1 week.

But difference is 4 weeks which = 4 times 1 week.

∴ first kind can do work in 4 times 4 weeks = 16 weeks.

And second kind can do work in 4 times 5 weeks = 20 weeks.

26s. 6d. per week for 16 weeks = £21 4s. for one man.

18s. 6d. per week for 20 weeks = £18 10s. for one man.

If one man is employed difference would be £2 14s. but altogether there is a difference of £270.

∴ £270 ÷ £2 14s., which is 100, must equal number of men.

100 men of first kind can do work in 16 weeks.

∴ 50 men of first kind can do work in 32 weeks or  $\frac{3}{2}$  of it in 1 week.

100 men of second kind can do work in 20 weeks.

∴ 50 men of second kind can do work in 40 weeks or  $\frac{4}{3}$  of it in 1 week.

50 men of first kind + 50 of second kind do  $\frac{3}{2} + \frac{4}{3} = 1\frac{17}{6}$  in 1 week.

50 men of first kind + 50 of second kind do  $\frac{17}{6}$  in  $\frac{1}{6}$  week.

50 men of first kind + 50 of second kind do whole work in  $1\frac{17}{6} \times \frac{1}{6} = 17\frac{1}{6}$  weeks.

50 men at 26s. 6d. per week for  $17\frac{1}{6}$  weeks = £1177 15s. 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.

50 men at 18s. 6d. per week for  $17\frac{1}{6}$  weeks = £822 4s. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.

∴ £1177 15s. 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. + £822 4s. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. = £2000.

J. R. WILL and others also solved this question. It may be useful to our readers to compare the solution which we append.

Take a day's work of 1 man at 26s. 6d. per week as unit.

∴ cost of 1 unit of work done by one man at 18s. 6d. per week =  $\frac{5}{4} \times 18\frac{1}{2} = 23s. 1\frac{1}{2}d.$

∴ difference in cost of 1 unit = 3s. 4 $\frac{1}{2}d.$  and

∴ number of units in whole work = £270 ÷ 3s. 4 $\frac{1}{2}d.$  = 1600 units.

The dearer workmen do 5 units, while the cheaper do 4 units of work.

∴ if equal numbers of each kind were engaged 1st gang do  $\frac{5}{9}$  of 1600 units; second gang  $\frac{4}{9}$  of 1600 units.

Cost of 1st =  $\frac{5}{9} \times 1600 \times \frac{26\frac{1}{2}}{20} = £1177\frac{1}{2}$

Cost of 2nd =  $\frac{4}{9} \times 1600 \times \frac{23\frac{1}{2}}{20} = £822\frac{2}{9}$

Total cost = £2000 Ans.

D. J. B., Wolverton, wishes a solution of the problems:

No. 62.—“A merchant lost 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ % by marking goods at a certain rate per cent. advance on cost and then giving the same rate per cent. discount. What was the rate of discount?” See page 245, Jan. 1893, No. 2, which is precisely similar.

No. 63.—“At an exhibition one country was awarded 5 gold, 9 silver and 11 bronze medals, and another country 4 gold, 15 silver and 10 bronze. Find a ratio of values for such medals that these countries may be regarded as equally fortunate.”

**SOLUTION.**—From the relations 1 gold + 1 bronze = 6 silver. Now this will be satisfied if we count 1 point for bronze, 2 for silver and 11 for gold; 1 point for bronze, 3 for silver and 17 for gold; 1 for bronze, 4 for silver, 23 for gold, etc., indefinitely. See *Clarkson's Problems in Arithmetic, Teacher's Edition*, Gage & Co., 1893, p. 173.

L. D. D., Auburn, sends the following questions:

No. 64.—An agent receives 1500 hams, aver-

age weight 25 lbs. which he sells at 10 cents a pound; he pays freight 20 cents per cwt. and charges a commission of 2% on sales. He is instructed to buy tea at 45 cents a pound, to prepay the freight on the tea (20 cents per cwt.), and retains his commission of 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ % on the purchase. How many lbs. of tea did he buy?

No. —.—Find the equated time of the following sales:

June 20th a bill of \$500 at 30 days.

July 4th " \$600 15 "

Aug. 1st " \$450 60 "

Aug. 10th " \$800 90 "

No. 65.—What rate per cent. per half year, compounded half yearly, is equivalent to 6% per annum, compounded yearly.

No. 66.—By Professor Shields in *Educational Times*.

If 1 man, 1 boy and 1 girl, catch 1 trout, 1 perch and 1 minnow in 5 minutes, and 1 man 2 boys and 3 girls catch 1 trout, 2 perch and 3 minnows in 6 minutes, find how many minutes will be required for 2 men, 3 boys and 4 girls to catch 5 trout, 11 perch and 17 minnows.

A large amount of correspondence is held over.

#### INTERMEDIATE ARITHMETIC.

**DECIMALS.**—Variety in the arithmetic drill is afforded by teaching third and fourth grade pupils the first steps in decimals, United States money, common fractions and percentage, and using the facts in every day work. Decimals to hundredths, United States money to cents, halves, and fourths, 50 per cent. and 25 per cent. are simply new names for old "concepts," and help wonderfully in driving home the same old nails.

For instance there is nothing very appalling about such a drill as this:

\$ .3 + .7 = ?	2 × .3 = ?
.09 - .4 = ?	.8 ÷ .4 = ?
.25 + .07 = ?	$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} = ?$
.90 - .08 = ?	1 - $\frac{1}{4} = ?$
.25 × 2 = ?	2 × $\frac{1}{2} = ?$
.40 ÷ 8 = ?	$\frac{1}{3} \div \frac{2}{3} = ?$
50% of 18 marbles = ?	2 $\frac{1}{2} + 1\frac{1}{2} = ?$
.25 " of a dozen eggs ?	2 - 1 $\frac{1}{2} = ?$
100 " of 6 apples ?	$\frac{4}{5} = ?$ 2 $\frac{1}{2} = ?$
50 " of 11 = ?	$\frac{2}{3} = ?$ 1 $\frac{1}{2} = ?$

These are merely suggestions. The work admits of infinite variety, and is as pleasing to the children as it is satisfactory to the teacher.

#### DON'T BE A "NARROW-GAUGE TEACHER."

"She won't suit you, she is a narrow-gauge teacher." These words were spoken by one principal to another, who had inquired about a certain teacher. This remark seemed to satisfy the inquirer; he evidently wanted a broad-gauge teacher.

The question was asked, "What constitutes a narrow-gauge teacher?" The reply was, "I call a narrow-gauge teacher one who has fixed on a little routine as comprising her school-room work; she follows that day after day, until going to school is a task for the pupil. She looks at the pupils as the wine seller does his empty bottles—they are to be filled; she fills them with geography, spelling, etc., and keeps them as still as she can. That is her idea of keeping school.

She is in the work because it is the most genteel kind of work, but she hates it heartily. She doesn't try to get into and around it and comprehend it; she doesn't take an educational paper; she doesn't own an educational book; she never heard of Pestalozzi or Froebel. If she has she does not know of a single discovery either made. She does not study childhood; she considers a boy a nuisance unless he sits as still as one of the gods of the heathen. She—"Never mind; I think I have seen her."—*Teachers' Institute*.

The laws which govern the body are divine, though scarcely ever recognized as such; and he who violates them either ignorantly or willfully, must suffer the penalty for violated law. That the cause which led to overwork is a worthy one, will not suffice. Nature never takes any such excuses.—*Helen L. Manning*.

## Book Notices, etc.

Any book here reviewed sent post-paid on receipt of price. Address The Grip Printing & Publishing Co., Toronto.

*Life and Educational Works of Comenius.*

By S. S. Laurie, A. M., Professor of Pedagogics in the University of Edinburgh. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. Cloth, 12mo., 272 pp. Price \$1.00.

A theologian unacquainted with Augustine or a warrior ignorant of the life and campaigns of Napoleon should not be rarer than a teacher who knows nothing of the educational work of Comenius. English-speaking teachers have now no excuse for lacking a comprehensive knowledge of that great man's pedagogic labors for Prof. Laurie has given us, so he states in his preface, "the most complete account of Comenius and his works that exists in any language." The book contains a practical and judicious abridgment of the four large Latin volumes of that reformer's educational writings. Many familiar pedagogical maxims such as "From the concrete to the abstract," "From the particular to the general," "Through sense to intellect," are first laid down by Comenius in the great *Didactic*. He maintained that education should aim to develop the whole man, that methods should be based on the order of Nature, that Nature itself should be studied and that all learning should aim at the moral education of mankind. Prof. Laurie in an article in the *Educational Review*, March, 1892, says:—"Comenius remains for us the most learned and simple-hearted worker for the education of the people and the most eminent writer on Method whom the world has ever seen—in fact the founder of Method."

The history of the life of that "grand and venerable figure of sorrow" is one of uncommon interest. Like his Moravian brethren he suffered much persecution from the Austrian Government. During most of the time of the Thirty Years' War he was a homeless exile. His manuscripts and library were destroyed at the sack of Fulneck by the Spaniards and about thirty years later, when the Poles burned Lissa, his books and manuscripts were again destroyed. Yet his fame as an educator spread and he was invited by the authorities successively to Sweden, England and Hungary to establish or improve the schools of these countries and he was offered the presidency of Harvard College in America. The second centennial of his death was commemorated in 1871 and a movement set on foot to erect a statue to his memory. The statue has been completed and it now adorns the square in front of the Castle of Prerau, the town in which he taught his first school.

The value of Mr. Bardeen's edition of this interesting book is enhanced by the Bibliography of Comenius and the fifteen photographic reproductions from his original books. The latter include three pages from the *Orbis Pictus*, the first illustrated school-book ever published.

*As You Like it.* Edited with Introduction and Notes by Thomas Page. Pp 164. Two shillings. London: Moffatt & Paige.

This edition of Shakespeare's play has the merits of the companion volumes of the Moffatt series. It is designed particularly for school use with pupils who have an examination in their eye. Hence the introduction gives in precise topical outline the chief events in Shakespeare's life, his chief works, the characteristics of his genius. Coming more particularly to the play, it shows the origin of its title, the early editions, the source of its plot, sketches the plot and principal characters and quotes many of the best things said of the play by the well-known critics. Even notable passages are indicated and proverbial expressions selected. The text is well printed with wide margins for memorandum notes. The editor supplies very copious notes—explanatory, historical, etymological, giving a special chapter to the peculiarities of the grammar and syntax of the play. The result, though we cannot help thinking that something of the fragrance of literature has been lost in this very systematic edition, is a volume that will prove very helpful in preparing for Shakespeare examinations.

"*The First Millennial Faith.*" By the Author of "Not on Calvary." Bound in blue and white cloth, with gold stamping, Price, 50 cents. Saalfield and Fitch, Publishers, 12 Bible House, New York City.

This book has for its motive the restoration of the doctrine of Christ's Atonement that was held during the first thousand years of the existence of Christianity. The personality of Satan, the attributing of all evil primarily to him, the attestation of the never-varying goodness of God, is the result of the overthrow of that "judicial satisfaction" theory of mediæval origin. A sketch of the life and times of St. Anselm, the monk who put forth for the first time the "satisfaction" theory, occupies part one of the volume. The second part is a laborious compilation from the writings of the Christian Fathers, covering all Church literature to the year of our Lord 1000. The concluding chapter deals with the personality of Satan, and the life-long sacrifice of the son of God, whereby our redemption was wrought. The book is interesting and instructive, but is not free from errors other than those of the printers and does not in every respect show the accurate scholarship that should characterize such a work.

*Thoughts of the Emperor Marcus Aurelius Antoninus.* Long's Translation, edited by Edwin Ginn in the series of classics for children. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Long's translation of this famous work needs no further recommendation than the praise accorded years ago by Matthew Arnold: "Mr. Long's version of Marcus Aurelius being what it is, an Englishman may henceforth let the Greek original repose upon his shelf." In the present edition Mr. Ginn wisely omits some portions of the biography and philosophy given by Long, as unimportant in comparison with the *Thoughts*, which are given complete. The book has a didactic tone and carries with it a strong influence for good, yet despite Mr. Ginn's warm advocacy of its use in the public schools, its value as a text-book seems to us questionable. For, aside from the reflective character of the work, of itself demanding a mature intellect in its reader, there are difficulties presented in occasional abstruseness of language and in the presupposed familiarity with the history of the Roman Empire, difficulties that would materially lessen the child's interest. We are grateful, however, for the present cheap edition, and the valuable index appended heightens its usefulness to the general public.

*The Riverside Reader and Primer.* Houghton, Mifflin & Company, Boston, New York and Chicago.

The *Fundamental Ideas* of the book are: (1) The child must think intelligently before he can read intelligibly; and (2) The end of learning to read is to read great books. These ideas are developed by various devices new and old. The many well-graded, interesting, instructive and thought-provoking exercises together with the Silent Reading Lessons, teach the pupil to think before he attempts to read aloud. The introduction of words found in simple literature and the lessons containing a good deal of the literature of childhood prepare a pupil to read great books. The many maxims, short sayings, rhymes, poems, stories, fables and folk stories given in the book will make it of extreme interest to children. The child is here given many of those stories which he has heretofore had told him, but has never before had given him in such a shape that he could read them. It forms an admirable stepping stone to Fables and Folk Stories, which is the simplest of the books to be found in the Riverside Literature Series.

*Commentaries on the History of England.* By Montague Burrows: pp. 533. Edinburgh: Blackwood & Sons.

The aim of Professor Burrows in this volume is not so much to give a history of England with minute details as to illustrate that history by comment on its chief features from the earliest times down to 1865. The indefatigable researches into English History renders it nec-

essary from time to time to reset old facts and bring together and arrange new material. Such is the reason for the present volume. In easy and not ungraceful style the author incorporates the work of Green and Rys, Freeman, Stubbs, Gardiner, Seeley and a large number of writers who have devoted special attention to particular persons or events. The general reader will find many fresh and interesting chapters in this volume, while the teacher of history will be grateful for a volume that puts him in the current of the best and latest views.

*School Needlework.* By Olive C. Hapgood, Teacher of Sewing in Boston Public Schools. Containing over one hundred illustrations. Ginn & Company, Publishers.

The object of this book is to assist both teacher and pupil, lightening the teacher's labors by saving constant repetition, and giving the pupil a manual for reference. Simplicity with completeness has been the aim throughout.

The Pupil's Edition contains: Part I., General Directions for Sewing; Part II., Plain Sewing; Part III., Fancy Stitches; Part IV., Drafting, Cutting and Making of Garments.

In the Teacher's Edition are given practical hints and suggestions for teaching the lessons and courses of study for Kindergarten, Primary and Industrial Sewing. It also contains a list of articles obtainable for a sewing cabinet and talks on kindred subjects.

In connection with the Primary Course of Sewing, a full description of the "Educational Sewing Squares" is given.

*Bacon's Advancement of Learning, Book I.* Edited with Introduction and Notes by F. G. Selby, M.A., pp. 150. Two shillings. London: MacMillan & Co.; Toronto: Copp Clark Co.

This volume, one of MacMillan's English Classics, contains a text with modernized Spelling and copious and excellent notes. Volumes of this character keep alive in the general scholarship of the day the great work of the men of the past, and are consequently always welcome.

## TO THE EDUCATORS.

OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES.

[At a reception of authors and publishers tendered the Department of Superintendence at Boston, February 23, 1893, Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes read the following delightful verses, prefacing them by a few explanatory words: "These little verses which I have written and which I am going to read are impromptu. They did not exist in word or shape before 10.30 today. If I can read them I will. I was hardly able to get into the coach at half past one, my hand shook so, and I was like a demented person. But I hope I shall like them myself.]

'Teacher of teachers! Yours the task,  
Noblest that noble minds can ask,  
High up Ionia's murmurous mount,  
To watch, to guard the sacred fount  
That feeds the stream below;  
To guide the hurrying flood that fills  
A thousand silvery rippling rills,  
In ever-widening flow.

'Rich is the harvest from the fields,  
That bounteous Nature kindly yields,  
But fairer growths enrich the soil,  
Ploughed deep by thoughts and wearied toil,  
In learning's broad domain,  
And where the leaves, the flowers, the fruits,  
Without your watering at the roots,  
To fill each branching plain.

'Welcome! the author's firmest friends,  
Your voice, the surest God's deed lends,  
Of you the growing mind demands  
The patient care, the guiding hands  
Through all the mists of morn.  
You knowing well the future's need,  
Your prescient wisdom sows the seed,  
To fire the years unborn.'

## Primary Department.

## GOLDEN HAIR AND THE LION.

N. L.

ONCE upon a time there lived in a dark, lonely wood a little girl. She was called Golden Hair on account of her beautiful long yellow hair. She had no father or mother, but lived by herself. However, she was not lonely, for she made friends with the birds that sang so sweetly in the tall trees, and the flowers that bloomed from early spring till latest frost. Most of all she loved the bright sun which she called her father.

One day she went out to pick berries for her dinner. On her way home, as the sun was very hot, she stopped to rest under a large tree which overhung the path. Hearing a rustling among the bushes she looked up and was terrified to see a lion coming towards her. She started to run, but the lion could run much faster. He was almost up to her. She could feel his hot breath on her cheek, when, looking up to the sun shining in the blue sky, she called on Him to save her.

The sun, looking down, took pity on her and changed her into a little yellow flower, which we call the dandelion, the leaves of which are pointed and sharp like the lion's cruel teeth.—*Am. Teacher.*

## SELF-CONTROL.

RHODA LEE.

OUR topic for the morning was Self-control. Of course we did not call it by that name. The story was of a little boy who learned *how to take care of himself*. He tried so hard to keep his heart, his hands, and his lips right, that he grew stronger and stronger every day until he found "doing right" to be not nearly as hard as he thought it was.

"What a grand thing it was," we said, "for a boy or girl to be able to control himself. When the thoughts wanted to wander far away to be able to bring them back promptly and fix them upon the lesson again; when instead of getting the work done someone wanted so much to run away and play, to be able to say "No! work first." That was being strong. That was what was meant by taking care of oneself. We talked about this for some time, the children giving me numberless cases in which they needed to exercise their watchfulness. We then had a song that the children had learned sometime before but which in the light of the morning talk seemed to bear the meaning—"Yield not to temptation."

School affords a child all the opportunities necessary for learning self-control. Attention is a powerful factor in school work and when this is of the highest and best kind self-control is indispensable. Involuntary attention given because of the interest in the lesson is necessarily the only kind we can expect at first, but by it and other means we gradually gain the voluntary. For no power should one be more devoutly thankful than that of being able to give undivided and concentrated attention, and the formation of this habit must be begun in very early days.

Self-control is never to be gained by isolation, and yet a visit to some classes might make us think that such was the common belief. Have you not seen more than once a boy or girl at the back of a row or perhaps on a chair in the front of the class apparently separated from the rest of the scholars. He is not generally a dull or yet a bad looking boy but one with considerable love of mischief depicted in his face. His eyes drop when you look at him as though he were ashamed. The teacher perhaps notes this and explains matters. He is a boy who seems to delight in tormenting others, persists in playing and distracting the attention of those about him and the only way to prevent this is to give him a seat apart from the class. She thinks to improve him by putting him out of the way of temptation. On asking if he is to remain there long you are told that the seat is a permanent one. That surely is a great mistake. He might be put there for a time because of his inability to control himself, but in so doing he should be made to feel the disgrace of this weakness. He will feel ashamed of his removal from the class and wish to return. Assign him some work that will give him an opportunity of exercising his self-control, and if he really tries to do better let him return to his former place. Appeal to the others in the class to help him. This will strengthen them and also have a very beneficial effect upon the weak one.

The removal of temptations is not productive of strength to withstand them or others that are presented. Strength comes with every conquest made.

## TWO, TOO, TO.

THE words two, too and to are never too well known, and frequent and thorough drill is necessary to make the child perfectly familiar with them so that no mistakes occur when they are used in writing.

The use of the words in phrases and sentences is valuable, and helps to impress them upon the mind. Let one exercise be to make phrases with two :

two boys,	two tops,
two girls,	two windows,
two pencils,	etc.

Following this have similar exercises with too and to :

too late,	to come,
too early,	to go,
too warm,	to have,
too cold,	to get,
too long,	to ask,
too short,	to wait,
etc.	etc.

After such drill with phrases, test exercises may be given with sentences like the following, in which blanks occur to be filled with two, too, or to as the meaning requires :

I was—late for the train, so I could not go—the city.

There were—apples in the dish and I gave one—Mary.

I went—far south and had—ride—miles farther.

He filled—pails—full of water—carry them.

It is—cold—go—miles, to-night.

## Literary Notes.

*Littell's Living Age* does not professedly cater to the summer lounge and yet the charming tales which embellish each issue serve admirably to pass an idle hour away, while the more solid reading matter is of such a character that it will lose none of its flavor by being reserved for a more convenient season. The most notable of the stories are "A Visitor and his Opinions, a Story of the Seen and the Unseen," in No. 2551. It has considerable merit and a refreshing originality in that, in its efforts to present the views of a heavenly visitant, it differs materially from the conventional, supernatural fiction. "The Hint o'Hairst," by Menie Muriel Dowey, runs through two numbers, 2552 and 2553, and is a love story which strongly appeals to the reader's sympathy, perhaps the tragic element is a little overwrought. "The Last of the Peplows," by G. B. Burgin, is of a different character and will prove an excellent antidote to the former. It is a touching yet amusing story of the power of love conquering the pride of birth and caste. "Vera Blavatsky," by Edith Staniforth, is, possibly, the most powerful of those which have recently appeared, and is a story of two heroes and two heroines, although the main interest attaches the relations which exist between Vera, the "Companion," and Alexis the younger son of a Russian Princess. Alexis, by his connection with a Nihilist, becomes involved in a plot against the Czar. Complications ensue, but, after some thrilling experiences, all ends well and the wedding-bells ring out.

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The complete novel in the July number of *Lippincott's* is "The Troublesome Lady," by Patience Stapleton. It is a lively and interesting tale of ranch life in the West, and is fully illustrated. The fifth in the series of Lippincott's Notable Stories, also illustrated, is "The Reprieve of Capitalist Clyde," by Owen Wister. Other Illustrated articles are "On the Way," by Julian Hawthorne, and "Chicago Architecture," by Barr Ferree. "Fanny Kemble at Lenox," by C. B. Todd, gives an interesting account of that famous lady's life in Berkshire in former years. Morgan S. Edmunds describes "A Wild Night on the Amazon," and Giovanni P. Morosini tells "What the United States owes to Italy." Gilbert Parker, the author of the novel in the June issue, supplies an account of "The New Poetry" and Mr. W. E. Henley. Edgar Fawcett discusses "Certain Points of Style in Writing," and Maurice Francis Egan gives "An Old-Fashioned View of Fiction." Robert Timsol and Frederic M. Bird set forth the relative advantages of "Point vs. Truth" and "Truth vs. Point." M. Crofton, in "Men of the Day," handles Alexander Dumas and Secretary Hoke Smith. The poetry of the number is by Mary Isabella Forsyth, Clifford Lanier, Flavel Scott Mines, and Lloyd Mifflin.

## A PRACTICAL SPELLING LESSON.

Lay aside for a day the spelling book, and try an exercise like the following :

Let the pupils take their slates and write their own names in full.

Write the teacher's surname.

Write the name of the county in which they live, the State, their post-office address.

Tell where Scotchmen came from.

Tell how old a boy is who was born in 1879.

Write the names of four winter amusements ; of four summer amusements.

Write how many days in this month.

Write what we plant to get potatoes.

Write a definition of a druggist.

Write the names of six pieces of furniture.

Write the names of six kinds of tools.

Write the names of the seven days.

Write the name of the year, month and day of the month.

Write a verse of poetry and a verse of Scripture from memory.

—*American Journal of Education.*

WHATEVER a teacher's knowledge may be, he cannot teach with vigor after he ceases to be a daily learner.—*M. B. Anderson.*

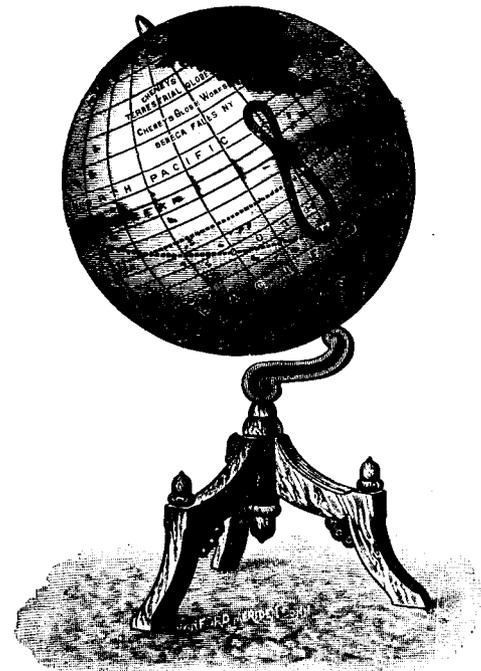
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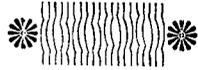
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