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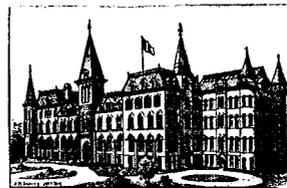
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Applications for final examination of School of Pedagogy, to Department, due.

High School Entrance Examinations.

SELECTIONS FOR LITERATURE.

1898.

- Lesson V. Pictures of Memory.
- Lesson X. The Barefoot Boy.
- Lesson XIX. The Death of the Flowers.
- Lesson XXIV. The Face Against the Pane.
- Lesson XXVI. From the Deserted Village.
- Lesson XXXV. Resignation.
- Lesson XL. Ring Out, Wild Bells.
- Lesson XLII. Lady Clare.
- Lesson LII. Jacques Cartier.
- Lesson XCI. Robert Burns.
- Lesson XCII. Edinburgh after Flodden.
- Lesson XCVIII. National Morality.
- Lesson C. Shakespeare.
- Lesson CII. The Merchant of Venice—First Reading.
- Lesson CIV. The Merchant of Venice—Second Reading.

SELECTIONS FOR MEMORIZATION.

Fourth Reader

1. The Bells of Shandon, pp. 51-52.
 2. To Mary in Heaven, pp. 97-98.
 3. Ring Out, Wild Bells, pp. 121-122.
 4. Lady Clare, pp. 128-130.
 5. Lead, Kindly Light, p. 145.
 6. Before Sedan, p. 199.
 7. The Three Fishers, p. 220.
 8. The Forsaken Merman, pp. 298, 302.
 9. To a Skylark, pp. 317-320.
- Elegy, written in a country churchyard, pp. 331-335.

ADDENDA TO TEXT BOOK LIST.

The following additional Text Books were authorized by the Department of Education on August 24, 1892, subject to the provisions of Section 175 of the Public Schools Act, 1891.

COLLEGIATE INSTITUTES AND HIGH SCHOOLS.

Classics:

- First Latin Book, by J. Henderson, B.A., and J. Fletcher, B.A., price, \$1 00 (The Copp-Clark Co.)
- Primary Latin Book, by A. Carruthers, B.A., and J. C. Robertson, B.A., 1 00 (Methodist Book and Pub. House.)

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

English:

- Public School History of England and Canada (new) by W. J. Robertson, B.A., 0 30 (The Copp-Clark Co.)

NOTE—CHANGE IN PRICE:

- Public School Writing Course, each number (to July, 1894), 0 06 (After July, 1894, Five Cents.)

The Department of Education has also ordered that the Public School History of England and Canada, by G. Mercer Adam and W. J. Robertson, B.A., authorized in 1886 and in use at present date in the Public Schools of Ontario, shall cease to be authorized on and after July 1, 1894.

Candidates not in attendance at the School of Pedagogy, but who are eligible to present themselves at the written examination in December, are hereby notified that Reading, Drill, Gymnastics and Calisthenics are compulsory for all male teachers; and Reading, Drill, and Calisthenics for female teachers.

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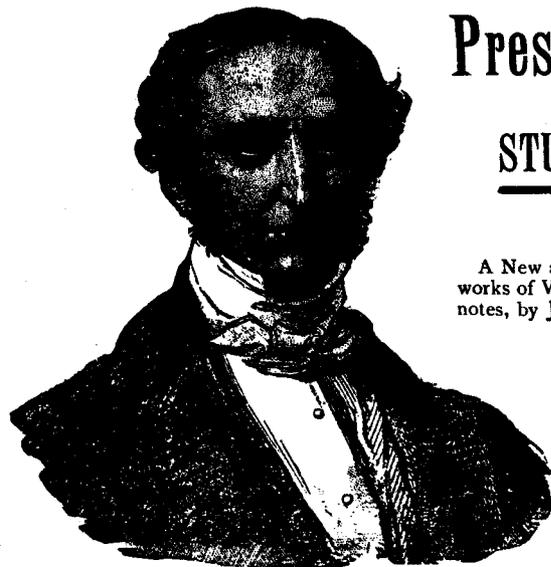
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TORONTO, OCTOBER 15, 1892.

Vol. VI.
No. 11.

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* Editorial Notes. *

THE members of the Chatham District Teachers' Association are to visit the Detroit city schools in a body, by invitation on the 20th inst. The visit will no doubt be instructive, and these international courtesies are pleasant and desirable.

WE thank those who have complied with our request for names and addresses for sample copies of THE JOURNAL. There are many teachers throughout the Dominion who would be glad to subscribe to a journal of this kind. We should be glad to get their names.

NOW is a good time to subscribe. We want to add hundreds of names to our mailing lists before the New Year. Cannot all our friends help us and feel that at the same time they are helping the cause of general education which is the cause of our country, of morality and of humanity.

WHAT has become of the movement for Canadian University Extension? The season is now near when actual operations should begin, and courses of lectures, or rather lessons, should be arranged for in every town and large village. The work was left in the hands of a committee. When will this Committee be heard from.

QUESTION Drawer is crowded out of this number. Most of the inquiries received relate to the requirements and regulations touching teacher's examinations, certificates, etc. For information on all these points it is better to write direct to the Education Department, which will send the official

circulars. With reference to Normal School terms, etc., write to the Department for blank form of application with other information.

SOME of the English papers have amusing lists of queer answers given by pupils at the late examinations. Some of these answers reveal astounding ignorance in regard to matters which every one is supposed to know, and others are interesting by reason of the strange confusion of thought they display. Of the latter class perhaps the most amusing instance is the statement of a girl, in a class between twelve and sixteen years of age, that "if a man lives without food for a considerable time, say sixty days, he may die at the end of a month; or if the constitution is delicate, he may only live for a week or less."

THE appointment of Professor Loudon as successor to the late lamented Sir Daniel Wilson, in the presidency of the University of Toronto, has met with very general approval. Professor Loudon has, it is believed, the fullest confidence and cordial sympathy of his colleagues in the faculties of the College and University. The very hearty reception accorded him by the students at the College Convocation the other day, afforded evidence which must have been very gratifying, of the state of their feelings towards their new head. And nothing could be more unequivocal and hearty than the assurance given him by the Chancellor, the Hon. Edward Blake, in his speech at the Convocation, that the appointment has his fullest approval. Mr. Blake assured the audience that Professor Loudon's elevation was not due to any narrow principle of nativism, but to the conviction of those on whom the responsibility rested, that he was the very best man for the position to be found anywhere. There is good reason to hope, as the Chancellor and others have predicted, that the University will, under the new President, enter upon an era of progress which will eclipse that of any previous period of its history.

THE numerous cases in which teachers have of late been haled before the courts for alleged excessive severity in the flogging of children, is a sign of the times. We do not suppose that it indicates by any means a tendency to increase in the number of

teachers who think the rod indispensable to the maintenance of discipline in the school-room, or to greater violence in its application to offenders. It more probably indicates an increasing unwillingness on the part of parents to have their children subjected to corporal punishment at the discretion or whim or temper of irascible teachers. The most recent instance is that of a teacher who was fined for excessive severity in the use of the ruler or strap or some other instrument, upon a girl of twelve or thirteen years of age. We have no wish to reflect upon the conduct of this particular teacher, who probably used no more violence than has a thousand times been used by other teachers who rely upon that means of enforcing their authority. The provocation was undoubtedly great. The evidence went to show extreme impudence on the part of the girl. But this is just one of the features of the case which, in our opinion, constitutes one of the strongest arguments against corporal punishment itself. The pupil is insolent. As an almost necessary consequence, the teacher is angry, and thus in a condition which morally unfits him to be at the same time the judge who pronounces and the licitor who inflicts the punishment. The objectionable features of the process were in this instance aggravated by the age and sex of the pupil. Fancy the scene. The teacher, a man, has his authority set at defiance by a girl on the verge of womanhood. The pupils of the whole class or school are looking on. He feels that his authority is defied, his prestige at stake. He becomes excited, exasperated. At least he must be singularly free from human infirmities, if he does not. What is to be done? Under a better system the answer would not be far to seek. The teacher would assert his dignity and his prerogative by promptly and in a dignified manner dismissing the girl from the school and refusing to re-admit her without a satisfactory apology and promise of good behaviour for the future. Instead of this and as a result of a bad system, the outcome of a wrong theory of discipline, the teacher engages in a physical encounter with a big girl, in the presence of the other pupils. If the true end of all punishment is the moral good of the culprit and of society, can any one suppose that such a scene as this is likely to be productive of such effects in either case? Surely there is a more excellent way.

* Special Papers. *

THE CHARACTERISTICS OF AN IDEAL LESSON.

E. P. HUGHES, in *The Journal of Pedagogy*.
(Concluded from September 15th)

7. The ideal lesson must be connected with the life of the world. In addition to the life of the child, we have to deal also with a large life pulsating around us—the life of the world, the history of to-day. We can count no man truly educated who does not understand, to some extent, his physical environment. Nor can we consider as an educated man one who is dead to the intensely interesting life of to-day. We must make our children respond to the life of the world, and in the ideal lesson we shall have some connection between it and the present scene of the world's great drama.

8. The ideal lesson must be connected with the world of books. One great source of knowledge, one great means of education, is obviously this world of books, and in our lessons we must constantly arouse in our pupils a desire for book-wealth by giving them appropriate specimens of it, and also teaching them how and where to get these treasures.

9. The ideal lesson must be connected with the previous knowledge of the child. The great difference between the highly-educated man and the half-educated or badly-educated man is, that in the latter class we have unorganized or very slightly organized knowledge, and in the former case knowledge which is highly organized. If a well-educated man learns a new fact, he sees at once its significance, *i. e.*, he sees at once the relation which exists between it and other facts and laws and principles. It is just the difference between a tune played on the piano with one finger, and the same tune played with chords. The educated man correlates his knowledge, brings together items of knowledge which throw light one on another, and that bring to the surface new knowledge. A small amount of well-organized knowledge is of far more use, practically and educationally, than a large amount of unorganized or very slightly organized knowledge. The notes of a tune played with one finger are connected in one direction, and so are the items of a reign in history that are learned chronologically by a badly-educated man; but the tune played with chords has many connections, and so would the same reign have for the well-educated man. He would contrast it with many other periods of history, he would see its political importance, its social, constitutional, and literary significance. His previous stores of knowledge would have fresh light thrown upon them, and they in their turn would illustrate and emphasize the new period taken.

10. The ideal lesson must be given in paragraphs. One of the many advantages of preparing one's lessons very thoroughly beforehand is, that careful preparation usually enables one to see the different points which will appropriately form the centre of paragraphs. It ought to be possible for an intelligent critic to construct easily a plan of a lesson given, and this assumes clearly defined paragraphs, and their logical connection.

11. The ideal lesson must have the salient points clearly emphasized. To ignore this is one of the most common faults of young teachers. It is difficult to realize that what appears to us as very important, because we see its connection with other points, does not appear so to pupils who have not our knowledge. In order to produce the right impression on a class, we have frequently to emphasize the most important points illogically *i. e.*, out of proportion to their logical value. To the skilful teacher there are, of course, innumerable devices by which he can make certain points more emphatic—a slower and more impressive rate of speaking, repetition, illustrations, etc., etc. I quite agree with the teacher who once said that if he were listening to a foreign teacher whose language he did not understand, he ought to be able to know exactly what were the most important points of the lesson by his manner of delivery. Let us be quite sure which are the important points, and then let us make them stand out in high relief. Much that we say in our lessons will be forgotten, but let us so arrange our lessons that the chief points shall stand out forever in the memory, like Alpine peaks above a bed of clouds.

12. An ideal lesson contains at least three kinds of intellectual processes. (1) *The getting of truth.* For children, at any rate, we require the stimulation of some new knowledge. Occasionally a teacher gives too much new knowledge in one lesson, and possibly for two or three lessons has to go over and over again the old. The better plan would obviously be to keep a little new knowledge for each lesson. We can get truth in many ways—by interrogating nature, from the teacher, from books, by our own thinking. It is, of course, advisable to train the pupil to acquire truth from all these sources. (2) *The expressing of truth.* It is not enough, to know, we must be also able to express our knowledge. We can do this in many ways—(i.) in words spoken or written, and the spoken words are the more important because the more common form of expression; (ii.) in drawing, etc. It is always advisable, when possible, to use this most graphic writing, this shortest of all short-hands; (iii.) *The using of truth.* I believe we spend too much of our lesson time in getting truth, or, better still, helping our pupils to get it for themselves. I think we sometimes underrate the great value of the second process—the expression of truth; and I think we often underrate the value of the third process. We do not notice sufficiently that truth can scarcely be grasped until we have not only expressed it, but also applied it. It is a good practical rule that, whenever we have helped our class to gain a new truth, we must at once try and give them an opportunity of using it. If they have a rule in grammar, let them apply it immediately—not once, but many times. If they grasp a scientific law, give them problems which they can solve by its aid. In some countries there are two kinds of lessons, one in which the teacher gives knowledge, or guides the class to knowledge, and the other in which the class expresses, in some form or other, the knowledge which it has gained, and applies it. I believe the ideal lesson contains both elements, and that it is best that both should be included in a single lesson.

13. The form of an ideal lesson is that of a conversation. I mean a real conversation, not a catechism in which one side asks questions, and the other answers them, but one in which questions and answers come from both sides. And even this does not express my ideal conversation. It is something more than a two-sided catechism, although it is that also. In a real conversation we have occasionally the lecture element introduced. One of the conversationalists gives us a short discourse, which is neither a question nor an answer to a question. Perhaps I have at last roughly described a real conversation—short discourses interspersed in the midst of a two-sided catechism. I think that all educationalists are now agreed that the lecture form is utterly unsuitable for school-children. It is only suitable when supplementary to a great deal of private work. The lecturer can stimulate, occasionally he gives you what you cannot get in books or elsewhere, but he cannot teach you much, you must teach yourself. Again, most educationalists are averse to a single-sided catechism, in which the children learn a certain amount from books, and the teacher *viva voce's* them to see that they understand and know it. Here the teacher is simply a tester, an examiner, scarcely a teacher in the fullest sense. The ideal teacher is an examiner, a catechist, and a lecturer, but he is something else besides.

14. In the ideal lesson, the teacher leads part of the time, but the children also lead. The children have a double discipline. First, *they obey.* They follow the reasoning of the teacher, or are led by him to reason for themselves, according to a plan which he has determined beforehand. Secondly, *they imitate.* For part of the lesson they have the stimulating atmosphere of liberty. The wise teacher is always on the lookout to learn from his class, to see what attracts it, what devices are most telling, etc.; but, in addition to this, the wise teacher will always give the class freedom of choice in certain particulars. In a school which I once visited, it was the rule for the class to decide, within limits, what direction the lesson should take for a certain part of the lesson time. The headmistress explained this by saying she thought a considerable amount of freedom was necessary to make the pupils *strong*, and also the teachers learnt far more about the children in the free time. An ideal lesson is really a joint-stock company, consisting of teachers and pupils, in which both have somewhat similar rights and duties. We teachers must exact

obedience, and we must give liberty. We must ask questions, and we must be questioned.

15. The ideal lesson flows on smoothly from beginning to end. There are many different kinds of possible interruption. Sometimes another teacher, or a visitor, interrupts the lesson. I feel it is just as bad to speak to a teacher actually teaching a class as to speak to a man at the wheel or a sentry on guard, and we know that these are unforgivable transgressions. Even a headmaster or a headmistress is scarcely ever obliged to interrupt a teacher at work, although, of course, possible cases of necessity may arise in their case. Again, want of power of discipline frequently interrupts a lesson. This is always the teacher's fault. He is failing in one or two ways; either he does not count for enough in his class, he has not enough moral force to restrain the boys, or he is not using all the devices in his power to restore order or prevent disorder. Nothing shows weaker discipline than the constant interruption of the class in order to speak to offenders. Occasionally, a lesson is interrupted by digressions on the part of the teacher. Sometimes these digressions are very valuable, and there are many teachers who are so stimulated by their class that they get happy, suggestive ideas during the actual process of teaching that would never occur to them in their study, while preparing their notes of lessons. Let me add, however, that to prepare thoroughly beforehand, as long as we are not hampered by that preparation, is the plan most likely to conduce to happy suggestions during lesson-giving. Again, occasionally a lesson is interrupted by an irrelevant question from the class. Often a skilful teacher will discover a link between the question and the lesson; but if the link is not discoverable, let the question for the time being be ignored. A most frequent cause of interruption is when the teacher asks a question and gets no answer. Occasionally, a sudden break of this kind, or at any rate two or three of them, will cause the teacher to lose touch with the class. If no answer is received, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, it is the teacher's fault. Either the class *cannot* answer, and he has expected of them what they cannot do, or the class *will not* answer, and again it is his fault, because he has failed to establish the right relation between the class and the subject, or the class and himself. What is to be done? He probably knows whether it is a case of *can't* or *won't*. If the former, it is possible to prevent the break being serious. By a series of easy questions, he must assist the class to obtain the necessary knowledge to answer, and then, repeating the old question impressively, he gets the right answer, and the lesson flows on. Occasionally the teacher is obliged to answer the question himself, feeling, of course, he has made a mistake in asking it. Sometimes an earnest teacher bores the class, by trying to worm out of them something which they really do not know, or tries to make them express their knowledge in a particular form, till the children lose all interest in the knowledge. It is advisable never to give the children what they can give you, and to get from them answers expressed in sentences, not in single words or phrases; but even such teaching rules as these require tact and common-sense in their application, and it is a far more fundamental rule not to lose the interest and attention of the children. Occasionally the unexpected happens in class. The lesson is interrupted by the blackboard falling down, or a band passes the window, etc., etc. Let us make some comment, laugh with the children, listen to a band for a moment with them, and then, having really led your class all the time, lead them back, promptly and sharply, to the subject-matter of the lesson, and be more interesting than usual for a short time, so as to undo the evil effects of the interruption.

16. In the ideal lesson the teacher and the children are happy, and their happiness has the same source—the lesson. I hold very strongly that happiness is the best atmosphere in which to teach, and also in which to learn. The more I consider the processes of teaching and of learning, the more I study teacher-nature and child-nature, the more convinced I am that it is quite possible to have this atmosphere in our classes in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, and I am not sure about the hundredth. But, say some, we cannot make all learning easy, there are some things the child must learn that must be difficult, and only to be gained by a hard struggle. I rejoice to think it is so, or life would soon be dull and happiness not very plentiful in our class-rooms. There is not one of us who

has ever climbed a steep Swiss mountain who cannot testify to the keen enjoyment we had during the whole of the ascent, and yet undoubtedly it was a struggle, and there were hardships to be borne. I at once admit that all teachers at present do not enjoy all their teaching, nor do all pupils enjoy all their learning, but I think this is chiefly for the following reasons:—(i.) our present curriculum is not sufficiently wide nor sufficiently elastic to suit all our needs, or the needs of all; (ii.) the conditions of learning are not always suitable for child-nature; and (iii.) we teachers are not as yet sufficiently skilful. I would lay stress on the fact that both parties concerned—teacher and taught—should be happy. I occasionally see a class in which the teacher is very happy, but the taught are not. The teacher, quite unaware of the fact that she is speaking above the heads of the children, or at too rapid a rate, may pour forth her learning, and find considerable pleasure in pouring it forth, while the children, troubled and worried, vainly try to understand. It is comforting to remember that child-nature is such that their trouble is not likely to last long. That teacher will soon cease to be an important person in their world. They will turn to their desks, their pencils, their companions, anything rather than their teacher; but she will have missed—nay, she will have thrown away—a glorious opportunity. Sometimes, again, the children are thoroughly happy, while the poor, worried and unhappy teacher tries to catch their attention. It is not only necessary that teacher and pupil should be happy, but that their happiness shall have the same source, viz., the lesson. I remember once seeing a teacher making a diagram on the black-board, making it admirably, and thoroughly enjoying it, and one of the pupils was amusing the rest of the class by clever sketches, which he held up for their amusement, while the teacher was attending to his diagram. Here we had both parties thoroughly enjoying themselves, but obviously this was no lesson, but rather two entertainments, fairly successful, going on at the same time and place.

17. I have assumed that, in the ideal lesson, the children are educated during the process. I will now make a further assumption, that in the ideal lesson the teacher is also educated. I consider that this is a most important point. I do not know whether society can ever be so organized as that all work can be made educative to the workers, but I feel sure that all professional work can be so arranged. Alas! we all know teachers who degenerate intellectually as the years go by—they get more stupid, more dogmatic, more dull, and more stereotyped; they lose, as we all must, the enthusiastic freshness of youth, and they do not gain, as we all may gain, that enthusiastic freshness which arises from deeper knowledge, wider sympathies and greater skill. Teaching ought to produce different results. A teacher gains obviously in knowledge by giving an ideal lesson. He has had to look at the subject from many standpoints, and every difficulty seen by the class is really a cause of enlightenment to him. He has been in contact with many fresh young minds, differing in a great many points, and the more freedom that he has given them the more has this difference been shown. He has obviously gained much in knowledge of human nature. He has had practice in expressing what he knows, and expressing it in language and ways of expression which suit the children, and therefore are not the most natural to him, therefore this mental exercise is the more difficult and the more educative. He has also had to understand the expression of others. Above all, he has had to govern human beings, one of the most educative of all kinds of work, requiring great knowledge, wide sympathy and infinite tact. If a lesson does not educate the teacher as well as the pupils, the lesson is not ideal.

18. In an ideal lesson, the originality of each child has been developed. The children were not alike at the beginning of the lesson, the difference should be more marked at the end. The very essence of a good education is to develop individuality. The badly-educated may be monotonously alike, but among the well-educated there is much differentiation. It would require at least half-a-dozen papers to treat of this subject of originality.

19. In an ideal lesson, the originality of the teachers has been developed. Bad teaching is the most effective work I know for cramping a man's originality, far worse than bad learning; but, on the other hand, good teaching is admirably adapted

for the development of individuality. We teachers are sometimes accused of being the most conservative of all professional workers, and probably a number of inefficient teachers would be an exceedingly undesirable audience for an educational reformer. On the other hand, teachers ought to live in the future more than any other class of workers, because the future is so much in our hands. It behooves us especially to look forward towards the good things that are coming, because the children that we educate, the men and women of the future, will live their lives in a newer world than ours. Originality is becoming increasingly valuable, we are shrinking more and more from monotony, and the good teacher may be congratulated that his work is such that it develops his originality.

20. The ideal lesson must be one that no one else could have given, under any possible combination of conditions. The most important factor in a lesson is not the subject—although that is important,—nor the method—although I greatly value method,—but the teacher. We have argued much over our curriculum, we have argued a little over method, the time is yet to come when we shall argue keenly as to how to produce the best teachers. This important factor, the teacher, should so affect the ideal lesson that we cannot imagine any one else giving it. We teachers must not only develop our originality, but we must learn how to put it into our lessons. The interesting teacher, the teacher who counts for a great deal, is the original teacher. But if we are to be original, (i.) we must be well paid, so that we might be able to save for the future, and have refreshing holidays, etc.; (ii.) we must not work too many hours each day; (iii.) we must not have too much of our time taken up by clerk's work, marks, and a certain kind of mechanical correction; and (iv.) we must have a thorough preparation for our important work.

It is always a little sad to speak of the ideal, because one is so constantly reminded of the non-ideal reality, of the dull lessons we have given, and of our many mistakes. Still we, as well as our pupils, are living in the world where we can learn, and grow wiser and more skilful. Neither our general education nor our professional education is finished, and we can still improve. The discussion of every educational problem always makes prominent the same two facts—the greatness of our work, and its exceeding difficulty. Still, both facts are comforting. Our work is so difficult, it is worth the toil of a lifetime; and it is so great that it is worthy of our keenest enthusiasm, our most earnest endeavour, our most unflinching perseverance.

COUNTY MODEL SCHOOLS.

S. B. SINCLAIR, B.A., HAMILTON.

AN investigation of the latest reports of the Minister of Education reveals the fact that more than one half of the school-teaching in Ontario is done by teachers who have received no other professional training than that afforded by a County Model School. It may well be questioned whether in any other calling, success is so largely conditioned by professional training, and thoughtful observers are daily becoming more convinced that the success or failure of our educational system is largely decided at the portals to the teaching profession.

There are, therefore, few more vital educational questions than what is the nature of the work done in County Model Schools? In usefulness and importance, are they in common with our other educational institutions, keeping pace with the increased requirements of the country, and, above all, do they possess that element of growth which will cause them to rise superior to present weaknesses and approach the perfect ideal of a Training School?

That these schools have been, and are now doing a good work, cannot be denied. They alone have made it possible for Ontario to reach the somewhat unique position among nations of being able to say that no one is permitted to teach in her schools without a fair quantum of professional training. There is, however, a widespread opinion that this training is far from satisfactory, and that important changes should be made in order to secure better results.

The changes proposed from time to time have been mainly along the line of lengthening the present Model School term. The Director of Normal Schools and the Inspector of Model Schools have in their reports urged the necessity of such extension.

The Provincial Teachers' Association declared in favor of it. Two cities have already adopted it, and the subject has been deemed worthy of discussion in the Provincial Trustees' Association, and even on the floor of the Local House.

Notwithstanding all this, there seem in certain places to arise almost insurmountable difficulties in the way of the immediate adoption of any proposed scheme which would ensure a decided advance. The following rough plan is suggested, not as a complete solution of all difficulties, but as one which would constantly improve the present condition and render greater advances ultimately possible.

PROPOSALS FOR EXTENDING MODEL SCHOOL TERM.

That (a) any Model school having (1) a separate class room for teachers in training during the entire year, (2) a library containing standard books of reference on the history and science of education, (3) a staff of teachers competent to give special instruction and training in all subjects of the Provincial Normal School course, (4) classes in which teachers in training will be permitted during the second half-year to gain practical experience in teaching and supervising, (5) at least six students who have passed the third-class professional examination and the High school junior leaving examination, and who desire to continue their professional training for a full year, be permitted to extend its Model School course to a full year, and that every such school receive a Government grant in addition to the Government grant of \$150 to County Model Schools.

(b) The first or Fall term's work and examinations be conducted exactly as at present in County Model Schools.

(c) The 3rd class professional certificates issued at the end of the Fall term, be valid only in the counties in which they are obtained, and be not provincial as at present.

(d) The second term begin on the 3rd day of January and end on the 30th day of June, with holidays during the week following Easter Sunday.

(e) The principal devote at least one-half his time during the second term to the training and supervision of Model School students.

(f) Teachers who hold a third-class professional certificate and at least a High School leaving certificate, be admitted to the second term, and on passing the examinations prescribed be awarded a third-class certificate for six years.

(g) The regulations governing course of study, text-books and examinations of the second term be the same as those for provincial Normal Schools, as provided in clauses 59, 60 and 61 of Departmental Regulations, with the exception that at the final examination the papers be the same as those for Provincial Normal Schools, but the examiners be not the same examiners.

These Provincial Model Schools would bear much the same relation to the County Model Schools as Collegiate Institutes bear to High Schools. Their growth in numbers would probably resemble that of the Collegiate Institutes, so that, speaking generally, after a period of years each Collegiate Institute town or city would also contain a Provincial Model School.

Such a scheme could be put into operation without interfering seriously with any existing legislation, and would involve but slight additional expenditure. It would increase the efficiency of the Model Schools, and give them an impulse for greater achievement. It would also enable many teachers to obtain a more thorough professional training who are unable to go to the expense of attending the Provincial Normal School, and who now resort to the "extended third-class certificate" as their only alternative.

A farmer was lost on a western prairie. At length, when almost in despair, he came to the track of another sleigh. He followed it, thinking it would bring him to safety, and was much rejoiced when, after awhile, he heard the jingle of other bells. But, reaching the man he had been following, he found that he, too, was lost, and that they had both been moving in a circle following each other round and round. As night came on it occurred to them to look up at the North Star, and before morning they were safe at home. You who listen to the world's "come" in time of perplexity are like those bewildered farmers, following each other round and round on the prairie. Look up to this bright and morning star of hope, beckoning you to pardon, peace, safety, heaven.

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A language lesson in the form of a talk between teacher and pupils, intended to be followed by a written composition from the pupils.

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2. The successful manuscripts shall become the property of THE EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL. The JOURNAL shall also have the right to publish any of the unsuccessful manuscripts it may select, on condition of paying the writer according to its usual rates for accepted articles of that kind.

3. No manuscript or single lesson to contain more than 1,500 or less than 1,000 words.

4. All competitors must be teachers actually engaged at the time of competing as principal or teacher in some Public School in the Dominion of Canada. (The term "Public School" as here used does not include Grammar or High Schools.)

5. Any such teacher may compete in any number of subjects, but in no case shall more than two prizes be awarded to one competitor.

6. All manuscripts must reach the office not later than December 15, 1892.

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TEACHERS' CONVENTIONS FOR OCTOBER:

West Middlesex, at Strathroy, October 20th and 21st.
North Essex, at Windsor, October 20th and 21st.
Leeds, No. 2, No. 6 at Brockville, October 20th and 21st.
Northumberland, No. 15 at Cobourg, about the 20th October.
East Victoria, No. 19; this County is divided, they have township meetings.
One in Kinmount, October 21st, Somerville
Chatham District, at Chatham, October 20th and 21st.
West Grey, at Owen Sound, October 20th and 21st.
Oxford Co., at Ingersoll, October 20th and 21st.

✻ Editorials. ✻

TORONTO, OCTOBER 15, 1892.

THE DEATH OF TENNYSON.

THE great poet of the age, and one of the few really great poets of all the ages, is dead. On the 6th of the current month, at half-past one in the morning, Alfred Tennyson passed peacefully away in the eighty-fourth year of his age. It would be useless, in the brief space at our disposal, to attempt either a sketch of his life or even the most meagre description of his productions. We may, we suppose, safely assume that there is no teacher in a Canadian school who is not somewhat familiar with the outlines of the one, and at least some portions of the other. The man or the woman who has not read "In Memoriam" and "Locksley Hall," and "The Idyls of the King," and who cannot repeat from memory some of the shorter gems, such as "The Charge of the Light Brigade," "Break, break, break," the songs

in "The Brook," and many others, must be deficient in taste or scholarship to a degree which nothing but extreme youthfulness or sad lack of opportunities can excuse. Should there be any such among the readers of this paper, there is just one consolation which may be given them. They have yet before them in all their original freshness some of the greatest literary treats which were ever available to the students of any language. We advise them to make a commencement without delay, and if they cannot from the first feel the power and beauty of these inimitable poems, to continue to read and study and ponder them till their enjoyment becomes deep and genuine.

Other great poets, a few of them, may have equalled, a very few possibly have excelled, the departed poet-laureate in some special departments of song which they had made their own *habitat*, so to speak, but it is doubtful whether any poet of any age, not excepting Shakespeare himself, peerless in his own realm of dramatic literature, ever reached such heights of excellence throughout so wide a range, as did Lord Tennyson. There was but one Homer and one Virgil and one Milton, and it is hardly possible, perhaps, that "The Idyls of the King" can rank permanently by the side of the one great masterpiece of each of these. And so of a very few others of those who have won immortal renown in some special province of the poetic realm. But the critic will, we believe, explore in vain the whole wide realms of metrical composition, ancient and modern, to find one who has been able to bequeath to posterity such wealth of poetic treasures in almost every variety of form and subject. The heroic, the lyric, the patriotic, the pathetic; the stately blank verse, the melodious rhyme, have all in turn been found congenial to his muse and have been embodied in poems which will die only with the language in which they are written. Nay, if we can imagine a time in the far-off ages of the future, when the English language shall have shared the fate which has overtaken the classic speech of ancient Greece or Rome, it is safe to predict that the choice poems of Tennyson will even then remain embalmed, as the *Æneid* and the *Iliad* have been, and handed down for the delight of future generations.

It is to be hoped that in every school in Canada advantage will be taken in some way of the "passing" of Tennyson to awaken an intense interest in the life and writings of the great bard. To this end a series of Tennysonian exercises on Friday afternoons might, if skilfully arranged and conducted, prove of lasting value in forming and developing the germs of a literary taste which may prove a source of delight and profit during all the future life. As we

write it occurs to us that the JOURNAL may perhaps be able to contribute to this end by providing material for a Tennysonian day—say for the closing exercise before the Christmas holidays,—following somewhat the plan of the Columbus material which we gave in our last number. Of course there would be no comparison in the wealth of available material. We should be glad to know what our subscribers think of the plan.

THE CHAUTAUQUA COLLEGE.

THE Chautauqua College, a department of the Chautauqua educational system distinct from the reading circles, offers the regular college curriculum and special college and preparatory courses to students at home who are no longer able to attend school or college. The work is accomplished through a system of correspondence between individual students in all parts of this and other countries, and professors in leading American institutions.

From time to time the instructor sends the student instruction papers to guide him in his study of the prescribed text-books and to indicate the questions which are to be answered in writing. The work of the student is carefully corrected, with such notes, suggestions and references as may be needed in each case, and returned to him for review. The method requires more work on the part of the student, but as he must write out on paper the whole of every lesson, it must be thorough. An advantage of this system is, that each student may cover the ground rapidly or slowly, as his own circumstances may determine, without being hurried or hindered by class mates.

The annual calendar of the College, which has just been published for this year, shows courses adapted to students of all grades, from those who have only a common school education to the most advanced. It also shows the professional record of the instructors.

Although the office of the College is located at Buffalo, N. Y., the College itself extends from the eight or ten colleges and schools where its instructors are engaged, to all the villages, towns and cities where its individual students are working.

Our Little Men and Women for October, is as winsome as ever. Its pictures, stories and verse this month, are all about what boys and girls like, what boys and girls do, and what boys and girls are eager to know. "The Monkey Story," "The Studio Dolls," and "A Boy and a Girl," with the nutting-time, peach-time, berrying-time, and all sorts of good times, will gladden the heart of every little man and woman, and make study-time easier, and play-time happier. Price \$1.00 a year; 10 cents a number. D. Lothrop Co., Publishers, Boston.

* Literary Notes. *

"SHAKESPEARE'S Lady" is the title of an article in *The Chautauquan* for October, by Ira Gale Tompkins. It is richly illustrated.

A PHILOSOPHICAL discussion of much value and interest to thoughtful people of the best methods of really learning foreign languages, is given by Dr. Howell T. Pershing, in an article on "Language and Brain Disease," in the *Popular Science Monthly* for October.

THE *North American Review* for October, has a very trenchant reply by Mr. Gladstone to the arguments against Home Rule set forth by the Duke of Argyll in the issue of that periodical for August. It has also a radical article on "The Foreign Policy of England," by Mr. Henry Labouchere.

THE complete novel, "The Kiss of Gold," in *Lippincott's Magazine* for October, is by Miss Kate Jordan. It deals with the fortunes and misdemeanors of a young writer, whose sudden success was attended with temptation too strong for his integrity. Under the title, "Hearing my Requiem," George Alfred Townsend ("Gath"), the well-known newspaper correspondent, narrates a curious incident in his professional experience of long ago. Other articles, stories and poetry—besides a striking dialect piece, "The Prayer-Cure in the Pines," by Clarence H. Pearson—make up a good number.

THE October number of the *Atlantic Monthly* contains an article, "The College for Women," by Miss Mary A. Jordan, which will be of great value to those who are interested in the higher education of women. The author, who is Professor of Rhetoric and Old English at Smith College, writes with a full knowledge of her subject and describes the history and development of the movement from its beginning, and gives many valuable suggestions as to the successful carrying on of the system in the future. The paper will well repay a careful study. This number also contains many other valuable articles.

APPROACHING very near its semi-centennial, that venerable and only eclectic weekly, *Littell's Living Age*, is apparently as young, vigorous and valuable as in its earliest years. The issue for October 1st, No. 2518, is the initial number of the 195th volume and appears in an entirely new dress. Its old, familiar drab-colored covers remain unchanged, but its interior has been transformed. With new, clear, and handsome type, and the great improvements noticeable in its general "make up," with its excellent paper and fine press-work, it compares favorably with any other magazine published; and, combined with the high intrinsic excellence which has ever characterized its contents, *The Living Age* must prove an even more delightful and desirable visitor than ever, and enter its year of jubilee under highly encouraging prospects.

THE October *Arena* contains another paper on the popular series now appearing in its pages on American actors. This issue deals with Edward Hugh Sothorn. Another

instalment of the Bacon-Shakespeare controversy is given in this number. Among the papers treating serious moral, political and reformatory problems are the following, all of which are from the pens of eminent thinkers: "Has Islam a Future?" "The Negro Question in the South;" "Social and Economic Influences of the Bicycle," "The Church and the World," "A Plea for the Prohibition Party," and the "True Character of Christopher Columbus." The last half of the "Symposium on Women's Dress," prepared under the auspices of the National Council of Women, appears in this number. Among the contributors are Lady Harberton, of London, Octavia W. Bates and Grace Greenwood. The editor contributes an illustrated paper in favor of improvement in woman's dress.

THE October *St. Nicholas* has a full explanation and discussion of the causes and operation of "Volcanoes and Earthquakes." Other practical articles are, "How Columbus Reckoned," by Royall Bascom Smithey, a discussion of the state of geographical knowledge of his time; "The Stone Autograph-Album," a description by Charles F. Lummis of the great cliff whereon the Spanish explorers inscribed (or, rather, carved) their names; "Learning to be Weather-Prophets," an account of the service, and of the study of weather-maps in the Boston public schools; and "Tapir-hunting in Brazil," by Herbert Smith. In fiction there are the conclusions of the serials; "A Land and Water Tussle," a bear-and-boy story, by Clarence Pullen; "The Dodish Moral Signal-Service," a clever child's funny notion; and a story for the very little folk. The verse is by Mrs. Richards, Malcolm Douglas, M. H. F. Lovett, Tudor Jenks, Anna Robeson Brown, and Julie M. Lippmann. The magazine finishes its nineteenth volume with this number.

THE Columbus interest culminates, as it should, in the October *Century*, the frontispiece being the newly brought out "Lotto" portrait of Columbus, owned by Mr. J. W. Ellsworth, of Chicago. It is accompanied by an explanatory paper by the critic John C. Van Dyke. In the same number, the Spanish statesman, Castelar, writes of Columbus's homeward voyage after the great discovery; and the architect Van Brunt describes the Fisheries Building, the exquisite Art Building, and the United States Government Building at the World's Fair. An article of immediate and almost sensational interest is Professor Jenks's paper on "Money in Practical Politics," describing the methods, shamefully common, in what are called "practical politics" in this country. The opening paper of the number is a very striking piece of autobiography by Archibald Forbes, the famous war-correspondent. Harry Fenn very curiously illustrates a paper by Charles Howard Shinn on "Picturesque Plant Life of California." In the short stories of this number a new writer is introduced, Hayden Carruth, a New York journalist, who tells the story of "Doggett's Last Migration," with pictures by Kemble. This number of the *Century* rounds out its twenty-second year. With the next number begin several new and interesting magazine "features."

Educational Notes.

"ALWAYS remember," said a high schoolmaster to his rhetoric class the other day, "what a preposition is meant for. Never use a preposition to end a sentence with."

IN 1870, the average salary of a certificated master in England was a little over £94, that of a mistress under £58. It is now £120 in the case of the former, and over £76 in that of the latter.

A MISS CRUSER teaching a country school near Winnebago City, Minn., punished a child named Lent. The parents assaulted her and seriously injured her. She brought suit against them, and has recovered a verdict of \$14,000.

KATE FIELD, referring to Washington school exhibits, says: "The girls seemed to be almost as prominent as the boys in the samples of carpentry, but apparently not a boy had been seized with a desire to learn to cook or sew."

CORPORAL punishment is no longer permitted in the public schools of New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Cleveland, Minneapolis, Erie and many other smaller cities, nor in the State of New Jersey, where it was abolished by law in 1867.

FROM the report of the Committee of Council on Education in England, it appears that the school accommodation is considerably in excess of the theoretical requirements. The working hypothesis is that seats should be provided in the Public elementary schools for one-sixth of the total population. On this basis provision should exist for 4,846,841 school places. The actual supply is 5,628,201 seats. Of these 3,647,805 are in Voluntary schools and 1,980,396 in Board schools.

"WHAT a glorious calling is that of the teacher!" "No grander, nobler work is given to mortals than that of forming the young and plastic mind." These are sentiments one frequently hears from the lips of teachers at conventions. All very true, undoubtedly, why then should some teachers, principals and superintendents at Saratoga remove the association badge when at evening they moved among the pleasure-seekers on the hotel verandahs? Were they ashamed to have the *bon ton* know that they belonged with "them teachers."—*Mich. Moderator.*

A TEACHER in a Public school in Philadelphia, condemned three little girls, as a punishment for treading in sport upon the heels of those who preceded them in the line as they filed down stairs, to walk up and down a long flight of stairs in the building twenty-five times. One of the girls, aged eleven, after going up and down twenty-one times, sank exhausted to the floor, unable to go further. One of her little companions heroically completed the task for her friend, in addition to her own. The one whose strength had failed, was with difficulty assisted to her home by her companions, took to her bed, and died three days afterward of typhoid fever. Fancy the feelings of the teacher.

WOMEN are slowly but surely elbowing men out of the work of primary school teaching in this country, as they have done to a very considerable extent in the States. In 1870, of every 100 primary teachers of each sex and grade, 57 pupil-teachers, 60 assistants, and 48 certificated teachers were women. To-day, out of every 100 similarly taken, 77 of the pupil-teachers, 77 of the assistants, and 60 certificated teachers are women, which is bad for the men. The aggregate number of girl pupil-teachers in 1870 was 7,273; to-day this branch of the pedagogic service sums up to 21,771—an increase as nearly as possible of 200 per cent. The boy pupil-teachers in 1870 numbered 5,569; to-day they are 6,360, an increase of only 14 per cent.

THE sphere of public education has become, in the minds of progressive politicians, social reformers and educationists, a good deal enlarged within these last few years, and no man has done more to enlarge that sphere than Mr. Acland. His great fight for the institution of technical and secondary education has become a memorable story in recent Parliamentary history. . . . The work should go merrily at Whitehall with the son of Sir Thomas Acland, for so many years Member for North Devon, in the office of Vice-President, and the son of the late Mr. Kekewich, of Peamore, for so many years Member for South Devon, in the office of Chief Secretary, both most earnest, zealous, and devoted educationists for education's own sake.—*School Board Chronicle, (Eng.)*

For Friday Afternoon.

THE TREES' REBELLION.

BY LIZZIE WILLS.

DAME Nature said to her children, the trees,
In the days when the earth was new,
"Tis time you were putting your green leaves on,
Take them out of your trunks, dears, do.

"The sky is a soft and beautiful blue,
The snow went away long ago,
And the grass some time since popped up its head,
The crocuses all are ablow.

"Now hurry and get yourselves dressed, my dears,
All ready for summer weather."
But the trees tossed their heads from side to side,
And grumbled out all together:—

"We really would like to alter our dress,
We are quite tired of wearing green;
Each year our new suits are just like our old,
Can we not have a change between?"

Dame Nature said to her children the trees,
"I'm astonished, I must confess
To hear you are tired of your robe of green;
I think it's a beautiful dress.

"But wear it always in summer you shall,
(I've said it and will be obeyed).
However, I'll see ere the winter comes,
If some little change can be made.

"Your uncle Jack Frost comes to visit me
From his home in the polar seas,
And I'll ask him to bring for each of you
A dress any color you please."

So every year you may see for yourself,
That whenever Jack Frost comes here,
The trees are no longer dressed all in green,
But in other colors appear.
September, 1892.

SHE COULD AND SHE COULDN'T.

FOR RECITATION.

SHE could sing and she could play,
She could dance from night till day,
She could while the hours away,
So 'tis said;
She could skate and she could paint,
She could play the patron saint,
But she couldn't and she wouldn't
Make a bed.

She could walk eight miles a day
And play tennis charmingly,
Flirting in a saucy way,
Little scamp!
She could drive and play base-ball,
She could make a stylish call,
But she couldn't and she wouldn't
Clean a lamp.

She could swim and she could row,
She could always have a beau,
And I am sure that we all know
She was shy.
She could laugh and she could prance
She could play a game of chance,
But she couldn't and she wouldn't
Make a pie.

She could etch and write a book,
She could vanquish with a look,
She could win by hook or crook,
I confess;
She could scold and she could flout,
She could cry and she could pout,
But she couldn't and she wouldn't
Make a dress.

She could talk of church affairs,
But knew naught of household cares;
But I'm sure that none compares
With sweet Nan;
Even if she couldn't bake
Bread and pies and angel cake,
She entrapped and she captured
A rich man!

—Bar Harbor Bazoo.

REPRODUCTION STORIES.

THE RESCUE.

(From Our Dumb Animals.)

"Two little boys, sons of Robt. Christie, Esq., were on Saturday last fishing on the banks of the Shawsheen river, and but for a faithful dog would have been drowned. The youngest one caught a fish, but it dropped from the hook; and in his eagerness in reaching for it the little fellow fell into the water. The eldest immediately sprang in; but the water being deep, and neither knowing how to swim, both sank. Mr. Christie's Newfoundland dog, which had accompanied the boys, manifested a human intelligence and more than average human courage, and, plunging into the water, dragged the youngest one to the shore, and immediately proceeded to rescue the other. That dog is entitled to the freedom of the city; and our kitchen and back-yard are at his disposal at all times."

The circumstance occurred at Lawrence, Mass., on the 13th of April. Carlo, the hero of the affair, is a jet black Newfoundland dog, weighing about ninety pounds. He is a fine swimmer.

* Hints and Helps. *

A WORD TO YOUNG TEACHERS.

ONE word must be said here about "withdrawals from the room." There is no doubt about the annoyance to teachers caused by numerous requests to leave the room. There is no doubt, either, that these requests often become unnecessarily numerous, when unchecked, particularly if children discover that the teacher can be annoyed in this way. Nevertheless, teachers cannot be too careful, lest their apparent reluctance to grant requests deter the sensitive and timid children—those whose great desire is to please the teacher—from making requests when they ought. These are the children who sometimes suffer serious physical injury, which the bolder children escape. A rule to stay after school whenever leave to withdraw from the room has been granted during the session, may operate as a check upon frivolous requests; but it also operates on the sensitive, conscientious child to deter him from incurring what, to him, looks like a penalty. Better some abuse of freedom in this particular than physical injury to a single child. There should be no rule which looks like exacting a penalty for leave to withdraw from the room; for if the child is honest, his request should be granted as a matter of course, and if dishonest, he should be reached in some other way. Never should leave to withdraw from the room be regarded as a favor to be granted or denied at the teacher's pleasure; nor as a privilege to be won by good conduct or forfeited by bad conduct; but as a *personal right*, not to be restricted, except for the gravest reasons.—*Supt. Edwin B. Seaver, Boston.*

WHAT IS EVER SEEN IS NEVER SEEN.

BY CELIA DOERNER.

"You may all put your hands behind you," I said to a class in the first year of High School. "Now tell me, John, which of your fingers is longer, the first or the third?" "The first—no, the third—indeed, I don't know." And John looked puzzled. "Mary, which of yours is longer?" "I'm not sure, but I think it's the first." "What do the others think?" "The third!"—"No, the first!" "They're equal!" All these answers were given with evident hesitation.

"You may now look at your hands and convince yourselves." All but one of the pupils now decided that the ring-finger was longer than the index-finger. One found the two fingers of equal length. I told them that in some few hands the index-finger is longer.

The pupils were amused to think that they had never closely observed their own hands, and I placed on the board the sentence, "What is ever seen is never seen." After what had preceded, it was not difficult for the class to grasp the thought.

"Now, boys and girls, I shall ask each of you to observe some familiar object more closely than ever before and to write out the result of your observations, together with your reflections on this

experiment. The sentence on the board would make a good heading for the composition."

The result was a number of very interesting compositions containing much that was a surprise and a revelation, even to one who had had some previous experience with the blindness of the seeing.

One girl said that she had just found out that the stars shine even in winter; she had always imagined that they were visible only in summer. As, among other things, I had suggested their observing the heavens, several expressed their surprise and astonishment at the beauty of the starry sky, which they had never before suspected. It was the first time, too, that some of them had noticed that the stars have an apparent motion in the heavens, just as the sun and the moon have.

Others made discoveries as to the beauties and wonders of some common weeds or insects. One made a study of human ears and was surprised to find that they differed so much in shape. Another examined a coin and came to the conclusion that he had never before really seen it.

One of the girls told how almost every day she passed along Garfield Place, yet had never even noticed the statue there, until one day a stranger who happened to be with her asked her the name of the monument. Then for the first time in her life she beheld the statue of Garfield. One boy made a study of the Probasco Fountain, of which he was sure he could not have given even the meagerest description beforehand. Several declared that during that week they had learned more by the use of their eyes than in months and years preceding, and many good resolutions were recorded.

Does not this experiment point clearly to some serious deficiencies in our teaching, and to the simple remedies which are within the reach of every teacher in every school?—*Hughes High School, Cincinnati, O.*

TEACHING GEOGRAPHY.

THE following hints on the teaching of Geography may be suggestive to many teachers:

1. Assign the lesson by topics, never by pages.
2. Encourage pupils to ask questions and furnish examples within their own experience of the subject under consideration.
3. Let each pupil give in his own language all the information he has secured on the subject.
4. At the close of a recitation have the pupils tell what has been brought out during the lesson.
5. Emphasize all new facts and connect them with the subject of the lesson.
6. Insist that each pupil keep a note-book.
7. Talk as little during a lesson as possible; let the subject be unfolded and developed by the pupils.
8. Make your questions and answers as you would in conversation; eschew the lecture style of teaching.
9. Have plenty of reference books, use them freely, and encourage your pupils to consult them.
10. Hold this always before your mind—you are to teach your pupils to study a country in the light of its advantages as an abode for man.
11. Begin every lesson with a review of the preceding lesson. Frequently have this review a written exercise.—*Pa. School Journal.*

CANNOT AFFORD TO READ.

SAID a teacher in our hearing a few days ago: "I am so lonesome for want of reading matter. The family with whom I board have no books and take but one paper. That is a monthly flashy advertising sheet."

"But do you take no papers yourself?"

"No, I can't afford it. My wages are small and the school term is so short I cannot afford to spend a cent for such things."

Out upon such teachers! America has no use for them. The teacher, of all persons, must be abreast with the times. He should come before his school enthused with the world-life that is throbbing on, outside his little domain. And in these days of cheap newspapers, cheap magazines, correspondence, and agencies, he has no excuse for saying he cannot afford it.

Does the teacher not know that the surest way for him to stagnate in some backwoods country neighborhood is for him to attempt living and

teaching outside the world? Does he not know that the most certain way to preferment and honor is through broad-minded culture? There lies the way, and he is indeed short-sighted who will be penny-wise in view of the possibilities before him.—*Charles M. Hayer in North Carolina Teacher.*

Book Notices, etc.

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

Progressive Gymnastic Day's Orders, According to the Ling System. By C. J. Enebuske, A.M., Ph.D. Silver, Burdette & Co.: New York, Boston, Chicago.

This book is got up in first-class style throughout, and presents in the most accessible form the principles and practice of the Ling System of Swedish gymnastics. The book contains minute directions for a series of exercises extending over seventy-five days, no two days alike, and graded into three sets of twenty-five each. We recommend the book to the teachers of gymnastics as the most convenient form for a continuous series of simple, varied, and efficient exercises for boys. C.

New Elementary Algebra. By Charles Davies, LL.D. Edited by J. H. Van Amringe, Ph.D. American Book Company.

The fact that various editions of this book have been in demand since 1859 is in itself a high testimonial. It would suit some of the classes in our Public schools. C.

Algebra for Beginners. By Hall and Knight. Macmillan & Co., 1892.

An orthodox English collection of graded examples and easy problems as far as easy quadratics.

Elementary Geography of the British Colonies. By George M. Dawson, LL.D., F.R.S., Assistant Director, Geological Survey of Canada, and Alexander Sutherland, M.A., Carlton College, Melbourne. Macmillan & Co., London and New York.

This book will, we believe, supply a real teachers want in Canada. The introductory chapter is a valuable treatise on the physical geography and general characteristics of British North America, including geographical position, outer form and size, configuration, drainage system, climate, plants and animals, native races, population, political divisions, government, products, industries and commerce, and internal communications. The following chapters, dealing with the various Provinces, include these and other particulars with reference to each, thus placing within reach of teachers, students and general readers a mass of classified information of great interest and value. In the second half of the book the same particulars are given with reference to the other colonies of the Empire, ending with New Zealand and the Pacific Islands. To Canadians the name of Dr. Dawson will be a guarantee of the reliability and accuracy of the information given, and no doubt the same may be said of Mr. Sutherland's competency to deal with the countries on the other side of the globe. The book is well printed and neatly bound, and the illustrations are, for the most part, clear and well executed.

Information Reader No. 4—Modern Industries and Commerce. By Robert Lewis, Ph.D. (Boston School Series). Cloth, 329 pp., 60 cents. Boston: Boston School Supply Co.

We have in this volume, *Modern Industries and Commerce*, the final number of the Information Readers. Reader No. 4 possesses the same simplicity of style, the same accuracy in statement, and the same adaptability to class-room use that have rendered the preceding numbers of the series so popular. There is a charm in the very title of this

series. It is the child's "open sesame" to a world of pleasant knowledge; it suggests, to the experienced teacher, reading classes interested, without constraint, in the subject-matter of their lessons, and it therefore implies prompt appreciation of the correct oral expression of the sentiments conveyed in those lessons. The publishers deserve the thanks of the educational public of the United States for the energy and enterprise shown in so promptly meeting the demand for a series of reading-books of a radically different type from most of those now in the market.

Chemical Analysis. Caldwell, Blakiston, Son & Co., Philadelphia.

In this volume Professor Caldwell has given, in a systematic and thoroughly intelligible form, explicit directions for conducting a course of elementary qualitative and quantitative chemical analysis. The chemistry of the operations precedes the manipulation, thus giving the student a clear grasp of all he does.

Lessons in Heat and Light. D. E. Jones. Price 3s. 6d. Published by Macmillan & Co.

An admirable elementary text-book on the subjects of the title. It is clear, simple and progressive. The experiments are of such a nature that pupils can quickly perform them, a merit which modern teachers of science will not be slow to recognize. For the general student it leaves hardly anything to be desired.

Lessons in Zoology: Common Animal Forms. By Miss Gilman. Illustrated. New England Pub. Co. Price 50 cents.

A capital book, non-technical, for the use of natural science classes in the Public schools, or for private students doing the preparatory work for entering upon a systematic course in the High schools. It will also be found a great aid for those teachers who make use of animal forms in their language and observation lessons.

Physical Education. By R. Anna Morris. American Book Co.

The system advocated in this book is eclectic, and it aims at the attainment of ease, grace, and elegance of personal bearing through gymnastic drill and Delsarte. Its object is not to develop strength, except as strength adds to grace, and muscular self-control—the perfect marriage of nerve and muscle; hence it does not in any sense take the place of a system aiming primarily at strength and vital stamina, such as what we believe to be the coming system—the Swedish gymnastics—in its superb presentation by Baron Nils Posse. The book contains exercises in free gymnastics, with clubs, rings, and wands, Delsarte, vocal exercises, together with hints on diet, personal habits and deportment. On the whole, it contains more between its two covers, that will prove suggestive and stimulating to Public and High school teachers, than any book we have seen. It is tastefully printed and bound, and contains many illustrative figures gracefully drawn. Appended are a number of bright, popular airs to accompany the movements.

High School Algebra. By W. J. Milne, Ph.D., LL.D. American Book Company.

The Principal of the State Normal School, Albany, has here given a simple and tolerably clear and thorough introduction to the science as far as the binomial theorem. It is not exhaustive, but contains a good many examples. C.

TYRANTS always love bad men, for they rejoice in being flattered, a thing to which no man of a liberal spirit will submit; for the virtuous love others, but they flatter none.—*Aristotle*, B.C. 384.

LIFE hath no blessing like an earnest friend; than treasured wealth more precious than the power of monarchs and the people's loud applause.—*Euripides*, B.C. 460.

* English. *

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

GRAMMAR.*

BY F. H. SYKES, M.A.

I SUPPOSE, ladies and gentlemen, that most of you view the approach of Grammar from literature as a traveller journeying through an oasis would view the arid waste of sand which he is about to traverse. Nor am I inclined in any great sense to deplore this view, for I believe that we shall get the clearest idea of the worth of Grammar, when we more or less despise it, and by despising it, force it to show good and valid reasons why it should continue to hold a place among our school studies.

Truly, grammar has fallen from its high estate. The Greeks, at a very early period, cherished Grammar as an introduction to the science of music. At a later period it was one of their *seven arts*, which, transplanted to Rome, spread throughout the whole civilized Roman world, and under the name of Trivium and Quadrivium, lasted throughout the middle ages. In the Primary schools of England to-day it holds a respected place; in Ontario it forms part of all examinations, from those of the Primary schools to the Matriculation examinations of the Universities. Yet in Ontario there are many and certain indications that Grammar no longer holds its former high position among studies. Its strength is only an apparent strength, for on all sides the foundations of its power are sapped by new studies and by the growth of doubt in the minds of many teachers as to its utility as a school study. In the Primary Schools, teacher after teacher is crying for its abolition and for the substitution of language lessons in its place. In the High Schools the growth of a new department of work—rhetoric—has encroached upon a territory hitherto monopolized by Grammar. In a recent paper read before the teachers of this Province, one of the H. S. Inspectors laid before his audience a scheme of instruction by which the teaching of Grammar was to end with the Primary examination of the High School, thus shortening by two years the time devoted to the study. It is, therefore, of the utmost importance for us to clear the ground and see where we stand as respects this much controverted subject.

When we discussed the place of literature in education, we found that literature had necessarily to form part of an ideal system, (i) because it guided and strengthened our ethical judgments, because it developed our emotional nature, widening and regulating our sympathies; because it exercised the imagination, and conveyed and propagated thought; and (ii) the teaching of it is made possible in some form, even in the earliest years, by the natural craving of the child's mind for some form of literary activity; while (iii) its place on the school curriculum was rendered imperative by the failure of existing social organizations, directly or indirectly, to provide any instruction on the subject. What can we say on behalf of Grammar?

None of us, I suppose, would venture to speak of Grammar as directly strengthening or guiding our ethical judgments; I do not know of any one claiming for Grammar any credit as a vehicle of valuable thought or as a propagator of thought; nor do I remember hearing that children ever cried for English Grammar—I do not mean by "cried for," "cried because of"; for alas! they have for generations blotted their grammars with tears. Grammar, then, if it has any claims for our consideration, must have claims different from those of literature. Let us see what these are, disregarding from the outset the value that the subject has in common with every subject of instruction in developing the power of concentration.

We shall best attain our object by a close examination of what Grammar is. You will allow me to discard, once and for all, that definition of Grammar which calls Grammar the art of speaking and writing the English language with correctness. Grammar is not the art of doing anything, Grammar is a science the subject-matter of which is language.

It is a science which classifies the words of a language as respects their function in discourse; investigates the character and force of the changes that words undergo as symbols of thought; and establishes the laws of the relations of words to one another. We have, in us and about us, the great hosts of language that are to us but "words, words, words." As patient investigators we examine this apparently lawless mass, and learn the simplicity and complexity of its organization, and the delicate adjustments of its parts. Kosmos grows out of chaos, and that in part of ourselves, in our own language, the vesture of our thoughts—nay, in our very thoughts. Surely that conception—by which language is realized as an ordered system in place of a chaotic mass of words—surely such a conception is worth something. You will admit with me, I think, that if Goethe's maxim, which we took as our guide in literature—that every thing great produces culture the moment we comprehend it—is true, then the mind that has advanced far enough to realize such a conception, is, at least, to that extent cultured.

Furthermore, to attain such a conception, pray look at the steps the pupil must take. The boy who is able to say that "John," "work," "school," in the sentence, "John did his work well at school," are nouns, has performed important mental operations, he has *discriminated* between "John," "work," "school," and "did," "his," "well," "at"; he has recognized the similar elements in the three words in the midst of various differences, and has realized clearly that they are names of things, and as such has classed them together. The recognition of difference, the recognition of similarity, the power of abstraction and classification, these are the fundamental processes of the intellect, and a study which steadily employs these cannot help, when properly conducted, producing some good.

This leads us, then, to the chief characteristic of Grammar properly taught—it is discipline for the intellectual powers. If you will permit me to use a comparison: Literature is food for the growing mind—and incidentally it is training; Grammar is definite, regular gymnastic exercise, acting directly upon the primary powers which enter into all the mental activities. Literature is nurture; Grammar is discipline. I do not mean to say that the facts of Grammar are wholly useless facts, though I do believe that the knowledge of nine-tenths of the facts of Grammar is *per se* useless knowledge; what I mean is, that Grammar is not to be estimated with regard to the intrinsic value of the truths elucidated, but must be weighed mainly with regard to its value as discipline. Here is the point which most of those who condemn Grammar fail to see. Recognizing the comparative uselessness of the facts of Grammar they hastily condemn it, forgetting that the value of every study is made up of two elements: substance of thought and discipline. Even if the facts of a study were wholly useless, there might, on the ground of discipline, be sufficient reason for retaining it, provided that discipline were not already otherwise secured. In my opinion, a disciplinary study that demands clear, definite thought and a logical method should not be set aside, except for two reasons (i) that it is a study impracticable in the schools, and (ii) that it encroaches upon the larger—and properly larger domain—of the fact-contributing studies. We shall see later, in our practical discussions, that a pupil's advance in Grammar depends solely on the development of his power of distinguishing differences, or *discrimination*; of recognizing similarities, or *assimilation*; of abstraction; of generalization. A study of that nature must, considered merely as discipline, have a high value as a branch of education.

But some disciple of Mr. Spencer* will remark that while this is no doubt true, the child might obtain elsewhere the same discipline, and at the same time learn a multitude of useful facts. He might, for example, in the time he devotes to Grammar, be laying the foundation for a study of botany. Let me say here very firmly, that there is no study on the curriculum to-day that offers, at a certain portion of the child's life, the same discipline as Grammar, or a discipline at all approaching the discipline of Grammar. While the botanist is arranging his plants for study, the judgments of the Grammar pupil have been made. He has not to take to the woods for material, he finds his material in and about

him. The student of grammar in a brief period may obtain a full survey and comprehension of his whole field of work, with a minimum of abstruse terms; the student of any one of the natural sciences at best becomes familiar with but a few details in one small corner of the infinite fields of scientific research, and that at the expense of burdening his memory with a very large number of abstruse terms and formulæ. In fact, grammar, of all the inductive sciences, because the study of it involves the least possible presence of the concrete, affords—for a similar expenditure of time and at a certain age—the greatest possible discipline. And when we consider that Grammar exists only through exercise of the powers of abstraction and generalization, that in the end it is a system of generalizations gained from an infinite number of particulars, we recognize the severity of this discipline to the child's mind.

Now this discipline is a twofold good. The development of the mental powers in any study enables the pupil more easily to cope with the difficulties of any similar intellectual work. More strictly in our own field of language the training in grammar is of immediate service in the interpretation of literature and in practical composition. The analytical power which a pupil gains in the study of the sentence enables him to cope with the most difficult constructions; he singles out at once the principal thought, sees the due subordination of qualifying or modifying clauses; in short, *he is provided with an organ of interpretation* that carries him surely and safely through the most involved sentences of our language. Then, too, as the power of analysis helps us to understand written composition, it will likewise be no small help in our own efforts to compose. We may be struggling with a mass of particulars which we are endeavoring to express clearly to others; we may have unconsciously attained the art of expression from the impressions made on our mind by a long course of reading. This is, no doubt, our greatest education in expression. But, in addition to this, the systematic examination of sentences that brings with it the familiarity with the various modes of subordination, modification, and amplification will, without doubt, contribute materially to the same end—facility and correctness of expression.

But now, lest I exhaust the patience of my practical friend who still believes that English Grammar is the art of speaking and writing the English language with correctness, let me pass to a consideration of the relation of Grammar to correctness of speech. In the first place, the very conception of Grammar as an inductive science implies that the laws of language are inherent in the language itself; that is to say, the mass of speakers of Standard English must have a substantial agreement in speech before Grammar, as a science, can ever arise. In other words, correct speakers must have lived to give laws to Grammar before the science could ever have existed. In short, correctness of speech is not necessarily dependent on a knowledge of formal grammar. It may be acquired unconsciously from one's relatives and associates. But the Grammar of standard English is by no means the Grammar—if you will let me use the word—of Vulgar English, that is of the language of I suppose nine-tenths of English speakers. In the grammar of vulgar English, for example, the preterites of "do" and "see" are "done" and "seen;" the plural demonstrative adjective of relative distance is "them." Nine-tenths of our children unconsciously acquire the laws of the grammar of Vulgar English, just as their more fortunate brothers and sisters of the one-tenth unconsciously acquire the grammar of Standard English.

For various reasons; partly social, for vulgar English is a social disadvantage of a most telling kind—the more advanced the civilization, the heavier the disadvantage—and there is no one who would not willingly help the boy to overcome the disadvantages from which he innocently will suffer; partly intellectual, for Standard English literature cannot possibly meet with the same keen and fine and intelligent appreciation from the speakers of vulgar English as from one accustomed to the nicer discriminations of good English—for various reasons, I say, it is held advisable to endeavor to impose the laws of speech of the one-tenth upon the nine-tenths. It is, of course, impossible to surround the larger class with the influences that mould the speech of the smaller, so that there remains but one means of securing the desired result. Existing social organizations do not in any sense

*The substance of remarks introductory to lectures in "Methods in Grammar," delivered in the Provincial School of Pedagogy, Toronto.

*See "Education," Cap. iii.

meet the requirements of the case; we must seek help in direct instruction in the schools. Two methods of instruction here present themselves and may be followed: the one dogmatic, the other rational. By the first method the teacher would endeavor to eradicate errors of speech by direct interposition of his authority. He would say, without adducing reasons:

Do not say, Let me *lay* down; say, Let me *lie* down.

Do not say, I *done* it; say, I *did* it.

Do not say, We *seen* him; say, We *saw* him.

Do not say, Divide it *between* the class; say, Divide it *among* the class.

Do not say, *Those* sort of books; say, *That* sort of books.

I cannot but think that ten minutes' drill of this nature daily, and the habit of the teacher immediately to correct errors of speech made in the class recitations, would do more to kill the chief vulgarisms of common speech than all the grammar taught to-day in our public schools.

But the inadequacy of such a system of instruction is at once apparent. It is not strictly speaking education at all, though a very useful drill for junior pupils. Dogmatic teaching would help with the more barbarous errors of language, but it would scarcely help with errors such as "You and me can go," "He went behind you and I," "The importance of these facts are manifest." Here the essential relation of subject and verb, of preposition and object are involved; and no amount of training on individual instances would compare in efficacy for the regulation of the pupils' speech with rational training,—with the recognition of the principle involved—that is the establishment of a law of grammar; and that recognition enforced by exercises. The ear may suffice to recognize the errors "I seen," "I done," etc., but no amount of ear-training possible in the school would suffice to guide the pupil in more complex constructions of language; for the latter the rational treatment of the subject alone will give us help. The laws of agreement and concord and order of words are nothing else than so many short cuts to the art of speaking and writing correctly; so that the teaching of at least some parts of grammar will forever be deemed a necessary part of elementary training.

For the more advanced purposes of public composition and public utterance, the use of grammar study is still more important. There is nothing more embarrassing to the half-educated writer or speaker than the fear that what he says will not be "good grammar." There is something in a study that will enable a man to speak to his fellows without need of shame.

Believing then, on the ground of the discipline afforded by its study and its value as a practical art, that English grammar must be taught in our schools, we come to a very important question—the limitations of the study.

From the earliest years of childhood, there is of course, an unconscious study of grammar—the child strives valiantly to mould its rebellious phrases into harmony with those he hears about him; but in these arts there is only a dim recognition of difference and agreement, there is no conscious recognition of principles. The study of formal grammar as a science of investigation implies that the forms of language are already known to the child and that he already possesses the material about which he is to reason. For example, a young child never uses a relative pronoun. For economy's sake the study of grammar must wait till the child, by its unconscious acquisitions of words and principles of speech, has gathered the material for his investigations. It is interesting to note the strong efforts now being made to realize in school work in English this principle of priority, that language must precede grammar. By means of object lessons, stories, narratives, fairy tales, conversation about the commonest natural phenomena, or about the substance of their reading lessons, by memorizing rhymes and choice sentences, and in a variety of other ways, the child is in our schools to-day introduced to a wide acquaintance with language as the substance of thought; while by a variety of devices his mind is awakened to an intelligent consideration of whatever is brought before it: a very marked contrast, I need scarcely say, to the older system where dead formality spread its blight upon everything. So far, then, we have one limitation in the study of grammar—it is alone rendered possible by a fair knowledge and command of language. In order of time grammar must, therefore, yield precedence to language lessons.

But there is another and more serious reason in virtue of which grammar necessarily comes comparatively late in the school course. It is a reason growing out of the very nature of the subject. Grammar is a formal science, that is to say, it deals with the abstractions and generalizations of the mind,—acts which require a maturity of judgment for their proper execution. Let me illustrate the difficulty of the subject by an example.

If we take various series of objects, let us say (i) dictionary, bible, history, reader; (ii) stove, arm-chair, rocking-chair, bench; (iii) Toronto, New York, Liverpool, Paris; the junior pupil would tell you, if you asked him for general terms for these groups, that in (i) you have books; in (ii) seats; in (iii) cities. Perhaps he could tell you that in (iv) courage, honesty, industry, patience, you have virtues; that in (v) hatred, avarice, meanness, intemperance, you have vices. He would with difficulty tell you that (vi) pain, smart, ache, chill, are feelings; while (vii) joy, sorrow, fear, anger, hate, are emotions. But combine any two of these groups—say (i) and (v); (iii) and (vii), I am fairly sure that he cannot, without long preparation, make such a sweeping generalization, much less give you a term to express it. Yet to attain a conception corresponding to the first fundamental step in the classification of the parts of speech, we must abstract, not the common properties of any two of these classes, but of all and many more, until he feels that the name of any tangible object about us or of any fleeting sensation within us, in short, of anything that the mind can think about, is a noun.

The fundamental characteristic of grammar—its formal, abstract nature—is the rub that should make cowards of all those who would too early inflict grammar upon an innocent and unoffending childhood. There is, I grant you, a tide in the human mind which, taken at the flood, leads on to grammar, but if we are wise we shall wait for that tide to rise. We cannot make the sea flow or ebb.

Professor Bain, in speaking of the sequence of studies, in his "Education as a Science," (p. 173, note), remarks:—"Anatomists tell us that the brain grows with great rapidity up to seven years of age; it then attains a weight of forty ounces (in the male). The increase is much slower between seven and fourteen, when it attains forty-five ounces; still slower from fourteen to twenty, when it is very near its greatest size. Consequently, of the more difficult intellectual exercises, some that would be impossible at five or six are easy at eight, through the fact of brain growth alone. This is consistent with our experience, and is of value as confirming that experience. It often happens that you try a pupil with a peculiar subject at a certain age, and you entirely fail; wait a year or two, and you succeed, and that without seemingly having done anything expressly to lead up to the point; although there will inevitably be, in the meantime, some sort of experience that helps to pave the way. In regard to the symbolical and abstract subjects, as arithmetic, algebra, geometry and grammar, I think the observation holds. A difference of two or three years will do everything for these subjects." Elsewhere Professor Bain remarks that the fact that the harder sciences, as grammar, arithmetic, and mechanics, should be later in being understood is owing, not solely to the necessity of pre-storing the mind with instances in the concrete, but also to a defect in the power of compelling the attention to perform the necessary junctions and disjunctions of ideas; which power must be dependent upon age, in the first instance, although it is susceptible of being forced on by the efforts of the teacher. The difficulty of the study owing to its abstract nature and to its requiring a certain degree of mental concentration, necessarily throws it comparatively late in school life. This is our second limitation in the study of Grammar.

Professor Laurie, in his admirable work, "Linguistic Method," (p. 55), states that "the beginning of the twelfth year is quite the earliest age at which Grammar can be effectively taught—taught so as to be educative in its effects. At an earlier age it is hearsay knowledge. Prior to the age of eleven, and, indeed, very early, a child should, by the help of numerous examples, be taught to recognize the subject and the predication regarding it—the *whole* logical subject, that is to say, and the *whole* predicate—as going to constitute a sentence or proposition. This formal condition of a possible sentence can not only be taught very early, but it

is, for practical reasons, desirable to teach it early. A recognition of this fundamental fact of both grammar and logic is very helpful in enabling children to understand what they read, and to express what they desire to express. Beyond this one grammatical fact we should not go until the pupil has entered his twelfth year. Before this age, grammar has no place, either in the infant school or the lower primary, that is not usurped."

Our experience in Ontario strongly confirms the opinion just quoted. Every examiner of candidates for admission to the High Schools finds that the answers in Grammar are, in the vast majority of cases, entirely unsatisfactory answers, showing nothing so well as the hopelessly confused ideas that children of even twelve or thirteen have on the most fundamental parts of the subject. High School master after High School master will tell you that he would rather children came to him from the Primary Schools without ever having made the slightest acquaintance with formal Grammar; for it has been taught to them either on wrong methods or at a premature age. In either case the result has been the same: the study has become merely an operation of the memory; words have taken the place of ideas. To make progress the teacher finds his work doubled: he has to root out acquired bad habits and then to teach the subject rationally. There are, of course, teachers who do prepare Entrance candidates well in English Grammar, and they are the men who make us believe Professor Laurie's teaching Grammar to children of twelve possible; but throughout our Province the attempt to teach Grammar in the Primary schools has decidedly broken down; and we feel it has broken down. It is no wonder, then, that to-day we are approaching a crisis in the study. On all sides we hear earnest teachers clamoring for the abolition of Grammar; while advocates of language lessons are filling the market with new text-books. It appears to me that our true position towards Grammar is as follows: In the Primary schools the study of Grammar should be preceded by language-lessons involving, with other exercises, the dogmatic correction of bad English, and the recognition of subject and predicate, as Professor Laurie suggests; formal Grammar should be taken up only in the Fourth Class, that is, with those of the graded Entrance candidates. In this class the study should be rigidly inductive, and rigidly confined to the parts of speech; chief classification of nouns, pronouns, adjectives and adverbs, of verbs as transitive or intransitive; inflexions, as to number, gender, case, comparison, tense, mood, voice; analysis of easy sentences, in which subordinate clauses should be dealt with merely as "extended nouns," "extended adjectives," etc.; and the simplest rules of concord. The limits of the whole study and the methods of the study should in the main be those indicated in Dr. MacCabe's little book, "Plans for Grammar Lessons."

In the junior classes of the High school the work for Entrance should be reviewed and extended, in preparation for the Primary Examination, as far as—in the main—the ground covered by Whitney's "Essentials of English Grammar" (that is, the main parts of the H. S. Grammar.) I believe that in the three years' work—one year for Entrance and two years for Primary examination—we should with proper teaching exhaust whatever good grammar can afford the average pupil. It is possible to continue it further, and to some advantage; but, as Professor Bain wisely said, we must estimate the value of a subject not only by what the study of it gives us, but also by what it deprives us of.

If, as I believe, the pupil in a short time may survey fully the whole field of Grammar, this is in one respect a great merit in the study, for it enables the pupil to draw great benefit from it at the very outset of his work; but at the same time it is a great limitation, for the field is soon exhausted and interest fades away. To detain a pupil forever in parsing and analyzing words and sentences, the like of which he has already parsed and analyzed *ad nauseam*, is a pure waste of time. The moment a faculty is developed and firmly established, the pupil, if he is to grow in mental stature, must be led to fresh fields. Do you think a bricklayer, when once he has learnt to lay bricks skilfully and quickly, makes any advance in the art of building, though he lay bricks till the end of his life?

Beyond the Primary examination, therefore, I hold that the time may be more profitably devoted to other studies of greater difficulty, such, if you like,

(Concluded on page 174.)

School-Room Methods.

LESSONS ON MONEY AND MEASURES.

Class work.—Albert has 4 cents; he spends half his money; how much has he left? Tom has a 2-cent piece and Harry has a piece which is worth just half as much. What is Harry's piece? James buys a pencil for 2 cents, and sells it for twice as much as he gives. How much does he get for it?

Seat work.—Draw a line four inches long. Divide it into four equal parts. Draw a line two inches long. Draw another two inches long through the middle of the first. Draw a line one inch long. Draw another line just one-half as long.

Class work.—Here is a measure which holds one pint. Let each child see and handle the measure. Here is another measure which holds one quart. Let each see, etc. Which is the larger of the two measures? John may fill the pint measure with water. We have here a quart of water. We will empty the quart measure. Now see how many pints of water will be required to fill it. Continue and vary these experiments. We say "two pints, one quart." How many pints in one quart? One pint is what part of a quart? If a quart of milk cost 4 cents, what does a pint cost?

Seat work.—Copy this and learn it by heart:

Two pints, one quart; Copy: pint, pints; quart, quarts; inch, inches; foot, feet.

Class work.—What is more, 1 quart or 1 pint? How much? Which is more, 1 quart or 2 pints? Which is more, 3 pints or 1 quart? How many pints in one quart? In 2 quarts? John sold 2 pints of milk to Mr. Smith and half as much to Mr. Jones. How much did he sell to Mr. Jones? In 4 pints how many quarts? With the pint measure, measure $\frac{1}{2}$ of 4 pints. How many quarts is this?

Seat work.—Copy the following: qt. means quart; pt. means pint; ft. means foot; in. means inch; ct. means cent.

Copy and fill the blanks:

In 1 quart there are pints.

In 1 quart there are half-pints.

In 4 pints there are quarts.

Class work.—If one quart of buttermilk cost 2 cents, what will $\frac{1}{2}$ a quart cost? If one quart of buttermilk cost 2 cents, what will one pint cost? If one pint of milk cost 2 cents, what will two pints cost? If one pint of milk cost 2 cents, what will 1 quart cost?

Seat work.—Write and fill blanks:

2 pints are 1

1 pint = quart. $\frac{1}{2}$ quart = pint.

1 pint = quart. A quart is times as much as a pint.

3 pints = quarts.

4 pints = quarts. A pint is of a quart.—*Baldwin's Industrial Primary Arithmetic.*

THE INVENTIVE POWER IN BUSY WORK.

A. S. HENDRY.

To be able to imitate exactly is good; to be able to invent is better.

"The mind of the child is far less interested in that which another mind has embodied in ready prepared forms, than in the forms which he conceives and gives outward expression to himself."

Many children are made mentally weak and dependent by being always told what to do, and how to do it. There is great danger in having much of the "Do-as-I-do" spirit in the school-room. It is possible for pupils to become imitators only, mere machines, who can work well enough under a guiding hand, but who, when left to themselves, are utterly helpless.

The aim and end of true education is to develop mental power. The time to begin the true education of every child is the day he enters on his school course. Let the little child, from his very first day in school, think for himself and plan for himself.

Cultivate his inventive power. For instance, there is a wide difference educationally between these two commands:—"Copy from the blackboard this picture of four cups and two cups," and "Draw some picture to show that four and two = six." In obeying the second command the child must exercise the power of choice. From among

all the objects that present themselves to his mental vision, he must choose the one suited to his purpose. He must then plan the arrangement of his design, then try to reproduce the picture that is in his mind. All this he does without reference to what any other pupil in the class is doing. He is depending on his own powers solely. He will put forth his best efforts to perfect his work. The result may be faulty, but it is the work of an artist rather than that of an artisan.

The exercise of the inventive power promotes close observation, e.g.; a child is asked to model an object which has the sphere for its basis. He decides to make a tea-kettle, but when he tries to complete the object he has difficulty in correctly placing the spout and the handle, owing to the vagueness of his mental concept. In order to finish his work he must look more attentively at the object. Thus he will acquire the habit of intelligent observation.

The exercise of this power is also a stimulus to the best work. Every man will work with greater diligence to give perfect expression to his own conception than to that of another. It is so with every child; there is a difference in degree only not in kind.

LANGUAGE EXERCISES.

1. DISTINGUISH the meanings of—

He likes you better than me, and He likes you better than I.

The horse and buggy is at the door, and The horse and buggy are at the door.

He was going home, He went home, and He had gone home.

2. Substitute other words or phrases of equivalent meaning for those italicized:

Pitt wanted to *prosecute hostilities.*

The period *was prolific* of great writers.

In India English *proves* decided the *question of supremacy.*

The *obnoxious* measure was withdrawn at Pitt's *urgent solicitation.*

The terms of peace though *lauded* by the king were bitterly *enveighed against*, as they *inadequately compensated* England for her *outray.*

3. Supply the elipses in each of the following:

I love thee more than life.

Never did I feel the benefit of it more than then.

It isn't so dark as when we started.

I remember the day he arrived.

It is better to do that than to be idle.

It would have been difficult, though not impossible, to prove it.

I shall not use it unless forced to do so.

I scarcely ever see him except on Sunday.

4. Correct, where necessary, the following, giving the reason in each case:

I and my sister felt vexed because we came late to dinner.

Between you and I, he is not so clever as he thinks.

The man was very different then to what he is now.

Distribute those apples among James and his three brothers.

Our climate is quite as healthy as those of France and Italy.

His boss tried that little game when he donated the money.

He is only quarrelsome when he is drunk.

You have given me no easy question to answer.

Do you mind what I told you yesterday?

He agreed to return inside ten days.—*Wisconsin Journal of Education.*

UNLESS parents afford their children a fit pattern of life, they will leave them an obvious excuse to quote against themselves.—*Aristotle*, B.C. 384.

KNOWLEDGE is the food of the soul. Must they not be utterly unfortunate, whose souls are compelled to pass through life always hungering.—*Plato*, B.C. 427.

It is the main, the sole business of each generation to educate the next, to make it better, and to prepare it to make the succeeding generation better still.—*Dr. A. A. Miner*, Boston.

THOSE who wish good to their friends, for the friend's sake, are friends in the highest degree.—*Aristotle*, B.C. 384.

* Science. *

Edited by W. H. Jenkins, B.A., Science Master, Owen Sound Collegiate Institute.

HYGIENE AND TEMPERANCE IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

(Contributed).

IN taking up these subjects there are, I think, three questions to be answered: What shall we teach? To whom shall we teach it? How shall we teach it?

The answer to the first may be found by carefully reading the programme of study for Public Schools and the "Public School Temperance."

To whom shall we teach this? The importance of this subject warrants us in beginning to teach its rudiments to the primary classes, gradually increasing the subject-matter as the pupil advances in years and other school subjects.

And now comes the important question, How shall we teach this subject? As far as possible all teaching in this subject should be based on *experiment* and *observation*, and I add that it must be so, in order to make the work interesting and intelligible to the pupil. As a good foundation for all succeeding work, begin with the study of the bones of the body. By using a human skeleton or a colored chart we may convey to the pupil's mind a correct idea of the bony framework of the body.

To pupils in Public Schools it will be necessary to teach only the names and positions of such bones as the spine, breast-bone, ribs, collar-bone, shoulder-blade, hip-bones, skull, and bones of the arms and legs. After some drill on this part of the work, I would perform one or two experiments to show to the pupils the composition of the bones. By burning a bone in the stove and carefully removing what remains, pupils will see that it contains a soft substance which closely resembles common slaked lime. Test both the substance and slaked lime to prove their identity. At the same time another experiment may be performed by the pupils or teacher on another piece of bone. Obtain a small quantity of acid and place in it a bone of some length, leaving it for a few hours. At the end of that time it will be sufficiently pliable to enable the pupils to see that bone also contains another element, which, after some handling, they will be able to tell you is gristle. They now know that the principal constituent elements of bone are lime and gristle. By sawing a bone lengthwise or crosswise you will enable pupils to see that bones are hollow and contain substance called marrow. Direct attention to the flat and round bones of the body and the uses of each kind. Give to the class the names *hinge* and *ball-and-socket* joints. Explain the action of each, and have pupils point out examples of each kind. As each point is developed, place it on the blackboard for drill at the end of the lesson.

At this point it is now well to have a short talk on the nature of tobacco and the effect it has on the growth of the bones and joints. Point out clearly its evil effects and urge them to abstain from using it.

The next point to be considered is the muscles. To explain the nature of muscle, have before the class two pieces of beef; one raw, the other cooked, and allow pupils to carefully examine them. The cooked piece will serve to illustrate to the class the meaning of fibres, of which muscles are composed. Teach some of the uses of the muscles and the means we should employ to develop healthy muscles. By placing some alcohol on a piece of meat, you can show to the class its effect. You may also experiment on a cat or dog with strong drink, and then draw conclusions with regard to the effect of these drinks on ourselves. At the same time draw attention to the fact that habitual drinkers, especially beer-drinkers, in time become very fleshy. Explain how this is caused by alcohol contained in these drinks, and at the same time show the evil effect on the finer feelings of the man. Teach pupils by example to be abstainers.

The motions of the body depend on the muscles, of which every joint has two. These movements are controlled by the brain, which is connected with the muscles by small white cords called nerves, the greatest of which is the spinal cord. It is possible to obtain specimens of nerves and por-

tions of the spinal cord from animals, but a good deal of this will require to be illustrated by charts and drawings and then explained clearly by the teacher. In explaining the nervous system I use as an illustration our telegraph system, with which pupils are somewhat familiar. This will enable them to understand more clearly how the brain sends and receives messages to and from the muscles. Now teach the effect of stimulants such as tobacco and alcohol on the nervous system.

We now proceed to show pupils how the body lives, grows and repairs itself. But before doing this have some different kinds of food before the class; have pupils examine them, and, with a little help, they will find out that there are three great classes of food. Give them the names, mineral, tissue making and fat-making foods. This classification is sufficient for Public School pupils. Have a talk on the use of each kind in nourishing the body.

Now take up digestion. In doing this we should teach, firstly, the digestive organs, using charts where possible; secondly, the passage of the food through these organs and the action of the different digestive juices on the food; and, lastly, the effect of alcohol on these organs and juices. In this, as well as in all succeeding lessons, it will be necessary for the teacher to illustrate, explain, and drill thoroughly on each point. Allow and encourage the pupils to ask questions bearing on the lesson, and always illustrate clearly. Be careful to explain clearly the action of strong drinks on digestive organs, blood, heart, etc. A few rules regarding the preservation of health are also to be taught in connection with these lessons.

Following the method laid down, I teach the different points enumerated in answer to my first question, always bearing in mind that each point must be clearly illustrated, experimentally, wherever possible, lucidly explained and thoroughly drilled.

Now, Mr. Editor, in dealing with this subject I have laid down no cast-iron rule, but have merely tried to indicate my method of teaching Hygiene and Temperance, and I hope it will commend itself to some teachers who may be at loss for a method of teaching these subjects.

NOTES ON AN EXPERIMENTAL LESSON IN AGRICULTURE.

THE FOOD OF PLANTS.

NOTE.—The accompanying experiments should occupy at least a week.

Apparatus.—A couple of clean tin cans such as fruit is bought done up in, test tube, a candle, three saucers.

Experiment 1.—Half fill one of the cans with ashes from the stove. Cover to a depth of an inch with clear water and allow to stand for a day. Pour off the liquid, disturbing as little as possible. Filter through a piece of blotting paper, and place in the clean saucer on the stove. As the liquid in the saucer evaporates add more of the filtered liquid from the ashes, until about a pint is evaporated. Then drive off all the water and examine the saucer closely.

Experiment 2.—At the same time Experiment 1 is going on, evaporate in the second saucer a quantity of the clear water equal to the quantity evaporated in the first saucer. Compare the saucers carefully.

Experiment 3.—Repeat Experiment 1, using soil taken from a neighboring field, in place of the ashes. Place residue in third saucer.

Experiment 4.—Place a few bits of dry pine in the bottom of a thoroughly dry test-tube, and heat over the candle flame for some time, keeping the tube well inclined. Wipe the black substance from the outside of the test-tube. Carefully examine the pine and the sides of the tube.

QUESTIONS.

1. What difference do you notice between saucers 1 and 2? between 2 and 3?
2. Which saucer does 3 resemble most closely?
3. The solids obtained in the saucers are called "salts." If there is more salt in saucers 2 and 3 than in 1, how do you account for it?
4. How are ashes obtained?
5. If the salt came from the ashes and the ashes from the wood, where must the salt have been originally?

6. Where does the wood obtain the salt?
7. What experiment shows that soil contains salt?
8. Name one thing which plants take from the soil.
9. What do you notice on the side of the test-tube in Experiment 4? Whence must it have come?
10. The black substance left on heating the pine is charcoal, or carbon. What things does this experiment show plants need?
11. Name three foods of plants.

SIMPLE APPARATUS FOR EXPERIMENTS IN PHYSICS.

To illustrate the Law of Parallel Forces:—A cent foot rule, such as can be bought at any bookseller's; place eye-screws at the inch divisions, an eye-screw for the opposite side for the support. The last may be adjusted as required. Pupils can make sets of weights, say four one-ounce, two two-ounce, one four-ounce. The whole need not cost more than five cents.

To show that our sensations are not accurate guides in determining the temperature of surrounding bodies. (Jones):—Three basins—first filled with ice, second with water slightly warmed, third with hot water. Plunge left hand into first, right hand into third; after holding for a minute or two, plunge both into middle basin.

To illustrate the peculiar behavior of water at 4°:—Fill a test-tube with cold water and fit with a cork through which is a narrow glass tube. Insert cork so that water rises in the tube. Place the test-tube in ice and watch the stem above the cork.

To show hot water is lighter than cold water. (Jones):—Boil water in a flask and color with ink. Half fill a beaker with cold water and float a thin piece of wood on its surface. Pour the hot water gently on this.

TREES AND EXTREME TEMPERATURES.

The power of trees, says a note in *Garden and Forest*, to regulate their own temperature to a certain extent, is seen in the fact that their twigs are not frozen through in winter; nor does their temperature increase in summer in proportion to the temperature of the surrounding atmosphere. The bark is a bad conductor of heat, and is to a certain extent the clothing in which the plant is wrapped. The surface evaporation of the leaves produces in summer a freshness in them that causes them to feel cool even on hot days. Evaporation, however, does not explain the coolness of many kinds of fruit that are inclosed in a hard envelope, through which it seems almost impossible. Hooker mentions a fruit grown by the Ganges in a soil having a temperature of from 90° to 104°, the temperature of the juice of which had only 72° Fahr.—*Popular Science Monthly*.

ANSWERS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

C. D.—QUESTION:—What causes storms during the Equinox?

ANS.—The assigned cause is the following: During the equinoxes the sun is over the equatorial region. This belt around the globe offers a vast expanse of water, consequently evaporation is abundant and rapid. Air laden with vapor can absorb a great amount of heat. This renders the moist air specifically lighter, and it ascends. The flow of air is from regions of high to low pressure. The water-laden air passes to high latitudes and is condensed. Thus at this period we have higher winds and a greater rainfall.

The above explanation is unsatisfactory in many respects, but the limits of this column forbid further discussion. For further information concerning this interesting problem, consult any good text on meteorology.

A. H.—Q.—What is the *habitat* of the common liverwort?

ANS.—Look in moist, shady places in rich soil. I have also found beautiful specimens in damp ground near partially burned and decayed logs. The deep crevices in limestone regions should be searched also.

Primary Department.

LITTLE FOLKS AT PLAY.

CHILDREN who drill
Seldom are ill,
For sinking, tiptoeing, and right and left going,
And shouting and clapping, and measured out tapping,

Strengthen their limbs,
Drive away whims,
Make faces shine brightly, make spines grow uprightly;

So, I suppose,
Illness all goes.

Children who learn
Bodies to turn,
And bodies to bend low, and noddles to send low,
And elbows to fetch out, and fingers to stretch out,
Seldom look pale,
Delicate, frail,
And seldom are sulky, and seldom too bulky,
And seldom are spiteful but always delightful.

So, then, we will
Beg leave to drill.

—Exchange.

EMPHATIC PUPILS.

ARNOLD ALCOTT.

PRESIDENT HARRISON thus addressed the teachers of the National Educational Association, at Saratoga:—"We must insist in all our schools, that the morality of the ten commandments shall be instilled, and that lessons of due subordination to authority shall be taught." Efficiency is the test of the teacher. Not that which crams with mere book knowledge, but of the kind which will leave an indelible impress on the character of the pupil. This power lies not in the intellectual ability, but in the moral stamina of the educator. The saying is a trite one, "Words have weight, when there is a man behind them."

That teacher is a success, whose pupils are aggressive, emphatic beings, with will-power and self-control enough to stand by their convictions.

In order to develop this independence, the teacher must certainly learn to make himself emphatic. He must lead rather than follow. He must know why he wishes them to do thus and so, and then abide by his decision. The need of our schools is the development of forceful, determined, aggressive dispositions, which will, in five or ten years, be able to make lasting impressions upon those whom they should influence.

The following are a few of the requirements of every teacher who wishes to train energetic boys and girls:—

I. There should be minute accuracy in obeying the laws of the school.

II. There should be a place for everything, and everything in its place. The books should have a certain side in the desk. The slates, and also the pencils, ruler, etc. The pen should be placed, when not in use, on the desk, with the point toward the pupil's right. The writing position and the general position should be correct in every particular.

The direct and steady look of the teacher should be reciprocated by each individual member of the class. A teacher is doing harm when he allows one scholar to turn his attention to something other than the

lesson. Exercises on steadiness of eye, and calmness of facial expression, without the usual unmeaning smile which the people assume for the photographer, is what we want. Practise your little ones in posing as in tableaux, and they will thus learn in a pleasant way to compose themselves.

Another very important factor in the development of energetic, positive character, is accuracy in written work. In arithmetic, spelling, language work, etc., encourage correctness in detail, and reward those who never, or hardly ever, make mistakes. "He is a power in the community, they cannot withstand him," may yet be said of one of our little ones. Let us help it to be so.

CHARTS.

RHODA LEE.

A GREAT deal of board-work is necessary in all primary classes. Sorry teaching we should do without our chalk and black-boards. At the same time I feel confident that we have been using these too much of late. "What can we substitute?" you ask; "what can lessen this work?" These questions are being answered to-day in a great many classes by the introduction of home-made charts. Think of the lists of difficult, unphonetic words you write on your board session after session. Call before your mind the reading—gymnastics, busy-work, language and music exercises you have given in the last term, and what an endless procession of dancing hieroglyphics must pass before your sight. Good and useful exercises we repeat frequently, and as our black-board space is limited we are forced to write them again and again. The chart does away with all this. The work once written is in permanent form, ready for reference or use at any time or on all occasions.

Let me tell you how I made my chart. First, the frame. This consists of a pole about five feet in height, on a stand, with a slightly ornamental cross bar at the top. This, one of my small brothers put together, and after a coat or two of varnish it really looked quite respectable. Then, at a hardware store I invested in a dozen sheets of heavy manilla paper, two and a-half feet long by two broad. Adding to this a blue and red oil-crayon, we were ready for work. The oil-crayon is to be preferred, as it does not rub in the least, but other crayons or pencils will answer as well if properly handled. After arranging each sheet with suitable exercises, as I found time, the whole was fastened to the cross-bar, and the chart was in a primitive fashion complete.

The reading chart which I have used for some time suggested the usefulness of one for language. This I have made, and will indicate briefly the work of each page. Some of the work, strictly speaking, should be termed reading. In the ordinary use of these terms, language and reading, they are very different, but when we come to assign slate-work, we find it difficult to draw the line of discrimination. However, the following exercises are all intended to furnish interesting and developing busy-work for the children at their desks:—

CONTENTS OF LANGUAGE CHART.

1 and 2. Colored pictures from *Graphic, Illustrated News*, etc., from which to write stories.

3. Write words containing "sh," "th," "ch," "oo," "wh," etc.

4. Make words ending in "at," "ot," "ng," "ate," etc.

5. Make words out of the following:—Mediterranean, Misrepresentation, Intercontinental.

6. Write words containing two, three and four letters, etc.

(Books may be used for this.)

7. Make a statement about each of the following:—birds, horses, dogs, fish, lions, chickens, hens, girls, bees, wasps, boys ducks.

8. Write opposites of:—Strong, smooth, heavy, sour, high, long, early, brittle, narrow, deep.

Fill out the blanks in the following:—

1. As sour as —.

2. As strong as —.

3. As smooth as —.

4. As brittle as —.

5. As — as a stone.

6. As — as glass.

7. As — as silk.

8. As — as vinegar.

9. Write sentences beginning with the following words:—Was, were, am, is, what, where, why, hath, etc.

Fill in the following:—

The boys — at school.

John has — to the rink.

I — the lightning.

Tom — the first snowflake.

10. Answer the following questions in complete sentences:—

1. What is your name?

2. Where do you live?

3. How old are you?

4. What school do you attend?

5. Who is your teacher?

6. What have you learnt this week?

11. Use in sentences—pail, pale, meat, meet, their, there, rode, road, hear, here, weak, week, fare, fair, great, grate, sail, sale, stare, stair, dear, deer, tale, tail.

12. (a) Write a conversation between—

1st. The stove and the kettle.

2nd. A bee and a flower.

3rd. The wind and the leaves.

(b) A story about Christmas.

(c) The story of a picnic.

It is well to leave a few blank pages at the back, in which to place additional exercises that will suggest themselves in the course of the term. In higher classes abbreviations, letters of various kinds, advertisements, applications and business forms, might form part of the chart. Sentences illustrating punctuation might also be used.

This list is given merely as a sample of what may be done in this direction. In making a chart we should consider the need of the class. At the same time make it as comprehensive as possible. Charts are a boon to the primary teacher. Once use one, and you will never willingly be without.

THE tongue is held in honor by such men
As reckon words of more account than deeds.
—Sophocles, B.C. 480.

Teachers' Miscellany.

PUMPING OUT THE ZUYDER ZEE.

A GREAT engineering scheme is now being carried out which will add more than ten per cent. to the area of Holland. The original scheme was to drain the entire area of Zuyder Zee. Dams were to be built connecting the islands of Texel, Vlieland, Terschelling, and Ameland, which lie just outside on the border of the North Sea. The tides from the latter set in too strong for this; so the engineers fell back to their present line. The dams are partly artificial and partly natural, for the tide greatly aids by depositing sand and silt on both sides of their structure. Presently the dams will reach the level of high water, the tides will be excluded from all the great expanse of sea to the southward, pumping will begin, and the dry land will rapidly increase. A few deep pools will remain as lakes, and channels will be provided for the Yssel river, and the Amsterdam canal. The cost is estimated at \$95,000,000, but the land reclaimed from the sea will be worth three times that sum.

SUNDAY-SCHOOL TEACHER—"What is the conscience?"

BRIGHT BOY—"It's wot makes you sorry w'en you get found out."

English.

GRAMMAR.

(Continued from page 171.)

as rhetoric or historical Grammar. This completion of the study of Grammar at the Primary stage is, as I have already said, among the suggested changes made by Mr. Seath in the paper read before the High School Teachers' Association last Easter. There is no doubt that the suggested change is eminently proper, and as such will be recognized by thoughtful teachers, and in the near future be carried into effect.

But abolish the teaching of Grammar! That would be absurd. There is every indication that one could wish pointing to the rise of right methods of instruction. The various journals of education abound in admirable model lessons. The textbooks on methods—Fitch, Cowham, Laurie, MacCabe—have attained a consensus of procedure. Properly applied, their methods will put a basis of common sense into the study, so that it will be to the child, not a system of cloudy abstractions, but a perennial source of interest in what of all his early acquirements is most surely acquired,—his own mother tongue. Yet while we may rejoice at the spread of better methods of instruction, and see thereby the probability of Grammar winning back the confidence of teachers and so retaining its place—and an important place—in education, we must not lose sight of the strength and weakness of the subject. Wherever Grammar is retained it is retained as discipline, and in regard for its power in discipline must mould its pedagogical methods. On the other hand, it is virtually barren of thought; it cannot nourish the growing mind. Therefore I venture to repeat to you what I wrote some time ago,* because it is the note of caution that should always ring in our ears. "Nature has made the boy eager to handle objects, inquisitive about natural phenomena, fond of drawing and fashioning, glad to hear of travel, adventure, heroic action. We are [often] wiser than Nature, and upon his ardent impulses place the dead weight of grammatical analysis and parsing.... Grammar is a study of abstractions. Therefore the attempt to teach it when the pupil is at an early age everywhere breaks down, and in the hands of incompetent teachers, young and old, produces the deadliest of school diseases, the habit of taking words instead of ideas. Therefore hide-bound pedants, who day by day thrust into unoffending throats the chaff of knowledge, take thought how soon the child's tender-hearted interest in nature and human life will disappear, and the vision of youth pale and fade away in the glare of common day."

* EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL, JULY, 1891.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING.

Of all the means of acquiring both knowledge and culture which can be recommended, there is none which can be compared with reading of the right kind of literature. We are glad to know that Inspector Seath is advocating a more extended course of reading than that now presented by either the University or the Education Department, and that many teachers in both High and Public Schools are in hearty accord with that view and doing what they can to promote it. No teacher has done more to promote this good end than Principal Wetherell, of the Strathroy Collegiate Institute. The following scheme which outlines the course of reading in English Literature to be taken up by the pupils of the Strathroy Collegiate Institute during the Autumn Term of 1892, may be helpful to others:—

FORM VI.

- (1) Shakespeare's "King Lear."
 - (2) Selections from Chaucer in "The Canterbury Poets."
 - (3) Wordsworth—"The Affliction of Margaret," "The Complaint," "Brougham Castle," "The Brothers," "To My Sister," The "Lucy" Poems, "She was a Phantom of Delight."
 - (4) American Sonnets in "The Canterbury Poets," (any ten).
 - (5) One of the following books in the "Great Writers" series: Burns, C. Bronte, Byron, Carlyle, Darwin, Dickens, Goldsmith, Johnson, Keats, Longfellow, Mil. on, Scott, Shelley, Thackeray.
- (All the foregoing works will be found in the School Library.)

FORM V.

- (1) Wordsworth—The poems named above for Form VI.
 - (2) American Sonnets in "The Canterbury Poets," (any ten).
 - (3) John Burroughs—"Sharp Eyes," "The Apple," "Winter Neighbors." (Riverside Literature series, No. 36.)
 - (4) One of the books in the "Great Writers" series, named above for Form VI.
- (Each pupil will purchase a copy of Burrough's sketches.)

FORMS III AND IV.

- (1) Scott's "Lady of the Lake."
- (2) One of the following books in the Camelot series:
 - (a) Holmes—"The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table."
 - (b) Lowell—"My Study Windows."
 - (c) Lowell—"Essays on the English Poets."
 - (d) Carlyle—"Sartor Resartus."
 - (e) Political Orations from Wentworth to Macaulay.
 - (f) The Lover, and other Papers of Steele and Addison.
 - (g) Plutarch's Lives.

Each pupil will secure a copy of "The Lady of the Lake." A large number of copies of each of the other books will be found in the library.)

FORMS I AND II.

- (1) Longfellow—"Evangeline," "King Robert of Sicily," "The Day is Done," "The Village Blacksmith," "From My Arm-Chair."
- (2) Hawthorne—"The Great Stone Face," "The Ambitious Guest," "The Great Carbuncle," "My Visit to Niagara," "Old Ticonderoga." (The Riverside Literature series, No. 40)

(Half of the pupils will secure a copy of Longfellow, and the other half a copy of Hawthorne, and a system of interchange will be arranged.)

This course of reading is supplemental to that prescribed for the annual examinations. At least forty minutes a week in each class will be employed by the teacher of English Literature in discussing difficulties in the foregoing texts. The best readers in the various classes will be called upon from time to time to read aloud the most impressive passages in the selected texts. At least once a month an essay will be expected from each pupil on

some topic connected with this course of reading. At the school examinations a portion of the paper on English Literature will be based on these supplementary selections, and at the end of the term each pupil will be expected to certify that the course outlined in the foregoing scheme has been completed.

A SOUND CANADIAN COMPANY.

THE Toronto *Globe* on September 24th, issued a special edition in honor of a great religious gathering in that city, and incidentally devoted some of its space to a description of Toronto's chief characteristics and business enterprises. Among the portraits are to be found those of the late Hon. Alexander Mackenzie, who at the time of his death was President of the North American Life Assurance Company; of John L. Blaikie, now the President; of William McCabe, LL.B., F.I.A., Managing Director; and of Secretary Goldran, A.I.A. The people of Great Britain ought to be interested in learning that Canada is more progressive in insurance matters than many of the European countries. Toronto may be said to be the centre of Life Insurance for the Dominion. The North American Life was the first to recognize the benefit conferred on the family by the immediate payment of the policy obligation.

In reforms in the system of insurance and liberalization of the conditions of the policy contract, there is perhaps no policy of insurance which exhibits these more strikingly than that known as the Compound Investment, issued by the North American. It is, without doubt, an ideal policy, and combines many benefits to its holder not covered by any other form of Life Insurance contract.

The Government Blue Book lately issued gives the standing of Insurance Companies. Most of these institutions are in a good financial position, being possessors of a large surplus over and above their capital stock, reserve funds and other liabilities, while again it is noticeable that there are others situated differently. The North American Life is among the favored ones. Year by year it has shown steady and substantial advances in all of those departments which go to make up a strong and permanent organization.

The Company's staff is composed of men well and favorably known in financial and mercantile affairs of Canada, and perhaps in a great measure it is due to this fact that the Company's progress has been so rapid and marked.—*New York Insurance Times, September, 1892.*

"WHAT'S THIS?" exclaimed the goat, as he ran his eye down the column of the newspaper and read an article on "The Digestion of the Ostrich." "Well, well! How people do talk!" he murmured, as he finished the paper and commenced on a dessert of tin cans and old boots.



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I have no hesitation in saying that for the purpose for which it is intended the work is infinitely the best with which I am acquainted. Its strong point, to my idea, is the logical sequence in the problems by which the pupil is almost insensibly led on step by step until he reaches quite a difficult style of question. The printer, too, has done his work very well, and there are but few typographical errors. I shall certainly recommend every teacher in my inspectorate to use a copy.—J. C. MORGAN, M.A., Inspector, Barrie.

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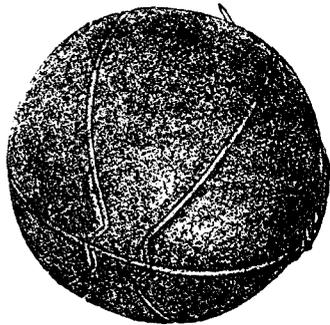
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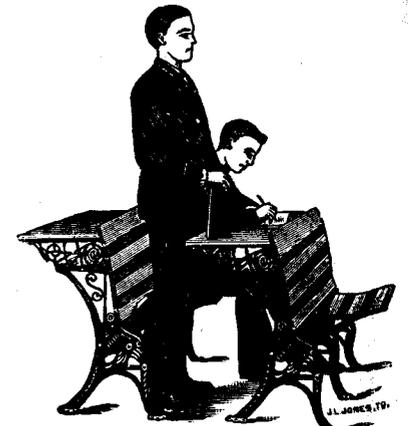
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