

**PEDAGOGIC  
ORGANIZATION of SCHOOLS  
FROM THE REGULATIONS  
OF THE  
CATHOLIC COMMITTEE  
WITH  
NOTES ON METHODS**

**BY  
JOHN AHERN**

**PRICE 50 CENTS**



**QUEBEC:  
THE TELEGRAPH PRINTING CO.**

1916

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## EDUCATION AND INSTRUCTION

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A mental faculty is the power the mind has of acting upon "any object," whether external or internal, and discriminating it from all other objects. The faculties, three in number are: feeling, knowing and willing.

The faculties exist as germs in the child. They are developed by education. Education is therefore the development of the different faculties with which God has endowed the child. The teacher's mission is to bring about, to aid, to direct the development of the child's faculties; among the different means which he employs is *instruction* or the teaching of the different subjects of the course of study. Elementary education has therefore two great ends. 1. To develop the intellectual and moral faculties; or, in other words, to develop the faculties of the perfect human being; 2. in so doing to communicate to the pupil that sort of knowledge which is most likely to be useful to him in the sphere of life which Providence has assigned to him.

### DISCIPLINE.

Discipline comprises the rules and regulations by which a school is governed. It is the teacher's duty to observe these rules himself and to see that they are observed by the pupils. By discipline order and good behavior are maintained and progress is assured. It is therefore of the greatest importance. The teacher maintains discipline: 1. by keeping the pupils actively employed, in a profitable manner; they learn what they have to do and when they have to do it from the *time-table*, which should be drawn up with the greatest care, and should be exactly followed; 2. by scrupulously preparing the lessons to be given, grading them to suit the capacity of the pupils, and giving them life and interest by examples, questions, illustrations; 3. by patience, justice, and charity, which make the pupils feel that the schoolhouse is not a prison but another home, and the teacher not a jailor but a just, wise, kind and gentle, though sometimes severe, friend; 4. by an active and constant oversight of the pupils; 5. by rewards and punishments; corporal punishment should, as much as possible, be avoided; in schools having a director or principal, the director alone has the right to inflict corporal punishment, (Art. 245 Civil Code); striking the pupil on the head or slapping his face is *never* allowed.

## METHOD

By a *method* of education is meant the peculiar way in which a subject is learned or taught. In a more comprehensive sense: A method of teaching comprehends, not merely the way in which the subject matter is treated, but also the means, artifices, devices, forms of expression, etc., that are employed in conveying instruction to a class of children.

Strictly speaking, there are two methods: *Induction* and *deduction* or *synthesis* and *analysis*. In the method of *induction* or *synthesis* we ascend step by step from examples to rule, from known to unknown, from simple to complex, from the individual to the general formula; in the method of *deduction* or *analysis* we descend from rule to examples, from the general to the individual, from the abstract principle to the various particular forms which it comprehends.

A few examples will make clear the difference between the two methods: In teaching geography, to begin by definitions of geography, of the different terms used, then to treat of the different great divisions of the earth, is to follow the *deductive* method; on the other hand to begin at the schoolroom, where the sun rises, where it sets, the intermediate points, plan of the schoolroom, the surrounding locality, the village, town or city in which the school is situated, the county, the neighboring counties, the province, etc., is to follow the *inductive* method. In language, to begin by formal grammar and much later on to take up composition is to follow the *deductive* method; while to begin by composition and to take up formal grammar later on is to follow the *inductive* method. In grammar, to begin by definitions is to follow the *deductive* method while to begin by getting the child to make a number of statements about different subjects, then to lead him to discover the functions of the words used and to get him to define these words is to follow the *inductive* method, etc., etc. Dexter & Garlick, in their excellent *Primer of School Methods*, Longmans, Green & Co., 39 Paternoster Row, London England, give the following as the:

### CHIEF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE TWO METHODS

1. Particulars (*i, e*, single cases) were first dealt with, and from these particulars cases general laws were inferred. This method of reasoning is known as **Induction**.

2. Induction is the method of *education*.

(a) It is an *upward* movement of thought leading to definition, or rule, or principle, or theory.

1. The general law was first enunciated, and particular cases were then shown to be examples of this general law. This method of reasoning is known as **Deduction**.

2. Deduction is the method of *instruction*.

(a) It is a *downward* movement of thought leading to a more perfect comprehension of the general principle, rule, theory, etc.

(b) It leads to new knowledge.

(c) It is the method of discovery.

3. It is a *slow* method. All knowledge has to be acquired first hand by the observation of particular cases.

4. It is a *safe* method. The general notion or law is reached step by step. Its meaning is well grasped and it can then be accurately applied to new cases.

5. It is a method which *fosters self-reliance*. Children are trained to depend upon their own observation, ideas, and judgment.

(b) It does not lead to new knowledge.

(c) It is the method of verification and explanation.

3. It is a *quicker* method than *Induction*. The child avails himself of knowledge others have acquired.

4. It is *not so safe* a method as the other. The general law may be imperfectly grasped; hence there may be faulty application to new cases.

5. It is a method which encourages *dependence on others*.

## SCHOOL SYSTEMS

SCHOOL SYSTEMS are the different ways or plans or arrangements adopted in organizing a school, whereby instruction generally may be given to the pupils. Systems have to do with classification and grouping of the pupils while method is the manner in which the subjects are taught.

There are four systems:

The **INDIVIDUAL SYSTEM**, which consists in the teaching of one pupil at a time.

The **COLLECTIVE SYSTEM** which consists in the teaching of a considerable number, (of a group or class) at a time.

The **MONITORIAL SYSTEM**, in which the teaching is done under the supervision of the master by monitors, taught and trained by him. In this Province, the Normal Schools are the only places where the monitorial system is followed.

The **MIXED SYSTEM** is a combination of the Collective and Monitorial systems. While the teacher who takes each class in succession, is occupied with one class, the other classes are kept busy at exercises of different kinds by monitors, chosen from the more advanced pupils, by the teacher and supervised by him. It must never be forgotten that such monitors only review exercises and lessons on subjects that have already been explained and taught by the teacher.

In schools having but a small number of classes the collective system may be followed with success, while in those having but one teacher and many classes it is necessary to adopt the mixed system.

## TEACHING DEVICES.

Teaching devices are the teacher's tools; they are the practical means by which the general methods and systems of teaching are put into operation. Some of the devices employed in teaching geography are: plans on the blackboard, maps, a globe, a sand table;—in teaching arithmetic: are the numeral frame, kindergarten sticks, blocks, etc., etc.;—in teaching object lessons and elementary compositions: are objects or pictures.

## RULE AND PRINCIPLES WHICH FORM THE FOUNDATION OF ALL RATIONAL TEACHING

### RULE

The teacher by accustoming his pupils to *observe*, to *reflect*, to *judge*, and to *reason* should, in as far as possible, lead them to discover the things which he is trying to teach them.

### PRINCIPLES

1. *The teaching should be intuitive.*—(See page 10).
2. *From the known to the unknown.*—The child's instruction at school should be the development of the knowledge acquired before coming to school. When he comes to school he already knows words. What he does not know are the elements—the written or printed word, the letters, names, and sounds. Hence the teaching of Reading should begin with words and not with letters.—Suppose that on seeing three books, three pencils, three objects of any kind, he says immediately three, that on seeing four books, four pencils, four objects of any kind he does not say four, he says a lot, it is evident that his knowledge of numbers is limited to three, hence he should be shown how to make the figures which represent *one, two, three*, he should be taught to know four objects at sight, then to make the figure, and so on the number first, the figure after; addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division to go hand in hand with the acquisition of the knowledge of numbers;—in each subject the starting point should be that which the child knows.
3. *From examples to rules, laws and definitions.* The pupil is given or better still is led to make for himself a sentence about each of the following: *cats, dogs, birds*, as *cats purr, dogs bark, birds fly*. By questioning the *subjects* spoken of in each case are elicited—*cats, dogs, birds*. Further examination discovers that the second word in each sentence expresses an action; i. e., it says, asserts or *predicates* an action of its subject. The pupil then defines the predicate as he knows it. A more complete definition will be required when he has examined a larger and more varied collection of examples.

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The pupils is told to write  $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} = ?$  on the blackboard. He will without help write the answer  $\frac{15}{3}$ ; On being questioned he states that there are three times  $\frac{1}{3}$  in 15-8, from which the rule is inferred that to multiply a fraction by a whole number he may multiply the numerator by the whole number, also that to divide a fraction by a whole number he may divide the numerator by the whole number.

In each case the teaching proceeded through examples to rule or definition, through an examination of individual cases. to general truths or laws.

4. *From the concrete to the abstract.*—This principle is closely related to principles 1 and 2. An examination of an instance will show this.

2 sticks and 3 sticks together are 5 sticks	and so on, vary- ing the instances or objects.
2 pencils and 3 pencils together are 5 pencils	
2 marbles and 3 marbles together are 5 marbles	

The child thus learns that 2 of anything and 3 of anything are 5 of anything, and so ultimately that 2 and 3 are 5. The child has thus progressed from the knowledge of *individuals* or *particulars* (sticks etc.) to general classes (2 and 3 are 5); from a knowledge of the concrete things to that of their abstract qualities. (Dexter and Garlick's Primer of School Method.)

5. *The teaching should be concentric.*—The first year the child should learn: to read and write the words of his own vocabulary;—numbers, if possible, to one hundred and to write the figures representing them, to add, subtract, multiply and divide the numbers as he learns them. What he learns in each subject forms a whole. The following year the child is taught the same subjects—with developments, and so in widening circles from year to year. In text-books made according to this principle, there is a first Year Book in Arithmetic, a Second Year book in Arithmetic etc., There is a First Year Book in Language Lessons, a Second Year Book in Language Lessons, etc., a First Year Geography a Second Year Geography, etc., etc.

**I. Moral and religious instruction.**—Religious instruction shall hold the principal place among the subjects of the Course, and shall be regularly given in every school.

The catechism lessons of children preparing for their first communion shall receive special attention. When it is deemed necessary, children preparing for their first communion shall be exempted from a part of the other class exercises.

It is the duty of the teacher to follow the advice of the Parish Priest in all that concerns the moral and religious conduct of all his pupils.

**II. Classification of pupils.**—In schools having only one teacher, there should not be too many classes.

Teachers who divide their schools into too many classes, divide their time and energy, and find it difficult, if not impossible, to maintain order.

Four divisions for elementary schools of the second grade, and three, for those of the first grade are quite sufficient. In these classes or divisions there should be no subdivisions; except perhaps in the first year—in which, in case of necessity, special instruction may be given to the least advanced children. The

Model School Course and the Academy Course should each have not more than two divisions.

When two teachers are employed in an elementary school, the head teacher shall exercise an active supervision over the teaching given to all the pupils of the school, but he shall take the third and fourth years under his special control, while his assistant shall take the first and second. If there be but one class in the model school course, the teacher of this class shall also teach the pupils of the fourth year, *i. e.* those of the second grade of the elementary course.

In any year of the course, pupils of average intelligence and application should be able to pass in the subjects assigned to that year. In many cases, however, and principally in the elementary schools of the rural districts, where attendance is irregular and teachers are obliged to attend to several classes at the same time, pupils will be found whose knowledge is not sufficient to permit of their being promoted with advantage to themselves; such pupils should be obliged to remain a second year in the same class.

The teacher should, whenever possible, teach two, or in certain subjects, even three classes at the same time, in order that the largest possible number of pupils may, at all times, benefit by his explanations.

**III. Time-table.**—No time-table is given with this Course of Study, because of the impossibility of preparing one suitable for all the schools of the Province. Each teacher shall prepare one, for his own school, which he shall submit to the inspector. After approval, the time-table shall be posted up, where it may be easily seen in the classrooms.

It shall be drawn up in keeping with the following requirements:

All the subjects of the Course shall have a place in it, with the days and hours assigned to each.

The time allotted to each subject shall be in proportion to its importance, either absolute or relative. For instance, writing and reading in the elementary course shall take up more time than in the model course; by degrees they should be partially superseded by written exercises. The study of the mother tongue is absolutely necessary in all the classes, and its importance is equal in all; but the same rule does not hold with respect to the second language. The time given to a second tongue may vary with the needs of the pupils. Arithmetic should be taught in all schools, but the course in mathematics may vary in extent and in degree, according as it is intended for a country or for a commercial school. The same rule will hold with respect to agriculture. The course in this branch will be more thorough, and will, in consequence require more time in agricultural districts than in commercial centres. Drawing, while remaining substantially the same, will occupy a more or less important place in the programme of daily exercises, according to the varying requirements of different localities and of different schools. Finally, in a general way, the amount of time allotted to a subject, may, in many cases, vary with the sex of the pupils. It is evident that the needs of these two classes of pupils, boys and girls, are not exactly the same.

While all these considerations should be taken into account in preparing a time-table, it is essential that the adaptations be made without any substantial alteration of the Course as a whole, or modification of the subjects, for, in all schools of the same degree, the general standard should be the same. All that is required is simply to interpret the Course, and to follow it with discernment; no one is authorized to change it.

In a good time-table lessons and exercises are assigned in keeping with the grade of the school and the age of the children. The exercises of the Elementary Course should be shorter than those of the Model, and those of the Model shorter than those of the Academy. Nevertheless, under pretext of relieving pupils from too long and too arduous an effort, the time should not be divided into periods so short as to keep the classes in an almost continual state of change, thus preventing any serious application to study. With the younger pupils of the elementary course, exercises should not be of more than twenty minutes dura-

tion, while with the older ones, except in a few rare instances, they should not exceed half an hour. The average and ordinary duration of exercises in the model course is half an hour. The exercises in the academy course should not generally last more than an hour.

Naturally, the most important subjects and those which require the greatest effort of attention should be placed, in preference, at the beginning of the class; such as exercises in grammar, arithmetic and composition. It is also necessary to dispose the exercises in a hygienic manner and in such a way as to prevent monotony: an easy exercise after a difficult one, a written exercise after an oral lesson, an exercise with pupils standing after one with pupils at their seats.

With the double object in view of relaxing the mind and preventing fatigue, the time-table divides the forenoon and afternoon sessions each, into two parts, separated by a short recess, or by movement exercises and singing. Each part is itself divided into several lessons, and each lesson or exercise into two parts:— the oral lesson, properly so called, then questions to test the effect produced, or exercises in which knowledge acquired during the lesson is applied;— the written exercise and the correction of same.

A time-table in which every subject, of the whole course of study, has a certain period assigned to it each day, is an impossibility unless the time is divided into such minute portions as to render null all progress; thus certain branches will appear on it only two or three times a week: writing and reading in the upper classes, history, other than that of Canada, drawing, etc.

Finally, in preparing the time-table, recapitulations and especially weekly and monthly competitions must be provided for. To these exercises should be assigned the amount of time which, in every well organized school, their importance demands.

**IV. Registers for the use of the teacher.**—All schools should be provided with certain registers in which different entries concerning their management are made.

The registers here referred to are those relating to the attendance of pupils and to the pedagogic organization of the school.

The Inscription Journal and the School Journal belong to the first class.

In the Inscription Journal, the teacher enters the names of pupils admitted to the school; in the school Journal, he indicates the daily attendance.

To the Second Class belong the Class Diary and the Record Book of marks.

In the Class Diary are indicated all the lessons assigned during the day. That the lessons assigned may be more clearly defined, it is an excellent idea to indicate, in the Class Diary, the page of the teacher's Note-Book on which the notes prepared, on each lesson, are to be found.

In the Record-Book of marks, are entered from day to day, the marks gained by the pupils. These marks might be given a fictitious money value. For instance, there might be marks of the value of 5, 10, 20, 25 and 50 cents, and of a dollar. The younger children would thus learn to count money.

**V. How the course should be followed.**—The course of study, although accompanied by minute directions, leaves a wide field to the teacher's initiative, especially in all that relates to the manner in which each subject may be taught, and to the adapting of the lessons to local circumstances or to the special needs of pupils.

No important modification, however, should be made in it without the consent of the proper authority.

**VI. The system of teaching.**—The more advanced pupils, especially in schools having but one teacher, may be called on to render some assistance. But their duties, in this connection, should be limited to giving dictations, making the younger children read, and hearing them recite. It must not be forgotten that it is the teacher alone who teaches the different classes in succession. Pupil-

monitors should never be set to teach any part of a branch which has not been previously explained by the teacher.

During school hours, pupils should never be idle, and each recitation should be followed by an exercise, sufficiently long and difficult to keep the pupils busy while the teacher is occupied with another class. If, for instance, the subject be catechism, while the teacher makes the youngest children simultaneously recite the text of the book, the more advanced ones are silently preparing their lessons for the day. When the teacher has finished with the younger pupils, a monitor, who makes them recite individually, takes charge, while the teacher hears the pupils of the next class.

The system just explained should be employed in teaching reading. The teacher begins with the younger children; during this time the more advanced pupils prepare their lessons, afterwards, while the younger children, under a monitor, read, copy, or write from dictation the lesson just read, the teacher passes to the next class. When the teacher has finished with this class, the pupils are given an exercise in connection with the lesson just read and explained. This plan is followed in teaching the generality of the branches.

For the better maintaining of discipline, the teacher shall draw up, in advance, the list of monitors, and he shall assign them to the different classes, according to a variable order, known only to himself; thus the monitors will be compelled to study their own lessons and prepare their own exercises.

**VII. Special methods or the teaching devices.**—Special methods or teaching devices are the teacher's tools; they are the practical means by which the general methods and systems of teaching are put into operation. It is worthy of remark, however, that notwithstanding the difference made between a method of teaching, a system of teaching, and a teaching device, the distinction between them is sometimes very slight. Even in the language of pedagogy they are frequently confounded.

Thus understood, the special methods or teaching devices may be of many different kinds. Only the principal ones will be mentioned.

**VIII. Intuition in teaching.**—To teach intuitively is to employ a concrete object in developing an abstract idea. Thus to employ marbles, blocks, or kindergarten sticks in giving children an idea of numbers, of units, of tens; pictures, in explaining a historical event or a lesson in catechism; to show the pupil a square of paper, or a cube before beginning the study of these geometric figures, or before teaching them to draw them; to place blackboard sketches, or, better still, a globe before the pupils, in order to give them an accurate idea of the shape of the earth, of the outline of a lake, of the course of a river,—are all classified under the name of intuitive teaching.

If the teacher really desires to be understood, his teaching should be intuitive, and this should be especially the case in dealing with the younger children. Useful and even necessary in all the divisions of the elementary course, this device is also very helpful in the upper grades;—for instance, when new ideas are introduced; and generally in lessons on the natural sciences.

To be a competent teacher one should be expert in using this device.

**IX. The blackboard.**—It has been said, and with truth, that a blackboard is equivalent to an assistant teacher. As a means of teaching intuitively, its utility is unlimited. It cannot be used too much. It is an open book, common to the whole class, to teacher as well as pupils. It should be almost constantly under their eyes. It is on the blackboard especially that—while developing the faculties of invention and observation of the pupils—both teacher and pupils should study, in concert, all the branches of the programme. No other means is better fitted to strike the imagination of the pupils, to fix their attention, to make them active participants in the struggle for knowledge, to put life and inte-

rest into both lessons and correction of exercises. It is the time-saver **par excellence**.

Let the pupils be often sent to the board to answer the test questions, by which the teacher ascertains that they understand and remember the subjects they have been taught.

**X. The text-book.**—"The best elementary text-book," wrote Lhomond, in the preface to his grammar, "is the voice of the teacher". Nothing can take the place of the living text-book, the teacher. To pretend that a dumb manual can do his work is pure charlatanism."

Though the truth of Lhomond's statement is universally admitted at the present day, it is none the less undeniable that text-books are necessary. Exclusively oral teaching would fatigue both teachers and pupils, it would be liable to make, on the minds of the children, only transitory impressions, and to impose on many of them, during a portion of each day, a state of idleness, demoralizing to them individually, and injurious to the progress of the whole class.

What is to be avoided is a too great reliance on the book alone. The teacher should employ it with discernment; he should never make an immoderate use of the text-book to the neglect of the oral lesson.

In order that the use of the text-book be of practical benefit to the child, the study of the lessons, in it, should be preceded or accompanied by sufficient explanations, given by the teacher. If such explanations be wanting, the pupil will find himself floundering through the unknown without a guide, with the result that all his efforts will be vain, or almost vain. The pupil's memory may retain words, but his intelligence will lack exact and well defined ideas. Fatigue followed by disgust will be the necessary consequence. The text-book will fill the child with an instinctive dislike, which he will have much difficulty in conquering later on.

To sum up, the book is nothing but an auxiliary and its utility varies with the subject of which it treats. The following principles on the manner of using it are taken from the best works on pedagogy. In teaching reading, the book, it is undeniable, plays a great part—a part whose importance increases with the progress of the pupils. In the case of the catechism and of selections of poetry and prose, which should be memorized literally, the book is a necessity. In history, the manual is a help to the memory, a means of research, and a work of reference. In mathematics and grammar the blackboard and oral lesson do the greater part of the work. In geography and the natural sciences, text-books are of secondary importance, for the study of the map and the observation of phenomena naturally precede their use.

To repeat what has been already stated: the study of the book if it is to be profitable must be accompanied by sufficient explanations, supplemented by numerous questions designed to find out whether the child really understands or not. This is the one great principle to be remembered by the teacher.

When the pupil understands the book; when he discovers in it those things of which he has been told, it becomes a friend. He then opens his book with interest, he finds the lesson which the teacher's explanations have made clear, and he studies it with pleasure.

Let it be well understood that the child shall not be expected to recite verbatim the lessons studied in the book. Of course, the teacher will find it necessary to require the exact words of such definitions as do not admit of approximations, of formulas intended to remain fixed in the memory, of prayers and catechism, and of selections of poetry and prose. In all things else he will accept the meaning of the lesson in whatever form the child shall express it. He will even encourage the child to state what he knows in his own way, restricting himself to indicating, in a kindly manner, any incorrection of language or impropriety of terms.

**XI. The oral lesson.**—The text-book is useful in primary teaching, but it is only a guide, a help. Direct teaching, or in other words, the oral lesson takes the first and most important place. The teacher's voice, his explanations, his questions—these are the principal elements of success. It is by speech, correct, animated, living speech that the teacher influences his pupils, that he awakens and holds their attention, that he forms them to habits of observation, and that he develops in them the faculty of reasoning.

These results, the only practical, lasting and valuable ones, from an educational point of view, are not obtained without good judgment and great labor.

To produce all possible fruit the oral lesson requires, in the first place, careful preparation. This preparation, from which no teacher has a right to consider himself exempted, should bear on three points.

Firstly, choose the subject of the lesson as determined by the Course of Study and the time-table; exactly define its extent and degree, in keeping with the intellectual capacity of the child; classify its principal parts with the accompanying facts, so that in its presentation there be nothing vague, unfinished, or badly defined.

Secondly, select, in advance, the method to be followed, the devices to be employed, the best means to awaken interest, the explanations to be given, the nature and order of the questions to be asked, the exercises to be done by the pupils and the tasks to be imposed on them. This second part is the most delicate and difficult. It varies with the pupils' knowledge, their character, and their aptitudes; it varies also, according as the lesson is intended for a single class or for several of unequal degrees of knowledge.

Finally, have at hand all those things which are to be used during the lesson: marbles, blocks, kindergarten sticks, maps, sketches, geometric figures, writing or drawing models, specimens for object or for science lessons, etc., etc.

It is not sufficient, however, that the lesson be well prepared, it must also be well given.

As a general rule, every lesson comprises a thorough but rapid review of the preceding one. This is necessary that there may be unity, order, and sequence in the ideas of the pupils. After review, the natural order is: the lesson of the day; the assigning of the part to be studied; and the explanation of the exercise to be done.

The lesson, both in matter and in expression, should be suited to the intellectual development of the children.

In order to hold the attention of the youngest pupils, let the teacher give the lesson under the form of a conversation, during which he asks carefully chosen questions. Let him use the answers as a means of suggesting new ideas to the pupils, or of leading them to discover some principle or rule. While conversing, let the teacher write on the blackboard the principal elements studied during the lesson. The work on the blackboard will be very serviceable to the pupils as outlines to be remembered.

At a later period, the teacher, while following substantially the same plan, should so lengthen and modify lessons that the pupils will be gradually impelled to greater and greater efforts.

At a still later period, the pupil will be left more to his own resources. The teacher, while not abandoning the course just laid down, will accustom the pupil to descend from rules to examples. He will familiarize him with abstract ideas. He will inspire him with greater confidence in his own powers. He will still show him the road and will never fail to guide him, but from time to time he will abandon him to his own devices. To use Montaigne's words, he will make his pupil trot before him, if only to judge of his pace, and to give him the opportunity of exercising his activity.

In giving an oral lesson, the teacher should avoid with care the defect of saying more than is necessary or useful. A lesson, to children, in which the teacher presents the subject under the form of a lecture, while his young audience remains passive, is a waste of time. In primary schools, oral teaching, properly understood is a conversation between teacher and scholars. The former does

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generally more of the talking than the latter. The teacher supplies needful information, encourages the pupils to speak without restraint, to state what they know, and to ask any questions they please—while he directs their thoughts and attention, puts frequent questions to them, and really guides the work all the time, in such a way, that the interest of every child is held till the appointed end is reached.

**XII. Questions.**—The success of a lesson depends upon the questions asked. Questioning, especially in the primary school, is a most difficult art. Success in this art depends upon the exact observance of a number of rules. The following list contains, under an abridged form, the most important of these rules.

1.—Principal questions, and even a certain number of secondary ones, should be carefully prepared in advance.

2.—All questions should be brief, clear, well defined, and adapted to the intelligence of those for whom they are intended; they should be asked in a brisk, spirited way, without hesitation, but at the same time without hurry.

3.—They should follow one another in logical and progressive order.

4.—It is preferable to leave the exact wording of questions to the inspiration of the moment or to the unexpected needs of the occasion.

5.—In questioning, the teacher's tone should be firm, but sympathetic.

6.—Though each pupil should be addressed in turn, the order of places or seats should be rarely followed.

7.—As a general rule, state the question before naming the scholar who is to answer.

8.—It is highly prejudicial to the progress of the class to allow prompting among the pupils.

9.—It is also harmful to the advancement of the scholars for the teacher to contract the habit of giving the first word or sentence of answers.

10.—Incomplete or wrong answers should be completed or corrected by the teacher, then repeated by the pupil.

11.—In the same way, any answer defective in form should be immediately corrected, then repeated by the pupil.

12.—It is an excellent custom to require that the question be incorporated in the answer; this should always be done when the answer would otherwise be, yes, or no.

13.—It is only when no scholar has been found able to answer a question that the teacher is justified in answering it himself.

14.—Questioning the same pupils much more than others, or dialoguing with a single pupil should be avoided.

15.—Pupils should be encouraged to talk; they should be told to indicate their readiness to answer by holding up a hand; but several pupils should not be allowed to answer at the same time.

16.—Nevertheless, simultaneous answering, from time to time, is not without a certain utility.

17.—Hastiness should be avoided; it is a mistake to hurry pupils very much, —and a very good habit to allow them time to reflect and find their words.

18.—However, once a question is asked it must not be left without answer.

19.—The experienced teacher avoids questions requiring answers of greater length or difficulty than children should be expected to give, or questions full of confusing details.

20.—The experienced teacher clothes his interrogations in simple language, and once expressed he does not change their wording without good and sufficient cause.

21.—In questioning, he does not say more than the pupil should, in answering,

22.—On the contrary, he effaces himself as much as possible; he acts in such a way as to be forgotten.

23.—While interrogating, he blames and praises with moderation.

24.—He knows that, at times, it is advantageous to address his questions, more particularly, to children who need encouragement, or to children whose laziness or lack of interest requires special attention.

25.—He is careful to make all his questions bear directly on the subject under consideration, and to see that they all tend in the same direction, the final aim and object of the lesson.

26.—He varies both the substance and the wording of the questions, in order to stimulate and develop all the faculties of the child.

27.—He shows no impatience. In his tone or manner neither annoyance nor bad humour can be noticed, especially when dealing with pupils who, though dull, are doing their best.

28.—On the contrary, he puts his questions in an engaging way, emphasizing the principal word, and showing in tone and manner, both sympathy and good humour. The emphasizing of the principal words contributes greatly to the clearness and the variety of the questions.

29.—Finally the teacher should take advantage of the children's answers to correct defective pronunciation and articulation as well as a too great precipitation of speech. This is one of his important duties.

**XIII. Written exercises.**—Written exercises done at school—and even at home—should occupy an important place in primary education. The oral lesson, however useful it may be, cannot take the place of everything else. The impressions made by it on the minds of young children are necessarily transitory; the traces that it leaves in the memory are soon effaced. This period of life is so unstable, so changeable.

Written exercises are a necessary and valuable complement of the oral lesson; they impress more deeply on the mind, the elements taught, they fix them more surely, and define them more clearly, not only by the scholars being obliged to write them out—in itself a great advantage—but by the demands which they make on the individual activity of each pupil.

The child, called upon, without his teacher's help, to apply the rules and principles already learned, will be forced to think, to reflect, and to apply himself with renewed energy to the subject on hand. This work, done alone, cannot fail to benefit the child in a marked degree, provided that it is not beyond his capacity and that it has been sufficiently explained.

But the preliminary explanations, just alluded to, are absolutely necessary. If not given, the time devoted to written exercises will be passed in vainly groping in the dark. It is, therefore, necessary that the teacher give his pupils such assistance as they really need, in order that when working alone they may do so in a profitable manner.

And with the object in view of rendering agreeable and attractive the exercises worked out alone, the teacher should neglect no means of holding his pupils' attention, of exciting their curiosity.

For this purpose he will select exercises which are neither too long nor too difficult; exercises based on the lessons of the week; he will vary them from day to day; he will not fail to give them as much actuality as is possible; he will make them practical; and incidentally, he will use them as a means of imparting information on points foreign to the special subject of the exercises.

The practice so fruitful in good results of treating of several subjects, while apparently teaching only one, finds, here, its proper place. During dictation exercises, it is not at all difficult to combine a lesson on grammar, or spelling, with one upon morals, manners, or science; in giving arithmetical problems, it is quite easy to impart a great deal of knowledge on many different subjects—knowledge useful to the farmer, to the housewife, etc., in the practical affairs of life.

But written exercises to produce their full effect must be carefully corrected every day.



The teacher will, therefore, make it a point not to defer the correction of exercises for two or three days. Correction thus delayed loses much of its value as an educational instrument and as a means of imparting knowledge, for the pupils have had time to lose interest in the work.

The teacher's inspection should follow close on the pupil's labor, taking account of all its parts, passing over no point that calls for remark.

In general, let the correction, in which all should take part, be carried out on the blackboard. Let it be oral and collective. Let it finally be inspected by the master; for it is essential that an experienced and practised eye control the self or inter-correction of the pupils, so that negligence, or attempts at cheating be banished from the school.

In their proper place, in this Programme, will be found supplementary remarks on the manner of correcting exercises in the different branches of the Course of Study.

There remains a last suggestion of the very highest importance: whatever the subject, insist that the exercises be carefully written; that the work be done with order and neatness; that the language used be clear, simple, and appropriate; and that the spelling be correct.

If teachers exercised a strict supervision in connection with the points just mentioned, there would no longer be found in the schools, pupils whose dictations are absolutely irreproachable, while their other exercises swarm with faults.

**XIV.—Recapitulations—Reviews—Competitions.**—Recapitulations, reviews, competitions, these are teaching devices of which every conscientious teacher should make use.

These devices are related and have more than one point of resemblance,—all three are a going over of branches studied. A recapitulation, however, is more a simple repetition than anything else.

To define it more exactly, it consists, on the part of the pupil, in a going back to what he has already learned; and on the part of the teacher, in questions on one or more previous lessons, with the double object of forming a close connection, in the child's mind, between the different items of knowledge acquired, and of making known to him the principles which form the basis of the succeeding lessons. Sometimes even, a recapitulation may consist in recommencing an explanation, without introducing any change worthy of note, for the purpose of fixing it more firmly in the child's memory.

The natural place for the recapitulation is at the beginning of the lesson; more or less time should be given to it, according as the pupils are more or less advanced. It is also advantageous to recapitulate after each complete series of questions.

A review is rather a new lesson on a subject already studied—a subject which the teacher presents and develops with new considerations—considerations which furnish him with the opportunity of bringing before his pupils certain general questions, of drawing attention to useful points of resemblance, of linking together ideas having no apparent connection, of accustoming his pupils to look at questions from a general point of view.

It is easy to understand that to attain this complex end, reviews must be frequent and well defined, that they must, as time goes on, cover a wider field. It is on this account, that in well-organized schools, they take place at the end of each week, each month, each quarter, each year.

Recapitulations and reviews are oral exercises. Competitions, on the contrary, which are intended to stimulate the pupils, by finding the relative rank of each, should be written. They differ from other exercises in the following points: they may contain a larger number of questions previously studied, and they must be completed in a limited period of time, the same for all pupils competing.

The principal branches of each course are the ones in which competitions

generally take place. It is advisable, however, that there should be, but less frequently, competitions in the other branches, in order to encourage pupils, who though not advanced in the principal subjects may excel in the secondary ones, to bring home to others their general lack of application to study—and to be able to judge of the average strength of the classes.

All competitions without exception should be corrected with the greatest care. Preference in this case, should be given to correction by the teacher. The examination of the work by the teacher himself is essential; it is the only way of obtaining the desired results.

**XV. Home lessons and tasks.**—Teachers should remember that the pupil who does not study out of school hours makes but little progress. This is a truth based on experience.

Every evening, therefore, except on rare occasions, the pupils shall have either lessons to learn or exercises to write.

This supplementary work should: be proportioned to the age and capacity of the children; have for subject the most important branches of each course; be as practical as possible; be prepared in class; be varied that it may be interesting.

If the rules given above be not followed, the tasks will appear too hard to pupils who have already passed the day in arduous study, and they will repel and discourage them, or, and this is to be avoided, the parents themselves will complain, and not without just cause, of the difficulty of the work imposed on their children.

The teacher who neglects to carefully examine the home work of the pupils will not obtain good results. Pupils very soon discover any negligence of this kind, and they then feel at liberty to abandon themselves to idleness.

**XVI. Copy books for the use of pupils.**—The principal copy books, which may be used in the classes are:

- The writing book;
- The drawing book;
- The map drawing book;
- The language lesson copy book;
- The daily exercise book;
- The composition book;
- The class rotation exercise book; (*one for the whole class*).
- The honor book.

Let the teacher agree with the inspector concerning the number of copy books to be used in the school, for though all the books just mentioned are useful, some are less needed than others.

Each pupil, however, should have separate books for writing, drawing, and daily exercises. These three books are required in every school. And if the pupils are restricted to this number, language lessons, map drawing, and compositions will find place in the daily exercise book with the other exercises. But, when such is the case, the teacher, remembering that the three subjects just alluded to require special correction, will not fail, from time to time, to keep the daily exercise books in his possession for a short time.

The class rotation exercise book, in which a different pupil enters, each day, the exercises of that day, and the honor book intended to receive the best work of the class, are more easily dispensed with than the others—although the second is an excellent incentive to emulation, and a simple glance at the first enables one to judge of the state of advancement of the class, and of the manner in which the Course of Study is understood and followed.

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## MORAL AND RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION

### PRAYERS

The text of the prayers is to be that of the catechism of the diocese.

Pupils will be required to give the very words of the book, to recite in a natural tone, and without haste.

Each prayer shall be divided into short parts, which can be recited without drawing breath anew. And the pauses will always be the same, so that each word, each syllable, be pronounced by all, at the same instant, during simultaneous recitations.

In reciting the Lord's Prayer, for instance, they will say: Our Father, who art in heaven—hallowed be thy name—etc. The Angelic Salutation: Holy Mary, mother of God—pray for us sinners—now and at the hour of our death. Amen.

During recitation of prayers, it is especially necessary to insist on exact enunciation and articulation, in order to avoid the too common error of confounding syllables and even words. The written reviews furnish an effective and rapid means of correcting this defect, as well as many others.

The preparatory explanations, so necessary for all lessons, which are given, to be learned by heart, are of the greatest importance in teaching the prayers, in order to fix the children's attention and to prevent them from learning simply by rote. The explanations should be on the general sense of the lessons and on the signification of all words, of which the pupils understand neither the literal meanings, nor the special meanings attributed to them, in the prayers. It is advisable, whenever possible, to connect the explanations with some story of Sacred History, calculated to lead the children to a better understanding of the prayers. Directions on this point will be found in the part of this programme which treats of the teaching of Sacred History, in the First and the Second Years.

### CATECHISM

For beginners, perhaps, the most difficult subject is the Catechism. It is a summary of the most elementary and at the same time of the most sublime truths. Though it is almost impossible for children to understand the Catechism completely, yet the teacher may, by following the directions here given, lead them to grasp its general meaning: let him use pictures, charts, and such objects of piety as are convenient; present, in as far as possible, in an attractive historical form, all that pertains to the life of Our Lord, to the institution of the Sacraments, to the revelation of the dogmas; by familiar comparisons make clear the meaning of abstract terms; illustrate the definitions of virtues by examples drawn from history; in every case, require that nothing be memorized which has not previously been sufficiently explained; for this purpose, increase the number of questions and encourage pupils to talk freely on the subject; carefully examine and correct all answers.

In teaching catechism, the following general directions should be followed: the lesson should be full of life and be given in such a way that all the pupils take an active part in it, their attention being stimulated by a healthy rivalry. Question first on the explanations of the previous lesson, then on the lesson of the day, as found in the Catechism, after which explain the lesson assigned for the next day. For as already stated it would be a grievous error, in teaching so difficult a branch, to require the learning by heart of lessons not previously explained.

To do so would be to accustom the children to learn answers of which they do not understand the meaning, and about which, on this account, they do not feel the slightest curiosity. On the contrary, when previous explanations have been given, the pupil sets to work with a will, because he understands and is interested. Again, in this case, to stimulate the class and make sure that he is understood, the teacher should vary his explanations, intermingling questions with conversation. Between the principal parts of the lesson, advice may be given, prayers said, hymns sung, or even good marks and rewards distributed.

It is evident that not only must the Catechism be understood, but that it must be learned absolutely word for word.

Advanced pupils should be gradually brought to a more personal and reasoned study of the book. Let them therefore prepare written exercises on, and reproductions of different lessons that have been learned and recited. At first these exercises and *résumés* should be prepared orally, then placed on the black-board. At a later period the pupil may be abandoned more and more to his own resources. He should be required not only to give a full account of the lesson, in writing, but also to make out analytic statements and synoptical tables.

The recapitulatory lessons may take the following form—an idea is mentioned—example—sin; the relation of this idea with a given series of words—incarnation, redemption, penance, confession—is expressed by answers taken from the Catechism; or all the answers pertaining to a given point are looked up—the soul, faith, grace, the effects of the sacraments, penance, etc., or the relations existing between a given prayer and a given chapter of the Catechism, a given fact in Sacred History, or in the History of the Church, are indicated.

In the higher classes, the Catechism of the diocese may be supplemented by the study of a course in apologetics, or of a more advanced book on religion.

In explaining the Gospels, different plans may be followed: questions may be asked about persons, places, actions, words; a detailed presentation of the events of the Gospel, may be made, intermingled with questions and accompanied by moral reflections.

#### SACRED HISTORY

To study history in a book does not mean to learn the contents of the book by rote. This method produces in the minds of the pupils nothing but a dislike for the subject. Even when pupils have a text-book on history, the teacher is expected to begin by relating the part to be studied, or at least by reading it aloud in an expressive and interesting manner, after which one or more pupils should be required to relate it. The pupils will then read the lesson, when, after both words and ideas have been carefully explained, they may begin to learn it.

All questions should, therefore, be so framed as to offer no temptation to pupils to answer in the very words of the book. If the plan outlined above be followed, the children will soon discover that what is required of them is: that they understand the lesson, that they be able to give the substance of it in their own words; that they are not expected to recite it word by word, with the exception of: summaries, certain formulas or definitions, and certain historic sayings.

Places spoken of should be pointed out on the map, even when the pupils are young children.

By explaining the engravings, if the book is illustrated, the historical incidents which they represent will be understood. When the pupil is called upon to recite, he will be expected to give an account of the engraving as well as of the lesson.

In the lower classes, the teacher should endeavour to make prayers, catechism, and Sacred History go hand in hand as they are branches which throw light on and are of mutual assistance to one another.

For supplementary information on this point, see pedagogic instructions on teaching History of Canada and History of the Church.

#### ELEMENTS OF ANCIENT HISTORY

There is more than one advantage in teaching Ancient History in conjunction with Sacred History. This plan makes more clear, to the minds of the pupils, the course of the principal events composing profane history previous to the advent of the Messiah, as well as the Providential designs guiding the succession of great pagan empires.

It enables the pupils, without too great an effort of memory, to assign to their proper periods in the course of centuries, the events worth retaining. In this manner they are prepared and led to notice and appreciate the immense benefits conferred on humanity by Christian civilization. It is principally because of the last reason that the two histories have been correlated.

#### MANNERS

Let it be well understood that it is not intended that the complicated and changeable rules of etiquette should be taught to children, especially to those of the Elementary Course.

The object in view is to teach children to behave well, to observe the rules of Christian politeness, to avoid in their relations with others anything calculated to wound or to hurt the feelings.

The teacher's mission is, therefore, clearly defined. It consists in daily accustoming the pupils to the essential rules of good behavior, rules known and practised by all well-bred people, thus making on their minds and hearts a vivid and lasting impression.

Information on this branch should not be imparted as a set lesson. It should be given occasionally, under form of advice, of practical exercises, of exhortations, maxims, kindly and sympathetic reminders of the rules of good breeding, of the respect due to superiors, of the politeness required in conversation and language, etc.

The teacher's task is to accumulate in the mind and heart of the child so many good examples, so many good impressions, so many good habits, that the child, on leaving school, may be polite, reserved, and respectful.

At a later period the scope of the lessons in this subject may be extended sufficiently to include the rules to be observed in the ordinary circumstances of social life; the rules given in this case should be general and elementary, and all disputed points of etiquette should be absolutely avoided.

Pupils on leaving school will follow the customs of those with whom they associate. What is important is that while at school they shall acquire the virtue of politeness, the manners of civilized human beings. Etiquette will have no difficulty in grafting itself on such a healthy plant.

With respect to visiting cards, notes of invitation, etc., it is very useful to give models of the same, from time to time, during writing lessons or during dictations.

## LATIN READING

Any information which the pupils are capable of understanding, concerning articulation, pauses, and even accent should be given to them.

**ARTICULATION.**—In the Province of Quebec, the general custom, when reading Latin, is to sound the letters as in the mother tongue; in some dioceses, however, the Roman pronunciation has been adopted. Teachers should follow the pronunciation in use in the localities in which they find themselves.

**PAUSES.**—In reading Latin there are two punctuations to be considered: one, the logical not indicated by signs; the other, the typographical, shown by special marks. Though pupils, ignorant of Latin, cannot make the pauses required by the former, let them at least pay attention to those indicated by punctuation marks and by asterisks. The teacher should see to it that pupils exactly observe these marks in reading prayers and psalms.

**ACCENT.**—Latin accent is the division of syllables into strong and weak, the strong syllable being marked by a slight raising of the voice. Quantity is the distinction of syllables into long and short, the voice being allowed to linger slightly on the former.

In practice the following general rule may be followed: Accent is more important than quantity in the reading of liturgical Latin.

In any case, in the greater number of psalm books, it will be found that certain syllables are marked; children, when reading, should be trained to lay a slight stress on such syllables.

## HISTORY OF THE CHURCH

It should be well understood that pupils are not to be required to learn all the events of which the History of the Church is made up.

What is expected is: that the pupils acquire a general idea of the beneficent action of the Church during the course of centuries—of the civilizing influence exercised by Her on society, on the family, and on the individual; that in imagination they behold her alternatives of suffering and of joy, of persecution and of triumph.

Nevertheless, with respect to the great Popes, the Fathers of the Church,—the founders of Religious orders, the Apostles of nations, the great heresiarchs and schismatics, in a word the principal personages that figure in the History of the Church, as well as with respect to the leading facts and events of this History, the pupils should be given very clearly defined ideas.

That the course be sufficiently abridged and that it be distinguished by order and unity let the teacher present the subject in a series of monographs.

This plan permits of the grouping of facts of the same class, without interfering with the chronologic order of events. Much time will thus be saved, and the principal phases of the life of the Church will be fixed in the memory in a more enduring manner. But, as the greater number of points touched upon in the programme cover a wide field, it will be the teacher's duty to simplify them, that they may be the better understood and remembered. The simplifying consists in eliminating all details of little importance—in selecting the great facts and the principal dates of the History of the Church in order to emphasize them more strongly.

To the teacher belongs the task of drawing up the table of these dates and of helping the pupils to understand the conditions in which the events occurred,

as well as their causes and consequences. It is also the teacher's duty to exercise the judgment and conscience of his pupils by leading them to express their opinions on the persons and events of Church History—not ready-made opinions, learned and recited parrot like, but carefully thought out judgments, with statements of the reasons supporting them; this result is reached by questions designed to develop self-reliance, and intellectual activity.

In this difficult task let none of the devices recommended to the teacher of History be neglected: summaries found in the book or prepared by the teacher, historical maps, drawn on the blackboard, synoptical résumés, the explanation of unknown words and engravings; finally geography.

Concerning the use of the book, the teacher should indicate the parts—never very many—to be learned word for word, and the other parts of which pupils are expected to give the substance in their own words.

Finally in order that the effects of this study be lasting and beneficial, let each lesson be followed by exercises which shall still further impress it on the mind: exercises of application consisting in written tasks; test exercises, the principal of which are, questions, competitions and examinations; repetition exercises under the ordinary form of recapitulations and reviews.

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## READING—ELOCUTION—RECITATION OF SELECTIONS

Whatever the plan followed, the reading lesson for beginners should always comprise: 1. A review of the previous lesson; 2. a brief explanation of the new elements to be studied; 3. the reading of these elements by the teacher; 4. simultaneous reading; 5. individual reading. The lesson should be placed on the board in ordinary print letters and in script, the script immediately below the print, and the two corresponding letter for letter. Children should be immediately exercised in copying these letters, for it is necessary to accustom them to read handwriting, as soon as possible. The teaching of reading and writing simultaneously, as determined by the programme, will train them in this almost without any difficulty, thus doing away with the special exercises in manuscript reading, formerly in vogue in the schools.

*It is inadvisable to teach all the letters of the alphabet before beginning reading. It is better to teach two or three letters to start with, then to study the words which it is possible to form with these. New words are formed as new letters are learned.*

The elements once mastered, the pupils must be taught to read with ease by long and patient practice. The different parts of a lesson in oral reading may succeed each other in the following order: 1. The lesson is read simultaneously, and very slowly so as to separate each syllable, attention being paid to tone; 2. the general sense of the lesson read, that of each sentence, and that of each difficult word are explained by the teacher, which explanation is followed by test questions; 3. the teacher reads the lesson with the proper intonation; 4. simultaneous reading with the proper intonation; 5. individual reading; 6. and finally, combined exercises in spelling and in oral or even written language lessons.

At a later period the order of these exercises should be somewhat modified: 1. reading by the teacher; 2. explanations by teacher and pupils; 3. individual reading; 4. spelling and language lessons combined.

But it is evident that the point of capital importance is the reading lesson itself; to it must be allotted the greater part of the time assigned to this branch.

However, with more advanced pupils a more important place may be given to the other exercises. For instance, in order to interest them and to give them their first lessons in the art of composing, let their attention be drawn to the plan followed by the author, to the means employed to develop the principal idea and even the secondary ones, and to any literary beauties which the pupils may be able to appreciate.

In conclusion, a general observation of the very greatest importance. The teacher who makes his pupils read all the chapters, in succession in the different readers has a wrong idea of his duty. The environment and the future needs of the pupils impose on the teacher the duty of selecting, in the different readers, what chapters shall be read. Undoubtedly there are parts common and useful to all alike, but, on the other hand, it is undeniable that the requirements of city schools and of country schools cannot be absolutely the same.

It is, therefore, necessary for the teacher to chose in the Readers, the chapters best suited to give to some pupils information about things industrial and commercial, to others a knowledge and taste for agriculture.

This observation applies to the greater number of school branches. An educator with a proper sense of the importance of his mission never forgets it.

All his endeavors tend to provide each pupil with such practical information as he may require, thus rendering his teaching as profitable as possible to the whole class.

With reading are closely connected elocution and recitation of selections. The proper recitation of selections is the best means of teaching the pupils to read in an intelligent manner, with clearness and expression. It is also a valuable exercise in language and in composition. Let teachers, therefore, have numerous recitations of selections in prose and in verse, for although verse is more easily learned and remembered, prose is more natural and furnishes a larger number of words and sentences, which will be useful at a later period.

## WRITING

The writing lesson comprises the following exercises: 1. the naming by the pupils of the letters or words which they are to copy; 2. graded oral explanations of elements illustrated on the blackboard; 3. orderly presentation of the rules or principles relating to position of body, arm, copy-book, pencil or pen; 4. writing under surveillance with correction of each pupil's writing by the teacher; 5. general correction on the blackboard.

The first elements, *i. e.*, radical forms and forms derived from them, may be presented as follow: letters formed of straight lines and of simple curves, letters formed of curves combined; the junction or joining of letters.

The use of the slate not being allowed in teaching this subject, teachers will comply exactly with the following rule: children beginning shall write on paper with a soft pencil and as soon as they have made sufficient progress, a pen shall be used instead of the pencil.

The programme recommends the use of lithographed movable examples. In consequence, the school should be provided with a number of these examples, sufficient to provide each pupil with an example of the kind assigned to his class, so that all the pupils of a class may be occupied on a like example at the same moment. Thus, the teacher's explanations may be addressed to the whole class, for it should be well understood that the use of engraved examples does not exempt the teacher



from the obligation of teaching the subject orally and of illustrating his lesson on the blackboard.

With beginners especially, one of the principal conditions of success is to make haste slowly, there should, therefore, be no hesitation in requiring pupils to begin anew an exercise which has not been done in a satisfactory manner.

Nevertheless, it is not a good idea to give much time to the preliminary exercises.

A very effective means of reforming bad writing is to correct one defect at a time; divide the difficulties that they may be more easily conquered.

Finally a point of the greatest importance, which must not on any account be lost sight of, is that though careful writing in a special writing book is excellent, yet pupils will never acquire a good hand unless they are required to be careful and neat in all their written exercises.

It is also necessary to see that all written work be free from certain defects which diminish its clearness and symmetry. The use of unruled sheets, with marked margins, is of great service in this connection, in accustoming the pupils to write straight, regular, equally spaced lines. The writing on such sheets will furnish the teacher with the opportunity of making such observations as the following: This page begins too close to the top and finishes too close to the bottom; this title is not in the middle of the page; the beginning of this paragraph is not sufficiently indented; this margin is not even; this part of a word finishing this line is not properly divided; the letters of the word finishing this other line are crowded and the word itself curves upward or downward, etc.

On the day of the public examination the actual copy-books,—and not specimens specially prepared, for exhibition a few days previous,—should be shown.

## GRAMMAR

At the beginning grammar is taught in connection with reading. As what is chiefly desired is to provide the child with a certain number of ideas and words he cannot be given too many occasions to observe, to talk about, and to give an account of what he has observed. At this period all that should be attempted is to lead him to recognize the nouns in the reading lesson. The latter having been explained at the appointed time, the child will not find the work of selecting the nouns too abstract. He should be given an idea of the gender and number of nouns in the same way. Later on he is led to point out qualifiers and verbs.

As an exercise, the words written on the board and studied in the lesson in grammar are copied by the pupils.

During the whole of the second year the conversational plan is still followed in giving lessons in this subject. The teacher asks a few questions, carefully prepared, in advance, and the answers which serve as examples for the lesson of the day are placed on the blackboard. Starting from these examples, the teacher, by skilful questions, leads the children to discover the rule. He then formulates this rule exactly; then the pupils try to find short sentences in which the rule is applied. Finally the whole class recites the rule several times.

Thus, in teaching how the plural of nouns is formed, several nouns, in the singular are written, on the blackboard, in one column, the same nouns are written in the plural, in another column. The pupils examine the spelling, distinguish between the sense of the words in each column, and *discover* the rule.

Lessons to more advanced pupils provided with a text-book comprise, first, questions on the preceding lesson, then, the explanation of the new lesson, on the experimental plan outlined above. The rule, having been discovered and recited simultaneously, is assigned as the lesson to be studied in the text-book. By giving numerous oral and written exercises of application and invention, of many different kinds, the teacher tests the pupils' knowledge and ascertains if the lessons have been well understood and retained. In the higher classes this procedure may be modified and abridged; but it is only in the last years, and then by slow degrees, that it is advisable to use the deductive method. The pupil should, even in these years, be often required to look himself for the new rules which it is desired to teach him, or at least to verify the correctness of these rules,—being helped of course, when necessary.

All through the three courses the lessons in grammar should be given with the object not only to train the pupils to write correctly, but perhaps even more to train them to speak correctly. In consequence, let the oral exercises be as numerous as possible and let no effort be spared to make them interesting, this will not fail to be the case, if they deal with practical and every day affairs, and if the teacher puts both life and variety into them. Therefore, let all useless subtleties, monotonous nomenclatures to be learned by heart, and long series of never used exceptions be banished from the school.

In the conjugating of verbs, which is often made an exercise of the most tiresome kind, let every possible effort be made to vary the oral lessons and the written work. With the younger pupils especially, let each person of the verb conjugated be given in a complete sentence: I sing a hymn, thou singest a hymn, he sings a hymn;—later on let this plan be followed only with some persons and some tenses, and so on grading difficulties and exercises to suit the capacity of the pupils.

### PARSING AND LOGICAL ANALYSIS

Exercises in parsing and logical analysis should go hand in hand from the very first to the very last year. Experience teaches that this is the natural plan, and the one which presents the least difficulty,—the two kinds of analyses lending each other constant assistance.

Moreover, it is evident that in these exercises, as well as in all others, it is necessary to follow a progressive order, to grade both difficulties and developments. The most judicious plan is to prepare exercises corresponding exactly with the parts of the grammar already studied, and only with those parts. The parsing exercise thus furnishes the teacher with a valuable means of testing the pupil's knowledge of grammar. During the first year pupils will be required to find in the lesson read, or better still in short dictations, nouns, qualifiers, verbs; at a later period, they will be called upon to indicate singular nouns and plural nouns, masculine nouns and feminine nouns, after which the essential elements of a simple sentence,—subject, verb, attribute,— will be brought to their attention.

During the Second Year, over and above what has been assigned to the First Year, pupils will be asked to find the present, the perfect, and the future indicative of the verbs *be* and *have*, and of some easy verbs; then to give all the tenses of the indicative; they should be trained, at the same time in picking out the elements of a sentence: subject, verb, and attribute.

In the Third Year the exercises will be more advanced, more methodical in form, and they will follow the same rate of progression as the lessons in grammar. Pupils will state the parts of speech of words which they are parsing, their principal modifications, that is to say, the changes on account of gender, number, person, tense, etc., which they undergo, as well as the most simple relations between

them; subject, attribute, complement, etc.—In this year they should begin the study of the nature of the elements of a sentence.

During the Fourth Year, parsing, with the exception of some special difficulties reserved for syntax, will reach almost its full development; let it not be forgotten, however, that strange fancies, subtleties, and facts more curious than practical should not be substituted for useful knowledge. In logical analysis, let the study of the different kinds of clauses as well as of all that properly relates to syntax be reserved for the Intermediate Course, and let no time be lost in teaching purely curious and useless details. Pupils shall not be asked to parse every word of a sentence chosen at random, until the whole grammar has been studied; even then, the doing so frequently gives rise to wearisome and useless repetitions.

Rather let pupils be required to select—and this preferably in the dictations—on one occasion, all the words of a certain kind, on another, all the masculine and the feminine words, on another, the singular and the plural words, on another, the active verbs, on another, passive verbs, on another, intransitive or neuter verbs, etc.;—the modifications of given words; the relations between certain words. Let a similar plan be followed in teaching logical analysis.

It is only towards the end of his grammatical studies, that the pupil may be required, with advantage, to parse, as a recapitulatory exercise, a whole sentence, taking up each word in succession.

## SPELLING AND DICTATION

Well chosen dictations given in a regular and systematic manner contribute in a marked degree to the intellectual progress of the class. Fixed orthography, or the spelling of words as found in the dictionary, and inflectional orthography or the spelling of words inflected or modified in keeping with grammatical rules are the main purposes of dictation—but besides, writing, parsing, logical analysis, punctuation, the use of orthographic signs and of capitals, lexicology, even phraseology, style, and composition may be touched upon during these exercises, which provide the teacher with numerous occasions of making useful suggestions and remarks. Dictations—to be interesting—should be either the relation of a historical incident, the description of a useful invention, a letter, a memoir, a bill, the summary of any lesson, of object lessons, of lessons in science, especially in agriculture, selections in prose and verse; it is evident that there is no exercise which requires from the teacher more preparation and constant attention or which affords the pupils so many opportunities of acquiring useful knowledge.

But it is only on condition that dictations be properly graded and that they be supplemented by the different exercises laid down in the programme that all the advantages to be derived from them can be obtained. Teachers will, therefore, follow the instructions, given in the programme, which are sufficiently explicit. It is well to remember, however, that each dictation requires but a few exercises in connection with it; that they should be proportioned to the actual knowledge of the pupils; that very careful preparation is here required, in order that no time be lost, and that to each class only such knowledge as is absolutely necessary be given and nothing more.

Avoid specially prepared dictations containing the largest possible number of difficulties or of grammatical puzzles of no practical utility.

The manner in which dictations are given and corrected is not a matter of little importance. With adaptations to the different courses, the plan outlined below seems one of the best: 1. The teacher reads the dictation, explains its meaning

and indicates the difficult words; 2. he recalls to the minds of the pupils, the rules to be applied; 3. he dictates slowly, giving the punctuation in the lower classes — in the more advanced, indicating it by the tone of his voice and by pauses; 4. he reads anew the complete dictation; 5. he allows the pupils time to look over their work; 6. using the blackboard, he proceeds with the collective correction of the papers; he makes comments on the dictation from the different points of view; 7. he finds the standing of each pupil and of the class as a whole by a list of the errors made.

In correcting, several plans may be adopted: correction by the pupils, either individual or mutual, simultaneous with the collective correction; from time to time correction of a certain number of papers by the teacher himself. It is advisable to vary the employment of these plans, on one occasion one to be used, on another, another.

But, however great the labor which the teacher imposes on himself, his work will be useless unless he succeeds in leading his pupils to give the most painstaking attention to spelling in all their written work. Let his efforts in this connection be most persevering.

The natural place for exercises in oral parsing and logical analysis seems to be during dictations. On account of their direct application in dictations pupils acquire a better understanding of their utility and are therefore more interested in them.

Finally pupils should be taught how to use the dictionary before they leave the elementary course. The teacher should give such information as will enable them to overcome the difficulties which they will meet with when they consult a dictionary for the first time. He will, therefore, have them observe, that not only are the words in alphabetical order, but that the alphabetical order is not restricted to the first letter of every word but that it extends to all the letters of the words. He will draw their attention to the groups of letters at the head of each column of the dictionary, and will explain how these may be utilized in rapidly finding a word. He will show and explain the signs and abbreviations used. This work may be much simplified by a few exercises on the blackboard.

## ELEMENTARY LANGUAGE LESSONS AND COMPOSITION

It is often said, and perhaps not without truth, that the teaching given in language and composition in primary schools, is not what it should be. Such being the case an effort should be made to improve it. But how? By what means? Simply by increasing in all the classes, from the lowest to the highest, the exercises in language lessons and in composition. By speaking one learns to speak, by composing one learns to compose. Let then the children get as much exercise as possible in speaking, let those who are timid be encouraged to express themselves without shyness. Require that answers be clear, correct, complete. Let there be numerous exercises, both oral and written, in the use of words and in phraseology; numerous exercises in invention and arrangement of ideas—care being taken to vary these exercises sufficiently and to grade difficulties—according to the instructions given in the Course.

In the lower classes the explanations of the words of the lessons, in the higher the literary explanations of the lessons should be utilized in teaching language, thus increasing the time given to this subject without detriment to the others—these explanations having to be given in any case.

It is well known that children left to themselves are incapable of finding ideas, especially of joining or co-ordinating them when found, and consequently of formulating or expressing them in writing in a proper manner. Therefore they should be helped. First lessons in language, first attempts at composition should be prepared by pupils and teacher working together. Oral exercises to provide the young mind with ideas, words, and some knowledge of the order to be observed should precede written work. This preparation remarkable for its completeness in the lowest class, should diminish from year to year, until, in the highest classes it is but a simple statement of the subject to be treated.

The teacher should bear in mind, that the pupils will surely, though unconsciously, model their language on his. It is, therefore, his duty to watch himself with the greatest care. Let him banish from his speech all incorrect or careless expressions; let his language be clear, natural, and beautiful without affectation.

The foregoing are some of the means that may be used. There are others. Copying selections, transcribing selections from memory, making short sentences with given elements, giving an account of what has been read, making résumés of catechism, history, object lessons, etc., writing short letters to a father, godfather, etc., the narration of some incident of interest to the family, the description of the classroom, etc., all these are exercises in composition which may be begun early in the elementary course. Narration, description, letter-writing thus make their appearance in the schoolroom. All that is needed is to continue these exercises in the higher classes proportioning their development and difficulty to the knowledge of the pupils.

Besides these general means, there are special ones; in number three: teach pupils how to find ideas on a given subject; how to arrange these ideas in a logical and natural way; how to express them in clear, simple, natural, and appropriate language. All composition consists, in effect, in finding, arranging, and expressing ideas. The precepts, relating to these operations of the mind, studied in literature should serve as a guide when composition is first taken up in the *Model Course* and afterwards when it is continued in the *Academy Course*.

The pupils have already learned, in a practical way, to find, to classify, to express ideas. But this work has been largely done by the teacher. The time has arrived when they should be gradually deprived of such assistance and be obliged to rely more on their own personal efforts. They learn in literature the rules of invention, of arrangement and expression; the teacher's share in the preparation of compositions should gradually diminish, while on the other hand, his part in the correction of the pupils' work should suffer no decrease, it should even be more active, more careful, more exacting as time passes.

Compositions might be corrected after class. This is the rule prescribed in some countries. But in general it would require too much time. It is preferable to adopt the following plan: 1. after class hours read all compositions with sufficient care to be able to group them in three classes; good, pretty good, and bad; 2. choose two or three of each kind, to be read and corrected in class the following day; 3. indicate in what manner the subject should have been presented and divided, the principal ideas which should have been found and connected together; the secondary ideas which should naturally group themselves round the former; 4. while reading draw attention to faults of style, lack of precision, defective expressions, wrong terms, faulty spelling and grammar, etc.; 5. correct lame and incomplete sentences; 6. do not fail to encourage the pupils by giving praise to whatever is fairly good.

After all these corrections, criticisms and remarks, the composition appears in its revised form. All the pupils have labored at its correction, have contributed their share to its improvement, for, the teacher, in as far as possible, has carried

on the work of revision by means of questions. In this manner each pupil discovers in what his composition is wanting, and learns how he should set about treating the same subject if he were called upon to write his composition anew.

That language as well as style may be improved, let each pupil be called upon, after the correcting is finished to give an oral account of the subject treated, or at least let there be a conversation about the subject between pupils and teacher.

Finally, and this remark is of the very first importance, let subjects of composition be such as have to do with the every day life of the pupils. When the pupils shall have left school, they will not be called upon to describe the heroic deeds of past ages, to discuss philosophical maxims, to relate wonderful and incredible adventures; let the subjects of composition, therefore, be the ordinary events of life, the phenomena which the pupils are acquainted with, the accidents, joys, sorrows with which life is filled, services asked for or rendered, the expression of gratitude, of respect, or of sympathy, which kindness of heart, social relations, or christian virtue impose upon all.

## LITERATURE

The lessons in literature should be confined within limits which they cannot overstep without encroaching upon a domain which is not that of the Primary School.

These limits are defined by the object to be attained:

To teach pupils to distinguish, but very clearly—a task requiring more attention and reflexion than is generally supposed—prose and verse, simple and poetic language, the ordinary every day style, simple, concise, natural, correct, polished, which should be that of the pupils and the high style which they may admire but which is not for their use.

Also to teach pupils to distinguish the different kinds of literary composition with their divisions and subdivisions by means of their essential and characteristic traits;

To impart exact knowledge, experimentally, concerning the construction of some of the principal or more practical kinds of composition;

As a means of rendering exercises in composition more profitable, to the pupils, to give sufficient development to the lessons in the precepts of literature, which treat of invention, plan, and style, such development to be in all circumstances both elementary and void of useless or subtle details ;

To insist specially on the knowledge of the precepts treating of letter writing, narrations, and descriptions, probably the only kinds of composition which the pupils will be called upon to practice.

All the rest belongs to secondary education.

Two plans may be followed in this elementary study of the precepts of literature and of the different kinds of literary composition; to proceed from the rule, which has been explained to a literary model in which the rule is applied; to go from a model, previously studied to the rule of which the model is in a certain sense an illustration. Whichever plan is chosen, the programme clearly indicates that the method should be experimental, that is, there should be no disassociation of precepts from models. The study of the precepts and of the kinds of composition remains therefore intimately united with the explanations of the selections, however simple these latter may be. In this elementary study of literature the text-book is but a means of reviewing what has been learned; what is to be studied

in it should be limited to the strictly useful, all unnecessary details and over complicated enumerations being left out.

A narration, a description, a letter, a fable, an ode, a satire, etc., will furnish the occasion for giving the pupils very brief, but very exact information about these different kinds of literary composition. Well chosen fragments from different authors will throw light on some quality of style which is the subject of the day's lesson.

The taking up of much time with figures of rhetoric should be especially avoided. Pupils in primary schools can derive no benefit from the study of all these figures with technical names which are absolutely out of place in elementary text-books. Let the old and false classification into figures of words and figures of thought, founded on an ambiguity, give place to that of figures of imagination, of passion, of reasoning, a classification which though as yet somewhat indefinite is more exact than the first. This general classification is sufficient, it is unnecessary to give the names and definitions of the figures that go to make up each of the general classes.

It will neither be out of place nor difficult to give the pupils some slight knowledge of the History of Literature. The following plan might be adopted:

When a selection has been read, recited, or analysed, the name of the author might be mentioned, a very brief sketch of his life be given, with a few words of criticism, all of which the pupils should enter in their note-books.

In primary schools, the object of literary analysis is to develop, in the pupils, the reasoning faculty, with a taste for and admiration of the beautiful. With this end in view, literary analysis discovers and makes plain the ideas and qualities of the author, losing neither time nor thought on defects, if such there be; it shows how the masters of expression have respected, each in his own particular manner, the great laws of the art of writing, in language remarkable for logical construction, precision, propriety and harmony; it does not degenerate into a mass of useless remarks about trifles. Instead of suggesting to the pupils or inflicting on them ready-made judgments, the teacher should lead them to speak for themselves, to state simply what impression has been produced on them by the selection analysed and what they think of it.

Finally during the recitation of selections in verse, the teacher will give, and this at as early a period as possible, with the intention of returning to the subject later on, a few of the very simplest rules of prosody. These first notions may be limited to four or five principles. By this means the younger pupils would be put on their guard against the unconscious mutilation of verse of which they are sometimes guilty.

#### ENGLISH FOR FRENCH SCHOOLS or FRENCH FOR ENGLISH SCHOOLS

While the Programme of study allows teachers ample liberty concerning the choice of the special plans and devices to be used in teaching, yet with respect to this subject it recommends, what is known as the Natural Method, a method which consists in learning a language directly and not through the intermediary of the mother tongue.

For this reason, in the first years, the most important place is held, and almost exclusively so, by short exercises, in which the children are taught, without any recourse to translation, to name common and familiar objects shown to them.

It is evident that teaching according to this plan must be intuitive. The things spoken of, or representations of the same by pictures, drawings, etc., should be placed before the class. In teaching qualities, several objects having a common quality should be shown. The meaning of verbs may be made clear by executing, when it is possible to do so, the actions expressed. And so forth.

The intuitive means mentioned are all the more necessary because it is only exceptionally that the teacher is justified in saying a word in French or in English as the case may be.

It is true that the children do not yet understand the second language, but the Natural Method, the one which the mother employs instinctively in teaching the child to speak—consists in training the pupils' ears to recognize spoken words or names of things, then to express these words or names.

Reading should not be taught until the Second Year, when the children are sufficiently advanced to understand what they read; but there is no reason why they should not learn the elements of reading during the First Year; by so doing they save time. That they may acquire a good pronunciation, the best plan to follow, in teaching them to read, is to begin with type-words, decomposing these into syllables, articulations, and sounds or vowels.

In every exercise, the teacher should pay particular attention to pronunciation and accentuation. He should correct every defect with untiring patience and perseverance.

As soon as the pupil's vocabulary is ample enough, his capacity for expressing his ideas in very simple sentences sufficiently developed, let him begin to study such elements of grammar as may be of practical use to him. Let the study of these elements be accompanied by appropriate dictations, and oral and written exercises of invention and application.

The two languages, French and English, have many rules common to both; it follows therefore, that the pupil's knowledge of French grammar may serve as the basis of the lessons in English grammar or *vice-versa*. In presenting this subject the teacher will therefore, when opportunity offers, lead his pupils to discover the identity, or the analogy of certain rules in each language. This comparison of the rules governing each language is of great interest to the pupils and tends to develop in them habits of reflection.

The Natural Method should be employed in all the classes, but in the higher ones it may be gradually supplemented by oral and written exercises in translation; first, versions; translations from French into English; afterwards from time to time, easy themes, putting English into French. The pupil's attention should be drawn in a special manner to the difference in construction between English and French sentences.

This mixed method offers no difficulty when employed with advanced pupils and it has the advantage of training them in a kind of work which is of practical use in every day affairs.

## MATHEMATICS

### ARITHMETIC

By means of objects to develop in the mind of the child, a clear, exact idea of number. to show him how to form numbers by the help of these objects, to teach him to name the numbers and to represent them by figures,—with the help of objects, also to train him to solve, first orally, then with figures, very simple, short, easy, familiar problems in addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, at first separately, then in combinations,—this is to teach numeration, notation, and the simple



rules, by going from the concrete to the abstract, from the known to the unknown, from the particular to the general, from the easy to the less easy,—the only rational and profitable method with young children,—the only method which should be employed in the lower classes and the one which should hold the most important place all through the elementary course.

It is, therefore, by means of objects easily handled,—for instance, marbles, or better still, kindergarten sticks representing units, and bundles of the same, representing tens, or of points on the blackboard,—that the young mind should acquire the first knowledge of number. It is again by means of objects or representations of the same, by diagrams, by different examples, first solved mentally, that the pupil should be helped to assimilate new knowledge as it is presented to him.

It is not necessary to state that objects should be discarded as soon as it is perfectly clear that the pupils understand the meaning of abstract numbers. The idea is to lead pupils to the abstract through the concrete, then abandoning the latter, to return to it only when it is perceived that figures are no longer associated in the pupil's mind with clear, well defined notions of the numbers which they represent, but with words, the names of numbers.

To sum up, the following order should be adopted in teaching arithmetic to beginners: intuition; mental and oral work; written work; theoretical knowledge, limited to what is absolutely necessary, should be deduced from carefully chosen well graded examples. Definitions are given only when the operations to which they apply are already well understood. For example, to small children already able to solve problems in the simple rules, using concrete or abstract numbers, and acquainted with the signs of the operations, the teacher will simply say:  $4 + 3 = 7$  this is an addition;  $7 - 2 = 5$ , this is a subtraction;  $3 \times 3$  or three times three ( $3 + 3 + 3$ ) = nine, this is a multiplication; share 8 apples among four children, 2 to each (or  $8 \div 4 = 2$ ), this is a division. More complete definitions should not be given till a later period.

Mental arithmetic, which is the basis of the knowledge of numbers and of the surest short cuts, should receive special attention from the teacher in every class. Pupils will, therefore, be trained from the beginning in calculating mentally, but the work should be reasoned and not done mechanically. It is well to remember that mental work deals with numbers and not with figures; were it otherwise, the teacher would have his pupils doing written work in their minds. Mental arithmetic has processes of its own which differ from those of written arithmetic. The child should be taught these processes, and it is the teacher's duty to explain them to him and to see to it that he employs them. Thus in adding 57 and 38, the pupil should, in thought, decompose the two numbers into tens and units; 50 and 30, 80, to which should be added 7 plus 8 to form 95 in all. In the same way in adding 257 and 138, the numbers should be decomposed, in the mind, into hundreds, tens, and units:  $200 + 100 = 300$ ;  $50 + 30 = 80$ ; in all 380, to which should be added  $7 + 8$  to make 395. Similar devices should be followed in all exercises done mentally.

It is even desirable that problems of all kinds be first solved mentally, small numbers being used for this purpose, before being given to be worked out in writing, with large numbers.

But the first and most important point is that new elements be presented gradually and progressively, that they be accompanied by numerous applications which shall cause them to sink into the mind and to fix themselves in the memory in a lasting manner. At this point a few examples will not be out of place. It is desired to teach intuitively the abstract truth that 4 and 4 make 8; the pupils are shown 4 marbles and 4 marbles, 4 pencils and 4 pencils, 4 points (:) and 4 points (:) perceiving that, in each case, the sum is 8, they conclude that 4 and 4 always make 8. A similar course is followed in teaching subtraction, multiplication, and division,—

care being taken in each case, to pass by slow degrees from the concrete: 6 apples, 6 points, 2 oranges, 2 points, to the abstract numbers 6, 2.

When pupils have a thorough knowledge of all the cases, in the four simple rules, which offer no difficulty, the more complicated cases should be considered. These will soon be mastered, if the teacher presents them only one at a time and grades them properly. In subtraction, for instance, if each figure of the subtrahend is smaller than the corresponding one of the minuend, as 44—22, there is no difficulty. But if a figure of the minuend is smaller than the corresponding one of the subtrahend, as 42—28, there is a difficulty and the child should be taught to overcome it by borrowing. If the minuend contains a naught, or zero, as 40—28, the difficulty is greater, and the child should be brought to see the advantage which there is in substituting the method by compensation to that by borrowing. In teaching the other operations a similar plan is followed; if difficulties are exactly graded, pupils, as already stated, will have no trouble in understanding.

The teacher will observe the same progressive and well graded order in teaching all other parts of the course. Suppose, that in teaching fractions, an apple, a sheet of paper have been cut, first into unequal, then into equal parts. By intuition, by handling the portions of the sheet, by exercises of superposition, pupils can be easily led to see and to understand that 3 equal parts of a sheet of paper which has been divided into 4 equal parts, are equal in quantity to 9 equal parts of the same sheet cut into 12 equal parts; this fact once perceived it is but a step to the understanding of the rule that: when the terms of a fraction are multiplied by the same number, the value of the fraction does not change; a very slight effort will carry pupils over this step. When the pupil has learned intuitively that thirds cannot be compared directly with fourths, another slight effort will enable him to understand that these fractions can be compared, when they have been changed into twelfths, for twelfths can be compared with twelfths, and from this to the changing of different fractions to others having a common denominator, for the purpose of adding or subtracting fractions, is but another step.

Enough has been said to indicate the manner of proceeding in teaching all the different parts of the course, without entering into further details, which would take up too much space. It is the teacher's duty to make himself thoroughly acquainted with the method so far explained and to apply it constantly.

It is evident, however, that the first principles of numeration should be acquired intuitively, that is by means of objects, beans, pencils, kindergarten sticks, representing units, and others representing tens. The pupil should take an active part in each lesson; it is not a question of teaching him much at a time, but of developing in his mind the idea of number, of rendering him able, in the shortest possible time, to form, read, and write numbers, with confidence. This result is reached only in one way, by very numerous exercises. At first the young pupil counts objects, individually and collectively from 1 to 10; then by two's; then from 10 to 1, etc. Similar exercises are afterwards given in counting from 10 to 20, from 20 to 100. It is absolutely necessary that this first study of numbers should be thorough. It is especially important that the pupil see and understand that 1 ten is equivalent to 10 units, etc., that figures have an absolute value, the same in all circumstances, and a relative value depending on the place which they occupy. The teaching of the simplest cases of the four fundamental rules should go on concurrently with the teaching of numeration; this rule is clearly laid down in the Course.

The teaching of the different tables: long measure, measures of weight, dry and liquid measure, money, etc., should, at the beginning, be intuitive and, in as far as possible, experimental. Let the pupils themselves measure lengths, capacities, weigh objects, count money, etc. However clear the teacher's explanations they are never so effective as the experiments performed by the pupils themselves.

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A few remarks on the nature and kinds of problems are also necessary.

In the first place it is inadvisable to leave the choice of the problems to be given, to the inspiration of the moment. After having thought about the problems, the teacher should write them out, or he may take them from a text-book, or from a pedagogic journal, but whatever the source from which he takes his problems, let him, after carefully examining the data, understand perfectly what is required. The most judicious plan is to form a collection himself, with problems for each year of the Course. This is the best means of making sure that his teaching will follow a well defined order and be properly graded.

In the second place, it is advisable that the problems be founded largely on facts well known and of practical interest. Facts more curious than useful, problems worded in an intentionally puzzling manner, data wanting in exactness or truth, should have no place in the teacher's collection; on the contrary, it should only contain problems of which the data are drawn from things well known and of general use. From the very beginning the children work with numbers representing things and quantities of which the knowledge is useful. Later they have problems dealing with the population of the village, of the parish, of the county, of the Province, of the whole of Canada. They are asked to calculate the distance between the locality, in which they live, and the neighboring village, the nearest town, the Provincial capital, the Federal capital. They have exercises, the numbers in which represent the lengths of the principal Canadian rivers, the heights of the highest mountains, the dates of the most remarkable events in our history, etc., etc. The data of the problems should be taken principally from the ordinary circumstances of life, from every day transactions, from the trades, industries, professions of the country, from domestic economy, agricultural book-keeping, the cost and proceeds of cultivating a farm, an orchard, a vegetable garden, keeping poultry, managing a cheese factory, from the losses caused by intemperance, laziness, luxury, etc., etc. Problems prepared in the manner just stated offer three advantages: they render the lessons more lively and interesting; they provide the child with a fund of useful knowledge; they give him the training which will enable him to solve the real problems of life.

In general, children should not be called upon to work out problems containing numbers of more than three or at most four figures. Additions alone may contain larger numbers, but all other exercises should be on numbers which are not large, such as are most commonly met with in actual life. This rule is as applicable to fractions as to whole numbers.

Finally it is an excellent custom to ask the pupils themselves to compose problems on a given part of the arithmetic. There is nothing better calculated to make them understand and remember the nature of the processes and the manner of reaching the desired results.

In connection with this question of problems, there is another point which is of considerable importance; it is the manner of solving problems. Immediately below the written statement of the question all the numbers to be retained should be placed on a single horizontal line with an initial letter indicating what each represents; below this first line, numbers representing things of the same kind should be grouped together. With this arrangement and grouping, the pupil has a better grasp of the numbers, he more easily perceives the relations between them, and it becomes a less difficult task to find the comparisons and reasoning which lead to the solution. For the sake of clearness and to facilitate the work of correction it is an advantage to divide the page into halves by a vertical line; calculations are placed on the left while the reasoning is written on the right.

Pupils often imagine that they are reasoning when they are simply stating what they are doing. The teacher should correct them of this defect. In the same

connection, it is not enough that pupils should be made to explain what they are doing, and why they are doing it, but they should be required to express themselves correctly in full, clear, exact sentences. It is easy to obtain precision and propriety of language in teaching this subject, and when the pupil, thanks to the teacher, has acquired the habit of correct speech during classes in arithmetic, it is not probable he will lose it during lessons in other subjects.

In correcting, the best plan is to have the whole class follow while the problems under consideration are solved on the blackboard. Pupils should be trained to determine exactly what is required, to distinguish this quantity clearly from the others given in the problem, to proceed from the known to the unknown, to persevere in the study of a solution until every part of it is thoroughly understood. It is during this exercise that the different solutions of a given problem, where several solutions are possible, should be compared; that the reason why one is preferable to the others should be stated, that pupils should be made acquainted with short cuts and with cancellation.

As there may be some advantage in varying the manner of correcting, from time to time, the mutual method, or the individual one may be resorted to.

### ACCOUNTS

This subject should be taught intuitively. To begin with a series of definitions would be a grave pedagogic error. Definitions are not even always necessary; all that is required is that the pupils shall acquire gradually by observation and practice a clear and exact idea of the subject.

The best plan is to begin by teaching pupils to draw up the most generally used commercial forms: invoices, receipts, farmers' accounts, workmen's accounts, promissory notes, accounts, etc. The pupils are acquainted to a certain extent with these forms; they have already acquired some knowledge of them during writing and arithmetic lessons and during dictations. What remains to be done is to make the pupils thoroughly familiar with the different forms, in a word, to increase and render more exact the knowledge of which they are already possessed. For this purpose let there be fictitious commercial transactions of different kinds: sales, purchases, floating of loans, etc. In the carrying out of these transactions pupils will be required to make out each of the above mentioned commercial forms.

While commercial forms are being studied such little accounts as children themselves might be expected to keep should be taken up to be followed almost immediately by family and farm accounts. But here again the knowledge should be gained intuitively and experimentally.

Let the teacher place on the blackboard a model of the form which a person who keeps account of his receipts and disbursements may use, in order to exhibit how it should be ruled, etc. He should then fill in this form, questioning the pupils, and making out, to a great extent, from their answers, a very simple account of receipts and disbursements.

The pupil's attention will be awakened. He is easily interested in any exercise in which he takes an active part. He will learn, almost as he would a new game, how to enter a transaction, post an item, balance an account, etc.

Family accounts may now be considered. They will be somewhat more complicated. In these receipts and disbursements will figure under different heads, for instance: food, heat, light, washing, clothes, insurance, taxes, etc. But as the pupil already understands book-keeping, in a general way, these new elements will not offer any serious difficulties. Farm accounts will be another step forward. Pupils are taught to rule a Cash-Book, and to enter in it, in the order in which they take place, such receipts and disbursements as are of common occurrence on the farm.

They should learn also how to rule the Journal, and be trained in entering therein, daily, such transactions as are commonly met with in the working of a farm: pur-

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chases, sales, barter, etc. At first purchases and sales are for cash, then on account, some are even on notes. But all transactions are found or invented by the pupil under the direction of the teacher.

Balances, inventories, statements are taken up in the same manner.

If new ideas are exposed in their natural order, and one at a time, the pupil will understand without difficulty.

At this point, it may be truly said that many different kinds of transactions and of entries, have been presented intuitively to the pupil in their natural order, have been explained to him, and named for him. He is now provided with a fair knowledge of the subject and pretty familiar with the special vocabulary of the book-keeper.

He is sufficiently prepared to take up the study of commercial book-keeping.

The teaching of this part is, it is true, more complicated. Yet, though the effort required of the pupil may appear considerable, it is not too great for his capacity, thanks to the knowledge already in his possession. Pupils will take to this subject with pleasure, if the teacher continues to divide up the difficulties, so that they may be more easily overcome, and if the exercises follow each other in a natural and well graded order according to the plan here outlined.

In business life there are many different applications of the principles of book-keeping to suit the varying requirements of commerce or industry. No doubt, the teacher may, if he feel so inclined, give his lessons in such a way as to meet the future special needs of his pupils, but, above all, he should teach the general and essential principles of book-keeping, which are always the same. The whole art of book-keeping consists in knowing how to open a set of books, how to keep them, when opened, and how to close them.

## MENSURATION

Mensuration must not be confounded with pure geometry, which consists in a long series of theorems to be demonstrated. The mensuration of the Intermediate and Academy courses comprises only elementary ideas of the principal figures and volumes, with rules for their measurement. However, there need not be anything vague or indefinite in these elements of applied geometry which should only be such as can be applied directly in elementary mensuration.

The teaching given in this subject should be essentially intuitive and practical.

Pupils should be given the figures to handle or, at least, the figures, which form the subject of each lesson, should be exactly drawn on the blackboard. The intuitive, analytical, and reasoned study of each figure, or solid, will lead to the definition and representation of it by the pupils, after which, the teacher will have its dimensions measured and its actual surface, or volume calculated before asking for the surface, or volume of figures or solids, which are not before the pupils. To test the pupil's knowledge and stamp the elements studied, more firmly in his mind and memory, he should be called upon not only to define the figure, but also to describe it orally—first with the figure or solid in view, afterwards from memory. These descriptions carefully corrected, and when necessary completed by the teacher, form, moreover, exercises in composition, which are recommended in a special manner as an excellent means of teaching precision of thought and language.

Demonstrations which are too scientific should not be given; but by analysing, constructing exact figures, combining, superposing, and comparing, pupils are led to discover elementary demonstrations which are amply sufficient. Thus by means of a few lines it is easy to lead pupils to see that a triangle is the half of a parallelogram having the same base and the same height, that any parallelogram is equal in surface to a rectangle having the same base and the same height. Treating solids

in the same manner, there is nothing easier than to show by means of a triangular prism properly dissected, that the triangular prism is formed of three equivalent pyramids, having the same base and the same height as the prism; from this it will be a very simple matter to draw the conclusion that the volume of a triangular pyramid is found by multiplying the surface of its base by one-third of its height. A similar plan should be followed with respect to all the other elementary formulæ which the pupil needs to know.

Finally, the instruction is rendered more practical by bringing to the pupil's notice different surfaces, in the schoolroom, which belong to the same class as the figures explained during the lessons in mensuration; by illustrating the solids studied by means of natural and commercial products—example: cylinder = pencil, pen-handle, gas pipe, farm roller; by having the regular and irregular surfaces which pupils have before their eyes measured, the irregular surfaces to be divided up in such a way as to make of them regular ones, etc.

### ALGEBRA

In teaching algebra, let arithmetic be used both as the basis and the instrument.

This plan offers many advantages.

The resemblance between the processes of arithmetic and algebra will help the pupil to understand the second. In both arithmetic and algebra, the object being the same, *i.e.*, the solution of problems, permits of the teacher giving a concrete and positive basis to his explanations of necessary algebraic theory.

In applying this method, do not begin by addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. It is not denied that this is the order followed in text-books on the subject. But the matter in these works is so arranged as to avoid repetitions, and to present the reasoning of the theorems in an unbroken chain. With pupils following the classes of the Academy course, the arrangement should be altogether different. Let the work begin with problems which should be followed by such rules as are needed, presented in the order and manner best calculated to interest the pupils, and to make evident the utility of the rule. This is the natural method for Academy pupils. Repetitions which may be an inconvenience in a book do not present the same disadvantages in an oral course. On the contrary, pupils should be required to apply themselves again and again to the same subject, so that the impression on the intelligence may become more lasting. To make sure that his explanations have been heard, understood and retained, the teacher should review frequently; if he fail to do so, he will be astonished at the apparently great want of memory noticeable in his pupils, and at the number of mistakes which they will make.

In keeping with what has been just stated, it seems the best plan to begin by numerical equations based on very simple problems in arithmetic, even in mental arithmetic. Example: Louis has three times as many apples as Joseph and together they have 24; how many has each? This problem would be solved by arithmetic as follows: Joseph's number plus three times his number equals 24. Therefore, four times Joseph's number equals 24; whence once his number equals  $24 \div 4 = 6$ , etc. Now, if to be more brief, we let  $x$  represent Joseph's number, we shall simply say:  $x$  plus 3 times  $x$  (or  $3x$ ) equal 24; therefore  $4x = 24$ ; whence  $x = 6$  and  $3x = 18$ .

Thus we have passed imperceptibly from the language of objects or of arithmetic to that of symbols or of algebra.

These simple exercises may be increased at will. They show how letters may be used in calculation.

The pupil will be delighted to find that, by means of this new device, he can

reach a solution much more rapidly than by the processes which he has hitherto employed, and that the reasoning is far less laborious. He has been won over to the study of algebra, a most desirable result. Instead of constantly complaining that algebra leads to nothing, he now desires to increase and perfect his knowledge of the subject. The opportunity is seized to introduce easy literal equations, and to explain what is meant by coefficient and exponent.

The pupil recognizes that he has a new art to learn, that of arranging literal quantities in such a way as to reach a clear, well defined result. And quite frequently he will himself ask to be taught the four fundamental processes.

The teacher should lose no time in complying with his request. Nevertheless, before doing so, it is an excellent idea to familiarize him with algebraic expressions, by easy exercises on the numerical values given to letters. In teaching the four fundamental processes, the teacher should, at first, confine himself, to proving the correctness of the rule, by referring in each case to the pupil's knowledge of arithmetic. But that the pupil may be well trained in algebraical calculation, it is necessary that he be given numerous, well-graded exercises, corresponding to examples previously explained on the blackboard.

Factoring simple expressions, the simplifying of fractions and the solution of equations and problems of the first degree should then be taken up.

At this point the teacher should review the elements already acquired, explaining and developing them more fully before proceeding with his lessons, which may, henceforth, be of a more scientific character.

This rational plan may appear somewhat difficult of execution, but the teacher should, at least, follow it as closely as he can, passing lightly over addition, subtraction, etc., in order to take up numerical and literal equations, as soon as possible, and returning later to the first pages of the text-book.

## GEOGRAPHY

During the first two years, the teaching should be completely intuitive and, whenever possible, be given in sight of whatever is spoken of. The children are being taught what is meant by an island, a lake, a gulf, etc., there is no better plan than to represent with earth and water the things spoken of, than to draw their attention to any island, lake, etc., if such there be in the neighborhood. Then in order to prepare the pupils to understand maps and the globe, the teacher sketches, on the blackboard, the things already studied. In the same way, the first notions of orientation are given intuitively, by asking pupils to observe the position of the sun; in the morning, at midday, and towards evening. Very early in the Course, pupils are taught the conventional orientation of a plan, a map, a globe.

For this purpose it is a good idea to proceed in the following manner: a board or slate is placed horizontally before the pupils; they are asked to indicate the cardinal points. Each answer is marked N., S., E., W.; they are then asked to determine the position of the school, of the church, of the roads, etc., all of which are represented on the slate by small rectangles; the board, or slate, is then suspended on the wall, with N at the top, and the conclusion is drawn, that, on plans and maps it is the universal custom for the cardinal points to be placed in the same positions as those which they occupy on the slate. The interest and attention of the pupils is kept from flagging by numerous questions. A simple definition, illustrated by a blackboard sketch, may be recited by the pupils in concert, but a text-book on geography is of no use in teaching such young pupils.

During the whole period of the elementary course, the teaching remains intuitive; but it gradually becomes more definite. In the Third Year, the children have an atlas for map study. The recitation of the résumé of the preceding lesson links the latter with that of the day, for, in the study of this complex subject, it is essen-

tial that there be a close connection between the different lessons. In this year, exercises in map-drawing should be commenced; at first the maps should be copies—then they should be drawn from memory. It is the only way to give the pupils an exact idea of the respective situations of places, of their dimensions, relative importance, etc., to make them remember the form and the windings of boundaries, of mountains, rivers, etc. Therefore, during each lesson, the pupils should have before them a special sketch illustrating the part studied. To facilitate the work of observation and reproduction, the teacher first draws a rectangle, the proportions of whose dimensions are given—which rectangle he divides, when necessary, into two or four squares. The rectangle is called the circumscribing figure. The circumscribing figure may take other forms than that of the rectangle, forms which have a general resemblance to the shape of the map which it is intended to trace. This diversity of forms will interest the pupils and will imprint, in a most lasting manner, in their memories, the general appearance of countries studied. *Résumés*, definitions, and enumerations will be recited individually, or in concert, but always with the map in view.

In dealing with the more abstract parts, some means of explaining them concretely should be devised. An apple cut into two parts, in different directions, will give an exact idea of the hemispheres, of the equator, of the meridians, and consequently of the latitude and longitude of a place.

The great natural divisions: physical geography, political geography, industrial and commercial geography, are studied separately; but they should not be kept too much apart, for in many cases they overlap, and the knowledge of one division helps in understanding the others. That there may be logical sequence in the lessons, the following order is recommended: The appearance of the land with its hills and mountains having been described, the river, coasts, climate, productions of all kinds, means of communication, industry, interior and exterior trade and commerce should be spoken of; interesting details should be given concerning the appearance of different regions, the manners, customs, religions, languages of the inhabitants; the political and administrative divisions, etc., should be indicated, the great monuments should be briefly alluded to, etc., care being taken to point out that all of these things are the consequences the one of the other. In this way rational associations of ideas are formed in the pupils' minds, they are led to take an interest in geography and thus to understand it more easily.

Let it not be forgotten that the most practical and useful part of geography is that which treats of economical questions: agriculture, industry, commerce, railroads and means of communication. All these questions should be studied with the greatest care, frequently reviewed, gradually developed, not only in the geography of Canada, but in the geography of other countries, and especially in that of countries having commercial relations with Canada, that is to say, the United States, Great Britain, France, Germany, the West Indies, South America, Belgium, China, Japan, Switzerland, Newfoundland, Holland, Portugal, Italy, Spain, Australia, etc. No characteristic detail on any of these points is unimportant, especially with the older pupils. Comparisons are of great help, in this connection, in simplifying numerical data: commercial, agricultural, and industrial statistics, with those of imports and exports, of canals, ports, railroads, etc. These figures being variable and changing from year to year will be out of date when the pupil leaves school. Of what use is it to load his memory with them. In place of figures let comparisons, approximations—by means of lines—be used. For instance, let pupils be told that last year the commerce of Canada was, in round numbers, \$1,112,000,000; imports amounted to about \$633,000,000; exports to \$479,000,000; therefore imports exceeded exports by \$154,000,000, in round numbers. These approximations are close enough to the truth and are easily retained, while the actual figures with the difference would soon be forgotten. Or again let them be told that Canada exports to England products of a given value, to the United States one-half as much, and so forth, with respect to exports to the West Indies, to Australia, France, Germany, etc. Or again, on the blackboard let there be drawn lines of different length to represent approximately our imports and exports.

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These simplifying processes should be used also in dealing with other numbers, populations, heights of mountains, lengths of rivers, dimensions of lakes, etc. Less definite than figures, they, nevertheless, produce so clear an impression on the mind by their resemblances or contrasts, that the memory retains it without difficulty.

If the simplifying of numerical data and even of other geographical information is extremely useful in studying Canada, the same process is still more necessary in dealing with other countries, in which case what is to be retained may be generalized and abridged to a much greater extent.

This last remark sufficiently determines the limits within which the geography of foreign countries should be confined.

Finally, from time to time, the teacher may supplement the lessons in the textbook by well chosen extracts from books of travel, works on popular science, or literary descriptions from modern writers.

## CIVICS

The course in this subject should be restricted to elementary lessons on the constitution of Canada and more particularly on that of the Province of Quebec.

The method should vary with the degree of advancement of the pupils.

At the beginning there should be no special mention of Civics in the time-table. The terms employed in this subject should be explained during the reading lesson and especially during classes in history and geography, according as they are met with; or again on the occasion of a municipal election, of a visit of the school commissioners, of a pastoral visit, etc.

In familiar conversations with the pupils, the teacher will restrict himself to fixing in their minds a few principal points by means of things known to them. Let there be no definitions, but facts observed and names. Such then should be the object of the first course in Civics.

During the Fourth Year and those that follow, it is advantageous to use a textbook. It should be read in the order indicated in the programme. Pupils should be able to give an account of what they have read as well as of the explanations they have received. They should not be asked to learn definitions except when it is unavoidable. Facts, with which the pupils are familiar, skilfully explained, will afford more practical information than the best definitions. The way to proceed is to start from well-known events which have taken place in the locality, thus awakening the pupils' interest in the information to be imparted, then to pass on to the working of the institution under consideration and to the demonstration of its utility.

From time to time, pupils should be given a general view of the lessons read, by means of brief résumés placed on the blackboard. In these résumés, institutions having certain features in common should be grouped and compared. For example, the local municipality, the school municipality, the county council, the province, are corporations which present more than one point of resemblance. The curiosity of the pupils will be aroused, and their knowledge will be more exact if they themselves are asked to discover the points of resemblance and of contact of the different institutions which are being studied.

History, and Geography, perhaps still more, are closely related to Civics; the teacher should not, however, confound these three subjects. He should reserve for the lessons in Civics what specially pertains to it, i.e., the constitution and functions of public bodies; for those in Geography, the various forms of government; and for those in history, useful comparisons between the past and the present.

Civics may be made the basis of excellent lessons in patriotism.

## HISTORY OF CANADA

History of Canada properly so called is not taught to the youngest pupils. The most that can be done is to tell them interesting anecdotes. Then to ask them such simple questions as are calculated to arouse their attention. In a word these lessons consist of familiar and interesting talks or better still, when it is possible to do so, in teaching history from pictures.

The best way in which to give children an exact idea of the past is to compare it with the present: the country we now inhabit is well cultivated, crossed in every direction by highways and railroads, etc., formerly Canada was covered by forests, etc.

At a later period, in teaching pupils provided with text-books, the teacher will proceed in a similar manner as in the classes in Sacred History. The order of the lessons will be the same. To the devices already mentioned, the following may be added: the writing on the blackboard of the names of the historical characters who are about to figure in the lesson, the names of the places which are to be the scenes of the events, terms unknown to the pupils with a word of explanation, the principal ideas to be retained, each numbered; in this manner the pupil's imagination is stimulated and his memory powerfully assisted.

Here again, in studying and reciting, the child should be trained to give in his own words the meaning of the lesson in the book; for it should be perfectly understood, that, except in a few very rare cases, lessons in history should not be learned by rote.

From anecdotal and biographical, which it was in the first years, the course should, later on, become explanatory. It then becomes a connected series of facts, with their simplest causes and consequences, and begins to exhibit the successive stages through which the national life of the country has passed.

At the same time the number of questions should be greatly increased, the largest possible number of pupils should be called upon for answers, and they should be induced to express their own opinions and judgments upon the matter under consideration.

With older pupils the lesson should be a narration, an explanation, and a comparison. At this period, therefore, it is advantageous to review and compare the elements already learned, that the ideas of the pupils on the different phases of national history may become more exact, and that the characteristic features of Canadian History may be more firmly fixed in their minds. For this purpose all the different elements relating to a given event should be grouped together in the same lesson. This is the best means of making sure that there shall be both order and unity in the knowledge acquired.

By this method, history will be reviewed several times, each time with new details, with considerations in keeping with the age of the pupils and with what they already know. Each new point presented at the right moment, neither too early nor too late, will be better understood and more easily remembered. It is on this account that the programme has been drawn up according to the concentric plan, care being taken to avoid anything that might seem too fastidious in the method.

In all grades, the teacher would do well to remember that the indicating on the map of places, mentioned during history lessons; the drawing of historical maps, and the writing of tables of dates of principal events—especially those marking the beginning and the end of remarkable epochs—are of the very greatest importance.

The nature and form of the written exercises should vary with the class. The more advanced pupils may be asked to relate an interesting event, to make a résumé or a synoptical table of an administration, or of a period, or to prepare an essay, establishing a comparison between events of a like nature. Résumés of lessons,

previously prepared orally, the drawing of maps, on which are indicated the scenes of the events related, or what is still more simple, answers of three or four lines to a couple of questions, are the most that may be required of the younger pupils. With the youngest pupils it will be sufficient to have them copy or to dictate to them summaries, or very brief résumés of the lessons.

To ascertain whether pupils have retained or not what they have been taught, it is an excellent custom to frequently review, either orally or in writing.

In lessons in History of Canada, the teacher should follow also the direction given with respect to the history of other countries. He should especially remember the remarks concerning reviews and the reading of appropriate selections.

The works of Canadian poets and prose writers afford him a wide field from which to choose.

Finally let the teacher consider it a sacred duty to cultivate in the breasts of his pupils the spirit of patriotism, the love of their native country, a strong attachment to national traditions and institutions, an abiding respect for our religious faith.

## HISTORY OF FRANCE AND OF ENGLAND

In teaching these Histories, the general directions given concerning Sacred History, History of Canada, and History of the Church, should be followed. Such modifications as are necessary will present themselves naturally to the mind of the teacher.

Three or four special remarks will, therefore, suffice in the present case.

In many instances the same facts will present themselves in the Histories of the three nations just mentioned. Having studied them in the History of one country, it does not follow that no notice should be taken of them in those of the others, on the ground that they have already been considered. On the contrary, they should be reviewed from the standpoint of the nation whose history is being studied. It is evident, however, that the review should be more or less brief, as occasion may require. History studied in this manner helps to form the pupils' judgment and to train them to observe.

Whenever the subject permits, the teacher should compare the nations studied—he should especially compare Canada with the other countries. If well prepared, such comparisons, first in connection with one point, then with another, will give life and variety to the lessons, will excite the curiosity of the pupils, and will tend to develop, in them, habits of reflection.

Let the teacher's attention be given principally to the history of persons and events that every one is supposed to know about. He should have no hesitation in relating appropriate historical anecdotes; there are traits and sayings which are as famous as the most brilliant feats of arms. For this reason no one should be ignorant of them.

Finally, let the teacher see to it, that the pupil, when recalling an event, remember also the period of its occurrence. To succeed in this, without overloading the pupil's memory with dates, is an art, a difficult art. Very clear divisions of time, well-defined epochs, containing groups of facts, are used in lieu of a multiplicity of dates. Thus if a pupil be unable to give the exact date of an event, he may state, at least, the epoch to which it belongs without committing too glaring an anachronism. There are, however, certain dates which should be known exactly. These the teacher collects in chronological tables, which pupils are required to recite from time to time.

The course provides for reviews, at regular intervals, in nearly all subjects. Review exercises are especially necessary in the case of History. The last lesson of

the week, more brief than the others, should be completed by a review of all the lessons of the week. One or two lessons at the end of each month should be reserved for reviews. Finally, a general review should take place just before examinations. The best means of doing effective work in this connection is, while studying anew what has been already learned, to avoid monotony and hold the attention of the pupils by new details and new comparisons, by the reading of selections which throw a stronger light on the subject, in a word, by neglecting nothing calculated to render the lessons more attractive. How many opportunities are thus afforded the pupils of understanding and admiring beautiful selections in prose and verse.

Our own history, no less than that of foreign countries, offers in this respect a rich field, in which our poets and prose writers have reaped a glorious harvest. The only difficulty is that of selecting.

## DRAWING

### GENERAL DIRECTIONS

The teaching of drawing, in the primary school, has for object:

1.—To promote technical knowledge which is useful to all classes and indispensable in industry and in the manual arts.

2.—To give life and interest to the study of the other branches of the school course by illustrating them.

3.—To contribute to complete development: (a) by developing in a distinct manner observation and initiative, imagination and judgment; (b) by purifying the taste and by cultivating habits of method and of precision: (c) by training the eye and giving dexterity to the hand.

To attain these ends, the following Rules have been proved to be specially efficacious:

1.—Lead the pupils gradually to more clearly see, more accurately express, and more exactly retain forms and colours as they APPEAR OR MAY APPEAR: (a) by *direct* observation and representation of the model from nature; (b) by works of imagination, by graphic summaries of lessons, and by illustrations of exercises; (c) by drawings from memory.

2.—Teach to analyse, to draw, and to use forms as they ARE OR MAY BE (a) by sketches and working drawings (elevations, plans, and sections) of *real or imagined objects*; (b) by sketches of patterns for manual training or for needle work.

3.—Render expert in handling the ruler, the square, the compass, and the protractor: (a) by exact drawings of geometrical constructions; (b) by exact copying, to different scales, of freehand working sketches drawn previously at sight or imagined by the pupil himself.

4.—Familiarize with the first laws of decoration and of harmony of colours, by the most usual applications of those laws.

These rules are those of the programme, that is to say the "METHOD" to be followed. Consequently, they must never be lost sight of in teaching.

Nevertheless, the teacher must decide for himself to which exercises he shall attach the most importance: this will depend on the locality, the means at his disposal, and on individual needs.

### RECOMMENDATIONS.

1.—The wise teacher is more interested in developing the child's faculties by numerous, diversified, rapidly executed exercises than in getting him to make

beautiful drawings. Instead of imposing he proposes, of correcting he suggests, of criticising he encourages; he advances step by step with his pupils and descends to their level. Only in this manner can he reach their intelligence and give life to the elements which the programme requires him to teach.

2.—The drawing lessons should be given, from the beginning of the school year, each week, to all the pupils, during class hours.

3.—Each of the exercises of the Programme should receive, regularly, its due share of attention.

4.—All of the work in drawing should have as its *direct* base the real or the imagined model. (*no copies of pictures.*)

It shall be done *freehand*, and preferably in blank drawing books (geometrical drawings excepted.)

It may be coloured and shaded,—too much importance not to be given to this subject.

5.—Each month, one drawing by each pupil shall be kept in the archives of each school, to be sent, *when demanded*, to the Department of Public Instruction.

These last drawings shall be on unruled paper about 7 by 10 inches (The greater dimension of the drawing itself shall not be less than 4 to 6 inches).

6.—In each division, two hours at least should be devoted, each week, to the teaching of drawing. These two hours shall be divided into three lessons in the elementary grades, and into two lessons in the intermediate and the superior grades.

7.—In the courses leading to technical schools, to the industrial and the manual arts, the exercises in working sketches, plans, and geometrical drawings, will be more numerous.

## OBJECT LESSONS AND FAMILIAR SCIENCE

Object lessons and familiar science. How this branch of the Course of Study should be understood and in what manner it should be taught are the two principal questions which the teacher is here required to answer.

Under the head of Familiar Science should be taught such elements of science as are generally known—such elements as the pupil really needs. Instruction in this subject should, therefore, be restricted to such elements as will enable the pupil to have an idea of the most ordinary phenomena, to understand such scientific language as is heard in every-day conversation, to know those scientific truths with which every one is acquainted, or is supposed to be acquainted, at the present day. Nomenclatures, classifications, abstract formulas, and, in general, knowledge that is purely scientific should have no place in these lessons. The object in view should be the useful; in city schools, knowledge that can be applied to industry and commerce; in rural schools, knowledge useful in agriculture and horticulture.

The programme, however, is the same for the schools of both classes, for there is a stock of knowledge which should be common to all pupils. But if the subjects studied remain the same, the applications may vary.

The city child, for instance, should have sufficient knowledge of plants, animals, and minerals to enable him to understand books and conversations fairly well, but, it is evident, industry and all that pertains to it possess, for him, a more immediate interest, a more practical importance.

It is quite different with the country child. Plants, trees, domestic animals,

the soil, will be the great occupations of his life. It is principally for his instruction that the programme comprises plants, animals, minerals, but he should not be without some information concerning the different industries.

The explanations just given suffice to make clear what is understood under the title, Object Lessons and Familiar Science.

The programme fixes a maximum; the teacher limits his lessons, in extent, and in depth, to the needs of his pupils, giving more importance to one part or to another, according to circumstances.

The method to be followed is that used in giving object lessons: it is by observation, experiments, familiar talks, and well arranged questions that instruction in this subject should be given. In reality, lessons in Familiar Science will simply be specially adapted object lessons.

In the lower classes, the pupils engaged in conversation, on a given subject, will be led to state what they know, in short, simple sentences. The teacher should confine himself to completing the answers and to arranging them in their proper order. His skill will be shown in the way in which he questions. He should direct the conversation without allowing himself to be led too far, or without losing himself in useless digressions. Moderation and careful preparation are in this case of the greatest importance. While talking, he writes on the blackboard the principal words, which form as it were the groundwork of the lesson. Whenever possible, the objects themselves are placed in the children's hands, who thus have the opportunity of examining them directly and of acquiring exact ideas concerning them. When the objects themselves are not to be had, engravings or blackboard sketches should be used. A résumé of the lesson may be given as a dictation, in order to fix the child's attention on the new terms used in the course of the conversation.

In the other classes, after review questions on the previous lesson—for in these classes it is necessary that there should be much more sequence and unity in the lessons—the teacher introduces the new subject by writing an outline on the blackboard. He uses what the pupils already know as the basis of the new knowledge which he is imparting, and as a means of accustoming them to observe attentively the things with which they come in daily contact. Facts may be explained by a few very simple scientific ideas, but no time should be lost on these, attention being chiefly given to practical applications. Again, in this instance, the teacher should use as helps the objects themselves, engravings, sketches, or Natural History Charts.

After the lesson he dictates a résumé to the less advanced pupils, while the more advanced ones write out a résumé of their own from notes taken during the course of the lesson. Generally speaking, this résumé should be corrected orally.

This is one of the branches of the course which may be taught simultaneously, with little inconvenience, to pupils of different classes. Answers unknown to some pupils will be given by others. Therefore, in this case, several classes should be grouped together. If the lesson is too difficult for the younger children, let the teacher intermingle with his explanations a certain number of remarks and applications which are not beyond the intelligence of the pupils of the lower grade, and which they can readily understand. If, on the contrary, the subject be one well known to the more advanced pupils, let the teacher ask them, *en passant*, for explanations of a higher order; let them be called upon to give the causes or consequences of a fact of which the younger children are simply aware.

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## HYGIENE—AGRICULTURE—PHYSICS—COSMOGRAPHY

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The lessons in hygiene, agriculture, physics, and cosmography present the same characteristics, and are subject to the same rules as those in Familiar Science.

First elements, rudimentary notions of a practical character, these are the matter of the lesson.

The form is that of the object lesson.

The tendency and development of the lessons should be in keeping with the needs of the pupils.

These observations suffice. It is unnecessary to repeat what has already been said.

A simple remark, however, about the lessons in agriculture. Instruction in this subject should not be too bookish.

On the one hand, it should be based on certain scientific principles, relating, for instance, to mechanical improvements of the soil, to plowing, to manures, etc. These principles should be taught in class by means of easy experiments.

On the other hand, and this is the more important point, it should consist in exercises of observation, in fields and gardens—in visits to places where culture of different kinds may be seen: how grafting is done, trees trimmed, vegetables and flowers cultivated, bees kept, etc. And, in connection with those exercises, the teacher should endeavor to inspire his pupils with a love of the soil, he should discredit defective methods of culture, those not founded on reason and knowledge. If it be impracticable to make collective visits of inspection, let a certain number of pupils be asked to make them individually, let them be told what to examine, and let them be required to relate to the class what they have seen. They will be gratified to find that they are useful, and their observations will be listened to with curiosity. These observations will serve as a text for the teacher's remarks. The visits and remarks need not interfere in any manner with the regular and well-defined course in agriculture. In any case lessons in this branch should be so distributed as to coincide with the different things which have to be done or attended to in cultivating the soil.

What is important in rural schools is to keep the childrens' minds fixed on agricultural subjects. Teachers should learn to utilize for this purpose, object lessons, reading, dictations, arithmetical problems, etc. These exercises make an impression on the mind of the child, they monopolize, to a great extent, all his intellectual efforts during the years of his school life. If they often treat of agricultural subjects they will, without overloading the programme of studies, teach him many useful lessons, while making on his mind an indelible impression. And thus, without loss of time, the agricultural atmosphere, so much desired for country schools, will be created.

The course of agriculture will also furnish many opportunities of explaining to the pupils how to keep accounts written up to date, in connection with the different exploitations: an account for forage, an account for cattle, an account for the poultry yard, an account for the vegetable garden, etc. These special applications may be classified with the elements of agricultural bookkeeping already studied.

## OPTIONAL SUBJECT

### DOMESTIC SCIENCE

The study of domestic economy and the practice of housework have become, at the present time, an almost obligatory part of the education of young girls. Teachers should, therefore, give to this subject all the importance which belongs to it. They should see to it that, in classes where these lessons are organized, the programme laid down be exactly followed by the pupils.

It is precisely on this account that this optional subject has been singled out for special attention.

*First elements of domestic economy with useful applications.*

Organization of the home.—Care of the home.

Furniture: of the kitchen, of the dining-room, of the bedroom, of the reception room, etc. Care of furniture.

Tableware: in what it consists, care and washing of same; kitchen requisites: what they are, care and cleaning of same.

Heating and lighting: practical advice.

Sweeping and dusting.

Care of linen, bedding, clothes, boots, shoes, and furs.

Washing and ironing.

Food: qualities of the different food substances, of the principal beverages; what should be done to keep them from spoiling. General information on cooking.

Hygienic meals, of what they are composed. How to lay the table, the cover, to serve, to clear the table.

Needlework.—Sewing. Mending. Marking. linen. Crochet. Embroidery.

Cutting out, making up the most simple articles of clothing.

In all that concerns the organization of the lessons in this subject, teachers are allowed the greatest liberty. These lessons, however, should be restricted to general principles, with simple, practical applications.

In organizing this course teachers should be influenced principally by the practical side of the subject.

Let teachers acquire a true, an exact notion of the most urgent needs of families—realize what, later on, will probably be the condition of life of the pupils now confided to their care, and let the lessons given be such as will fit the pupils to successfully meet the expected conditions.

Minute distinctions would be out of place in giving instruction in this subject. Teachers are strongly advised to follow a well-graded method and to unite theory with practice. When certain practical exercises cannot be performed by the pupils themselves, they should at least be required to observe others performing them, care being taken to make them note even the details. But the why of things, the explanation of the reasons of the different things to be done, are not less useful. Otherwise the course would lose its educational character. As it is the education of the mistress of the house, of a housewife, that it is desired to effect, the teaching should never be such as would be given to an apprentice. The preceding sentence indicates the surest way to elevate the teaching of domestic economy, and even of housework in the eyes of both pupils and parents, and thus to destroy the prejudice which exists against it.