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SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

By P. D. Harris, B.A., Selkirk, Man.

Disputes as to what is the first year of the new century seem now to be on the wane, so we may safely conclude that we have at last moved into the Twentieth Century.

At the opening of this new era the question quite naturally arises, "By what distinguishing features will the beginning of the twentieth century be marked, when its history comes to be written?"

We believe that the general diffusion of knowledge, and the struggle to place all men upon a footing where they will all have an equal chance, will be at least two of the distinguishing features. At what period of the world's history has the general public had easier access to useful information and noble ideals, expressed in good literary form, than at the present day? The cheap editions of works by the world's best authors, the circulation of excellent, yet low-priced, newspapers and magazines, the free public schools, the high schools and collegiate institutes, open to all at a merely nominal fee; the academies, colleges and universities, with their splendid equipments and low rate of tuition, should be, to the dullest person, most conclusive evidence of these characteristics. Our telegraph and telephone systems make events, discoveries and inventions, the property of the whole world in a few hours' time. The capture of a Boer stronghold in South Africa, the discovery in Germany of innoculation for the prevention of diphtheria, the invention of a new kind of explosive in France, become in a few hours, or days, the possession of the civilized portions of the sphere.

The universal diffusion of knowledge is also an important element in giving all men an equal chance, and in waking them up to the fact that they need that chance. The work of the churches, benevolent societies, trade's unions, and workmen's guilds, in helping the weak and the unfortunate, all aim at giving men an equal opportunity. Public ownership of public conveniences such as telephones, telegraphs, electric and gas lighting and electric and steam transportation, is simply another means towards the same great end.

Among those influences at work to-day to help in this diffusion of knowledge and increase the opportunities of the individual, public libraries occupy no mean place. None of us need to have had a very long or checkered experience to have come into contact, in some place, at some time, with such an institution. All the large towns and hundreds of the smaller ones throughout

the British Empire, Western Europe and the United States, are supplied with these free fountains of knowledge. You say there is a great deal in those libraries that is not worth reading, or perhaps, that the most of what is read is light reading. Undoubtedly there are thousands of volumes that a busy man could not read with much profit, and undoubtedly there are thousands of volumes of light and ephemeral literature, but is it not infinitely better that the individual should read light literature than that he should not read at all? In that light literature he may stumble across a thought or an ideal, several degrees higher than his own, and, acting on that, he will be a gainer. But the great proportion of literature in the public libraries is not useless, but full of good and elevating thought. Who can calculate the improvement in morality, intelligence and taste, arising from a free dissemination of the best thoughts of the world's thinkers?

Since the earliest historic times men have made collections of their recorded deeds, observations and thoughts. In the ruins of Nineveh, Assyrian explorers have discovered great collections of tablets inscribed with the hieroglyphic writings of the ancient Persian people. Egyptian archaeologists claim to have discovered evidences of collections of writings among the ancient Egyptians. It is well known that the greatest library of ancient times was gathered together at Alexandria. This library was several times partially destroyed by fire, and as often partially restored, but was finally wiped out of existence when the Saracens captured the city. Greece and Rome were not behindhand in gathering the recorded knowledge of the world into libraries, some of which were thrown open for the use of the public. The Romans were an extremely warlike and practical people, and consequently had little time to devote to letters, so that their first libraries consisted of books brought home after Asiatic conquests. The Emperors interested themselves in literature, the example being set by Augustus, who undertook to found a library in which were placed many copies of works from the great Alexandrian library.

During the Middle Ages the monasteries were the refuge of letters. There the writing, and transcribing and embellishment of books, were counted part of the regular work of the monks, and it was chiefly at the monasteries that any great numbers of books were kept. Towards the close of the Middle Ages, the universities also assisted in this work, and made collections of books. Some of the rulers of those troubled times also took a deep interest in assisting the intellectual life of their times—notably, Alfred the Great, Charlemagne, William the Conqueror and Edward the Third, and consequently were careful to collect and preserve the books of this period.

It is in modern time, however, that libraries have reached their greatest development. Among the largest libraries of the world are the British Museum, with its 1,550,000 volumes and 50,000 manuscripts; the Bibliotheque Nationale, of Paris, with 1,827,000 books; the Vatican library at Rome, with 220,000 printed books and 25,600 manuscripts; the Imperial Public Library, of St. Petersburg, with 1,000,000 printed volumes, and the Congressional Library, of Washington, with 396,000 volumes and 130,000 pamphlets.

The natural inference from the preceding historical matter is that libraries and intellectual life go hand in hand, stimulating each other. How important it is then that the benefits of libraries should be extended to as many people as possible. In order to extend these benefits an interest in reading must be

awakened, and surely the most suitable time to awaken that interest is in the impressionable time of youth. It is a platitude that early impressions are the strongest, but, though a platitude, it cannot be thought of too often or emphasized too strongly.

Where is this interest to be aroused? Shall it not be either in the home or in the school, or preferably, both in the home and in the school, the idea being to have the one play into the hands of the other?

In most cases, however, more is to be hoped for from the school than from the home, for the majority of the parents are either unacquainted with what their children ought to read, or are too careless to inquire into the matter at all. The teachers are the persons who are, or should be if they are not, closely in touch with the intellectual and moral needs of the children, and if they are to do their whole duty, they will have to take on them the work which, possibly, more properly belongs to the parents. What the parents do not do the teacher must do.

The duty of the teacher being clear, he begins to ask himself what reading matter should be supplied to the pupils, or knowing that, how it can be supplied. First, he must consider the nature of his task; half the battle is fought when one knows what must be done. The task is to bring together two worlds. Rather a formidable undertaking you say, but nevertheless, that's what it is. The world of books, and the world of childhood and youth must be brought together. But is the whole of these worlds to be brought together? "Impossible," you say, and quite correctly. However, "the whole boy goes to school"; he has his whole world there, and his whole world must be respected and handled with care. But very necessarily the whole world of books cannot be made the boy's own; nor is this even desirable. The teacher must remember too, that he has the boy at different stages, and that his world is different at his different stages.

In selecting, then, the part of the world of books—that is, to meet the boy's world—the teacher will have to ask himself two questions:—(1) What part of the world of books is best adapted to childhood and youth? (2) What is suitable to the pupil at his different stages of development? Spencer has stated that the great aim of education is complete living, and the Great Teacher said, "I am come that ye might have life, and that ye might have it more abundantly." In order to live completely, the individual must know himself and the world. In knowing the world and himself, he must study nature and humanity, and hence any reading matter for children must deal with nature and humanity. The great sources of knowledge about humanity, outside of observation, are history and literature, so both of these must be included in children's reading. Of the available reading matter in the realms of physical nature, history and literature, discrimination must again be made, for what would constitute interesting historical reading matter for the pupil of Grade VIII, would be almost unintelligible to the pupil of Grade III, and a poem that would appeal to a pupil of Grade V or VI might easily be quite beyond a pupil of Grade I, *i.e.*, in form, if not in content. But because this is true it must not be imagined that what a pupil of Grade I or Grade II would enjoy, is altogether too infantile to be of value or interest to a pupil of Grade VII or VIII, or even to the life-long student. The flower is pretty to the child of two or three, and may be still more beautiful to the middle-aged or old man. A simple hymn tune will catch the ear of the little

child, and will perhaps be the one he will ask for when the snows of many winters have gathered about his brow. Why are these things true? They are true because the depths of man's nature have been touched, because the innate sense of beauty and harmony has been roused to activity by the proper stimulus. Even so with reading matter! A pupil of Grade II will listen with rapt attention to the story of Horatius and the mature man will find it still stir his pulse; the pupil of Grade VIII will delight in "The Burial March of Dundee," and twenty years later will respond to its inspiring music.

(To be continued)

COMPOSITION.

Composition is the premeditated expression of thought. It should not be necessary to add "by means of language" but curiously enough, a fashion has crept in of regarding music, gesture, painting, sculpture as modes of expressing thought. The sole function of these, however, is to excite emotion or to call up mental images. They cannot make assertions. Nor indeed, should all language work be styled composition. That which is oral hardly deserves the distinction, wanting as it is in the necessary form. There is, in fact, a certain degree of antagonism between the cultivation of fluency in speech and the cultivation of excellence in composition. Training in speaking produces the very prolixity that is so ruinous to success in writing. Training in writing, on the other hand, produces the very fastidiousness that is so fatal to readiness in speaking. The former, it may be said, leads to utterance without thought, the latter to thought without utterance. Accordingly your orator at the end of a pen and your essayist on the boards of a platform usually cut figures that are equally sorry; and for a similar reason the schools of America produce men who can make after-dinner speeches, whereas the schools of England produce men who can write books. All this is merely to show that oral expression should not be allowed to supersede as well as precede written expression. Not that it would be well on the other hand to sacrifice our oral language lessons to the attainment of finished quality of composition. In a country where institutions are representative, and where there is so much social intercourse, it is far better to have the power of speaking and conversing readily than to be able to write an editorial, a magazine article, or a book. Even letter-writing—business or familiar—does not play so important a part in life as the art of talking with a fair amount of fluency.

The study of rhetoric is presumably prescribed for the purpose of reducing composition to a thing of rule. Composition, it is very certain, was never made better by any such means. Here the deductive method is seen at its very worst, for compositions are not propositions, nor can words be fitted to thought by a process of reasoning. The rules of rhetoric, in fact, should never be thought of during the act of writing; but everything should be done by unconscious imitation of good models. And in the unconsciousness of the imitation consists its chief value.

Much might indeed be said as to the inadvisability of trying to hold some forms of knowledge other than implicitly. This is particularly true in questions of language. Anyone who uses "shall" and "will" correctly and unhesitatingly as a matter of early association, had better be very careful not to learn any-

thing about the grammatical rules for the proper placing of those two shibboleths of the English tongue. If he does, there will be an end to all certainty. Anyone, again, who writes good English as a matter of familiarity with the best authors had better be just as careful not to learn anything about the "bookish theoretic" which is fondly supposed to govern the production of clear, forcible, and elegant prose. If he does, there will be an end to all freedom of expression. Composition work, I repeat, should be entirely of a constructive character and should be based on unconscious imitation.

Not all forms of construction work are, however, equally valuable. The common exercise of straightening out ingeniously distorted sentences and paragraphs is as much an affair of criticism as creation; and is not as good as making one's own sentences and paragraphs. The critical ability to detect what is faulty does not pre-suppose the creative power of producing what is faultless. Reproduction of the substance of the reading lesson is an exercise whose value is impaired by some amount of unavoidable verbal memorizing. The topical analysis and the summary belong, rather to thought-getting than thought-giving. True constructive composition work would be the narration of something a pupil has gone through, the description of something he has seen, the explanation of something he has thought out, the revelation of something he has felt. Full guidance along these lines is to be found in the *Composition Exercise Books* prescribed for use in our Manitoba schools. While varying in value, these exercises are more profitable than anything yet devised for the teaching of this important branch of school work. So far as the teacher himself is concerned, all he can do at first is to assign a subject well within the range of the pupil's experience,—a subject of which the latter will be so full that in the words of Byron he will long "to wreak his thoughts upon expression." Having thus overcome the pupil's inertia, having got him to say something somehow, half the battle is gained. The teacher has now a choice of procedures. He may read over each theme, writing in copious corrections that will never be read. He may make generalizations of frequently occurring mistakes and lecture upon them learnedly. This, again, will be sowing seed on stony ground. He may return the compositions unmarked, requesting the writers to criticize, to improve, and to hand in a second time, or oftener if necessary. While sound in principle, this plan is likely to bring about a good deal of unprofitable groping in the dark. Finally, he may read over each composition with the pupil looking on, ready to answer questions and listen to suggestions. Primitive as this appears, the method possesses not a few advantages. It compels the pupil's attention; it gives more guidance in a minute than could be written down in fifteen minutes; it directs the pupil along definite lines of self-criticism; it affords individual tuition where individual tuition is most needed.

There are, I must say in conclusion, certain preliminaries supposed to be gone through in writing an essay. "Compositions from Models" recommends that the theme be first clearly determined in the mind of the writer, that material be collected, that a plan be formed, that the plan be elaborated into the final product. This, I fear, is too severely logical for most of us. Most of us exactly reverse the process. We write our essay first in the rough, and reduce it gradually to shape ending up consequently with the plan last instead of first. Often we don't clearly know what we intend to say until the stimulus of pen-in-hand causes a flow of ideas. And then it is so much easier looking backward than looking forward. In any event, there is no defence for the practice of

supplying plans to pupils. Collaboration in literature has hitherto failed to produce a classic, and the system is hardly likely to succeed better as between teacher and pupil in essay-writing.

In the School Room.

HOW TO TEACH GEOGRAPHY.

W e have to thank subscribers for the answers to Mr. Lerew's question in last issue. Our readers cannot fail to profit from reading the various answers.

I.

Contributed by R. T. Hodgson.

Believing that the teachers of our province should steadily work together for the perfecting of our system of education and the methods employed in teaching the various subjects on our program of studies, and that the columns of our JOURNAL is one of the best avenues through which to work, I beg, in answer to the enquiry to submit a method of teaching the geography of Manitoba. In doing so, however, it is not without the feeling that the subject is difficult and that the method presented will at best, be an imperfect one. But, it is hoped that to the teacher in need, it may contain something that will prove suggestive.

- (1). To train the observing faculties.
- (2). To enable the pupil to draw logical conclusions from his observations.
- (3). To give useful information.

Keeping these in view, we would suggest that the following topics be considered:—

1.—The geological structure.

(a). Underlying rocks.

The teaching of this will be found somewhat difficult owing to the few exposures of rocks in the province, but by a little thought on the part of the teacher it can be accomplished. Have pupils bring samples of all the rocks they could find as represented by boulders. From these get samples of the stratified rocks, e. g., limestone, shale, etc., unstratified rocks, as granite. If possible have a few fossils to show the class. After examining these, get the main characteristics of the two great classes of rocks.

Stratified:

- (1). Are found in layers.
- (2). The layers lie in a horizontal position.
- (3). They often contain fossil, remains of animals and plants.

Have class account for these facts, arriving at the conclusion that these rocks have been laid down under water and that animal and plant remains have been preserved in them. If so then the stratified rocks have been crumbled from other rocks and washed down by rivers, or as in the chalk of England, may consist of shells. They have been in the form of sand, mud or small shells and have settled into the bottom of seas or lakes. Since these rocks underlie the greater part of our province, it follows that where we now live, build cities and till farms, must at some time in the past have been a great lake or sea. The different stratified rocks are known by the kind of animal and

plant remains they contain. From this, if desired, Silurian, Devonian and Cretaceous rocks may be taught with their characteristic fossils. Silurian contains remains of shells similar to our snail and clam, also a straight form resembling a fishes' back bone. Devonian, certain fish and plant remains. Cretaceous, are rich in plants and large reptiles.

Next take up the unstratified rocks which appear at the surface at the extreme east of the province, these :—

- (1). Are most of them made up of small crystals.
- (2). Are not in layers.
- (3). Contain no animal remains.

They underlie the stratified and are the material of which all the central part of the earth is probably composed.

- (b). Formation of soil.

Examine several boulders, some gravel and particles of sand. How is it they are all more or less rounded? Do stones when broken by a hammer, break into round pieces? The conclusion is that they have all been worn. What makes the stones on the lake shore so smooth and round? When class have given an explanation, tell the story that the great sea in the bottom of which the stratified rocks were deposited drained southward; that the climate then changed (Why?) Ice formed to a great thickness in the north and moved southward, grinding the rock under it to mud, scraped the mud into the sea, almost filling it up; filled the old valley south of the present boundary so full of clay that when the ice disappeared the water flowed over the ridge into Hudson Bay. Before the ice had melted, as far north as the mouth of the Nelson river, the water was dammed back by it and formed lakes Agassiz and Souris, as described in text on agriculture. Icebergs breaking off from this ice front drifted over these waters, carrying their loads of boulders and other debris. The action of the water helped to form the sand and gravel deposits, which as the water settled was in places washed into the form of hills, e.g., sand hills of Carberry. For example see text on agriculture.

2.—Rivers.

Have class examine map and note the principal rivers and lakes. They will notice the direction the rivers flow and the fact that they are very crooked. From this get the basins and slopes, also the divides. Have them account for the winding course of the rivers. Have them explain the formation of flood plains and of sloughs along the rivers.

3.—Position.

- (a). Latitude.

Review circles of the earth. Begin by making sure that class understand the meaning of "degree." What part of a circle is 360, 180, 90, 45 degrees? To place circles on a sphere, we must have some fixed point or points from which to start. These are furnished in the poles, the ends of the axis around which the earth turns. Our first great circle is the equator, half way between the poles. How many degrees from the equator to the north, to the south pole? If the circumference of the earth is 25,000 miles, how many miles will one degree represent? How far is it from the equator to the north pole? The boundary between the United States and Manitoba is 49 degrees north of the equator. How many miles is the boundary from the equator? How many from the north pole? Winnipeg is 50 degrees north of the equator (50 degrees north latitude). How far is it north of the boundary? Have them turn to the map of the Domi-

nion of Canada and explain meaning of figures in columns on the east and west sides of map. Ask such questions as, which is Toronto or Winnipeg farther north? How many degrees? How many miles? Within what degrees of latitude does Manitoba lie? How many miles is it from the south to the north boundary of Manitoba?

(b). Longitude.

Deal with longitude in a similar manner, noting that:

- (1). The starting point has to be an arbitrary one.
- (2). The degrees become narrower as we approach the pole.
- (3). Latitude is measured along meridians and longitude along the parallels of latitude.

At this point would teach the meaning of standard time. Also, give class some idea of how mariners find their longitude and latitude. Then again, how they keep their direction by use of the compass.

4.—Survey of Manitoba.

The aim here will be to give pupil a knowledge of such terms as township, range, section, etc.

I think it will not be necessary to go minutely into the teaching of this topic. Show that surveyors could find longitude of a point on the boundary. From it, by using a compass, would run a line directly north, marking it by setting a post here and there at regular intervals. From this line, as a starting point, they measured the province off into squares with sides six miles long. To get the meaning of section, have class draw a square and divide two adjacent sides into six parts and from these points, draw lines through the square. How many small squares are formed? How does each compare in area with the large square? If one side of large square represents a distance of six miles, what is the length of a side of a small square? How many acres would the large square represent? How many a small square? Have class rule a sheet of paper into squares, having say, half inch sides. Let these represent townships. Number ranges and townships same as on map of the province. Have them by help of a good map of Manitoba mark on their maps by dots the position of several towns, e.g., Morden, Brandon, Morris, Virden, Carberry. How far is Morden from Morris? How far from Brandon, etc.? Have them trace in a railway, a river, a lake, in the same way.

5.—Climate.

Get as many facts as possible from the class. Some of these are that:

- (1). The climate is extreme.
- (2). High winds and storms not uncommon.
- (3). The rain and snowfall is light.
- (4). High winds more frequent in spring and summer than in winter.

Help class to explain these facts by performing a few simple experiments. To show that water is heated very slowly, place a pound of water in a beaker over an alcohol flame for five minutes. Place a piece of iron weighing one pound, in the same flame for the same time. Have class test the difference of temperature by feeling each. Set aside and note which cools the more rapidly. Now get the effects of large bodies of land and of water on climate. Perform simple experiments to show how heat causes air to circulate and apply to the explanation of winds. Deal with rainfall noting that all our moisture comes from the large bodies of water and is carried by winds. As Manitoba lies far

inland the winds are likely to lose much of their moisture before reaching it. Consider the effects of latitude, altitude, mountains, plains, forests, on climate and show the bearing each has on Manitoba.

6.—Products.

Mines :

- (1). Stone quarries of Stony Mountain and Selkirk.
- (2). Clay for the manufacture of bricks and with marl to make cement.
- (3). Sand for building purposes.
- (4). Gravel for road-making.
- (5). Coal of Souris.
- (6). Natural gas at Melita and petroleum may probably be discovered in the near future.

Forests :

Timber is scarce, but poplar, spruce and oak are found in some places.

Field :

Cereals, roots, etc., stock-raising.

Lakes :

Fish and Furs.

7.—Industries.

These are based on products.

8.—Commerce.

Note the importance of railways to our province, situated as it is, so far from an ocean port. To get imports and exports ask class to make a list of things we use which are not produced in Manitoba, and where possible say in what country each is grown or manufactured. When a satisfactory list has been obtained, reserve for reference. Deal with exports in a similar manner.

In concluding the study of this subject it would be well to run over the history of the province. Account for its rapid growth in population and wealth. Work out the facts which explain why our largest city occupies its particular position. Obtain the geographical factors which combine to produce large cities. Apply these to forecast the futures of Winnipeg, Brandon, etc.

The aim in this paper has been to outline a course suited to an entrance class, but much of it with care could be used in teaching lower grades.

II.

1. Moulding of maps in sand. If no sand, &c., is obtainable relief maps on black-boards will (partly) do. (I make a stencil by pin-punching an immigration department map along the lines of rivers, lakes, mountains, &c., then stencil on to black-board and color to show relief). Names of chief elevations, rivers, &c., will be incidentally memorised during this work. The conversation during these lessons may be based on the lessons in *Prairie Agriculture No. 2*, which refer to the glacial period, &c. The different elevations, soils, wooded and prairie regions, and general characteristics may be talked over here.

2. Drawing of maps (by pupils) of geographical features with names, placing Winnipeg, Portage, Brandon (and local town also).

3. System of survey, (ranges and townships), &c. Finding towns by range and townships. Giving range and townships of towns.

4. Ruling of large sheet of paper into half or quarter-inch squares, enough to represent the ranges and townships.

5. Placing on ruled paper mountains, rivers and lakes (without names), and cities and largest towns, by number of range and townships.

6. Placing junction railway towns also on maps. Joining them and chief towns with railroads, each system distinct (one in pencil, another in ink, &c.)

7. Tracing each railroad line (by name), making list of important points on each in order. (I take those having Intermediate schools, and junctions).

8. Showing on maps how to reach any important point, from home, (I use a large map on blackboard for this) and from any other point also.

9. Study of City of Winnipeg : reason for existence, (history?) cause for growth, manufactures, industries, &c. Study of other large cities in same manner.

10. Exports and imports from Manitoba. Where exports go, and imports come from. (Ask pupils to find out where their binder was made, the wagon and the mower, &c., where the tea packages come from, the knives and forks, &c.)

11. Causes which affect the exports and imports : climate, soil, geographical position, &c.

12. Study of the people. The Indians, (their characteristics, reserve system and schools). The Metis, (Lord Selkirk's colony and French ownership). The settlers coming from Ontario and the old countries. The foreign settlements : Mennonite reserve (Hanover and Rhineland, Icelandic settlements (Baldur and Gimli), Swedish settlements (Clan William and—), Doukhobors and Galicians?) effect of forming reserves of these people? (Be careful of *politics*, many have fallen by the wayside)

13. Study of the survey of a township, number of sections, &c.

I have not indicated the study of plants and animals, nor the conversation parts of the lessons. And of the fullness of the heart (and, incidentally, of the head) the mouth will speak. Nor have I indicated nearly as much home and physical geography as a teacher will give. I am taking it for granted that America and Canada are already studied, although I generally find that the pupils have studied Manitoba first, no opposition to accepted Normal methods. I do not indicate any memorizing. I do not consider it an accomplishment for a pupil to be able to name the stations in order from Winnipeg to the boundary on every railroad line, although I generally find this to be the limit of their "geography." Yet I believe every boy should be able to tell how to get from home to any important point in the Province : to tell what section he lives on and what one the school is on : to name readily the section north of any given number : to know which numbers are H. B. C. &c. : to tell where the water from the slough near by goes to : where the machinery of the farm comes from and the wheat goes to, and the routes travelled : to have a fair idea where the wild geese go in winter and nest in summer. Why the spring wind from the north-east is so cold, and the hot wind from the south-west so dry : and to know (or at least have facts from which to reason out) a great many other useful and interesting things which though perhaps not geography, are not taught in any other branch of study, and will easily suggest themselves to anyone who teaches the above outline. The numbers are not to indicate lessons, but *sections*, (perhaps not too well defined nor distinct however.

"REGIE."

III.

1. Get pupils to bring all possible information they can about their father's farms; distance from school to pupil's home; to get size of section, township and range; plan of section and township.
2. Plan of school district, with name of each settler's land marked on it.
3. Talk about principal meridian. Perhaps this has been taken up with Longitude and Latitude.
4. Draw township and range lines for Manitoba.
5. Mountains, lakes and rivers.
6. Locate railroads and principal towns.
7. As this is the pupil's own province it should be thoroughly known. This means constant review.

—J. D.

THE SUBJECT.—MATTER FOR COMPOSITION.

I.

In reply to G. A. Lerew's question as to what subjects for composition should be given pupils unaccustomed to the work, I should say: Let them write on the subjects they are best acquainted with—their amusements, their work, natural objects, &c. Let them describe these things or tell stories regarding them. Let them imagine themselves in the place of certain animals and objects, and express their feelings. Let them write letters—let them simply talk on paper. Ask them questions as to what they should do in certain circumstances, choosing cases where some thinking must be done before writing.

In all composition let the chief aim be to have pupils *think*, and give expression to *their own thoughts*, not to attempt to think or write in terms of others, especially of older people's ideas. I should be very sorry to see one of my pupils produce as composition anything like the stilted and patriarchal essays on self-reliance, justice, wisdom and pride and the like, once presented to me as models by my grandmother—the work of her youngest daughter at the mature age of twelve.

Let composition be natural, spontaneous, free from affectation. Perhaps it seems to you easier to say "Let there things be," than to cause them to be? True, but if you are always ready to pronounce them "good" when you find them so, you will soon find it possible to "let them be."

B. S.

II.

A few simple talks about some reading lesson, showing use of paragraph simple punctuation, etc.

Ample matter can be found in the best reading lessons, history and talks about different countries in geography. Another important branch of composition is letter writing—familiar and business. In this country we have splendid opportunities for teaching letter-writing. Let pupils write to friends and relations in Ontario and the old country. Supervise and suggest, but let the children compose. Choice letters from children tell tales.

Business letters—Land, orders to stores, about machinery, notes, receipts, telegrams, etc. Business-letter writing is an art. If deficient, get material and information from some store-keeper or other business person. Business letters should be like Caesar's famous despatch—"Veni, vidi, vici." Oh! the agony endured reading some so-called business letters. The above are only suggestions. Let the work be co-operative. In judicial co-operation lies the pupil's true progress.—J. D.

Primary Department.

Edited by Annie S. Graham, Carberry, Man.

To the teacher who so nobly responded to last month's appeal, the Primary Editor wishes to say "Thank you *very* much for your help and also for your many kind wishes." A number of teachers who are not engaged in primary work have shown us their sympathy and interest in a practical way by sending us some assistance. To these, a double "thank you," and "come again." While the regret is that the larger part of the contributions can't be used this month, the senders may be assured that *all* will appear at intervals later on.

Our department for the December number is already "full," but we wish help for January. Will each teacher send the names of several books for use in primary grades?—(1) Those suitable for reading to children, and (2) those to put into children's hands. From these we will try to make a "select list."

—A. S. G.

NOVEMBER GEMS.

Contributed by Miss McCulloch, Roland, Man.

"Now is the time when skies are dull and gray,
On hillside and in vale the winds are sighing,
V-shaped, late flocks of birds are southward flying,
Eager for lands where warmth and sunshine stay,
Merry and thankful hearts now gather 'round
Boards groaning with the weight of things delicious,
Each dish prepared to suit the most capricious.
Rest now from labors, men and fallow ground."

—Henry Cleveland Wood.

"Trees bare and brown, dry leaves everywhere,
Dancing up and down, and whirling through the air.
Red-cheeked apples roasted, pop-corn almost done,
Toes and chestnuts toasted,—that's November fun."

—Selected.

BEAUTY BITS.

"All things bright and beautiful,
All creatures, great and small,
All things wise and wonderful,—
The Lord God made them all."

"Beautiful faces are they that wear
The light of a pleasant spirit there,
It matters little if dark or fair."

"If the beauty of the flower is "but an incident," why was it made beautiful at all? If the bright coloring is only to attract insects to assist in reproduction, why all the exquisite tints in its marvellous shades of color? A shapeless mass of gorgeous color would attract insects just as surely, and the reproduction of the species would just as certainly be accomplished. If the flower is to be brought before the children simply as a working organism, and its beauty is to receive only an incidental reference, why did the Creator make of it such a masterpiece of beauty? Why did He paint each velvet petal with such match-

less skill that artists search eternally for the secret and die despairing. What is the relation of flowers to humanity? Is the flower here without a mission? *The beauty sense is a gift from God*, and like every other divine gift, was intended for use and for the uplift of humanity."

"Art is an expression and awakening of individual thought."—*Ruskin*.

"We talk of art in the school-room. We clamor for it, and struggle to place it upon our walls and in the hands of our children. But art in the school-room does not always take the form of painting, music, or poetry. There may be high art in the humblest teaching. The accomplished teacher, who is a lady to her finger tips, whose aim is toward the sky, and whose heart is warm to her children, may teach the raggedest boy to read with an art that a Murillo would recognize and seek vainly to express."

"They who idly sing of beauty
In the eyes or in the hair,
Sing of beauty that is not
Let it never be forgot—
Beauty ne'er beginneth there;
If there's beauty in the heart,
There is beauty everywhere."

"A right education will make an artist of a pupil. It is not presumed that he will ever use the brush or baton. Art lies in *everything*. In a really educated person every judgment or expression is actuated by an artistic perception. *He* may be a book-keeper, or a merchant, or a jurist; *she* may be a mother, with her name never on the page of fame. Each may be an artist in soul and art will tell in the life."

"A thing of beauty is a joy forever;
Its loveliness increases. It will never
Pass in nothingness."

PICTURES.

A request comes from "A Teacher," for a list of pictures suitable for use in a primary room. I cheerfully submit the following which I have found to be children's favorites. Perhaps some one can add some others. Your address sent to "Perry Pictures People, Malden, Mass.," will bring you the catalogue from which these are taken :—

- | | |
|--|---|
| "The Pet Bird"— <i>Von Bremen.</i> | "The Sick Monkey"— <i>Landseer.</i> |
| "The Ferryman's Daughter"— <i>Adam.</i> | "Family Cares"— <i>Barnes.</i> |
| "Can't you talk?"— <i>Holmes.</i> | "Kiss me"— <i>Holmes.</i> |
| "Little Red Riding Hood"— <i>Ferrier.</i> | "Feeding her birds"— <i>Millet.</i> |
| "Grace Darling"— <i>Brooks.</i> | "A Fascinating Tale"(tail)— <i>M. Ronner.</i> |
| "Arrival of the Shepherds"— <i>Le Rolle.</i> | "A member of the Humane Society"— |
| "Christ blessing little children"— <i>Plo-</i> | "Saved"— <i>Landseer.</i> [<i>Landseer.</i> |
| "The Cat Family"— <i>Adom.</i> [<i>ckhurst.</i> | "Little Scholar"— <i>Bouguereau.</i> |
| "Study of Cats"— <i>Lambert.</i> | "A helping hand"— <i>Reouf.</i> |
| "On the Prairie"— <i>Dupre.</i> | "Cherry Ripe"— <i>Millais.</i> |
| "Pharaoh's Horses"— <i>Herring.</i> | "Baby Stuart"— <i>Van Dyck.</i> |
| "Village Blacksmith"— <i>Herring.</i> | "Always tell the truth"— <i>Facd.</i> |
| "Lost"— <i>Schenck.</i> | "Puss in Boots"— |
| "Listening to the fairies"— <i>Bodenhan-</i> | "Windsor Castle"— |
| "Somebody's Pets"— [<i>scn.</i> | "Eugene Field"— |

DRAWING.

Over the signature "Puzzled One" comes the following question:—(a) "How would you decide on the material for first work in drawing? and (b) what would be the best way of taking up such work?"—Unfortunately I am not an authority on "best methods," but if anyone disagrees with the answer given, I shall be *only too pleased* to have him persuade me of "the error of my way."

As to "a," I should say, try to put yourself in the child's place and see what would arouse his interest and call forth his best effort. Give him paper and pencil and tell him he may draw what he pleases. If he should draw straight lines, circles, cubes, prisms, etc., I should say make these the material for your first lesson. If he should make pictures of objects, animals, etc., why in these I should find the starting point. In my own experience, I have always found the latter the more interesting. In teaching reading, when a child knows a word we ask him to reproduce it. In doing so, what does he think of,—oblique lines, curves, loops, etc.? No, he thinks of the word as a whole, but while writing it, he unconsciously gets practice in making curves, loops, etc. In representative drawing, the child draws the object all unconscious of the spherical, conical or other form-foundation underlying it, but while representing the object, he gets practice in drawing these forms. I have known children, too young to go to school, make drawings involving the forms of some of the most difficult "models," and while they did not know a cone from a cube, the work would have put to shame some of our grade four or five pupils. If "the best pedagogy is that which enables the child to learn *unconsciously* through the doing," may not the study of "models" and the drawing of straight lines be left for a higher grade, or at least made supplementary to the drawing of objects, etc.? Freedom before accuracy, and the whole before its details.

(b) At the very first, I should allow children to draw what they wished, not interrupting the free flow of fancy by even a suggestion. At this stage, the mind should be unfettered by "rule," and know neither dread of ridicule nor fear of failure. The first lesson might be (1) on picturing stories,—color, the great magic of these early years, being used as freely as the child wishes. And don't forget to give an abundance of blackboard practice. Or (2) place some simple object before the class and ask to have it drawn. A few suggestions as to placing, neatness, etc., might be given before the work is begun, but, beyond this, very little criticism need be made in the "baby room." Approval of the crudest work (if it be the pupil's best) is perhaps the wisest criticism at this stage. Correct detail should not be looked for, but life and spirit, and freedom of execution should be made the aim in primary drawing.

 THAT BEAUTY SLEEP.

I wonder how many of our primary teachers ever indulge in a "beauty sleep." Here is the recipe: (1) After a day's work at school, take a sponge, dipped in hot water, and apply it to the back of the neck. This is said to draw the blood from the brain by the application of heat to the great nerve centre. (2) Follow this by from half an hour to an hour's absolute rest, with as much of the "don't care" feeling as can be dissolved in it. Try it for a few nights and you will find it a profitable investment of time. The effect may not be *seen* but I can assure you that it can be *felt*. And the medicine is not hard to take.

ARRANGEMENT OF FLOWERS.

I had occasion at one time to be a guest in a country home. Each morning the mistress of the house brought into my apartment a basket of flowers; these she jammed into a gayly colored jardiniere whose flaming tints fought and struggled with the exquisite tones of the flowers. Instead of adding to the beauty of the room, as she intended, she created a discord which was hard to be endured. Later on, there came into the same house another women, who quietly took charge of the flowers. Oftentimes I would find in my apartment a tall, colorless glass vase with a single rose in it, or, perchance, it would be a low dish in which a few violets with some cool, green leaves, were placed; sometimes an earthen-colored jar with half a dozen tall, queenly lilies. No matter what the flowers were, the quiet refinement and beauty of their arrangement always revealed the artistic touch.

ELIZABETH HARRISON.

This is the "thanksgiving month." Someone has said that the best kind of *thanksgiving* is *thanksliving*.

Editorial Notes.

Dr. S. T. Gillan, the well-known institute conductor, will stop in Winnipeg one day toward the end of November, and address the teachers. He is now in Oregon.

Mr. Steinberger, of the well-known firm of Steinberger, Hendry & Co., of Toronto, passed through the province this week, on his way home from California.

Can you do anything to increase the circulation of this JOURNAL? We shall gladly furnish sample copies where they are likely to bring subscribers.

There is only one thing necessary to the absolute success of our journal. Thanks to our contributors there is no lack of helpful reading matter, but the publishers would be obliged if several hundred subscribers, who are in arrears, would remit without delay. It costs something to publish THE JOURNAL.

From the number of enquiries that are being made to the C. P. R. for the extension of the Farm Laborer's Tickets, it would seem that it is not generally known that an extension has been granted. The men can get the benefit of the eighteen dollar rate up until the 30th of November.

The C. P. R. announce an excursion rate of fare and one third for the round trip, in connection with Thanksgiving Day, November 28th. Tickets will be on sale on November 27th and will be good to return until November 30th.

Not only, on the field of battle is chivalry or kindness shown. In school and home life, everywhere, indeed, are the chances waiting for us.

Kind thoughts lead to kind words and kind deeds.

"Kind words are so easy and cost nothing," said Jack. And he told the story of little Johnny, who hurt his finger, and was crying away at his father's side. The father was writing. "I'm sorry, Johnny," he said, "but I can't help it." "Yes you could; you might have said 'Oh!'" sobbed Johnny.

"There's a Johnny in tears inside all of us upon occasions," said William C. Gannett, in telling the story.

Selected.

SOME REFERENCE BOOKS.

The following selected list of books has been compiled with special consideration for the needs of the unscientific reader, though there is quite enough science in many of them to satisfy all but the specialist.

BOOKS ABOUT BIRDS.

STANDARD REFERENCE BOOKS.

Key to North American Birds. Elliott Coues.....	\$ 7 50
Manual of North American Birds. Robert Ridgway.....	7 50
Handbook of Birds of North Eastern America. Frank M. Chapman.....	3 00

BOOKS OF A POPULAR CHARACTER.

Birds of Village and Field. Florence A. Merriam.....	\$ 2 00
Birds through an Opera-Glass. Florence A. Merriam.....	75
Birds in the Bush. Bradford Torrey.....	1 25
Every-Day Birds.....	1 00
Recent Rumbles. Dr. C. C. Abbott.....	1 50
The Birds Above Us.....	1 50
Travels in a Tree Top.....	1 50
Bird-Land Echoes.....	1 50
Wake Robin. John Burroughs.....	1 25
Birds and Poets.....	1 25
Bird Neighbors. Neltje Blanchan. With Illustrations in Color.....	2 00
Birds that Hunt and are Hunted. Neltje Blanchan. With Illustrations in Color.....	2 00
Nuttall's Ornithology, 2 vols.....	7 50
Birdcraft. Mabel Osgood Wright.....	2 50
Citizen Bird.....	1 50
Bird Studies. W. E. D. Scott.....	5 00
Our Common Birds and How to know them. John B. Grant.....	1 50
How to Name the Birds. H. E. Parkhurst.....	1 00
Some Birds and Water Fowl.....	1 50
Birds Calendar. The.....	1 50
On the Birds' Highway. R. H. Howe, Jr.....	2 00
A Year with the Birds. Wilson Flagg.....	1 00
Birds and Seasons in New England. Wilson Flagg.....	1 00
Game Birds at Home. T. S. Van Dyke.....	1 50
Bird Life. Frank M. Chapman.....	1 75
Bird studies with a Camera. Frank M. Chapman.....	1 75
A Bird Lover in the West. Olive Thorne Miller.....	1 25
Little Brothers of the Air. Olive Thorne Miller.....	1 25
Bird Ways. Olive Thorne Miller.....	1 25
In Nesting Time.....	1 25
The First Book of Birds.....	1 25
Second Book of Birds.....	1 00
Bird Homes. A. R. Dugmore.....	2 00
Birds Nesting. Ernest Ingersoll.....	1 25

BOOKS ABOUT TREES AND SHRUBS.

Our Native Trees and How to Identify Them. Harriet L. Keeler.....	\$ 2 00
Trees of the Northern United States. E. A. Apgar.....	1 00
Familiar Trees and their Leaves. F. S. Matthews.....	1 75
Trees of North Eastern America. C. S. Newhall.....	1 75
Leaf Collector's Handbook. C. S. Newhall.....	2 00
Shrubs of North Eastern America.....	1 75
The Vines of North Eastern Amer.....	1 75
Ornamental Shrubs. S. D. Davis.....	3 50
A Guide to the Trees. Alice Lounsbury. With many Colored Illustrations.....	3 00
Art Out of Doors. Mrs. Schuyler van Ransselaer.....	1 50

Year with the Trees. A. Wilson Flagg.....	2 00
Landscape Gardening. Samuel Parsons, Jr.....	3 50
Trees and Shrubs. Edward Knobel.....	50

BOOKS ABOUT FLOWERS.

Nature's Garden. Neltje Blanchan. With Numerous Colored Illustrations.....	3 00
How to know the Wild Flowers. Mrs. W. S. Dana.....	1 75
How to know the Ferns. Mrs. W. S. Dana.....	1 50
According to Season. Mrs. W. S. Dana.....	75
A Guide to the Wild Flowers. Alice Lounsbury. Colored Plates.....	2 50
Familiar Flowers of Field and Garden. F. S. Matthews.....	1 75
Flowers of Field, Hill and Swamp. Miss Creevy.....	2 50
With the Wild Flowers, from Pussy Willow to Thistle-down. E. M. Hardinge.....	1 00
Wild Flowers and Ferns in Their Haunts. Mabel Osgood Wright.....	1 50
Ferns and Evergreens. Edward Knobel.....	50

BOOKS ABOUT INSECTS.

Ants, Bees and Wasps. Sir John Lubbock.....	2 00
Honey Makers. The. Margaret W. Morley.....	1 50
Bee People. The.....	1 25
Curious Homes and Their Tenants. J. C. Beard.....	65
Insect Life. J. H. Comstock.....	1 50
Our Insect Friends and Foes. Bella S. Cragin.....	1 75
Our Common Insects. A. S. Packard, Jr.....	1 50
Insect World. The. Clarence M. Weed.....	60
Butterfly Book, The. Dr. W. J. Holland. Colored Plates.....	3 00
Every-Day Butterflies. Samuel H. Scudder.....	2 00
Guide to Butterflies.....	1 25
The Insect Book. Dr. Leland O. Howard.....	3 00
The Butterflies and Dusk Flies. Edward Knobel.....	50
The Night Moths. Edward Knobel.....	50
The Beetles and Their Kind.....	50
Spiders.....	50
Spiders. Their Structure and Habits. J. H. Emerton.....	1 50

BOOKS OF GENERAL INTEREST TO NATURE LOVERS.

Spring Notes from Tennessee. Bradford Torrey.....	1 25
The Foot-path Way. Bradford Torrey.....	1 25
A Rambler's Lease.....	1 25
A Florida Sketch Book.....	1 25
Recent Rumbles. Dr. C. C. Abbot.....	1 50
Freedom of the Fields.....	1 50
A Naturalist's Rambles About Home. Dr. C. C. Abbot.....	1 50
Days out of Doors. Dr. C. C. Abbot.....	1 50
Outings at Odd Times.....	1 25
Winter Sunshine. John Burroughs.....	1 25
Locusts and Wild Honey.....	1 25
Fresh Fields.....	1 25
Pepaction and Other Sketches.....	1 25
Signs and Seasons.....	1 25
Riverby.....	1 25
Squirrels and other Fur Bearers.....	1 00
Chocorio's Tenants. Frank Bolles.....	1 00
From Blomidon to Smoky.....	1 25
At the North of Bearcamp Water.....	1 25
Land of the Lingering Snow.....	1 25

The Art of Taxidermy. John Rowley...	1 25	Seton Thompson.....	1 50
Life and Her Children. A. B. Buckley...	1 50	Ways of Wood Folk. Long.....	40
Fairy Land of Science ".....	1 50	Wilderness Ways. Long.....	40
Winners in Life's Race ".....	1 50	The Biography of a Grizzly. Ernest	
Four-Footed Americans. Mabel Osgood		Seton-Thompson.....	1 50
Wright.....	1 50	Flashlights on Nature. Grant Allen.....	1 50
The Open Air. Richard Jefferies.....	1 00	Familiar Features of the Roadside. F. S.	
Nature Near London ".....	1 00	Matthews.....	1 75
The Life of the Fields.....	1 00	The Hall of Shells. Mrs. H. S. Hardy...	60
In New England Fields and Woods. Ro-		Wabeno the Magician. Mabel Osg'd Wright	1 50
land F. Robinson.....	1 25	Little Beasts of Wood and Field. W. E.	
Spring Notes from Tennessee. Bradford		Cram.....	1 25
Torrey.....	1 25	Wild Neighbors. Ernest Ingersoll.....	4 50
The Foot-Path Way. Bradford Torrey...	1 25	Little Rivers. Henry van Dyke.....	2 00
Highways and Byways. William Hamilton		Walden Henry D. Thoreau	1 50
Gibson.....	1 25	A week on the Concord and	
Strolls by Starlight and Sunlight. Wm.		Merrimac Rivers " ".....	1 50
Hamilton Gibson.....	1 25	Maine Woods " ".....	1 50
Sharp Eyes. Wm. Hamilton Gibson	2 50	Cape Cod " ".....	1 50
Eye Spy ".....	2 50	Yankee in Canada " ".....	1 50
My Studio Neighbors ".....	2 50	Excursions in Field and Forest ".....	1 50
Wild Animals I Have Known. Ernest		Life on the Sea Shore. J. H. Emerton	
Seton-Thompson.....	2 00	Net.....	1 50
The Trail of the Sandhill Stag. Ernest		Nature's Calendar. Ernest Ingersoll.....	1 50

—James B. Carrington.

TACT.

THEN AND NOW.

Gail H. Cullerton.

Given an inexperienced primary teacher, with a good education, enthusiasm, and sympathy for children, to find—tact.

The inexperienced teacher does not wish to be harsh to the children in her charge, but she often seems to. This is due, many times, to a worried feeling of need of instant correction which, in her inexperience, she finds necessary to be administered continually to some one of the irresponsible little ones, untrained in body as well as mind. This harsh manner is really foreign to herself and is assumed in self-defense. Experience gives her tact. She deals with the children more effectively, yet in a sympathetic manner.

To a casual observer the final result appears much the same—the apple is not eaten in school again. But who can measure the result of the child's mental attitude—the sympathy established between the little one and the teacher. In return he gives her unbounded love and there forms a habit of respect for all teachers, which, in a measure, follows through his school-life, even should he pass into the hands of others less mindful of "Children's Rights."

How an inexperienced teacher disciplined at the beginning of her work, and how experience has taught her wiser methods is shown in the comparison below.

Then:

"Get Kenneth's book, August. I do wish you would remember to bring your own reader."

Now:

"But August, I have no book for you. No, I cannot let you borrow Kenneth's. He is absent and I cannot ask him about it. I would no more think of going to his desk and taking his book than I would think of going into his house and taking his cap without his permission. You may sit in this chair and when it is your turn I will write your sentence on the board; then you will not miss everything."

Then:

What a drizzly, rainy day! Only six children! It does'nt pay to teach the children anything to-day. I shall have to teach the same things again when the other children return.

"We will not learn a new word to-day children, There are so few of you here and you might as well wait until to-morrow."

Now:

"Six little ducks! Yes, you must be little ducks, for ducks like the rain. They have their little red rubbers on,

I'm thinking it will be such a good joke to learn the new word *now*, which the other children will have *to-morrow*, and to read the story we shall have to-morrow, and then when the other boys and girls come to school, every one of you will know it very well. Then you can tell it to them, and how surprised they will be! But I'm so afraid that you will not remember the new part. The new word is something that walks right to—swimming-school, right out in the rain. You've guessed it, *duck*. It it a good day for ducks to be out, isn't it?"

Then :

Oh dear, however am I to break August of eternally chewing gum. I have had him put his gum in the waste-basket every day for a week. He doesn't seem to mind it at all.

"Put your gum in the basket, August?" I don't see how you chance to have gum every day."

Now :

"Are you so fond of gum, August?" (This is said in a quiet tone to August). "Well, get a clean piece of paper from the basket to put the gum in and then place it on the little shelf, until you go home. You know it is impolite to chew gum in society, or to eat anything unless you have enough to pass to all of us."

Then :

I suppose I ought not to have made poor little Joe put the apple he was eating in the basket. He looks half starved, and the children said he *found* that piece of an apple in the yard. To think of his wanting it badly enough to eat it after that? He cried dreadfully. I wish I hadn't made him throw it away.

Now :

"Come, Joe, here is a little chair. I think it will be nicer to sit here while you finish your apple. When you have finished, wash your hands nicely. Clean paper soils so easily."

Joe shyly sits down in the chair. He eats his apple and enjoys it; still there is a lurking idea in his head that he wouldn't care to eat an apple that way *every* day.

Then :

If I have said "Look at the board," to Willie, once to-day, I have said it ten times. Just the minute I call the children's attention to the board, that restless little Willie begins to look at his desk, or on the floor, or anywhere except the *right* place. "Now, Willie, do pay attention. If you disturb me again I shall have to punish you!"

Now :

"Look at this long new word, children. It is *squirrel*. Why, Willie, you won't find a squirrel in your desk. Of course not; but here on the board you will find all about this squirrel. When we have finished reading about this squirrel I shall let Willie read the story alone."

Then :

However am I to suppress Willie! He wants to talk *all* of the time. He has such long stories to tell, too. We were taught to let a child talk *some* of the time, but Willie wants to tell me something every time I say a word to the children. "Do keep still, Willie!"

Now :

"Whenever you have something to tell us, Willie, just stand quietly by your seat and, if convenient, I shall be sure to see you."

One step gained—the little voice is not piping out at all times of the day.

"Come right up here in front, Willie. It is something we shall all enjoy? About a dead bird you saw once? Oh, well, then I wouldn't tell it. Just tell *pleasant* things about which we *like* to hear."

Then :

Laura tumbled over Harold's feet to-day. I have asked Harold to keep his feet under his seat and not out in the aisle. He seems to forget as soon as I am through asking him. "Harold, when *will* you learn to keep your feet where they belong!"

Now :

"Isn't it fun to think of the little house each of us has? Each little desk is a little house here at school. We must keep everything in good order. And

what a nice yard there is under the desk. And the aisles we may call the streets. Where does your mamma wish you to play, in your yard or in the street? The yard, of course. Then let us keep our feet at home under our desks. No little street boys here."

Then :

I took August's whip away from him to-day. He insisted that he was "only playing" when he switched the other boys. He didn't seem to realize that he had done wrong.

"Give me your whip, August. Now I shall keep it."

Now :

"It is not play, August, unless everyone concerned *likes* it. If you are happy and Willie unhappy, then you are not playing. If Willie is happy, but makes you unhappy, then you are not playing. Play means fun for all."

FEELING.

Everyone knows how panic is increased by flight, and how the giving way to symptoms of grief or anger increases those passions themselves. Each fit of sobbing makes the sorrow more acute and calls forth another fit stronger still, until at last repose only ensues with lassitude and with apparent exhaustion of the machinery. In rage it is notorious how we work ourselves up to a climax by repeated acts of expression. Refuse to express a passion and it dies. Count ten before venting your anger, and its occasion seems ridiculous. Whistling to keep your courage up is no figure of speech. On the other hand to sit all day in a moping posture, sigh and reply to everything in a dismal voice and your melancholy lingers. There is no more valuable precept in moral education than this, as all who have experience know: if we wish to conquer undesirable emotional tendencies in ourselves we must assiduously, and in the first instance cold-bloodedly, go through the outward movements of those contrary dispositions we prefer to cultivate. The reward of persistency will infallibly come. Smooth the brow, brighten the eye, contract the dorsal rather than the venrical aspect of the frame, and speak in a major key, pass the genial compliment, and your heart must be frigid indeed, if it does not gradually thaw.
—*Prof. James.*

ON TEACHING GRAMMAR.

By Sarah Louise Arnold. Supervisor of Schools. Boston.

In a certain state examination of teachers the candidates were requested to interpret the phrase "objective teaching" and to name subjects in which this manner of teaching might be applied. One paper contained this reply: "My pupils object chiefly to grammar and music. They say they do not see any use for them."

This rather amusing statement possessed at least one virtue. It was an expression of the teacher's own experience. It is interesting to note that, in a recent canvass of the pupils studying grammar in the public schools of one of our cities, a good majority frankly, though confidentially, confessed that they saw no good reason for studying grammar. Of the remainder, nearly every child repeated the appropriate formula, "Grammar teaches us to speak and write correctly," although a few gave definite reasons for the place of the subject in the course of study, citing their experience to strengthen their argument.

"I do not see,"—said a girl who had just come in from the country,— "I do not see how grammar teaches you how to speak and write correctly. I know children who never studied grammar who speak correctly, and I know people who speak incorrectly even after they have studied grammar a long time." The observation of other members of the class confirmed her theory. When the conversation turned upon the difficulties in grammar, one pupil volunteered: "It would'nt be so hard if the words were always the same thing, but sometimes

they are one thing, and sometimes they are another. A word may be a noun in one place, and in another place it's a verb, and you never know which is which."

This frank acknowledgment seemed to express the difficulty which nearly every member of the class had met. "How do you discover which is which?" questioned the interlocutor. "I *walk* in the fields every day." "The *walk* through the pine grove on the hill is a very pleasant one." The country girl proceeded to reply: "You have to think what your word means." Bringing forward her definitions of noun and verb and applying them to the words in each sentence, as she interpreted the sentence, she solved the problem, announcing that "walk" was a verb in the first sentence and a noun in the second.

The conclusion of the whole matter was summed up in the suggestion of the thoughtful pupil—"You have to think in order to answer any question in grammar." The pupils readily conceded that any object which taught them to think was worth while, and with this general consent to the existing order of things, the debate was closed.

The conversation was a typical one, and the attitude of the pupils indicated one of the serious difficulties in teaching grammar. Too often grammar is presented to the pupil under a false flag. "It is to teach them to speak and write correctly." they are told; but forthwith they are set to studying the "classification, derivation, and various modifications of words." As a matter of fact, their study bears a very slight relation to the correctness of their speaking and writing. In the end their grammatical knowledge may serve to test forms of speech which they have learned to challenge; but, as everybody knows, speech is largely a matter of imitation and repetition. Those who are accustomed in youth to correct practice will speak well, even if their knowledge of grammar is exceedingly limited.

One value of the study of grammar, however, lies in the fact that it forces the pupil to challenge every word in the sentence, to weigh its meaning, and to discover the work which that word has to do. Thoughtful reading, then, should be one result of teaching grammar. Appreciation of fine shades of meaning should follow in the steps of grammatical training. The power to arrange, to classify, to separate, to balance, to judge, should be developed by the careful study of words. The power to interpret the speech of another and to make one's own speech clear, correct, and cogent should be the outcome of the study of grammar.

A class in grammar were once set to analyze the simple sentence, "The boys with merry hearts started on their excursion." "With merry hearts" is an adverbial phrase modifying 'started,'" said the first student. The others all agreed. Questions developed the fact that the pupil thought "with merry hearts" to be an adverbial phrase because it began with "with"—a vague groping after the word-classification and the lists which had been committed to memory,—*surface* body. All the members voted that John was correct in his analysis. He must be right or he must be wrong. They considered that he was right. The visitor asked a question in arithmetic: "Eight and five are how many?" "Thirteen." "Any other answer would be wrong." "Thirteen was the *only* right answer." Their judgment was compared with their decision upon the question of grammar. The analysis was right or wrong, but not in an absolute sense, as in the mathematical statement. Discussion divided the class into two parties. "If the sentence means that the boys started on their excursion with merry hearts, then it is an adverbial phrase modifying 'started.'" "If the sentence means that the merry-hearted boys, or the boys having merry hearts, or the boys whose hearts were merry, started on an excursion, then it is an adjective phrase modifying 'boys.'" "

The analysis of the sentence at last caused the pupils to investigate the meaning of the sentence, to admit that in this case two different constructions might at least be allowed, and to acknowledge that two interpreters might differ in their judgment, and yet each, from his own point of view, might be right.

This illustration is a very simple one, but the trend of the discussion in the case shows one of the needs of the present-day study of grammar. *It should emphasize first, last, and always the thought in the sentence.* Its main purpose should be to lead the pupil to interpret the thought. Having decided what the sentence means, he is ready to discuss the function of each separate word in the sentence. This decision will be determined by his own individual interpretation of the thought.

The ability to get the thought from the sentence, as one would extract a kernel from a nut, is indispensable to clear speaking and writing and to intelligent reading. The classification, which is necessary in parsing and analysis, necessitates keen observation, accurate comparison, critical judgment, and clear statement. It necessitates the subjective study of one's own thoughts. Rightly conducted, it develops clear thinking, power of logical arrangement, thoughtful interpretation, and a tolerant spirit.

Such results cannot be secured by simply announcing definitions and requiring the pupils to commit them to memory and to attach to them suitable lists of words. The scientific study of grammar demands the ordinary scientific procedure. The child must observe his own experience (in grammar, the expression of his own thoughts). He must state accurately and truthfully what he has observed. To this statement of his own experience the grammatical term may be attached, until his observation is wide enough to warrant the grammatical definition or the statement of a universal principle.

For example, if the young student begins his study of grammar with the statement that "all words are divided into eight classes, called parts of speech; these are nouns, pronouns, etc.; a noun is the name of a person, place or thing," etc., he is simply repeating words expressing a *general* truth, which he accepts upon the testimony of another. This line of approach is unscientific in the extreme. It results in the vague groping after definitions and "the words of the book" to be attached to the subject under discussion.

If, on the other hand, they are led to the apprehension of grammatical truths by a statement of their own experience, they walk all the way with solid ground under their feet. For example, the pupil studies sentences in his own composition—the sentences which express his own thoughts—and discovers that in these sentences certain words have a certain work to do. He says: "Jack is the name of a boy. John Smith is the name of a man. Mary Snow is the name of a girl. These words are names of persons. Some words name persons." He goes on with his investigation until he is ready to announce that some words name places; some words name things. This is a truthful statement of the result of his personal investigation. The teacher adds the term used in grammar to name the class—"Such words are nouns."

The student has now made a fair report of his investigation, and out of his own experience makes the truthful statement, "Some words name persons, places, or things; such words are called nouns." He finds in his own composition, or in the writings of others, words which name persons, places, or things and are, therefore, nouns. After sufficient investigation he is prepared to accept the general truth included in the definition, "A noun is the name of a person, place, or thing."

It is clear that the pupil who approaches the study of the sentence with the avowed purpose of discovering the work of every word in the sentence; who studies the *expression of his own thought* in order to discover what work is done by his own words; who truthfully reports his observation in partial statements, since his observation is partial; and who builds up his conclusions to be capped by appropriate terms, is following the natural law and is pursuing a scientific course. Such study is widely removed from the bare repetition of definitions and the vain groping for correct answers. It is all the way an expression of the pupil's own experience. It deals with the thing signified rather than with the sign. Such a course of action revolutionizes the ordinary teaching of grammar.

THE EDUCATION OF THE FARMER'S SON.

By W. A. McIntyre. Provincial Normal School.

(From the Nor'-West Farmer.)

The education of a farmer's boy should fit him for business and far more than business—for business, because he must make a living, for more than business because it is a bigger thing to live than to make a living.

First, then, let us ask what the direct preparation for the business of farming demands, remembering that this preparation is given in the home, and in the school through books, newspapers and institutes, at the technical school, by travel and in other ways. To begin with, *intelligence* is necessary. There may have been a time when the farmer could proceed by imitation, but to-day if he is to succeed he must be thoughtful and original. He mustn't follow a set order of planting his fields because his neighbors are doing it that way, but because he has a reason for it; he mustn't trust to luck in selection of foods for his stock, but must know the use of every vegetable and must govern his practice accordingly. A few years ago in an Eastern province the flies were troubling the horses. One thoughtful farmer adopted the device of tying parts of an old salt bag beneath the horses' chins, much to the relief of the poor brutes. Some neighbors seeing this, came to borrow salt bags so that they might proceed similarly. But for the action of one thoughtful farmer all would have left their horses to suffer till the end of the season. It is strange that they could not go even so far as to see that any other heavy cloth would have taken the place of the old salt bag. This is, of course, an extreme case, but it illustrates what we see every day, not in farming alone, but in medicine, in trading, in teaching, in preaching and what not? In farming, then, the thinking habit seems to be more important than any other, and it may be developed by education.

In the home children can be taught to *think or reason* as to courses of procedure. Why does cold yeast refuse to rise? Why is cold cream difficult to churn? Why does cultivating the ground around trees insure greater growth? Why do farmers use bluestone? In school the same habit of thoughtful observation should be encouraged, and toward this end too much of what is known as nature study cannot be done. Some people talk as if farming could be taught in the public school. That is not possible; but in school children can learn much useful information about things on the farm, and about farm processes, and above all, may be taught to think about what they see, so that the reflective rather than the imitative habit may be to them second nature. What classes of plants grow on the hill and what classes near the slough? Why? What difference between the roots of the elm and the maple tree? What differences in foliage are due to these differences in root? How does a rolling field affect the retention of moisture? Why? etc. And if this thoughtfully observant attitude may be developed at home and in school, it may be developed still more fully through reading and through farmers' associations, but above all, through attendance at an agricultural school. And here let it be urged that such a school seems to be one of the greatest needs in a country such as ours.

But the farmer requires more than intelligence. He must add to this *right habits*. We have all met farmers in this country—philosopher farmers, too—who failed simply because they were lacking in some habits essential to success. Such habits are system, economy, carefulness, foresight, neatness, industry, punctuality, and the like. If a man leaves his implements all over the farm to be destroyed by rain and frost, if he gives a peck of oats when a gallon is sufficient, if he leaves a broken hinge till a more convenient season—that is, until the gate is flat on the ground and "the cows are in the corn," if he does not keep sufficient seed for next year's sowing, and if he decorates the front yard with a wood pile, he surely need not expect that his farming will be a great success. It is not, perhaps, too much to say that most failures in farming in this country are largely owing to the fact that those failing have acquired habits against which it is impossible for them to battle with success.

If we add to intelligence and right habits a certain degree of *taste*, the *moral qualities* of honesty and industry, the *social qualities* of courtesy and politeness, the farmer may be said to have that which is most directly necessary to success in his chosen work.

But, as was said in the beginning, there is something more important than being fitted for business or for making a living. Life should mean vastly more than getting and hoarding and spending; more than getting more money to buy more land to raise more grain, so as to get more money, to buy more land to raise more grain, etc. It

should mean *soul-expansion* with all that it involves. In the highest and best sense the education of a farmer as of every one else should mean an education for *manhood*. There are some who do not understand this. They imagine that business is the beginning and the end of life. Well, maybe it is if it is the right kind of business. Our Master has said that He was here to be about His Father's business, and it is doubtful if any man has a right to so reduce himself that his highest capability is to get, and get something that he may deposit in a granary or a chartered bank. Not what a man has, but what he is determines his full worth. It follows that the very best education a young man can receive is that which tends to refine and ennoble his character. No parent can be more foolish than he who spends his life in hoarding for his children while he neglects their intellectual and moral culture; and no school is worse than that which settles down to giving simply what is known as a practical, or dollars and cents education. In a good home and in a good school all care will be taken to stimulate to high and noble endeavor. High ideas of life and conduct will be placed before the children and they will be trained to habits of truth, courtesy and reverence. More than this, it will always be found that an education which aims at character is the most practical. He who has learned to be a man will never come behind in the matter of business.

There is a common enough tendency to narrow or restrict the education of farm boys. They have often little reading provided them, there are few amusements, the conversation is limited to discussions regarding the weather and the crops and the stock. There are few social pleasures. There are, of course many noble exceptions to this, but still it holds that many farmers devote little thought to making their homes more attractive than any other place outside the home. What is the result? Some day the young man leaves home. He sees an opening away from home for a pleasure that was denied him—the pleasure of companions, of reading, of entertainment. Then he quits the farm and the blame is laid on—well, say the school teacher. Is it too much to ask that in the home and in the rural school, a boy's opportunities for culture should be as great as in any town or city? No boy should, on coming to a city, feel that he is a clodhopper. If a man has too many acres to cultivate to be careful as to table manners, he had better sell a little, and pay some attention to what he may consider "blamed rot." When his boys grow up they may just have "sufficient gnuppon" to be aware of their awkwardness and uncouthness, and the fact that the "old man" has done well for them financially will not prevent them from hurling anathemas at him for his neglect to teach them the customs of civilized life. In short, then, the education of a country boy, should be as broad, rich and full as the education of any other youth, and this because he has the same human rights. There is no place on this earth like a farm for developing brain and brawn, and our best men have come, are coming and will continue to come from the farm. But let no man starve the souls of his children by compelling them to live on husks. A boy may well pride himself that he is going to be a farmer, but first of all let him pride himself that he is going to be a man.

Now, should any man say this is the bumptious utterance of a school teacher, it might be urged that half the writer's life was spent on the farm, the other half with young men, many of them from the farm, and this not pure theory.—

Historic Tales.

2.—SQUIRE BULL'S DAUGHTER BETSY.

Contributed by Saul Og.

Shortly after this, Miss Betsy, being women grown, and having a sharp eye to business, made up her mind for the better management of her estate to divide up the whole domain,—which, by the addition of one bit of property after another, woodlands, uplands, and meadow, had grown to an immense size,—to divide it up into half-a-dozen or more estates each to be managed by a factor; while her steward or chief factor, was to be responsible for the proper conduct of the whole. Her property, though the bulk of it was wild land, gave promise of great wealth for the future; and her tenants though by no means rich were hard working, contented, and fairly prosperous.

Betsy was determined to keep her home and affairs as a gentlewoman should. She knew that factors and chief factors and book-keepers and constables and footmen are only human affairs after all and that you must not expect too much of them; she knew that hard working people, and people of all kinds for that matter, like to have a holiday and see a brave show now and then with trumpets and drums and fireworks and ribbons and feathers, and a dance in the big room or the barn, of an evening; and she knew, moreover, that being young and not much versed in the ways of the world she would often be the better of good advice herself. So, after turning the matter over in her mind, she decided on the following plan; to which her grandmother, the lady Victoria, gave her consent:

The old lady was to choose an agent who should make himself agreeable to the tenants and leave business affairs largely to the chief factor. He was to give a grand hop once a year to which the chief tenants were to be invited; he was to ask the youngsters once a week to a toboggan party or a snow-shoe tramp in winter, and to tennis in the summer, except during harvest time. He was to be referee in the principle lacrosse matches, and president of the curling club, and was to let off the fireworks on the twenty-fourth of May. Betsy was to provide him a good house rent free, and find him in cordwood and candles, the cordwood to be split in stove lengths; a tennis court; a blanket coat, with capuchin and red sash; two pairs of moccasins; a double-barrelled shot gun; a rifle; fishing tackle; a Peterborough canoe.

It was agreed that Betsy should have the right to dismiss the factors any time she wished; in that case the agent was to appoint another one to take the vacant place; and at stated times the factor must give an account of all his work and show his books and receipts: and if all seemed right he should keep his post; but if not someone else should have it. When a factor went out he was not to be in disgrace by any means, if it was simply poor management. He could wait his chance again. In the meanwhile he could go about the farm and workshops and find fault as much as he had a mind to. Betsy made no objection to this; in fact she thought it had a good effect on her servants.

It was distinctly understood that there was to be no family chaplain. This was not on account of any want of respect for sacred things. Indeed Betsy and all her household and servants attend church regularly and listen devoutly to the ministers of religion, of whom there are several residing on the estate. On the old homestead, it is true, there are permanent, or as they say, established family chaplains. John's favorite is a very respectable person, and Peg's likewise. Their names are Thomas and Jack respectfully. Kitty has none at present though long ago she had one; but he was not popular with her tenants, and so he was dismissed. But having in mind her former experience with the pastor Betsy thought it better to put them all on common footing. Jealousies would certainly arise if she showed special favors to any one in particular. There was Peter, one of the oldest parsons in the country for miles around, greatly beloved by the old habitants that were on the land since the days of the old Sir Lewis. There were those who would support his claims for special rights and privileges. Peter has a most splendid pedigree. But unfortunately much of his speech is in a foreign language and Betsy finds it difficult to understand all he means to say. Tom and Jack each had their favorite partisans and it would have been difficult to decide between them. They were brought up in the same house with Peter long ago, but separated from him and from each

other at the same time, and set up establishments of their own. Thomas, she likes very well: his connections are respectable, his conduct orderly, his conversation pleasing and easily understood, and his servants—among whom there are three grades or orders—are civilly behaved. Per contra, he is rather given to display, dearly loves a fine waistcoat, and is inclined to give himself unnecessary airs. Jack is a man of dignity and condition, and him Betsy holds in high esteem as a sound scholar, of correct opinions, and irreproachable character. In his household there is but one grade of servants, no higher, no lower. There are those however who say that on closer acquaintance Jack proves domineering, heady and high-minded, and wears one's life out with never-ending, windy, hairsplitting metaphysical arguments all about nothing. Wess is a young clergyman, very sprightly and good natured. He gives himself no airs, cares nothing whatever for dignity. He was a servant in Tom's house at one time though the latter refused to give him a character when he left. Betsy is charmed with his unfailing good humor, his merry lilting tunes—he is a capital singer—and his lively conversation, but cannot be brought to share his opinion upon dancing and horse racing. In spite of these trifling faults Betsy, as I have said, likes them all most heartily. Indeed she cannot persuade herself which she likes best. She bids them all welcome to her place to stay as long as they like, and desires them to do all the good they possibly can among the tenantry.

Having settled this difficult matter amicably and having established all her affairs on a proper basis—she now had a constitution likely to carry her through anyway—Betsy set to work with a will to make the best of her estates.

While these matters were being arranged, Sam was no uninterested spectator, I can tell you. He plied Betsy with argument and flattery to try to convince her of the error she was making. She was too young. She had no experience in the world. It was not safe for her, it was hardly proper, to undertake an establishment of her own. And withal he admired and loved her so dearly that she would surely give up this fantastical idea, and live in his house, (it was large enough for both of them), and it would be a pleasure to him and no trouble at all to look after the estate for her, and much more of the same kind. But Betsy said "No, she was quite contented with her lot," and when Sam knew for certain that her mind was set, he changed his tone and very coldly bade her good-day; remarking that he would try another way of bringing her to her senses.

So Sam immediately gave orders for a toll-gate on every road and lane leading from Betsy's estate to his. "It's for your own good, Betsy, my dear," said he when Betsy remonstrated. "I don't wish to do it, but I simply wish to show you that you cannot live in that wilderness without my help. It's hard, I admit, but business is business, and you'll come to my terms all the sooner." This was no fair play, but Betsy was a girl of spirit, and put up toll-gates of her own. In this she was strongly supported by her chief factor, a great favorite of hers, whom his friends called the Chieftain. You may be sure John Bull put up no toll gates, but on the contrary was glad to buy from Betsy any odd stick of timber, or bag of wheat, or barrel of flour—for she had a fine mill on the creek—or an occasional calf or firkin of butter she might have to sell. It was hard work getting along at first, but bit by bit her workmen learned to make most of their own clothing and tools and what not. Moreover she was at great pains to build a splendid corduroy road running from one end of her estate to

the other and connecting all her farms. Also she got the length of keeping a few boats of her own, and carried on a tidy bit of trade with one another. And it soon became evident that Betsy had made a success of it in spite of toll-gates and other annoyances growing out of her coolness with her unneighborly neighbor and relative, and could snap her fingers in Sam's face.

As for Sam himself he was minded to change his opinions about a number of matters. You know he never had a lawsuit in his life with anyone but John Bull, and therefore thought for many and many a year that John was his mortal enemy. John on his part having cases at every assize court thought but little of the matter; and Sam when he brought suit the other day against old Squire Don about the tobacco plantations, was very much surprised to learn that John Bull was the only friend he had in the whole country side.

Having turned things over in his mind, Sam began to think it time to make a change and deal in a more reasonable way with his relatives. He began to make civil enquiries about Betsy's health, and how her affairs were doing, made complimentary speeches to her when they met at a hop, or when spending the evening out. He took occasion to call upon her more frequently than of yore, and greatly admired the breadth of her fields, her fine bunch of cattle, and the size and contents of her barns. He visited the saw mill on the creek, took a drive around the woodlot and observed the quality of the timber, tried the fishing, and went over some of the mining properties. It was not long before he arranged to have a meeting between Betsy's chief factor and his, to clear away all outstanding disputes between them.

I am told that an arrangement will soon be arrived at, and that Sam, though he still hangs back somewhat (there is a difficulty about the exact location of a line fence involving the ownership of a few acres of ground) will make things much better for his neighbor in the future. No doubt he loves a good bargain, but in this case interest and natural affection alike incline him to an amicable settlement.

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And all up the vale,
From the autumn bonfires
See the smoky trail!
Pleasant summer over,
And all the summer flowers,
The red fire blazes,
The gray smoke towers.
Sing a song of seasons!
Something bright in all!
Flowers in the summer,
Fires in the fall!
"Childs Garden of Verse," R. L. Stevenson."

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The Examinations for the Second and First Class Normal now in session will be held December 16th to 20th, inclusive.

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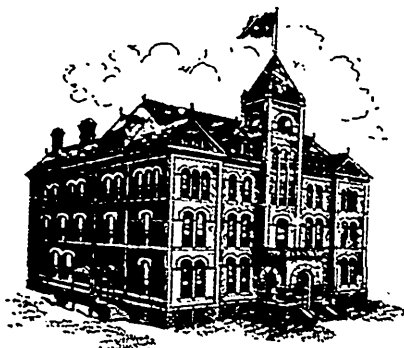
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