

THE

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

FOR THE PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA.

DRAWING IN SCHOOLS.

By the direction of the Council of Public Instruction drawing materials have been placed within the reach of our public schools, at a trifling cost. It is hoped that Inspectors will lose no opportunity of bringing before teachers, trustees, and people, the importance of introducing into their schools the art of drawing, as a regular branch of school work. And we would here state, lest some teacher is disposed to say, "I cannot teach drawing, the subject is of no interest to me," that the instructions which accompany every package of the prescribed models, are so simple and full that any teacher of ordinary ability can take up the study and readily instruct pupils without the aid of a teacher of drawing. A child can understand the lessons with little help. We do not mean that teachers should not set themselves to master the principles of drawing in order to teach the art effectively, but we do mean, that the old idea of some special gift being required to comprehend these principles and reduce them to practice is an erroneous one, and should not be allowed to deter any teacher from addressing himself at once to this branch of common school instruction. We think that it is as easy to teach children the skilful use of the pencil as it is to teach them the use and practice of the pen. There exists no possible argument to show that a child cannot as easily and as readily comprehend, and mark out upon slate and paper, the four lines forming a *square*, the three forming a *triangle*, and the continuous line forming a *circle*, as he can the forms of the capital letters H, A, and O, which they somewhat resemble. These figures comprehend the basis or structure, so to speak, of the entire art of drawing. All its minutiae of detail are but variations of these simple forms.

To this day, a notion prevails among many persons, that drawing is at best a mere accomplishment. This is a strange mistake. Drawing is the handmaid of all other branches, both in the process of acquiring and in that of imparting. In its first stage, it furnishes some of the most appropriate lessons for the elementary school, whilst more advanced stages furnish an equally appropriate study for the Preparatory and the High school. The forms of the alphabet are most quickly and pleasantly acquired by the use of the slate and pencil. Elementary drawing lessons form the most natural introduction to drawing. Map drawing on the slate, black-board, and on paper, is an essential feature of the method pursued by the most successful teachers of geography. Lessons on the natural sciences are best taught when the pupils are made to produce accurate drawings of the plants, animals, minerals, and other objects studied. Skill in drawing is a necessity to the architect, the engineer, and the artist; and it is almost equally necessary to the teacher, the farmer, the miner, and the surgeon. A few strokes of the pencil afford explanation where language fails. There is no situation in life in which drawing would fail to prove a most useful auxiliary. What a source of pleasure to one visiting objects of interest to be able by means of the pencil to bring away that which will recall to the mind and the eye, at a future day, those objects in all their truth, freshness, and reality!

But beyond the advantages already suggested as accruing from a practical knowledge of the principles of drawing, there are others of sufficient importance to warrant all earnest educators in striving to secure a place for this branch in every school. To draw well one must observe closely. The eye must be trained to see, and the mind to reflect, while patience must be exercised in the execution. These are ends to be aimed at in education, and each is compassed, in a high degree, by this study. Even where a good degree of excellence in execution is not reached, that which is higher may be attained. According to Blair, taste consists in the power of judging, genius in the power of executing. It can hardly be questioned that the art of drawing may be made a very powerful auxiliary in the aesthetic department of education. By its instrumentality, natural sensibility is subjected to culture; and the beautiful is discerned, judged of, and enjoyed. This seems to be the natural tendency of the practice of the art. The pupil sees objects with new eyes. Observation is stimulated by teaching the eye to perceive and the hand to reproduce. The exquisite forms of nature are constantly brought under scrutiny, and the learner gradually, but most surely, experiences a refinement and elevation of taste. This power of mind, once awakened, hears the voices of a thousand teachers, else dumb. Light and shade evermore lend eloquent expression to form, as they play about its calm and silent existence, embodied in the rock and wave, the tree and flower. The lines of beauty that glide along the falling water, or repose upon the sloping hills and hollows, or for a day, stand inimitably chiselled in the piles of drifted snow, if viewed with studious eyes, are subtle refiners of that sensibility which delights in ease and grace of outline. No other instructor is so wise and many-sided as nature, and her pupils are ever rewarded by the perception of new beauties the more closely they strive to imitate her. An intelligent practice of the principles of drawing requires and begets this careful study of nature, and when drawing rises above the sphere of an imitative art into that of a creative art, no study can furnish a severer or better culture for the imagination, the judgment, and the taste. This higher department of the art, is not, in a large degree, within the range of the common school, but its humbler departments are open to all who choose to enter and enjoy the advantages they so abundantly confer.

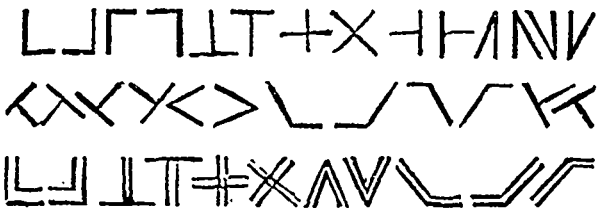
We have already stated that drawing should be taught in every grade of schools. Children should begin to learn to draw as soon as they enter the school-room, and thenceforward its practice should be regularly imposed. The following initiatory exercises in drawing are for the most part condensed from Wickersham's treatise upon instruction in the arts. There are two methods of teaching drawing. The first begins with a straight line, as the simplest element used in drawing, and is called the *Abstract Method*; the second begins with objects, or the pictures of objects, and is called the *Concrete Method*.

THE ABSTRACT METHOD.—All objects that can be represented by drawing them are bounded either by straight or curved lines. The straight line is the more simple of the two, and teachers generally begin their instruction with

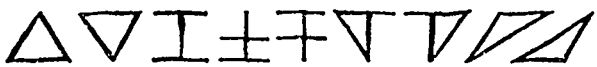
exercises on it. It is well, however, for the teacher to draw the outlines of several objects bounded by straight lines, upon the blackboard, and let the pupils notice the kind of lines of which the figures are composed, and the manner in which one line is added to another to build them up. The pupils may then be led to see the purpose for which they are required to make lines, and why they should make them correctly.

Straight Lines.—These lines may be made of different lengths; they may be perpendicular, horizontal, or inclined at different angles; they may converge, diverge, or run parallel; or they may be bisected, trisected, or divided into any required number of parts.

Combinations of two straight lines.—The following are examples of these combinations:—



Combinations of three straight lines.—Examples of this kind of combinations are the following:—



Combinations of more than three straight lines.—Under this class may be included all triangles divided by a single straight line, squares, rectangles, rhombs, trapeziums, all kinds of polygons, and an immense number of other figures that can be made to furnish a great variety of lessons.

The imitation of real objects bounded by straight lines.—This class of exercises is intended to give pupils practice in imitating the pictures of real objects bounded by straight lines. Among the hundreds of objects suitable for the purpose, the following may be named as examples: boxes, books, blocks, posts, milestones, stools, tables, stars, crosses, doors, windows, houses, castles, &c.

The invention of figures bounded by straight lines.—As drawing is not only an imitative but a creative art, pupils should have practice in inventing figures. The teacher may first exhibit a few original designs upon the blackboard. From these the pupils will understand what is wanted; and if there is not soon an interested class, and eventually some fine work done, it will be contrary to experience. Problems like the following may be assigned: given three, four, five, or any number of straight lines, to form a design of them; given a figure—a triangle, a square, or a parallelogram—to combine with straight lines; given one figure to combine with another, as triangle with triangle, triangle with square; squares, stars, hexagons, with one another.

Curved lines.—The following are a few examples:—



Combinations of curved and straight lines.—Examples of such combinations may be found in sections of circles, sections of ellipses, cones, cylinders, many of the letters of the alphabet, and thousands of objects.

The invention of figures bounded by curved or curved and straight lines.—This class of exercises opens a wide field for the display of ingenuity and taste.

THE CONCRETE METHOD.—The concrete is the most effective form in which knowledge can be communicated to children. Any teacher can try the experiment for himself, and he will find that while children will be delighted to spend hours every day in trying to draw blocks, posts, houses, cats, or cows, they will soon grow tired of making triangles or circles. Nature thus indicates that the first lessons in drawing should be on concrete forms. What if it be said that objects are not as simple as lines, or that it is impossible for a child to draw them correctly, the answer is ready, that in this way they learn everything else. It will be found that what is natural is the most effective. We are speaking of young pupils; children over 15 years of age will not show so great a preference for the concrete method.

The pictures of objects.—It is more easy, and we think, more interesting, for children to draw the pictures of objects than the objects themselves. The first lessons should consist of the outlines of the simplest objects such as boxes, books, posts, gates, doors, houses, &c.; but, although more difficult, no harm can result from allowing children to attempt to draw cats, horses, fowls, dogs, &c.

Drawing the pictures of objects from memory.—In the class of exercises just given, it is presumed that the pupils have cards or books from which they copy the pictures. This done, it will be found of great advantage to reproduce them from memory. Drawing pictures from memory is more difficult than copying pictures; but its disciplinary advantages are proportionably greater.

Drawing real objects.—Having copied the picture of an object, and reproduced it from memory, the pupil is well prepared to draw the object itself. The teacher will generally be able to provide model objects corresponding to the pictures upon the drawing cards. At any rate, abundance of suitable objects can be found.

Inventive Drawing.—Children may be taught to draw objects and combinations of objects that are not copies of any thing they have ever seen, and even to design the simplest kinds of monuments, gates, pleasure-grounds, landscapes, houses, &c. Indeed this kind of work is done by children who have been well taught, with intense interest; and nothing can be better calculated to cultivate ingenuity, or give opportunity of growth to the budding imagination.

These four classes of exercises indicate all that is peculiar to this method. The method is peculiarly adapted to young children, and aims only to communicate a popular knowledge of the art of drawing. Pupils can now enter upon the analysis of forms and their composition, as contemplated in the abstract method, with great profit. Thus here, as everywhere else, principles will be found to underlie appearances. The concrete method merely contemplates the imitation of appearances, whilst the abstract method contemplates, in addition, the study of principles. With pupils who are prepared for it, the two methods may be combined.

After sufficient practice has been had in the preceding exercises, pupils should receive lessons in shading, shadow, and perspective. The effect of shading will be readily appreciated, if the teacher first draw the simple outline of an object, and then shade it. The pupils may then engage in imitating the shading of pictures, and finally, practice the shading of real objects. Much may be done in this way, according to the concrete method, to improve the pupil's taste and increase his skill, before he could learn the general laws of optics upon which the distribution of light depends. When the time comes for learning these laws, they must be taught and applied after the spirit of the abstract method, by beginning with the simplest and proceeding to the more

difficult. What has been said of shading, applies equally well to shadow.

Distant objects do not appear to the eye under the same angle as near ones, and as drawing must be true to nature, objects should be represented as they appear. Hence the necessity of perspective in drawing. The eye should be trained to judge accurately of perspective, as its laws are too cumbersome and formal to be of much aid in drawing an object. When the teacher is capable of imparting a knowledge of these laws, it should be done; but this is not essential. Ruskin says, "It would be worth while for the student to learn them (the laws of perspective), if he could do so easily; but without a master's help, and in the way perspective is at present explained in treatises, the difficulty is greater than the gain. For perspective is not of the slightest use, except in rudimentary work. You can draw the rounding line of a table in perspective, but you cannot draw the sweep of a sea bay. You can foreshorten a log of wood by it, but you cannot foreshorten an arm. Its laws are too gross and few to be applied to any subtle form, therefore, as you must learn to draw the subtle forms by the eye, certainly you may draw the simple ones."

As in writing, the pupils should be taught in classes; the blackboard should be in constant use both by the teacher and pupils; good models should be at hand for imitation, and much care should be taken in the correction of errors. The model cards provided for our schools are equally adapted for lessons on the abstract method or the concrete. Every teacher can arrange the order of the cards to suit himself. No teacher, however, should confine the lessons exclusively to the models, but prescribe many and frequent lessons similar to those which we have outlined. When teachers cannot procure a supply of cards, pencils, paper, and rubbers, they should make use of the slate and blackboard; and the growing interest of the pupils in the practice of drawing will, in good time, prove effectual in securing a proper equipment of drawing materials for the whole school. Those who are supplied with models and paper, will find it an excellent practice to call in the aid of the slate and blackboard. First lessons should generally be given in this way.

We think from what we have said, that teachers will see that this branch has high claims to a prominent place in all our schools, and that every teacher of ordinary skill and tact can advantageously introduce it into his school. It is gratifying to know that a considerable number of boards of trustees have already provided their schools with adequate appliances for exercises in drawing.

ORAL LESSONS IN GEOGRAPHY.

The outlines of a complete series of conversational lessons, introductory to the systematic study of geography from the text-book, may be found in the September and January numbers of the *Journal*. These outlines, sketched by J. B. Calkin, Esq., of the Provincial Normal School, are well worthy the attention and careful study of teachers. We have not been surprised to learn that some of our foremost teachers have already adopted these outlines as the basis of their elementary instruction in geography. If teachers would but reflect upon the utter folly of beginning geographical teaching with lessons upon the solar system, and then proceeding to discuss the form, dimensions and motions of the earth; poles, axes, meridians and zones; continents, countries, counties, townships and sections; they would keenly appreciate any practical hints by which the process may be entirely reversed, and made as simple as the ways of nature. We would ask every teacher who reads this, to re-peruse the outlines to which we have referred, and, having caught the spirit in which they are conceived, to prove their value by the practical test of the school room.

[For the Journal of Education.]

EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

RESOLUTIONS passed at the meetings of the Educational Association of Nova Scotia, held in Dalhousie College, Halifax, on the 27th and 28th days of December, 1866.

1. On motion of F. W. George, seconded by Mr. Samuel McNaughton, it was unanimously resolved:—

That this Association, originally formed for the purpose, among others, of promoting the improvement of educational legislation and regulations, has observed with sincere thankfulness the passage of an amended law in the last session of the Legislature, carrying into full effect the views of this Association.

The Association, keenly alive to the benefits which are thus conferred on this and future generations, feel it incumbent on them to express their admiration of the noble and enlightened policy, and patriotic spirit of the originators and supporters of the new legislation, especially the Hon. Charles Tupper, Adams G. Archibald, Esq., and T. H. Rand, Esq., Superintendent of Education. They feel the profoundest gratitude for the improved facilities afforded to teachers, and the priceless blessing of a free education put within the reach of every child in our Province.

2. On motion of Mr. J. S. Hutton, seconded by Mr. John Hollies, it was resolved, *nem. con.*,

That this Association, strongly impressed with the importance of improving teachers in the art of elocution, and desirous of obtaining the services of a competent instructor; but having no resources sufficient to defray the necessary expenses, respectfully represent to the Council of Public Instruction, that by taking the matter into favourable consideration, as far as present circumstances may render practicable, they would confer a great benefit on the teachers of the Province.

Extracted from minutes of Educational Association by

F. W. GEORGE, *Secretary*.

INSPECTION OF SCHOOLS.

For the information of trustees and teachers we give below a transcript of the most important items contained in the portfolios, recently forwarded to the inspectors of schools, by the Superintendent of Education. No provision of the law has done more for the encouragement and stimulus of public education, than that which provides for the half-yearly inspection of schools and school premises. Under the operation of the amended law, it becomes a matter of the first importance that every award of public money shall be based upon reliable statistics, obtained by careful and minute inspection.

By a careful perusal of the following, trustees and teachers of common schools may obtain a pretty correct idea of the nature of the official inspection:—

TO THE INSPECTORS OF SCHOOLS:

The following are the points under each head on which notes are expected to be made:—

ACCOMMODATION.	SCHOOL.
BUILDING: (1) Site. (2) Repair. (3) Ventilation. (4) Commodiousness.	CLEANLINESS, &c.: (1) Cleanliness of premises. (2) Neatness in disposal of apparatus, &c. (3) Tidiness of pupils.
FURNITURE: (1) Style of desks, &c. (2) Condition. (3) Supply. (4) Arrangement.	CLASSIFICATION: (1) Good or not. (2) Interfered with by want of books or not. (3) If graded, according to law or not. (4) Time-table, judicious or not.
APPARATUS: Enumerate the several articles, using abbreviations, if necessary: e.g. 140 b. bd., for 140 sq. feet of blackboard; <i>Eng. dict. 4to.</i> , for 1 English Dictionary, quarto size, &c.	MODE OF TEACHING: (1) Skill in presenting subjects. (2) Do. in conducting class-exercises. (3) "Oral lessons," (<i>Comments</i> , p. 33, par. 3.) (4) Class of license sustained or not.
TEXT BOOKS: (1) The prescribed or not. (2) Supply. (3) Properly cared for. (4) Itc. carried out (<i>Circ. 10.</i>)	PROGRESS, &c.: (1) Satisfactory or not. (2) If below middling, cause.
PLAY GROUND. (1) Size. (2) Fenced or not. (3) Improved or not.	ORDER, &c.: (1) Quietness of school. (2) Attention to work in hand. (3) Order in assembling and dismissing. (4) General character of punishments.
OUTHOUSES: (1) Fitness of construction. (2) Location. (3) Cleanliness.	PHYSICAL EXERCISES: (1) Due amount of. (2) Judicious or not. (3) Precision in performance of.

Notes on the above points, in order to be serviceable for publication, should be uniform, i. e. a uniform system of classification

should be followed. In every case where quality or style is involved, the relative degrees of excellence will be sufficiently indicated by using the following descriptive words: very good, good, middling, poor, very poor. The numbers given above may be used for reference, thus: BUILDING, "(1) not central," for "site not central," &c.

Estimate	Present in	Registered in	Roads:	Weather:	
			Vocal Music.		READING AND ELOCUTION.
Aver.				Book.	
				Book.	
				Recitation.	SPEAKING AND DEBATING.
Aver.			Oral, (on reading lessons, &c.)	Written, (by Dictation.)	
Aver.			Oral.		GEOGRAPHY.
			N. Scotia.	Text-book.	
			General.		DRAWING.
			Model Cards.	Sketch Book.	
Aver.			First Lessons.		WRITING.
			Half Text.		
			Fine hand.		
Aver.			Ball frame, Objects.		ARITHMETIC.
			Mental.		
			State.		
Aver.			Oral, (on reading lessons.)		GRAMMAR WITH KNAB'S.
			Text book.		
Aver.			British American.		HISTORY.
			British.		
			Keeping of Accounts.		
			Chemistry of Common Things.		

TABLE.

In the Table enter the numbers registered and present in all the branches taught in the school. The estimate must of course be confined to the subjects in which pupils are actually examined. It has been decided that for indicating the proficiency of the pupils in the several branches, the following scale will be more serviceable and more easily applied than the system of marking formerly used: very good, good, middling, poor, very poor. To indicate these degrees use the figures 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, respectively.

Under READING space is given for three books—the Nos. being left blank. It is undesirable that more than three should be simultaneously in use in any one school.

Inspectors are requested to pay particular attention to the encouragement of Singing and Drawing in the school. Singing should be one of the first exercises at the inspection of a school, especially of an elementary one.

REMARKS.

Under REMARKS, note any very special features in the LIFE of the school. The interest taken by the people and Trustees, &c. State also:

I. Whether defects pointed out at previous inspection have been remedied by Trustees and Teacher.

II. Whether the agreement between Trustees and Teacher is

according to law. Report faithfully every case of illegal stipulations in regard to the County Fund.

III. Whether the provisions of the law respecting accommodation have been carried out.

These Notes are to be forwarded to this office at the close of the Term. Number the pages in order, and fill out an index of the whole.

T. H. KANT, Superintendent of Education.
Education Office, January, 1867.

THE PROCURING OF SCHOOL BOOKS.

We have received a letter from a "Common School Teacher," in Victoria Co., in which he says, "In looking over the January No. of the *Journal of Education*, I find that no books have been sent to this county this season; and without an order, accompanied by the cash, to messrs. A. & W. Mackinlay, no books can be had. Allow me to state that eight-tenths of our trustees are as ignorant of these laws as they are of the revolutions of Saturn."

We are at a loss to know from what part of the number of the *Journal* referred to our correspondent learned that no books had been forwarded to Victoria. No such statement was made in the *Journal*: on the contrary we stated that "Orders from sections in every county in the province have been received, and the articles promptly despatched." But, probably a grant of books for poor pupils is meant. If so, we beg to remind "Common School Teacher" that the Legislature, at its last session, abolished the old grant, and substituted another four times as great, in order that every section might purchase at a cheap rate all necessary books. The school law knows nothing of "poor pupils."

Nor is it true that no books can be had in Halifax, except as procured in conformity with the regulations of the Educational department. Abundance of prescribed school books may be purchased any day, without let or hindrance, only not at half cost.

We cannot believe that the Trustees of schools in Victoria are as ignorant of the arrangements by which school books and apparatus may be obtained at half cost, as our correspondent represents them to be. The arrangements were published in the September No. of the *Journal*, and a copy sent to the trustees. The January No. was also sent to every section in the county. Teachers may do much to secure the articles needed for their schools, by carefully studying the provisions of the law, and pointing them out, when necessary, to the trustees.

LOVE, HOPE, PATIENCE.

O'er wayward childhood would'st thou hold firm rule,
And sun thee in the light of happy faces;
Love, Hope, and Patience, these must be thy graces,
And in thine own heart let them first keep school.
For as old Atlas on his broad neck places
Heaven's starry globe, and there sustains it, so
Do these upbear the little world below
Of Education,—Patience, Love, and Hope.
Methinks I see them grouped in seemly show,
The straitened arms upraised, the palms aslope,
And robes that touching as adown they flow,
Distinctly blend, like snow embossed in snow.
O, part them never! If Hope prostrate lie,
Love, too, will sink and die.
But Love is subtle, and doth proof derive
From her own life that Hope is yet alive;
And bending o'er with soul-transfusing eyes,
And the soft murmurs of the mother dove,
Woos back the fleeting spirit, and half supplies;
Thus Love repays to Hope what Hope first gave to Love.
Yet haply there will come a weary day
When overtasked at length
Both Love and Hope beneath the load give way.
Then, with a statue's smile, a statue's strength,
Stands the mute sister, Patience, nothing loath,
And, both supporting, does the work of both.

COLERIDGE.

He that is busy is tempted by but one devil; he that is idle, by a legion.

Hope is a pleasant companion, as well as a useful guide.

Prefer diligence before idleness, unless you esteem rust above brightness.

Books, like friends, should be carefully chosen.

SUPERIOR SCHOOLS.

Experience has amply demonstrated that it was wise to constitute these schools, for a time at least, "Common Schools of much excellence." Life must be transfused into every branch of the common school system, before we can expect to see manifested anything like a general desire for higher education. The plan of offering a premium to four of the best common schools which reach a prescribed standard, has already wrought wonders in elevating both the character of the teaching and the style of school accommodation. Up to November last, no part of this premium, or special grant, became the property of the section, unless by special agreement between trustees and teachers. As the conditions imposed by the Council of Public Instruction required much effort, not only on the part of the teacher, but also on the part of the section, it has come to pass that many excellent teachers have failed to secure the grant through the neglect of the people to provide the necessary accommodations and equipments. In some cases, the Council has waived, for a Term or more, the strict application of some of the conditions attached to the receipt of the grant. Difficulties, which could not be wholly controlled by the people, and which were due to temporary causes, or inseparable from the new order of things, were allowed to have some weight in the decisions given. But the time has now come when strict justice to the numerous competitors demands a close adherence to the published requirements. Notice was therefore given in September last, in the *Journal*, and has since been continued, that a careful compliance with all the regulations of the Council will in future be required.

One half of each Superior School grant is, hereafter, to become the property of the section, in order that both people and teacher may feel a common interest in the result of each competition. If the people of any section fail to provide a complete school equipment, they cannot expect to receive any portion of the superior school fund, however skilful the teacher may be. But any section that makes a liberal and thorough provision of the means of education, and secures a well skilled and scholarly teacher, will place itself in the best position to receive the largest benefits which the law so generously proffers.

The following are some of the defects which debarred certain competitors, at the close of last Term, from receiving grants:—

Failure of the teacher with respect to the quality or quantity of the special "Oral Lessons" required.

Too small an average attendance.

Insufficient supply of prescribed text-books and apparatus.

Failure to provide desks and sittings for all the pupils of the section, in the manner required by law.

Insufficient amount of air for each pupil, 150 cubic feet, at the least, being required.

Inadequate ventilation.

Unsuitable outhouses for the pupils.

The remedies for most of the above defects are under the immediate control of the trustees and people, and should be studiously applied. It is a superior school in all respects, that will confer the great good upon the children and people of any section, not a superior school grant. The latter is a good thing when worthily received, but the former is the object for which the grant exists.

We would here record the satisfaction with which we have witnessed, from term to term, the steady progress made by many of the teachers who have so persistently wrestled for the distinction which the superior school grant confers. Many of them have most richly deserved their honours. Such teachers are not only conferring a great good upon the

people for whom they labour, but are, at the same time, elevating greatly the whole standard of common school education in Nova Scotia. They are the interpreters to the people of what the Legislature, under the influence of the truest and highest patriotism, has done, in making education as free as the air of heaven. A thousand workers of kindred spirit and equal skill, would soon make our province the educational, as it is the geographical, frontage of America.

A few teachers, however, are attempting to do too much. They are teaching too many branches, and are forcing their pupils too rapidly into the more advanced studies. Let it be distinctly understood, that the Superior schools are "Common schools of much excellence," and that the excellence of any school will not be measured by the number of branches taught in it. Reading, spelling, arithmetic, writing, geography, grammar and history, are staples upon which solid and continuous work must be expended. Singing and drawing should slip as oil between the machinery of the school, while object lessons, and "oral lessons" on common things, on phenomena, and on the elements of natural science, should be used by the teacher as fuel for generating that subtle motive power—that intelligence and thirst for knowledge, which is wont to transform every material upon which it is caused to operate, into 'a thing of beauty, and a joy for ever.' The intelligent mastery of subjects, rather than of text books, should specially characterize all schools competing for the superior grant.

The views and statements contained in the following extract from the report of William Eaton, Esq., inspector for Kings, are those re-echoed by almost all the Inspectors, in reporting upon the superior schools, subject to their inspection:—

"In submitting the accompanying report upon the schools which competed for the superior school grant during the term ending on the 31st October, I may be allowed to state that, to my mind, no wiser provision is contained in the School Act, than that which offers special inducements to sections to engage thoroughly trained and well qualified teachers, to provide ample school accommodation, furniture of the most approved description, and all other necessary equipments for imparting, with facility to the teacher, and pleasure and advantage to pupils, that instruction which is the life of the soul, and without which, all naturally tend to a condition the opposite to one of refinement and social elevation.

"I have long felt the necessity of some impelling motive to force into the rank of teachers, men of the right stamp,—men well qualified both by nature and education to draw out the minds of our youth, and supply them with that aliment, by a reception and assimilation of which, they may become men in knowledge. That the present arrangement with respect to the Superior School grant tends strongly in this direction, there is evidence too palpable to be overlooked.

"No inducement can be held out to enlist in the great work of imparting instruction those who will do honour to their profession, which will be so effective, as suitable remuneration; and when, with an eye to the grant, sections have provided the necessary accommodation, furniture and apparatus, which are wisely taken into account in the award of the Council, there is little hesitation in offering an advance in salary, for the purpose of securing the teacher who, in the competition, will be most likely to ensure success. These circumstances have, doubtless, contributed to the rise in salaries of first class teachers, which is observable in all parts of the province. A very effective stimulus is also presented to trustees, and others interested, for providing school accommodation of a generous and liberal nature, and other surroundings of a character in keeping with a higher condition of education. This is particularly noticeable in the sections in this district that are now in competition. In their arrangement for building on a respectable scale, the trustees of Piedmont had in view the honour and profit, both pecuniary and otherwise, likely to be derived from this source, and

secured a house and furniture which, until the present time, had been the best in the county. This has been the prime motive presented in the recent purchase, remodelling and enlargement of the school-house in Upper Church street; and has led to the re-seating and other improvements now going on at Upper Canard. Doubtless also the same influences had their effect in reference to the very efficient accommodation which is being provided at Lower Canard; and in Kentville, at the recent annual meeting, the same motive was urged to induce a liberal appropriation for site and building in keeping with the times.

"There have been six schools in competition for the superior grant, viz., Piedmont, Somerset, Upper Canard, Upper Church Street, Sheffield Mills, and Kentville. Of these, Kentville and Upper Canard are graded, with two departments; the higher department in each case being the competing one. A spirited emulation on the part of each of the teachers, to render the school under his charge as efficient as possible, has been in active exercise, and the result is such as might reasonably be expected."

We are pleased to know that a very large number of schools entered the lists for competition at the beginning of the present term.

SHORT NOTICES OF BOOKS.

PRIMARY OBJECT LESSONS FOR TEACHERS AND PARENTS: By N. A. CALKINS. HARPER & BROTHERS, New York. A. F. PORTER, Halifax. Price \$1.50.

This is a very interesting and instructive book. Comenius taught and Pestalozzi demonstrated some sound philosophical principles about the imparting of knowledge to young minds. Upon these principles, which have been confirmed by the experience of many subsequent educators, is founded the system of mental development illustrated by Mr. Calkins' book. The Mayos of England have preceded him in elaborating a systematic course of instruction adapted to initiatory schools. Their labours have told upon American teachers.

Mr. Calkins' book presents a pretty clear and systematic outline of the object system, with copious examples and illustrations. The ideas of form, colour, number, size, weight, sound, and place, are developed in course. The principal parts of the human body, physical training, drawing, and elementary reading, are also treated of. Some observations upon the nature and design of object-lessons will repay perusal. The book is worthy the attention of thoughtful teachers, and should find a place in their library. The specimen lessons are, in our judgment, scarcely flexible enough in their structure, and do not show great skill in the use of questions and ellipses. In fact, the author seems almost a stranger to the training power of judicious ellipses in conversational lessons. The questioning process, pure and simple, finds its sphere in review lessons, and, well handled, may be made to cultivate closeness of attention, readiness and accuracy in continued statement, and self-reliance. But in lesson giving its place is subordinate, and a skilful sequence of ellipses is necessary to insure that exercise of mind which is antecedent to the actual and profitable reception of knowledge.

Teachers, however, are not expected to square their practice by the views of any one man. They will find Mr. Calkins' book full of suggestive matter. The article on "colour" is worth the price of the book. We subjoin an extract or two from the introductory chapter, setting forth some facts upon which the development of the intellectual faculties is based:—

"1. Our knowledge of the material world is derived through the senses. Objects, and the various phenomena of the external world, are the subjects upon which the faculties first exercise themselves. Knowledge begins with experience.

2. Perception is the first stage of intelligence. Primary education begins with the culture of the perceptive faculties; this culture chiefly consists in affording occasions and stimulants for their development, and in fixing perceptions in the mind by means of representative language.

3. The natural and most healthful incentive to attention and the acquisition of knowledge, with children, is the association of pleasure with instruction. Curiosity, or the desire of knowledge, and the love of the beautiful and of the wonderful, are great actuating principles of early childhood, and their gratification is always accompanied by pleasurable emotion. Children possess a natural craving for knowledge as well as for occupation. Success affords them pleasure. Self-dependence is another powerful agent of culture.

4. Instruction should give pleasure to children, and where it does not there is something wrong, either in the mode of presenting it or in the subject-matter selected for instruction.

5. All the faculties are developed and invigorated by proper exercise; they may be enfeebled by being over-tasked, or by being exercised on subjects which do not come within their proper sphere.

6. The chief object of primary education is the development of the faculties. The period of development is emphatically that of the first ten years of the child's life.

7. Among the faculties that develop earliest, and are most active in the child, are those of perception, conception, simple imagination, and the memory of things. Some powers of the mind remain inactive during childhood, attaining their full development only in manhood. Among these are the higher powers of reason and judgment, philosophical memory and generalization.

8. Fulness of knowledge depends upon attention. The power of attention is the result of habit. Habits are formed by repetitions of the same act. The great secret in fixing the attention of children, consists in gratifying curiosity, the love of activity, and mingling delightful associations with learning, never overstraining their faculties by keeping them too long directed to one particular object.

9. The natural process of education is from the simple to the complex, from the known to the unknown, from facts to causes, principles before rules, ideas before words, things before names."

DR. COLLIER'S HISTORIES OF GREECE AND ROME are a most valuable addition to the common school text-books. "These volumes aim at giving a clear outline of the chief events in Grecian and Roman History. The personal or biographical elements, upon which so much of the living interest of history mainly depends, has been kept prominently in view throughout." Our advanced common schools should, after British American and British History, give pupils a fair knowledge of the history of ancient Greece and Rome. These books are compact, well bound, and printed on good paper.

THE CHEMISTRY OF COMMON THINGS—*Nova Scotia School Series.* Halifax, A. & W. MACKINLAY.

This book is intended for the more advanced pupils in schools. It presupposes no scientific knowledge on the part of the pupil or teacher. Its statements are remarkably simple and clear, and all are brought within the range of observation and experiment. The book is beautifully illustrated with upwards of 60 finely executed cuts; and those teachers who prefer scientific reading books will find this among the best of the kind. The *Chemistry of Common Things* should be used in every advanced school, as an aid in imparting a general knowledge of the chemical relations of familiar objects. In paper, typography, and binding, this book is the gem of the Nova Scotia Series.

BAIN'S COMPOSITION AND RHETORIC.—This is a new and fresh book. It has been prescribed by the Council of Public Instruction for use in the county academics. The subjects are treated philosophically, yet clearly and briefly. The author's views approach nearer to those of Blair and Campbell than to those of other writers on these subjects; and he has produced a better manual, we think, than any of his forerunners.

THE SCHOOL MAP OF NORTH AMERICA, which has been for some time in course of preparation, under the supervision of the Educational Department, is now ready for the schools. It is of good size, and embraces an area of 5000 square miles, sub-divided into squares of 1000 miles each. It is beautifully colored and mounted. This map is much needed in the schools, and we trust that teachers will give no rest to their trustees until a copy adorns the walls of their school-rooms. The map of British America is not yet published; but it, with those of South America, Africa, Asia, Australasia, and the United States, is being proceeded with as rapidly as is compatible with accuracy and excellence. When these maps are completed, and Mr. Calkin's School Geography of the World is published, we believe that the schools of Nova Scotia will be in a position second to those of no country in America, with respect to the appliances of geographical study. By consulting Official Notice VI. 4. trustees and teachers may learn what maps are now in stock. The present opportunity of purchasing these splendid articles of school furniture, at so cheap a rate, should be immediately improved. There can hereafter be no good excuse for the absence of these maps from the schools.

The Chairmen of the several Boards of District Examiners are requested to forward to the Education Office notices of the April Examinations, for insertion in the next number of the *Journal*.

Much on earth, but little in heaven.

Knowledge is a treasure, and practice is the key to it.

A wise man changes his mind, a fool never.

'I CAN'T,' never crossed the Alps, or raised an ear of corn.

ON LEARNING THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

BY M. A. NEWELL,

Principal of the State Normal School of Maryland.

The child commences the study of language in the cradle. One of his first perceptions is the sound of his mother's voice, and perhaps his first lesson in grammar is to translate his mother's words into the vernacular of infancy. At a very early age, he knows whether she is pleased or displeased, whether she is upbraiding or soothing him. Long before he can walk without assistance, he has learned a little language, not so as to speak it, but so as to comprehend all that is said to him, and much that is said about him. At the close of his second year, he knows the names of all the objects in the house that are in common use, and understands the language of the family so far, at least, as it concerns himself; he is subdued by threats, encouraged by approbation, and stimulated by promises. Before he is four years of age, he has passed from the purely recipient into the productive stage. What he knows he can tell; he has a name for every object of his knowledge, an expression for every idea, every feeling and emotion of which he is conscious. From this time until he begins to go to school, every day adds to his stock of words and to his power of combining them. He astonishes his parents by the readiness with which he picks up strange words, and the facility he has in weaving them into sentences. If he could only go on as he commenced, if he could only learn as much of his native tongue in the next six as he did in the first six years of his life, what a foundation would then be laid for extensive and accurate scholarship!

At six years of age, the child is in possession of a language, limited, it is true, imperfect and incorrect, but still adequate to his wants. At twelve years of age, after having been six years at school, how much more does he know of his native language than when he entered school? (And here let me remark parenthetically gentle reader. I am not speaking of your school: I know you manage these things better. I refer to Mr. Smith's school; and I do not speak of the head boy in Mr. Smith's school; I speak of the average American boy in the average American school.) At twelve years of age he has been "through the Dictionary," I presume; but is his stock of words in common use much larger than it used to be? Or is he more careful in the selection of them? Or has he greater facility in the use of them? Does the boy of twelve actually express his ideas with greater ease, clearness, or force than the child of six? He has been "through the Grammar;" but does he speak grammatically? and, if he does, is it because he has been through the Grammar? As a matter of fact, is his language more correct than it was six years ago? He has learned to spell, to parse and to write; but can he write ten lines on any subject without gross errors in spelling, syntax or punctuation? There must be something wrong in the method of education that is so barren of results.

Assuming that nature's plan is the better one,—for in six years nature has done much, and in the next six years the teacher does very little towards the acquisition of language,—let us inquire what nature's plan is, and how it differs from the methods of the schools.

Nature begins her lesson by placing the child in circumstances in which the knowledge of language is desirable and necessary. The child sees an object: he has a desire—almost, if not altogether, instinctive—to name it; for the mind never recognizes its knowledge as complete until it is named. The child wants the name, lies in wait for it, or asks for it,—gets it, and keeps it. Who ever had occasion to tell a child twice the name of anything he wanted to know? He has an idea, but he has no mode of expressing it. The idea returns again and again, and the desire for the expression becomes stronger and stronger. The appropriate expression, after long waiting and watching, is heard, seized upon, treasured up and remembered, not only without difficulty, but without conscious effort. How different from much that is learned at school,—learned with toil to-day, forgotten with ease to-morrow! Or, conversely (for our object-teachers must remember that the child sometimes travels from the word to the thing as well as from the thing to the word), the child hears a new word; he is not likely to ask the meaning of it unless it be about something in which he is deeply interested, but the context gives him some vague idea of what it means. The mind, however, is not satisfied, with this half knowledge. The child hears the same word again and again, and every repetition adds to his stock of knowledge, till at last he gains a clear conception of it.

On the other hand, at school, children are required to learn what they have no desire to learn, and can see no necessity to learn. What child ever desired to learn Grammar as commonly taught? What child ever felt the necessity of learning all the definitions in the Dictionary? And yet these two books, the Grammar and the Dictionary, are the main instruments used for teaching language.

Nature teaches language indirectly: the child fancies he is learning something else (and is learning something else, or does not think of learning at all), but all the time he is learning language unconsciously, but not the less really. These indirect processes of nature are very beautiful, and well worth the attention and imitation of the teacher. The child thinks only of appeasing the natural appetite of hunger, but in so doing he is building up his constitution. He yields to the natural desire for muscular

exercise, and thus aids in the development of his bodily organs. Every legitimate gratification of a natural propensity yields, not only the transient pleasure proper to such gratification, but also a permanent result, which is not the less real and valuable because it comes unsolicited.

Teachers are apt to forget this trick of nature. We think that language must be taught directly, dogmatically and scientifically; by definitions, rules, diagrams and formulas. We forget that the language which we use ourselves was learned in no such methodical way; but was picked up unconsciously here and there along the roadside of life, in the nursery, at the dinner table, in the playground, from our parents or companions, our story books, our newspapers, our preachers, our favorite authors. What plainer proof can there be of this than the well known fact, that many teachers who are good "grammarians" (so called) speak bad English, while many persons who know nothing of "grammar" habitually use grammatical language? *

Left to himself, the child acquires his knowledge in the most rational philosophical way,—by induction. He ascends from particulars to generals, from an acquaintance with individual facts to a knowledge of universal principles. In other words, he proceeds from the concrete to the abstract. Under the guidance of his teacher, or rather of his text-book, the child is expected to acquire his knowledge in the most irrational and unphilosophical way,—by deduction. He is expected to descend from generals to particulars, from general principles to individual facts, from the abstract to the concrete. I say the child is *expected* to do so; but, in point of fact, I do not believe he ever does it. The knowledge he seems to acquire in this way is either acquired in the other way, or is not real knowledge at all, but only sham knowledge. I believe a healthy, active young mind makes its own generalizations, and does not readily adopt, and apply the generalizations made by another. For example, consider how a child acquires an idea of a chair. He does not get the abstract idea of a chair first, and then try to apply this idea to particular objects; but, by becoming acquainted with a number of chairs singly, and observing their common qualities, he naturally and necessarily, though unconsciously, acquires the abstract notion of a chair. But a grammar (from which children are popularly supposed to learn language) consists essentially of a series of abstract propositions, to be learned as abstractions, and afterwards to be applied to individual cases. If language is ever learned in this way, it can only be by doing violence to nature, and by a useless sacrifice of time and labor.

Nature gives us, usually, the object or idea first, and then the name; the schools, or rather the school-books, give us the name first, and the object afterwards, or not at all. When the animals passed in review before our first parent, he gave to each an appropriate name. His conceptions of each individual were incomplete and unsatisfactory, until he had tied them together, and labelled them with a name. Had one of our old-fashioned schoolmasters had the supreme direction of affairs, he would have given Adam a list of names and volume of definitions; and, after causing him to commit them to memory, he would have sent him through the garden to find the objects corresponding to the description. He would have made Adam say *elephant*, spell *elephant*, read *elephant*, write *elephant*, and parse *elephant*, before allowing him to see the elephant.

The following corollaries will serve, perhaps, to give a practical bearing to what has been said above. They will, at least, be useful to the thoughtful teacher as theses for argument, which he may either affirm or deny:—

That the method by which children, before going to school, learn their simple and limited language, may be applied to the learning of their native language in all its extent and complexity.

That language, being an object, may be studied objectively.

That children should be taught to use good language, by correcting all their improper modes of expression, before they can understand the grammatical reason for the correction.

That, as children learn to speak by speaking (not by learning the rules of speech), so children may learn to write by writing, without learning the rules of composition.

That, as people become fluent talkers by beginning early and talking much, people may become ready writers by beginning early and writing much.

That, as soon as children are able to speak, they should be taught to speak in definite sentences and pure English; and as soon as they are able to use the pen, they should be taught to write in definite sentences and pure English.

That, as children never talk of that of which they know nothing, they should not be asked to write of what they know nothing.

That, as a means of becoming familiar with language, children should be taught to write down, frequently, their ordinary conversations.

That school recitations may, with great advantage, be conducted in two ways,—orally and in writing.

That the teacher should take advantage of interesting events within the knowledge of his scholars, and require them to relate them orally and in writing.

That, as the common words of our language are learned by hearing them often in connected discourse, so the less common words should be learned by reading them often in connected discourse.

That, as words learned by the ear are not thoroughly appropriated until they are pronounced by the tongue, so words learned by

the-eye (reading) are not completely mastered until they are re-produced to the eye by writing.

That, as the child learns its early language indirectly, while in pursuit of amusement, or gratifying its curiosity, or thinking only of expressing its feelings, so its early language may be best extended by extending its sphere of general knowledge.

That, therefore, reading for information and amusement should form a prominent part of school exercises, distinct from reading for elocutional purposes; and that all knowledge so obtained should be re-produced in writing or speaking.

That a practical knowledge of the English language,—the ability to speak it, read it, and write it correctly in its simplest forms; and a familiar acquaintance with a few of our best authors,—forms the only sure foundation on which to commence the analytical study of English Grammar.

ELEMENTS OF NATURAL SCIENCE IN SCHOOLS.

I know full well that the extent and variety of subjects said to be taught to young children in the Prussian Schools, have been often sneered at. 'What,' say the objectors, 'teach children Botany, and the unintelligible and almost unspeakable names, Monandria, Diandria, Triandria, &c.;—or Zoology, with such such technical terms as Mollusca, Crustacea, Vertebrata, Mammalia, &c.,—the thing is impossible!' The Prussian children are not thus taught. For years their lessons are free from all the technicalities of science. The knowledge they already possess about common things is made the nucleus around which to collect more; and the language with which they are already familiar becomes the medium through which to communicate new ideas, and by which, whenever necessary, to explain new terms. There is no difficulty in explaining to a child, seven years of age, the distinctive marks by which nature intimates to us, at first sight, whether a plant is healthful or poisonous; or those by which, on inspecting the skeleton of an animal that lived thousands of years ago, we know whether it lived upon grass or grain or flesh. It is in this way that the pupil's mind is carried forward by an actual knowledge of things, until the time arrives for giving him classifications and nomenclatures. When a child knows a great many particular or individual things, he begins to perceive resemblances between some of them; and they then naturally assert themselves, as it were, in his mind, and arrange themselves into different groups. Then, by the aid of a teacher, he perfects a scientific classification among them,—bringing into each group all that belong to it. But soon the number of individuals in each group becomes so numerous, that he wants a cord to tie them together, or a vessel in which to hold them. Then from the nomenclature of science, he receives a name which binds all the individuals of that group into one, over afterwards. It is now that he perceives the truth and the beauty of classification and nomenclature. An infant that has more red and white beads than it can hold in its hands, and to prevent them from rolling about the floor and being lost collects them together, putting the white in one cup and the red in another, and sits and smiles at his work, has gone through with precisely the same description of mental process that Cuvier and Linnaeus did, when they summoned the vast varieties of the animal and vegetable kingdoms into their spiritual presence, and commanded the countless hosts to arrange themselves into their respective genera, orders and species. Our notions respecting the expediency or propriety of introducing the higher branches, as they are called, into our common schools, are formed from a knowledge of our own school teachers, and of the habits that prevail in most of the schools themselves. With us, it too often happens that if a higher branch,—geometry, natural philosophy, zoology, botany,—is to be taught, both teacher and class must have textbooks. At the beginning of these text books, all the technical names and definitions belonging to the subject are set down. These, before the pupil has any practical idea of their meaning, must be committed to memory. The book is then studied, chapter by chapter. At the bottom of each page, or at the end of the sections, are questions printed at full length. At the recitations, the teacher holds on by these leading strings. He introduces no collateral knowledge. He exhibits no relation between what is contained in the book and other kindred subjects, or the actual business of men and the affairs of life. At length the day of examination comes. The pupils rehearse from memory with a suspicious fluency; or, being asked for some useful application of their knowledge—some practical connection between that knowledge and the concerns of life, they are silent, or give some ridiculous answer, which at once disparages science and gratifies the ill-humor of some ignorant satirist. Of course, the teaching of the higher branches falls into disrepute in the minds of all sensible men,—as, under such circumstances, it ought to do. But the Prussian teacher has no book. He needs none. He teaches from a full mind. He cumbers and darkens the subject with no technical phraseology. He observes what proficiency the child has made, and then adapts his instructions, both in quality and amount, to the necessity of the case. He answers all questions. He solves all doubts. It is one of his objects, at every recitation, so to present ideas, that they shall start doubts and provoke questions. He connects the subject of each lesson with all kindred and collateral ones; and shows its relation to the every-day duties and business

of life; and should the most ignorant man, or the most destitute vagrant in society, ask him 'of what use knowledge can be?' he will prove to him, in a word, that some of his own pleasures or means of subsistence are dependent upon it, or have been created or improved by it. In the mean time the children are delighted. Their perceptive powers are exercised. Their reflecting faculties are developed. Their moral sentiments are cultivated. All the attributes of the mind within, find answering qualities in the world without. Instead of any longer regarding the earth as a huge mass of dead matter,—without variety and without life,—its beautiful and boundless diversities of substance, its latent vitality and energies, gradually dawn forth, until, at length, they illuminate the whole soul, challenging its admiration for their utility, and its homage for the bounty of their Creator.—*Horace Mann.*

CHARACTERISTICS OF LESSON-GIVING.

FROM CURRIE'S "EARLY AND INFANT EDUCATION."

Interest is the first requisite in a Lesson.

In giving a brief view of the elements of criticism as applicable to the practice of teaching, it is desirable to assign to them no higher importance than what properly belongs to them. It is for the most part points of form with which they deal; and the greatest attention to these, whilst it is highly necessary and becoming, will not of itself make a good teacher. Let it be said, then, at the outset of this chapter, that the first requirement of an infant-school lesson is that it be interesting. Interest is the life of teaching. It is an antecedent consideration of all rules of form. If the teacher show that sympathy with the children and that tact in addressing them which enable him to engage their attention, his lessons will be very gently criticised in other respects. But nothing can compensate for the absence of interest; nor the most elaborate design, the most symmetrical structure, the most faultless language and posture. If this be understood, the teacher may go on to study the following precepts.

The 'Plan' in a Lesson.

Every lesson must have a design, both general and special. Suppose the lesson is on a 'pin,' it must be viewed (1.) as one of a series of lessons designed to exercise the perceptive power of the child, and (2.) as an individual lesson, designed to leave on his mind the impression of the particular thing (a pin). Unless there be a distinct aim, and a distinct conception of the steps by which this aim is to be attained, no training is imparted.

Procedure from the known to the unknown.

Lessons should be so constructed that the minds of the children shall immediately come into contact with something they have observed and can sympathize with. By exciting their activity this at once excites their interest. It serves a double purpose:—(1.) It engages their attention for the new matter that is to follow; and (2.) It becomes the means for explaining it. There is no stereotyped plan, therefore, even for lessons of the same kind. On an animal, for instance, we may begin with its 'structure' and 'parts,' and then consider its 'habits,' as in the case of the sheep, cow, or other domestic animal; but we may, in some cases, find it best to begin with the 'habits' before we examine the 'structure,' as with the wolf, camel, and most of the non-domestic animals. The same difference holds in lessons upon things; with 'salt,' or 'coal,' or 'glass,' we may begin with 'uses,' whilst with 'sealing-wax,' 'gold,' or 'pepper,' we may begin with 'qualities.' The teacher should uniformly ask himself this question before arranging his materials—What is it that the children are likely to know of the particular thing?—and he should connect with that all he intends to say.

Beginning, middle, and end.

Apart from the arrangement of the lesson with respect to the succession of ideas, there is a conventional view of it which it serves some purpose to take. We may recognize in a lesson three distinct parts, with different functions—the beginning, the middle, and the end. The *beginning*, or introduction, is specially designed to arouse the attention of the pupils. It gives them the key-note of the lesson; and the teacher should be accordingly very careful in striking it. It should be bold or picturesque; either imaginative in its complexion, or calling the children to some exercise of activity. The *middle* is the lesson strictly so called. The *end*, or conclusion, is designed to apply what has been taught in the lesson: shortness, clearness, and force in personal appeal should be its features.

Faults in the Plan of a Lesson.

Elaborate and pretentious plans are to be avoided. A lesson is not a treatise; and effect is not to be sacrificed to logic. The aim of the teacher should be, not to say all that can be said on the subject, but only what the children can profitably receive. Each act of instruction should leave them with the desire for a continuance of it, for which purpose it should just be a narrow outline, clearly put, and happily illustrated.

Notes of Lessons.

It is a good practice for the young teacher to prepare a sketch, or what is called 'notes,' of his lesson beforehand. He may hope by so doing to communicate his instruction with great confidence and clearness. This sketch should contain merely the heads of the lesson, and any illustration which he intends to use under each. The notes should be lodged in his mind, however; the freedom necessary to a successful infant-school lesson is quite incompatible with frequent reference to a written plan.

Undue display of Plan.

The 'plan' of a lesson, it must be understood, is for the teacher, and not for the children. There is a great difference between having a plan and making a show of it. Whilst, therefore, lessons must be logically constructed, there must be no parade of construction. A lesson may be compared to the scene upon a stage, which has two sides; on the one some pictorial effect designed for the audience; on the other, the general

parts of the mechanism by which it is held together, to be handled by the machinist.

The 'Working-out' of a Lesson—Regularity.

In working out a lesson—which is the real difficulty—it is taken for granted that there is regularity of procedure from part to part. If the teacher have presence of mind and a firm grasp of the subject, this will follow as a matter of course. Somewhat more difficult is it to preserve the proportion of treatment amongst the parts. For this purpose the teacher must have the whole plan of his lesson at every moment in his mind's eye, so that he may see how far he has come, and how far he has still to go.

Intelligence.

The lesson must be wrought out with intelligence. It is easier to say when this is absent, and how the absence shows itself, than to give any directions for exhibiting it. If the teacher is not of a practical turn of mind, he will probably present his subject to the children in a strange unpractical way, not giving it any connection with what they daily observe and think about. If he has no perception of the characteristics of childhood, he will try to put his own ideas of the subject into their minds, instead of getting them to form their own from his materials. If he be the slave of rule, his instruction will be dry and pedantic—a skeleton instead of a living frame, destitute of any human interest. In all these cases the teacher gives his lesson without intelligence or common-sense—does not address the children in a natural manner—is not really in conversation with them.

Two opposite Errors in the Manner of Address.

The child's mind must be active throughout the lesson; whatever prevents this is a fault in teaching. A lesson should, therefore, not be given by direct address, or in the form of lecture; for whilst this communicates ample materials for thought, it gives the class no opportunity of exercising their minds on what is communicated. Accordingly, attention is never sustained in this way. A fault of an opposite kind, and not less common, is too exclusive questioning. This gives the class ample opportunity for thinking, but communicates no material for thought. The children are addressed as if they had prepared the subject and were undergoing examination, which is in no respect the ideal of an infant-school lesson. A very few questions given in this spirit exhaust their attention. We must preserve a medium between these two extremes. We shall not greatly err if we make our lessons literally a conversation. To this there are two parties, standing for the time on the same level, mutually supporting and sympathizing with each other, the obligation to listen as well as to speak being the same to both. Exclusive lecturing, or exclusive questioning, places a gap between the teacher and the children which bars this mutual support and sympathy. A successful lesson exhibits direct communication of facts and questioning intermingled. What the child can discover for himself, he should by no means be told; but he cannot discover everything. It is a waste of time, and the misapprehension of a sound rule to act as if he could. In almost all lessons beyond the very earliest series, the groundwork of instruction will have to be communicated. This must be done by graphic description. The art of the teacher is shown in communicating no more than what is indispensable, and in communicating it as materials out of which the children are to form their own thoughts under his guidance. This communication should never be long, and it is never necessary that it should be long, on any one topic. There are always at hand familiar analogies, by means of which the aid of the children may be called in either to initiate or to complete the description. The teacher should be careful to encourage spontaneous action on the part of the children by listening to what they have to say; and, even when their lessons are only partially right, by accepting with approval the amount of truth which may be in them, and expanding that with the help of the class, or the pupil himself, till it reach the full truth of the case.

On Illustration.

The intellectual feature in a lesson which beyond all others makes it attractive is happy illustration. To be successful this must be apposite, i. e., bearing directly on the point to be illustrated, clearly put so that it may be really an illustration, and interesting, i. e., drawn from some case falling within the sympathies of the children. Illustration is two kinds, verbal and pictorial.

Verbal Illustration.

Verbal illustration must be distinguished from explanation. "Suffer little children to come unto me and forbid them not" this is explained when it is said that 'suffer' means to 'let' or 'allow'; and that 'forbid' means to 'hinder' or 'prevent.' It is illustrated when a familiar example of 'suffering' or 'forbidding' is set before the children. "Whosoever a man soweth, that shall he also reap;" this is explained when it is said to mean that a man will reap the consequences of his actions, and that these consequences will correspond to the actions. It is illustrated by tracing the operations of the husbandman, who sows his seed of wheat or corn, expecting that in the spring his crop will be of wheat or corn. A teacher in giving a lesson on the sugar cane, had occasion to use the word *impurities* to denote chips of cane, dust, &c., which have to be skimmed off in boiling down the sugar-cane. She just told the children that a great deal of straw and dust mingled with the juice, and that these *impurities* had to be taken off. Another approached this word in a different way; she referred them to what they had seen at home in the making of jelly. Another referred them to the straining of milk; another spoke of turbid water which becomes clear when allowed to be still. The first process is one of explanation; the other three are illustrations. Explanation appeals to the understanding alone, and is therefore not suitable to the infant school; it is by illustration alone, which appeals to the observation, that ideas are conveyed to the child's mind.

Pictorial and Blackboard Illustration.

Pictures are very useful for illustrating all kinds of lessons, particularly lessons on Scripture incidents and object-lessons on natural history. They do not relieve the teacher, however, from the necessity of using ample verbal illustration. The picture should, as a rule, not be introduced at the beginning of the lesson. When interest has been roused by appeal to the children's imagination, they will scrutinize it more minutely when they are asked to compare the idea they have themselves formed of the object with its representation in the picture. It is better

not to have the pictures suspended on the school-walls till they have been used for lessons in this way. After they have been made *symbols* by having instruction attached to them, the children may be allowed to see them for a time, to become familiar with them; but as far as possible they should be new to the children when first used in illustration of lessons. Pictures do not supersede the use of sketching on the blackboard, as is sometimes thought. The teacher who can draw the outline, say of an animal or a tree, or any familiar object, has in the mere act of constructing the figure under the eyes of the children, a resource for engaging their interest quite distinct from that which a picture affords.

The use of Definitions.

Illustration serves the purpose of definition in the infant school. If a child is asked, What is a good boy? he answers that it is one who does not lie, or who obeys his parents, or who loves God. His mind naturally turns to the concrete, for he has experience of that. Definitions are from their nature abstract; standing alone, they have no meaning to the child. They cannot be dispensed with in teaching, but the teacher must observe for himself when his class is capable of any particular definition; and he will give it not at the beginning of his lesson, but towards the end, after illustration.

The means of Impressing Instruction.

The degree of impression made by a lesson, in so far as that is influenced by the manner of giving it, depends on two circumstances. On the one hand the successive topics must be clearly and forcibly stated, and dwelt upon for a sufficient length of time to enable the child's mind to grasp them. It is a frequent fault in lessons to introduce topics apparently only for the sake of leaving them, or to pass from topic to topic in a way which leaves the pupil unaware that a new one has been introduced. It is impossible that lessons so destitute of character can make any lasting impression. The teacher should advert to nothing which he cannot press home by illustration.

On Repetition.

The other means for making a lesson impressive is repetition. The concluding part of the lesson is generally devoted to a recapitulation of the leading points; but opportunities for incidental repetition continually occur in course of the lesson itself. Repetition is essential to the whole of elementary teaching; particularly so in the infant school, where every thing is new to the children, and where their minds have so little power of tension. Every fact communicated should be repeated more than once in one form or other, and nothing should be told which is not worthy of this frequent repetition. There are two ways of repeating; the direct and the indirect. Both are necessary. In the former the thing is repeated in the precise form in which it was communicated; the design being simply to impress the memory. In the latter the thing is repeated in another form; the class are got to express from one point of view what was communicated from another. Besides appealing to the memory, this process exercises the minds of the class; it is, in great part, the educating process in every lesson. The tact of the teacher has great room to show itself in this indirect repetition.

The Ultimate Test of a Lesson.

"What are the children likely to carry away of this lesson?" is a question the teacher should always be putting to himself. It is the ultimate test of a lesson; for they will carry away what they have been told only so far as they have been interested and their minds exercised.

ON THE LANGUAGE OF TEACHING.

Simplicity of Language.

As language is the medium through which lessons are conveyed, the nature of the language employed is an important element in successful lessons. The recommendations of style are the same in teaching as for any purpose. First of all, the teacher's language should be simple; simple both in respect of individual words and of the structure of sentences. The Saxon part of English is, characteristically, our mother tongue; it is that part which should be used in the infant school, so far as it goes. Style is not made simple by the use of monosyllables; nor is anything gained, but the contrary, by always affecting to talk to children in monosyllables. Words of two and of three syllables are quite intelligible, provided the thing has been illustrated before its symbol is given. Sentences of intricate nature should not be used, even though their several parts are quite clear; the children cannot follow the chain of their connection. Simplicity of style is not to be attained in teaching without study and practice; if it were, it would not be a virtue in style, instead of being, as it is, one of the highest.

Precision.

The teacher's language should be precise; in other words, should express neither more nor less than the idea he intends to convey. Failing this, he is obliged to repeat himself. An excess of words has an injurious effect on a lesson; it almost always obscures and confuses instead of illustrating. It is only when the style is precise that the teacher can afford to dispense with this unsatisfactory verbal repetition.

Fluency.

A ready command over language is indispensable to the teacher. Breaks in the progress of a lesson disturb the attention by shaking the confidence of a class. Further, the same point has often to be presented in different lights to suit different capacities; which cannot be done without ready power of speech.

Correctness of Enunciation, Grammar, and Expression.

In striving to be familiar, the teacher must preserve correctness of style. Slang or cant phrases must be scrupulously avoided. He should raise up the children to his level in purity of speech rather than descend to theirs. Nor must strict grammatical correctness be sacrificed under the notion of attaining greater familiarity. It is by imitation that the children learn to speak; so far as the school is concerned, therefore, they should have correct models before them. And the teacher should make a point of uniformly correcting any incorrect expressions used by the children, whether in pronunciation, grammar, or idiom.

Tone and Modulation.

Distinctness and force of articulation having been previously insisted on, it remains only to notice the tone and modulation proper to the teacher's language. The tones of the voice are very expressive of the state of the mind and affections. A lesson should resemble a conversation in this respect. If there be a natural confidence and interest in the subject, the voice will naturally modulate itself, so as to produce the effect of light and shade. Children feel that in the tones of the teacher's voice which encourages them to respond to what he says. Monotony is quite incompatible with interest and freedom; and, therefore, is always a cause of failure in a lesson. Children read accurately the moral aspect of the tones of the voice; these are a reflection of the temper of the speaker. It is difficult or impossible to give a successful lesson with a feigned good temper. The living voice has great power with the child; it is the emblem of life itself, ebbing and flowing with the tide of thought and feeling within. Now it is high, now low; now regular and measured, now bold and impulsive; now light, cheerful, and rapid, again slow and solemn.

Pitch and Loudness.

The habitual tone of the voice in teaching should not be higher than is absolutely necessary. Noise is a very common fault in infant schools, which is encouraged by loud speaking on the part of the teacher. This is frequently contended with animation; but it is a very different thing from animation, and by no means necessary to it. The work goes on far more effectively, and with better moral effect on the children, not to say with less exhaustion to the teacher, when it is conducted quietly and gently; and the discipline of the school will also be higher.

ON QUESTIONING.

Individual Questioning; only partially applicable to the Infant School.

The recognized form of school-teaching is by question and answer. In the common school, the teacher engages one pupil at a time directly; but, if he is skilful, the minds of all are at work during his intercourse with this one. Externally viewed, the questioning is individual, and therefore addressed to consecutive pupils. This is not felt to be irksome in an advanced class; for their power of attention is more or less developed. It is different in the infant school. Here the children most constantly have something to do; they cannot attend when they are not engaged directly; the effect of the teacher's intercourse with them is not felt over the mass unless all are addressed together. Further, the individual pupil is not mentally strong enough to stand apart from his neighbours; he requires the encouragement that flows from natural support; he is but part of a whole, whether intellectually or morally considered, timid and feeble alone, he is bold only when all act together. Sympathy is the condition of the whole infant-school action; and the teacher must work by it in his questioning.

The Influence of Sympathy.

There is a sympathy which binds the children together amongst themselves; and there is a sympathy which binds them to the teacher. Both of these sympathies influence the manner of the teacher's address to them; the one suggests the propriety of simultaneous questioning, the other of elliptical questioning.

Simultaneous Questioning.

By simultaneous questioning is meant questioning addressed to the whole class; questioning to which the answering is simultaneous, within certain limits. It is not implied or expected—indeed, it is not possible, that all the pupils shall always answer. They have different temperaments, and different degrees of mental power. Some will answer one kind of questions, some another; sometimes only two or three may answer; but all have the opportunity. Questions must be given to suit all capacities. The danger is that they be one-sided, and only engage a certain part of the class; who will do all the work, the rest being content to remain silent. The teacher's observation of his class will tell him where to expect the initiative of the answers to particular questions, and where it will be necessary to impress the answers by indirect repetition. Frequently all who can answer should be allowed to do so, but not always. The class should be accustomed to hold their hands out when they can reply to a question, and the teacher will select who is to answer. The occasions for doing this depend on the nature of the probable answer. Uniform promiscuous answering is not contemplated when we speak of this simultaneous questioning; it will lead to confusion. All who can, provide themselves with an answer; one or two, or any section of the class, will give it, at the teacher's discretion. This individual answering is mingled with the simultaneous. The only case in which a whole class or gallery give one answer is when the teacher wishes a certain answer to be repeated for the purpose of having it impressed on the minds of all.

Elliptical Questioning—its Theory.

Elliptical questioning requires the children to complete a sense of which the teacher has given the greater part. Some use this kind of questioning more than others; it is a matter of temperament. The ardent and sympathetic use it most and succeed best with it. The teacher carries his pupils along with him, identifies his mental action with theirs, and withdraws his assistance just before the end, trusting that the impetus he has given them will carry them to the completion. From the greater sympathy with them of which it is the vehicle, it contributes remarkably to keep up the continuity of thought in a lesson, aiding the children in paying the exactness made upon them. Altogether, the use of it makes a lesson smoother and more flowing in its progress.

Rules for using Elliptical.

(1.) This kind of questioning should be given without previous notice. The children should supply what is wanting by force of their sympathy with what is going on at the time the ellipsis presents itself. The voice of the teacher should not be raised, or any other sign given, when it is coming. This habit will break the continuity of attention, as they will be called upon to think only when the sign is given them. (2.) Elliptical questions must be constructed like other good questioning. They must not be merely verbal; for this gives no mental exercise. They must not be indefinite so as to admit of more than one answer. They

must be adapted to the capacity of the class, short and easy at first, and increasing in difficulty. As far as possible the teacher should manage to avoid failure on the part of the children in filling them up. Whatever degree of difficulty they are intended to be of, they should be fairly put. The common but injurious practice of giving half the word to be supplied must be avoided. When the teacher is driven to such an expedient, he should gather from this that he is not conducting his elliptical questioning with tact. (3.) Elliptical questioning is not to be used alone, its design is only to relieve direct interrogations. (4.) It is not to be contrasted with simultaneous questioning; they harmonize perfectly, and are best in conjunction.

MORE ABOUT THE QUEEN'S ENGLISH.

A LECTURE BY THE DEAN OF CANTERBURY.

When your excellent secretary requested me to open your course of lectures for this season, I naturally went to a shelf where papers await future use, to see whether the Queen's English correspondence was ample enough to warrant another lecture on that subject. I found upwards of fifty letters on questions of more or less interest, and a fair amount of cuttings from newspapers, and memoranda picked up in society and in solitude.

I therefore determined to announce "More about the Queen's English," as my subject, and to go through my file of letters and memoranda, thus forming a supplementary lecture, which might, in the next edition of my little book, either be worked in among its paragraphs, or be printed entire as an appendix at the end.

This being so, I shall not aim at arrangement or classification, but shall simply discuss the matters presented by my correspondents, and the memoranda, as they come before me.

I am asked whether an expression which I had used, "the first foundation of an institution," can be right, seeing that an institution can have but one foundation? The reply is to be sought in the general use of expletive, i.e., superabundant words, together with others which already express the meaning required. Thus we have, "O that they would consider their *latter end*," when "their end" would, strictly speaking, have been sufficient. Thus also we say, "the utmost end of the earth," "the first beginning of creation"; the expletive prefix in each case tending to give precision and emphasis, and showing that it is on the fact reasserted by it, that the stress of the sentence is laid.

A notable and very solemn instance of this usage is found in the title, "the most Highest," given to the Almighty in the Prayer-book version of the psalms (Ps. ix. 2; xiii. 6; xxi. 7, etc.) In the Bible version the expression seems not to occur, the "Most High," or, "the Highest," being its equivalent. But we have a reduplication of the same kind in Acts xxii. 5, "After the most straitest sect of our religion I lived a Pharisee." In this place it is difficult to account for it, as it represents only the simple superlative in the original text. King James's translators seem merely to have retained it from the older English versions, Tyndale's, Craumer's, and the Geneva Bible.

It may be hard to assign exactly the difference between "oldest" and "eldest." Whatever it may be, it is clearly of idiomatic usage, and not derivable from any distinction in the words themselves. But that there is a difference, may in a moment be shown. We cannot say, "Methuselah was the *eldest* man that ever lived," we must say, "the *oldest* man that ever lived." Again, it would be hardly natural to say, "his father's *eldest* born," if we were speaking of the first-born. If we were to say of a father, "He was succeeded by his *oldest* son," we should convey the impression that the son was not the *eldest*, but the *oldest* surviving after the loss of the *eldest*. And these examples seem to bring us to a kind of insight into the idiomatic difference. "Eldest" implies not only more years, but also priority of actual duration of life. A first-born who died an infant was yet the *eldest* son. If all mankind were assembled, Methuselah would be the *oldest*; but Adam would be the *eldest* of men. Whether any other account is to be given of this than the caprice of usage, I cannot say, but must leave the question to those who are better versed in the comparison of languages. My object is to describe the current coin, rather than to inquire into the archaeology of the coinage.

Connected with this inquiry about "oldest" and "eldest," is the subject of a letter which I will give you entire.

SIR,—“When I came on deck the other morning in the Red Sea (very near the place at which Moses and the Israelites are supposed to have crossed), I was seized by three fellow-passengers—a Russian, a Frenchman, and a Swiss—who, *adactem volentem*, constituted me umpire in a dispute which they were carrying on upon a point of English grammar. The Russian, it seems, was his father's *eldest* son, and he had four brothers, all, or *approximately*, younger than himself. In speaking of the oldest of these four, he called him 'my elder brother'; on which the Frenchman said, 'I thought you were your father's *eldest* son.' 'So I am,' he replied; 'but I spoke of the *elder* of my brothers.' I am not one of my own brothers, and therefore when I speak of my elder brother, I don't include myself. He I spoke of is the *oldest* of my brothers, not the *oldest* of my father's sons.' To this I replied by quoting Milton—'Adam the goodliest of his sons since born, the fairest of her daughters, Ere.' That, however, we agreed was only justified by poets' license. Finally, I ruled that though my Russian friend was strictly and grammatically correct, yet, according to common usage, the expression employed by him was calculated to mislead. He seemed to think it rather hard that the English people, having constructed a gram-

mar, should not conform to its rules, and hinted that in Russia no such liberty of the subject would be permitted—that when laws were made, people were expected to obey them, and that a man who talked bad grammar would be in danger of the knout.

"Will you be so good as tell us in your next edition whether the Russian or Frenchman was right, and whether you approve of my ruling—
Your obedient servant, W. F."

It was somewhat curious that the Russian should have blamed us for inconsistency: for surely "my elder brother" must mean the "elder brother of me," just as "my better half" means "the better half of me." We may here also illustrate what was just said about "oldest" and "eldest": "my eldest brother," could never be said by the first-born of a family, seeing that the title belongs to him alone: whereas when "my oldest brother" is said, he excludes himself, and indicates the brother next to him in age.

I am asked why we say "dependent on," but "independent of"? The answer is surely not difficult. When we make "dependent" into "independent," we not only deny that which "dependent" asserts, but we construct a different word; different in its reference and government. The "on," which we use after "dependent," implies attachment and sequence; as in "hanging on," "waiting on": the "of," which we use after "independent," expresses merely the relation of the thing following, as when we say, "inclusive of," "exclusive of." In this case, the variation of prepositions might be still further exemplified; we say "pendent from," "dependent on," "independent of." A somewhat similar instance may be found in "with respect to," "irrespective of."

The same correspondent who proposed the last question also asks, why we say "contemporary with," but "a contemporary of"? The answer to this is to be sought from a different source. In "contemporary with," the "with" simply carries on the force of the preposition "con," or "cum," with which the adjective is compounded. But when the adjective is made into a substantive, it then must be connected with other substantives by the customary preposition "of," indicating possession or relation.

A somewhat similar change takes place when substantives which may be used predicatively, are used indicatively. Thus we say, "neighbour to him," but "a neighbour of him," or, as we commonly express it, "of his." If we keep the same preposition in the two cases, the phrase does not retain the same meaning. "He is neighbour to him," means, "He lives near him"; but "He is a neighbour to him," means "He behaves to him in a neighbourly manner."

The question at the end of our Lord's parable of the Good Samaritan, "Which of these three, thinkest thou, was neighbour unto him that fell among the thieves?" forms not an exception to the rule last mentioned, but rather an example of it. For the conclusion to be drawn from the parable is, that the real claim to the title of neighbour is his who acts in a neighbourly manner. So that the question does not mean, which of these three acted in a neighbourly manner to him?—but which of these had a right to be called his neighbour—neighbour to him? Then the answer naturally comes, "He that showed mercy on him."

This correspondent also points out the curious difference which is made in the meaning of one and the same word in a sentence, when variously introduced by other words. Thus if I say of one in India, "He will return for two years," I am rightly understood as meaning that the length of his stay at home will be two years. But if I say, "He will not return for two years," then I do not, by the insertion of the negative, reverse the former preposition, i. e. mean that the length of his stay at home will not be two years, but I imply something quite different, viz. that two years will elapse before his return. By the insertion of the "not," the preposition "for," retaining its meaning of "during," "for the space of," ceases to belong to the length of time during which he will "come," and belongs to the length of time during which he will "not come."

My correspondent offers another example, which was originally given by the writer of the article on my little book in the Edinburgh Review for June, 1864. "Jack was very respectful to Tom, and always took off his hat when he met him." "Jack was very rude to Tom, and always knocked off his hat when he met him." You will see that "his hat" in the former sentence is Jack's, but in the latter sentence it is Tom's. There is absolutely nothing to indicate this but the context. "Will any one pretend," says the Reviewer, "that either of these sentences is ambiguous in meaning, or unidiomatic in expression? Yet critics of the class now before us, [i. e. those who proceed on the assumption that no sentence is correct, unless the mere syntactical arrangement of the words, irrespective of their meaning, is such that they are incapable of having a double aspect,] are bound to contend that Jack showed his respect by taking off Tom's hat, or else that he showed his rudeness by knocking off his own."

And this is important, as showing how utterly impossible it is for every reference of every pronoun to be unmistakably pointed out by the form of the sentence. Hearers and readers are supposed to be in possession of their common sense and their powers of discrimination, and it is to these that writers and speakers must be content to address themselves.

"How is it," asks still the same correspondent, "that 'excuse me writing more,' and 'excuse me not writing more,' mean the same thing?" We may answer that the verb to "excuse" has two different senses; one being to *dispense with*, and the other to *par-*

don. When a school is called over, the master may excuse (*dispense with*) a certain boy's attendance, or he may excuse (*pardon*) his non-attendance. This will be at once seen, if we put, as we properly ought, the *person* as the object to the verb "excuse," as in, "I pray thee have me excused;" the sentence will then stand in the one case, "Excuse me *from* attendance;" but in the other, "Excuse me *for* non-attendance."

A correspondent asks whether the expression "very pleased" is admissible. Undoubtedly, the ordinary usage before a participle is "very much": "I was very much pleased." No one would think of saying, "I was very cheated in the transaction." But on the other hand we all say "very tired," "very ailing," "very contented," "very discontented." Where then is the distinction? The account to be given seems to be this: If the participle describe only the action or the suffering implied in its verb, in other words, if it continue a verb, "very" alone will not serve to qualify it. "Very" simply intensifies. And it must have some quality to intensify. You cannot intensify a mere event. In other words, if "very" alone be used, it must be followed by an adjective, or by something equivalent to an adjective. "Tired" is equivalent to "weary": is a participle used as an adjective: therefore we may say "very tired": "ailing" is equivalent to "poorly": both "contented" and "discontented" are qualities and tempers, not merely records of an event which has happened. Judging then "very pleased" by this rule, it is admissible. "Pleased" is a state of mind, carried on beyond the mere occasion which gave rise to it. Introduce marked reference to the occasion, and "very" becomes inappropriate. You cannot say "very flattered," but must say, "very much flattered." I own I prefer "very much pleased," as more conformable to usage.

A difficulty arises as to the proper number of the verb-substantive, when it couples a singular nominative case to a plural one. Two correspondents have written on this matter. One cites from a newspaper, "More curates are what we want," and asks whether "are" is correct. The other is a printer, and relates that on this sentence being sent for press,— "A special feature of the Reformatory Exhibition were the work-shops and work-rooms," the "Reader" in the office corrected "were" to "was"; upon which the author corrected "was" back again to "were." A dispute arose in the office, some siding with the Reader, some with the Author. The former won the majority; and the minority, though they thought "were" correct, yet acknowledged that "was" would sound better.

And I believe that they were thus not only making an ingenuous confession, but giving the key to the whole question. In most cases of this kind, that which sounds right, is right. And that which sounds right is generally, in the examples before us, that the verb should take the number, be it singular or plural, of the preceding nominative case. "More curates are what we want." But invert the proposition, and we must say, "What we want is, more curates." So in the other case, "a special feature of the exhibition was, the work-shops and work-rooms": but "the work-shops and work-rooms were a special feature of the exhibition."

Still, this rule does not seem to have been always followed by our best writers. In the English Bible, Prov. xiii. 8, we have, "The ransom of a man's life are his riches": and in Prov. xvi. 25, "There is a way which seemeth right unto a man, but the end thereof are the ways of death." The translators' rule seems to have been always to use the plural verb-substantive, when either of the nominatives was plural. We have in one and the same sentence, Prov. xvii. 6, "Children's children are the crown of old men: and the glory of children are their fathers": where it is plain that the occurrence of one plural, and not the order of the substantives, has ruled the number of the verb.

Every schoolboy will remember "Amantum ire amoris integratio est"; in reference to which we may notice, that the Latin possesses the advantage of being able so to arrange the sentence, that the verb shall stand close to, and take the number of, the more important of the two nominative cases.

A correspondent is about to dedicate a book to a Royal patroness. He wishes to express gratitude for "many kindnesses": but feeling uncomfortable as to the correctness of the expression, is afraid he shall have to write "much kindness," which does not so well express his meaning,— "kindness shown on many occasions."

It is a very easy matter to calm his apprehension, and allow him the full expression of his gratitude. Nothing is commoner than the making of abstract nouns into concrete in this manner. I trust we all remember the verse in the Lamentations of Jeremiah, ch. iii. 22, "It is of the Lord's mercies that we are not consumed, because His compassions fail not." In the same chapter we read of "all their imaginations against me." And in Ps. lxxxix. 49, we have the very word in question; "Lord, where are thy former loving-kindnesses, which Thou swarest unto David in thy truth?"

In all these examples, the word which originally signified an attribute, is taken to indicate an instance of the exercise of that attribute. "Loving-kindnesses" are, instances of loving-kindness.

A curious case of this licence in speech may be seen at present on the walls of our railway stations, where an agent announces that he has upwards of 500 "businesses" to dispose of.

One expression in this last sentence reminds me that a correspondent at Leighton-Buzzard asks the following question. "Does upwards of a thousand" mean "more than," "above," "in excess of," a thousand, or, as some persons here, of good education, main-

tain, "less than," "nearly approaching," a thousand? "I" adds my correspondent, "cannot see any other answer than the first: to me it is self-evident. Your valuable opinion hereon would greatly oblige." I am afraid that either good education must have sunk rather low at Leighton-Buzzard, which is hardly probable, or that my correspondent must be somewhat hard of hearing, and must have mistaken his neighbours. Our practice is always to regard abstract numbers as rising in height, as we see the concrete subjects of numbers do. The ascent is from 1 to 10, 10 to 100, 100 to 1000, and so on; and no one would dream of upwards of a thousand meaning anything else but more than a thousand.

Attention has been directed to the erroneous use of adjectives belonging to one bodily sense, with substantives belonging to another. We are told that "a conspicuous voice" is a not uncommon expression. I can testify to having frequently heard "a beautiful smell," and "a beautiful air." Now of course all such expressions will not bear strict investigation: but are they therefore not allowable? Every one speaks of "beautiful music": why may we not say, "a beautiful odour"?

The distinction seems to be this. Any word may be used in that which is called a metaphorical sense: i.e., may be transferred from a material to a mental meaning. Thus "beautiful," being originally a word belonging to the sense of sight, may be transferred to the inward sight, and things may be called beautiful which are apprehended by the mind, with or without the aid of sense. Thus we recognise Beauty in art. Poetry, Painting, Music, are arts: the first apprehended by the eye, the ear, and the thought,—the second by the eye and the thought,—the third by the ear and the thought. In all these the mental vision sees Beauty: we may have beautiful poetry, beautiful painting, beautiful music. But smell is not an art: the mere enjoyment of wholesome air is not an art: in neither is there any scope for Beauty, and consequently of neither must "beautiful" be said. "A conspicuous voice" is even worse: it is an absolute defiance of correctness: a torturing of the machinery of one sense into the grooves of another.

This torturing of words may sometimes be perpetrated where people little suspect it. The Americanism "proclivities" is sometimes a convenient word. It is used as equivalent to "tendencies." But, in reality, it does only half the work of the English term. *Clivus* being Latin for a hill, *proclivus* is an adjective signifying down-hill, while *acclivus* signifies up-hill. We have the term "acclivity" in English, meaning an upward slope. So that when we use "proclivities," we must take care to confine it to its proper meaning. To speak, as the "Record" did last week, of a statesman having "High Church proclivities," is to make a blunder in terms. A proclivity can never carry a man up on high. The achievement of the man who used to walk up an inclined plane on a rolling globe would be far surpassed by him who through any manner of proclivities should attain to High Churchmanship. I would venture to suggest that as the American term has this defect, it would be better to discard it and employ the English one.

I mentioned in one of my former lectures, that "used to was" and "used to could" were reported as said in some parts of England. I have a confirmation of this in a letter from Derby. My correspondent says both expressions are very common there. "I have even," he says, "heard 'used to did.' Perhaps," he adds, "the following may be new to you. A young man speaks who has been married in haste, and is repenting at leisure:

"And when I think on what I am,
And what I used to was,
I feel I've thrown myself away
Without sufficient cause."

The same correspondent says, "I should once have sided with your opponents as to 'the three first Gospels,' but I am convinced by your arguments." It will be remembered that I defended this expression as equally correct with "the first three Gospels." "I think, however," he continues, "you would not defend what we often hear from the pulpit, or even more commonly from the clerk's desk. In the third chapter of St. John, the three last verses are these words: 'Or, Let us sing the the three first and the three last verses of the 92nd Psalm.'" "To this I answer, Why not? The "three first" verses are the three verses whose place, with reference to the rest, is first. It is only a short way of saying, the three verses which come first: and so of the "three last." Look at our daily procession into church. What is the order? The Choristers are first: First, is a quality which may be predicated of them just as being in white surplices may be: they are the twelve first in order: or more briefly, they are "the twelve first." Then come the Lay Clerks, the twelve next in order, or in brief, "the twelve next." Then come the clergy, the four, or seven, or twelve last.

Hardly any good English expression gets so much wrath expended on it as this "three first," or "three last." It was but the other day that the present writer had a whole vial of scorn poured over him because he has used it in his edition of the Greek Testament: the Reviewer being of course not aware that this is done of malice prepense, and because it is believed to be right. A curious mistake is often made in accepting invitations. In full half the notes of this kind which are sent, we see, "I shall be very happy to accept your invitation for the 9th." But the acceptance is not a thing future: the acceptance is conveyed by that very note, and your friend, when she gets it, will put you down as having accepted. The sentence is written in confusion between

"I shall be happy to come," and "I am very happy to accept," or "I accept with pleasure." And so the former half of the first sentence gets wedded to the latter half of the second.

This kind of confusion sometimes produces comical results. "Pat, does Mr. Flanagan live here?" "Yes, yer honour, he does, but he's dead." "Why, when did he die?" "Well, yer honour, if he'd lived till next Tuesday, he'd be dead a fortnight." What the man means is tolerably clear. He would say, "He'll have been dead a fortnight come next Tuesday." But in the case of a living man, any reservation of this class must be made with reserve, because he may not live till next Tuesday: so Pat puts on the reserve, and applies it to the dead, who is beyond the reach of uncertainty.

Answers to invitations are set thick with traps for the careless and the illiterate. Sometimes instead of "invitation," we find a noun unknown to our language introduced, and the writer is happy to accept the kind "invite" of his host. Sometimes, when the invitation is declined, the poor tenses of verbs are mangled in the most ruthless manner.

Take a few forms at random: "I should be happy to come, but —" "I should have been happy to come, but —" "I should have been happy to have come, but —"

I believe all these are in use, one about as often as another. Let us examine them one by one.

"I should be happy to come, but I am pre-engaged." There seems, and I believe there is, no error here. The form of accepting would be, "I shall be happy to come, as I am dis-engaged." And "should" is the strict correlative of shall.

"I should have been happy to come, but I am pre-engaged." This is wrong, and for the following reason. "Should have been" is conditional, relatively to something that is *past*. "I should have been in Devonshire last Christmas, but I was ill." And the thing which the writer of the note is speaking of, is future, not past. Had the writer said, "I should have been happy to accept your invitation, but I am pre-engaged," all would have been right: because the act of accepting or non-accepting will have belonged to the past, before the host receives the letter.

"I should have been happy to have come, but I am pre-engaged." This is doubly wrong. The "should have been" is wrong, as we have just seen: and "to have come" has really no sense at all. Turn it into an acceptance. What can "I shall be happy to have come," mean? Nothing surely, if not this, "I shall be rejoiced when the visit is over," which is a poor compliment to one's friend.

It is astonishing what different things people sometimes say from those which they intended to say. There was a letter a short time since, in one of the London papers, concerning a matter which the writer believed to be no credit to the Church. In his opening sentence he intended to announce this. But he made a very comical mistake. He asked the editor of the paper to allow him to make a statement which was no credit to the Church. And having done this, he signed himself "A Priest of the Province of Canterbury." So that as far as appeared from the letter, a clergyman had made a discreditable statement. It was the old story, of one going out to commit murder, and committing suicide by mistake.

An odious form of speech has lately crept into our newspapers: "The death is announced of —" "The suspension is reported of —" And sometimes we have the sentence still further divaricated thus, "The death is announced in the Liverpool journals, at his seat in the North of Scotland, of acute bronchitis, of Mr. Blank." The source of this clumsy arrangement must, I suppose, be sought in the fact of our not being able to use the convenient impersonal form of the French, and to say, "They announce." But there are many ways in which the same thing might be better said, and among them the very simple one, of keeping the plain order of the words: "The death of Mr. Blank is announced in the Liverpool journals."

In a lately published volume of verse, I found a still more remarkable form of this licence of separating words which ought to stand together:—

"But the crowd at the gate
Still wait and wait,
As they must, for the train is a little bit late
(And I feel I must here of necessity state
That this often occurs at this now present date,
When a train due at six, as our Bradshaws relate,
Will arrive at about twenty minutes to eight:
And I fear this must still for some time be our fate,
Till the railway directors shall sit tête-à-tête,
And shall hit on some plan to the nuisance abate.")
Anderleigh Hall: a Nod in Verse.

A correspondent wishes more said on "people" and "persons." He complains that the two are used as synonymous, "to me," he says "a very offensive vulgarism. It is periodically announced by the clergyman of the church to which I go here, that there will be the usual monthly sermons for the young this afternoon, at which the attendance of 'young people' is particularly requested. Now it seems to me that 'people' is a collective noun of the singular number, and should only be used as such, never for 'persons.' Should I be right if I said that the latter is the concrete of people?"

I observed in my book (par 318), that I could not see the distinction, nor did I find it observed by our best writers. Even supposing it to exist, usage has set in so decidedly against it, that it would be pedantry for our age to insist on reviving it. We

should have to sing, "All persons that on earth do dwell," which may be a correction, but certainly is not an improvement.

Another correspondent finds fault with a common method of speech in which we make the abstract noun into the concrete. "Twenty clergy walking in procession." But this surely is defensible, nay, sometimes necessary. "Twenty clergymen walking in procession," may mean the same thing, but does not so plainly indicate that they walked where they did, because they were clergymen. After all, "twenty clergy" is only an abbreviated form of twenty of the clergy, the clergy, or the clerical profession. In another profession, the adjective is used to perform a similar duty: we speak of calling in the "military."

It is somewhat curious to observe the different forms which have come to designate the professions. Ministers of religion are "the clergy," soldiers are "the military," sailors hardly have a collective name, but are individually known as "Jack," or, if pluralised, "the blue jackets;" lawyers are "the bar," or "the gentlemen of the long robe," though their robes are no longer than those of the clergy; medical men are "the faculty;" judges are "the bench," or "bigwigs." Artists, engineers, architects, seem to be as yet without collective names.

(To be concluded in the next No.)

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

HALIFAX Co.—J. R. Miller, Esq., the Inspector, reports as follows:—"During the past month I visited 30 schools, 10 in the Western district and 20 on the Shore. As a whole, I can report considerable improvement both in their attendance and management. The Dartmouth school, not yet fully inspected, has given me much satisfaction. It would be premature, and perhaps invidious, to single out any one department for especial commendation. There is, however, one feature in the singing and reading which cannot escape the notice of a careful observer; the excellence in these branches is greatest in the most junior department. Of course I have no reference to the new departments which I have not yet visited. Owing to the heavy, unbroken roads and stormy weather during much of the time I was on the Shore, I was somewhat hurried in the Eastern part of the district. This was unavoidable, as I had engaged to meet with the teachers at Tangier on the 29th ult. The bad weather also diminished somewhat the attendance at the schools during my visitation. I have reason to believe that the general average is increasing, particularly in the more closely settled localities. In these the provisions for the distribution of the county fund are already doing their work. In some schools I found the average attendance within 12½ per cent. of the whole number registered. In most cases it will not fall short of 60 per cent.

There are some really good schools along the shore, but almost all of these are taught by women. The most encouraging are those recently organized in sections, which until now, have been destitute of schools. I may mention Clam Harbor and Kirker's section as examples. In both of these, new buildings have been lately erected, and though still unfinished internally, they reflect credit on the rate-payers. As soon as arrangements to provide patent desks have been completed, we will be able to secure their introduction, wherever new buildings are erected or old ones repaired. Several sections are now waiting for an opportunity to procure them.

The Teachers' Institute, called by your authority, was duly held at the appointed time. Although the roads East of Spry Harbor were almost impassable, and none of the teachers in that portion of the district were able to attend, except one whom I brought in my own conveyance, there were sixteen present, not one from Mnsquodoboit Harbor to Spry Harbor having failed to attend. The impossibility of obtaining conveyance alone prevented the attendance of the Eastern teachers. I regard the zeal manifested in this matter as a convincing proof of the great interest felt by these teachers in the work to which they have devoted themselves. During the six sessions, not one was absent, and the utmost attention and interest were manifested. The trained teachers who assisted me in the practical part of the work, did themselves full justice; and I have seldom witnessed skilled labor with more satisfaction. The specimen lesson on elementary reading, taught by means of the sounds, and that on the Staples' system of penmanship, are deserving of special praise. Many a man who had spent half a lifetime in keeping a school, and who thought himself no mean proficient at the work, left for the scene of his labor, a sadder and I hope wiser man. The young men have all received much sound information on *mode*, and they express a firm determination to turn what they have learned to practical account. Before separating, a unanimous resolution was passed to form two Teachers' Associations on the shore, to meet twice each half year, for the special purpose of acquiring and diffusing sound information on the best mode of conducting classes in the different branches taught in common schools. The first meeting of the Eastern Association will be held at Sheet Harbor, at 10 o'clock, a. m., on the second Friday in April; and the Western Association will meet at Upper Jeddore, West side, on the third Friday of April, at the same hour. As the attendance at these Associations will be large, I trust the model constitution, promulgated by the Secretary of the Provincial Association, will be ready by that time.

The last session of the Institute was occupied with a "Catechism drill" on the School Law, and the intelligent understanding of its provisions and appreciation of its benefits manifested by all, was encouraging.

Before closing this brief sketch of the labors of a month, allow me to say that there is no feature in our educational progress which impresses me more favorably than the *Journal of Education* itself. I am informed that a few evenings since a Young Men's debating society in Jeddore discussed the question, "Is it just to tax all the property of a country for the support of free schools?" The members of this association are, many of them, young men without families, and yet the conclusion

was an almost unanimous verdict in the affirmative. I am told that the speaking was all on one side, and I think the speakers were largely indebted to the files of the *Journal* for their arguments. Of one thing I am sure, the *Journal* is read, carefully read, and it is already a grievance in the minds of some that most of the sections receive but one copy gratis.

LUXEMBURG Co.—W. M. B. Lawson, Esq., reports that active measures are being taken in Lower Dublin, West Dublin and Lallave island, for the erection of school-houses forthwith. The new house at Bridgewater is finished, and two 1st class teachers have been engaged to carry on the school. Mahone Bay has two departments, in separate buildings, in successful operation. A very fine and commodious school-house has been erected, and completely finished, at the Lallave Ferry, but the trustees cannot procure a teacher. They want a good 2nd class male teacher. Many sections in this county are similarly situated with respect to teachers.

It is really cheering to see the anxiety now expressed by many to have their schools in operation, who formerly have been not merely careless about them, but decidedly opposed to the school system. The whole county seems now to be thoroughly inoculated with a wholesome educational sentiment, which may God prosper and bring to perfection in due time.

TRAINED TEACHERS.—The inspector of Digby Co. writes that "Wherever well-trained Normal School teachers have been employed, I can report no case of failure. To visit schools taught by them is a most pleasing duty. Attaching proper value to apparatus, they will generally second the inspector's request and directions in the matter, and so exert their influence with the trustees, that whatever is deficient will, for the most part, be supplied."

CAPE BRETON Co.—Edmund Outram, Esq., M. A., reports the narrow escape from destruction, by fire, of the new school-house in Sydney. There is a larger number of schools in operation this term than ever before. This county is progressing rapidly in its educational affairs. The North Bar section are contracting for the erection of a fine graded school-house. The trustees are anxious to make it a model house in every respect.

HANTS Co.—The following extract from the monthly report of the Inspector, is very encouraging:—"I have to report 25 schools inspected during the month ended January 31st. These include seven of the nine now competing for the superior grant. These last are variously characterized as to efficiency. All of them excel in some respects, and the competition between them will be close. Generally speaking, the sections in which the Superior schools are respectively taught, seem quite enthusiastic in their endeavors to raise them to the point of successful competition. In no section is this enthusiasm more apparent than in West Noel, where the school is not only equipped with the necessary educational apparatus, but where every effort is put forth to secure the largest average attendance possible. In proof of this, I may observe that on the morning of the 23rd January, after a heavy snow storm, I saw sleighs laden with children moving in each direction towards the school-house; and I would like, in the recital of this, to provoke to a similar zeal certain sections in which, I am sorry to say, the attendance at school is very small, considering the number of children of school age. Such, for instance, are the Scotch village, Walton, and Lower Kennetcook sections. The work of providing proper school accommodation is progressing. The Still Water section has just commenced building. Through the kindness of the chairman of the Railway Department, the frame for their school-house was, a few days ago, conveyed by rail free, from the Newport station to Still Water. The New Dublin section entered their new house on the 25th January. It is not yet completed, but is sufficiently far advanced to admit of a school being kept in it. This section, which is poor and sparsely settled, deserves much credit for the educational progress it has made.

"The Elementary department in the Avondale school has just been assigned to a room 20x26, and which, added to the main room, gives a building 26x56. In the Hock section, where for some time the people have been divided on the question of the location of the school-house, the waters have calmed, and the contract has just been let for a house 37x60, with 14 feet posts, to be finished by the 1st day of next September. This house will probably be furnished with patent desks and seats.

"The educational meetings which I have held during the month have, as a general thing, been well attended, and some good is manifestly being accomplished in this way.

"The schools in Windsor town are flourishing. The aggregate registered attendance is now 300, with a total average of 275. And still they come.

CUMBERLAND Co.—Rev. J. Christie reports the prospects for the current year as cheering and encouraging. The great drawback is the scarcity of teachers. First and second class male teachers are in greater demand during the winter term than during the summer, a larger proportion of young men being in attendance on the schools. The number of well qualified male teachers is on the increase.

COLCHESTER Co.—The inspector says:—"My official correspondence is a heavier duty than many persons think. The average for the year has been eighteen letters a week. The educational prospects of this county are very bright, a new day having evidently dawned.—Teachers must not be allowed to disappoint the reasonable expectations of the people."

We regret to learn that the school-house at Lower Stewiacke was destroyed by fire on the 18th ult. No insurance. The fire is supposed to have originated from the stove-pipe. This Section was competing for the Superior School grant. The rate-payers of the Section unanimously resolved to take immediate steps for the erection of another house. This is the more creditable, as they had just completed the payments on their former one. Trustees ought to effect insurances on their school-houses and furniture,—the cost would be but trifling. Whatever private individuals may do with their own property, trustees should not expose public property to sudden destruction.

DIORY Co.—During the past season, six new school-houses were completed in this county, twelve other new ones are in course of erection, and eleven have been repaired. The new houses at Hill Grove, South Range, and Duck Pond, are excellent buildings, and are now occupied. The new house now in building at Freeport, L. I., will contain two departments. Comoville, Meteghan River, and Meteghan, each have fine new houses. The former and the latter contain good classrooms. Of the eleven houses repaired, three have been removed to more eligible sites. Much improvement has been made with respect to furniture. There are not more than six houses in the county that adhere to the long desks and benches, and it is hoped that in another year these will be among the things that were. At the last annual meetings \$9621 were voted to supplement the general funds, \$5184 of which were for the purpose of erecting new houses, and making repairs. The Inspector reports as follows: "That a great and marked change, in reference to the free school system, has come over many cannot be doubted. In a Section in which the people stood aloof, and actually defied the law, they resolved at their last annual meeting to have schools second to none in the county, and voted \$600 towards the support of schools during the present year. In another place, where much opposition had also been manifested, a vote of \$900 was passed for a new house. There are abundant proofs that the people are becoming more and more sensible that the present school law is one of the best possible measures for the county. Great numbers are now heartily glad that the system which formerly obtained, has been swept away, and one more in consonance with the requirements of the age, adopted in its stead. The defects which had such a tendency to fetter the operation of the previous measure, have been removed by doing away with the principle of subscription. Time has proved to our people that assessment is the only safe and reliable mode of sustaining good schools. Most of the objections formerly urged against its adoption are now seldom heard; nor, with the experience of the past two years, would they have much weight.

ANNAPOLIS Co.—Rev. George Armstrong writes. The change in the educational status and aspect of this county seems something wonderful to me. It is a revolution, yes, a resurrection from the rubbish and chaos of the old system, which began and ended almost nowhere.

VICTORIA Co.—There were 45 schools in operation in this county during the past term. There were 39 during the corresponding period of the previous year. Nine new school houses—7 frame and 2 log—were completed during the summer term. There are 5 new houses in course of erection, and several of the old houses are undergoing extensive repairs. The greater number of school houses in this county have been built within the last four years. They are all in advance of the former huts or hovels, few of which remain. The Inspector states that there is a general desire among the people to have the best buildings possible, and to furnish and fit them up as well as means will permit. Most of the schools are deficient in furniture, especially with respect to desks of the proper style. The new wall maps are being very generally introduced; and the Nova Scotia series of Reading books are gradually displacing the Irish series. The county Academy, under the head-mastership of George E. Tufts, B. A., is doing good work. Among those in attendance, are six young men and five young women, pursuing their studies, with the object of qualifying themselves as teachers. The trustees are taking steps to provide another department, to be opened on the first of May next. Education in Victoria is yet in its infancy, and there are many impediments, not to be met with in the more favored and advanced parts of the province. It is, however, abundantly evident that great advances have been made during the past year, as regards the number of schools in operation, the increased attendance of pupils, and the awakening spirit of the people. Should the same desire for improvement continue to extend itself, matters in connection with Education will henceforward wear a brighter aspect.

QUEEN'S Co.—At a special meeting of the rate-payers of Port Medway, the sum of \$2000 was voted for the erection of a suitable school-house, and a further sum for the salaries of three teachers for the remainder of the present school year. The trustees expect to open the schools early in the current month.

Most of the schools throughout the country are largely attended. Some of the scholars are upwards of 40 years of age. The attendance on the Arbroath school has been so large, that the trustees have employed an assistant teacher.

GENERAL INTEREST IN EDUCATION.—The country from end to end seems busily engaged in the work of education. Never before were so many schools in operation; never were so many children in attendance; never were so many good school-houses in course of erection. We hear nothing of petitions against the law; and complaints against it are becoming faint and few. There is no perfection on the face of the earth; and the Nova Scotia system is still imperfect, but it is an immeasurable improvement on the past. The country is now finding out that money invested in schools pays well—that in fact education is the best, the safest, and most remunerative investment. The new system will soon be as popular as it was unpopular a year or two ago. The counties that were furthest behind last year are rapidly coming to the front; the lack of teachers being the only limit to the number of scholars.—*Presbyterian Witness.*

We understand that the contract for building the new school-house for the Wolfville district, has been taken by Mr. John Woodworth of this place at \$2000.—*Wolfville Acadian.*

We are pleased to see that Mr. Morrison, Inspector for the North Shore District, has been doing his duty in urging the importance of Free Schools. On a recent occasion he spoke at Dalhousie, and—as reported in the *Telegraph*—explained to the audience what is being done in Nova Scotia by the Free Schools, and what is required here. He advocated a bonus of twenty-five per cent. of the government grant, to all counties assessing themselves for the support of schools, as was provided by the Act of 1847; he demonstrated that the school tax for Regouche County would amount to only one-fourth of a cent on a dollar on rateable property! Many of the people there are delighted with the idea; several wealthy and influential gentlemen state that the members for the county ought to advocate such a measure.—*St. Croix (N. B.) Courier.*

OFFICIAL NOTICES.

EXTRACT FROM THE MINUTES OF THE COUNCIL OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, JULY 7TH, 1866.—"Provision being made by the School Law for the publication of a *Journal of Education*, the Council of Public Instruction directs that the said *Journal* be made the medium of official notices in connexion with the Educational Department."

T. H. RAND,
Sec'y to C. P. I.

I. To Inspectors.

1. Inspectors who have not forwarded to the Education Office the statistical TABLE required by Circular No. 9, par. 3, are requested to do so without delay.

2. A supply of School Returns has been forwarded to each Inspector. In the case of "BORDER SECTIONS" forming parts of different sessional districts, the Inspector in whose county the school-house is situated, will inspect the school in any such section. He will furnish the Trustees with a blank "C" Return for each Board of Commissioners with which the section is connected; and upon the back of each return signify when and where each is to be lodged by the Trustees. Each Inspector will, before the close of the Term, transmit to his fellow Inspector a duplicate sheet of the "NOTES OF INSPECTION" of each Border Section.

3. The attention of Inspectors of Schools is especially called to the STANDING ORDER contained in Circular No. 9, par. 7. A strict compliance with said order is required.

4. The Council of Public Instruction, under the authority of the 12th sub-division of the 6th section of the *Law concerning Public Schools*, has made the following order:—

"In cases where sections failed to determine, in annual meeting, which member of the existing Board of Trustees should retire from office, and to fill the annual vacancy in the Trusteeship, it shall be the duty of the Inspector to determine which Trustee shall retire; and the Commissioners shall fill such vacancy in the manner directed by law."

October 31, 1866.

II. To Trustees and Teachers.

Engagements hereafter entered into between Trustees and Teachers will not be regarded as legal, if the amount of the Teacher's salary is made contingent on the sum to be received by the Section from the county fund. See *Jour. of Education*, p. 21.

January, 1867.

III. Prescribed Text-Books.

The Council of Public Instruction has prescribed Bain's Rhetoric in place of Whately's Rhetoric. Dr. Collier's Histories of Greece and Rome have also been added to the list of prescribed text-books, for use in advanced Common Schools.

IV. Superior Schools.

All interested are notified that, in accordance with the Revised Regulations of the Council of Public Instruction, one-half of the grant to Superior Schools will be paid by the Superintendent of Education to the Trustees, to be applied by them in improving the apparatus of the school, or for general school purposes; and one-half to the Teacher of the school for his own use.

The conditions on which sections will be allowed to compete for this grant may be found on page 35 of the "Comments and Reg. of the Council of Public Instruction." A careful compliance with all the requirements relating to the school house, furniture, apparatus, out-houses, &c., as well as those relating to the skill and thoroughness exhibited by the Teacher in his work, will hereafter be required of each section receiving the grant.

V. The April Examinations.

1. The Teacher's half-yearly Examination for the district of Annapolis East, will be held in the School House at Middleton, beginning on April 23rd, at 9 o'clock, A.M.
GEORGE ARMSTRONG,
Chairman of D. E.

2. The semi-annual Examination of Teachers, for the county of Cape Breton, will begin, in the Court House, on April 16th, at 10 o'clock, A.M.
EDMUND OCTHAM,
Chairman of D. E.

VI. The procuring of Books and Apparatus.

1. WHEREAS, by the 20th Section of the Amended School Law, the rate-payers of each school section are empowered to assess themselves for the purchase of prescribed School Books, Maps, and Apparatus; and WHEREAS, by the 15th subdivision of the 6th section of the said law, an annual Provincial Grant is provided to enable the Superintendent of Education to furnish the above articles at half their cost, to School Trustees,—

NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN,

That the Superintendent of Education will furnish, as below, School Books, Maps, and Apparatus, to the extent of the Provincial Grant in aid of the same.

2. Trustees must carefully comply with the following Regulations:—
Reg. 1.—Applications must be made in the following form, and addressed to MESSRS. A. & W. MACKINLAY, HALIFAX, who have been duly authorized to attend to all orders.

[Form of Application.]

(Date)

MESSRS. A. & W. MACKINLAY,
Halifax.

SINCE.—We enclose (or forward by —) the sum of \$—, for which you will please send us the following articles provided by the Superin-

tendent of Education for use in the public schools. The parcel is to be addressed—(here give the address in full) and forwarded by—(here state the name of the person, express company, or vessel; and, if by vessel, direct the parcel to be insured, if so desired.)

LIST OF ARTICLES.

(Here specify distinctly the Books, Maps, &c., required, and the quantity of each sort.)

We certify that each and all of the articles named in the above list are required for use in the Public School (or Schools) under our control, and for no other purpose whatsoever, and that due care will be exercised to secure their preservation.

(Signed) _____ Trustees of—School Section, in the County of—

Reg. 2.—Any application not accompanied with the money will not be attended to.

Reg. 3.—All costs and risk of transportation of parcels must be borne by Trustees, (i. e. by the Sections on behalf of which they act, and not by the Educational Department.)

If Trustees so direct in their application, goods (except Globes,) transported by water will be insured for the amount paid for the same by them, at the following rates:—

Parcels shipped during the First Term of the School year, 2½ per ct.
Second Term " 1½ per ct.

Trustees must forward with their application the amount required to effect the insurance, otherwise parcels will not be insured. No charge will be made for policies.

Reg. 4.—Applications will, as far as the articles in stock and the annual grant permit, receive attention in the order of their receipt.

3. The following are the regulations of the Council of Public Instruction with reference to all Books, Maps, and Apparatus furnished to Trustees, under the operation of Sec. 6 (15) of the law concerning Public Schools:—

Reg. 1.—They shall be the property of the School Section, and not of private individuals (except as specified in Reg. 5.)

Reg. 2.—Any pupil shall be entitled, free of charge, to the use of such school books as the teacher may deem necessary.

Reg. 3.—Any pupil shall have the privilege of taking home with him any books, &c., which, in the opinion of the teacher, may be required for study or use out of school.

Reg. 4.—Pupils, or their parents or guardians, shall be responsible for any damage done to books beyond reasonable wear and tear.

Reg. 5.—Any pupil desiring it, may be allowed to purchase from the trustees the books required by him, provided the same be done without prejudice to the claims of other pupils; the price to be, in all cases, the same as advertised in the official notice published from time to time in the *Journal of Education*. No pupil who has been allowed to purchase a book shall have any claim on the trustees for the free use of another of the same kind.

Reg. 6.—Any section neglecting to provide a sufficient supply of books, maps, and apparatus, may be deprived of the public grants.

Reg. 7.—Trustees shall make such further regulations, agreeably to law, as may be necessary to ensure the careful use and preservation of books, maps, and apparatus belonging to the section.

Any section infringing in any way upon the above regulations will forfeit the privilege of purchasing books, &c., at half cost.

4. LIST OF TEXT-BOOKS, MAPS AND APPARATUS.

The following list of Books will be extended, and other articles of apparatus included as the fund at the disposal of the Superintendent permits. The Wall-Maps (including one of the United States) now in course of preparation, under the supervision of the Educational Department, will be added to the list as soon as published.

THE NOVA SCOTIA SERIES OF READING BOOKS.

Book No. 1.....	\$0.22½ doz.	Book No. 6.....	\$0.17 ea.
" 2.....	0.50 "	" 7.....	0.23 "
" 3.....	0.06 each.	The art of Teaching	
" 4.....	0.10 "	Reading.....	0.07½ "
" 5.....	0.11 "	Bailey's Brief Treatise on Elocution	0.05 "

SPELLING BOOK.

The Spelling Book Superseded, (Rev. Ed.) 8½ cents each.

GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION.

English Grammar.*
Morell's Analysis, 5 cents each.
Reid's Rudiments of Composition, 20 cents each.
Bain's Rhetoric, 40 cents each.

MATHEMATICS.

<i>Arithmetic</i> .—Nova Scotia Elementary Arithmetic.....	In press.
Nova Scotia (advanced) Arithmetic.....	15 cents each.
Nova Scotia Arithmetical Table Book.....	19 " doz.
<i>Algebra</i> .—Chambers' Algebra, (as far as Quadratics).....	20 " each.
Do. Do. (complete).....	30 " "
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" Candidates for admission to the Normal School shall attend one of the regular semi-annual examinations conducted by the District Examiners in October and April in each year, and if they pass a satisfactory examination on the third-class syllabus,* they shall, if found worthy of the same, receive a certificate of character, ability, and scholarship." This certificate shall give the holder admission to the Normal School, and upon presenting said certificate to the Superintendent, the holder shall receive an allowance of five cents per mile, towards travelling expenses. In the case of those who hold licenses, granted since October, 1863, it shall be sufficient to make application to the Chairman of the District Examiners, who shall forward the requisite certificates to applicants. No person shall be admitted to this Institution as a pupil-teacher, without the above-named certificate.

Persons wishing to enrol as Candidates for High School or Academy certificates must, in addition to a good knowledge of English, be thoroughly familiar with the Latin and Greek Grammars, and be able to parse with ease any passage in some elementary work in each language. In mathematics, they must be competent to solve any example in the advanced Nova Scotia Arithmetic, to work quadratic equations in Algebra, and to demonstrate any proposition in the first four books of Euclid."

VIII. Bond of Secretary to Trustees.

" The Secretary of the Trustees shall give a bond to Her Majesty, with two sureties, in a sum at least equal to that to be raised by the section during the year, for the faithful performance of the duties of his office; and the same shall be lodged by the Trustees with the Clerk of the Peace for the county or district."—School Law of 1866, Sect. 42.

This bond is to be given annually, or whenever a Secretary is appointed, and Trustees should not fail to forward it by mail or otherwise, to the Clerk of the Peace, immediately after they have appointed their Secretary. The following is a proper form of bond:—

PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA.

KNOW ALL MEN BY THESE PRESENTS, THAT WE, (name of Secretary) as principal, and (names of sureties) as sureties, are held and firmly bound unto our Sovereign Lady VICTORIA, by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Queen, &c., in the sum of _____ of lawful money of Nova Scotia, to be paid to our said Lady the Queen, her heirs and successors, for the true payment whereof, we bind ourselves, and each of us by himself, for the whole and every part thereof, and the heirs, executors and administrators of us and each of us, firmly by these presents, sealed with our Seals, and dated this _____ day of _____ in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and _____ and in the _____ year of Her Majesty's reign.

WHEREAS the said _____ has this day been duly appointed to be Secretary to the Board of Trustees of _____ School Section, No. _____ in the District of _____

NOW THE CONDITION OF THIS OBLIGATION IS SUCH, THAT if the said (name of Secretary) do and shall from time to time, and at all times hereafter, during his continuance in the said Office, well and faithfully perform all such acts and duties as do or may hereafter appertain to the said Office, by virtue of any Law of this Province, in relation to the said Office of Secretary to Trustees, and shall in all respects conform to and observe all such

*If qualified, they may be examined on the second, or first-class syllabus, omitting the practical questions at the end."

rules, orders and regulations as now are or may be from time to time established for or in respect of the said Office, and shall well and faithfully keep all such accounts, books, and papers, as are or may be required to be kept by him in his said Office, and shall in all respects well and faithfully perform and execute the duties of the said Office; and if on ceasing to hold the said Office, he shall forthwith, on demand, hand over to the Trustees of the said School Section, or to his successor in office, all books, papers, moneys, accounts, and other property in his possession by virtue of his said Office of Secretary—then the said obligation to be void—otherwise to be and continue in full force and virtue.

Signed, sealed, and delivered } [Name of Secretary.] (Seal)
 in the presence of } [Names of Sureties.] (Seals)
 [Name of Witness.]

WE, THE SUBSCRIBERS, two of Her Majesty's Justices of the Peace for the County of _____ do certify our approbation of _____ (names of Sureties,) within named, as Sureties for the within named _____ (name of Secretary,) and that they are to the best of our knowledge and belief persons of estate and property within the said County of _____ and of good character and credit, and sufficiently able to pay, if required, the penalty of the within bond. Given under our hands this _____ day of _____ A. D. 1866 [Names of Magistrates.]

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