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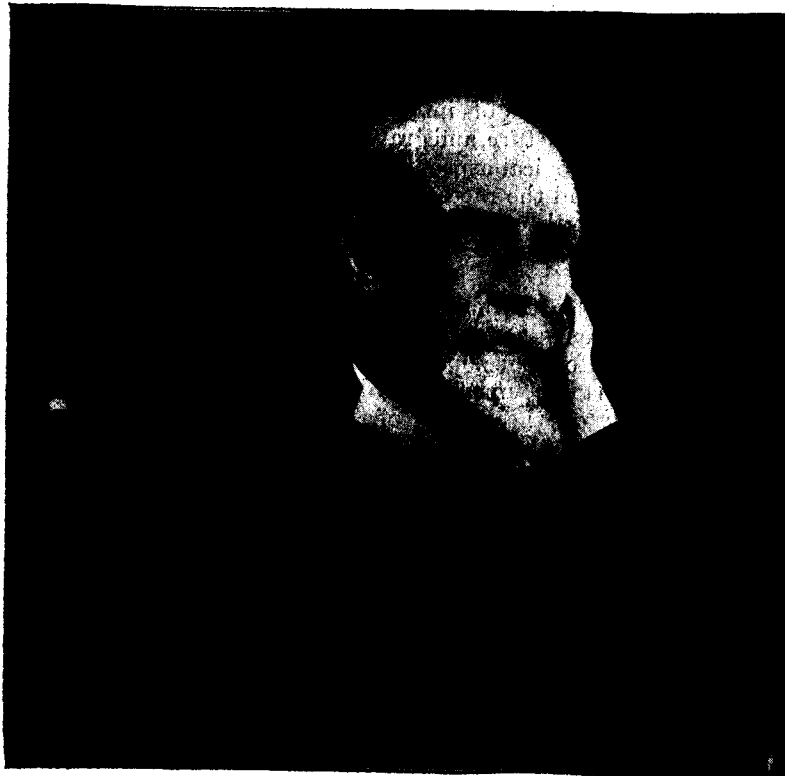
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and Chemistry, and the second prize in Logic, and ultimately, in the Divinity course, winning the Lord Rector's prize of thirty guineas for the best essay on "Hindu Literature and Philosophy." On the completion of his studies, he was ordained a minister of the Church of Scotland, and, having returned to Nova Scotia, was appointed a missionary in his native County of Pictou. "Here," says the writer of the article in the *Cyclopædia of Canadian Biography*, to which we are indebted for many of the facts in this brief sketch, "all the wonderful energy of his nature, his zeal and brilliancy, began to manifest themselves." In a

Under his energetic and progressive management, Queen's entered upon a new era of development and progress, and rose rapidly to the very important position she occupies to-day, in the front rank of Canadian Universities. In his new position Dr. Grant was enabled also to give a larger share of his attention to literature and to matters of public concern. His "Ocean to Ocean," which was published as the result of a trip across the Continent in 1872, won deserved repute by the vigor and grace of its graphic delineations of the grand scenery and stirring incidents of a journey, which, though now easy and familiar, was at that

time memorable, if not unique. Dr. Grant has since that date contributed many articles of interest and value to the leading English and American magazines. As a clear and powerful speaker on the public platform he has few superiors in Canada or elsewhere. During the last few years he has taken much interest in public matters, especially in the progress of Imperial Federation, of which he is one of the ablest advocates, and which owes much of whatever hold it has gained upon the public mind to his earnest advocacy both at home and in Australia, which he visited a year or two since in search of rest and restoration from the effects of overwork. Among teachers and educators of all ranks in Ontario Dr. Grant is likely to be long and favorably known in connection with his efforts to secure uniformity in the requirements and examinations for matriculants in the various Universities; efforts to which it is probably not too much to say, the present excellent system under which the High School Leaving Examinations are accepted *pro tanto* for matriculation into the Provincial and other Universities owes its origin. In the opinion of many educators he has also rendered good service to the cause of higher education in Ontario, as one of those who have stood for the independence and autonomy of the voluntary Universities, as opposed to the various schemes of federation or consolidation, which have been mooted from time to time. Under his leadership the Presbyterians have rallied to the support of Queen's in a manner which assures its stability and growth. Their example will not be without its effect upon other institutions, which, like it, depend for support upon the voluntary contributions of liberal friends of University culture.

REV. GEORGE MUNRO GRANT, D.D., LL.D.



REV. GEORGE MUNRO GRANT, D.D., LL.D.

REV. GEORGE MUNRO GRANT, D.D., LL.D., Principal of Queen's University, Kingston, Ontario, was born at Stellarton, a village on East River, Pictou County, Nova Scotia, A.D. 1835. His father, a native of Scotland, and a man highly respected for ability and integrity, was a teacher in the Stellarton Public School at the time the subject of this sketch was born. The son received a part of his preliminary training at the Academy, an institution of some local celebrity, in Pictou, to which town the family had removed. George Munro is said by one authority to have been "fonder of play than of his lessons, and always ready for a play, a scramble, a holiday, or a fight, at a moment's notice." Nevertheless, he must have used his exceptional abilities to some purpose in the work of the school, as he won the Primrose medal, awarded by the Academy for proficiency. It was at this period of his life that, while, with some other boys, experimenting with a hay-cutter, he met with the serious accident which deprived him of his right hand, which was caught by the knife and completely cut off. In his sixteenth year he entered the West River Seminary of the Presbyterian Church of Nova Scotia. After two years of study in this institution, he was elected by the Committee of the Synod of Nova Scotia as one of the four bursars to be sent to the University of Glasgow, to be fitted for the ministry of the Presbyterian Church. Admitted to that University at the age of eighteen, he at once entered upon a successful and brilliant career, carrying off the highest honors in Philosophy, taking first prizes in Classics, Moral Philosophy

little while, however, a wider sphere of usefulness was opened up for him in Prince Edward Island, and here he labored for two years with the most marked success. In May, 1863, he was inducted into the pastorate of St. Matthews' church, Halifax, which he retained until his appointment, in 1877, to his present position, at the head of the University of Queen's College, Kingston.

During the fourteen years of his ecclesiastical labors, Dr. Grant had served his Church ably and energetically on various Committees of Presbytery and Synod. He had also been one of the foremost advocates and promoters of the great scheme of Presbyterian Union. The Principalship of the University gave a new field and wider scope for the exercise of his great powers as an organizer and leader.

* Special Papers. *

THE PRESENT STATUS OF EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY WM. T. HARRIS, LL.D., NATIONAL COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

THE educational question which at present excites most attention among the people of the United States relates either to the extension of the public elementary Schools, or to the adjustment of the colleges and the universities to the preparatory schools. In those States where the Public School systems are newest it is quite natural that the chief educational interest concentrates on the problem of extending the free schools in such a manner as to provide by public taxation for longer School sessions, better teachers, better school buildings, increased attendance upon school. In the older and richer States of the North Atlantic there is much thought and discussion going on regarding the future place and function of the small colleges, and regarding the relation which college work holds to university work.

The friends of education who live in the Northern States behold the spectacle of the establishment of the free common school system in the Southern States with a feeling of pride. Looking over the whole country we remark that in public and private schools 22½ per cent. of the population is enrolled in schools,—13,726,574 pupils of all grades for the year 1889. The proportion in private schools varies with the grade of work. In the elementary grades it is 9 per cent; in the secondary it is three times as large, or 27 per cent; in the superior instruction it is 73 per cent. The total amount expended for education in 1889 was \$172,000,000, counting the amount for private institutions at \$35,000,000.

In the Schools of the United States there prevail two different ideas of the course of study; the one originating with the directors of higher education, and the other a growth from the common elementary school. These two ideals clash in quite important particulars. The common school course of study as it appears in the elementary school and in the Public High School which gives secondary instruction, does not shape itself so as to fit the pupils for entrance to the colleges. The older colleges built their course of study on mathematics, Latin and Greek. They accordingly demanded of the Preparatory Schools a preliminary training or preparation along these lines and neglected all else. But within the past 300 years there has arisen a modern tributary stream of human learning, and it has some time since begun its demand for recognition in the course of study.

The demands of the sciences and of the literature of modern languages to a share in the course of study was met in one way by the college and in another way by the common school. The directors of higher education affirm that Latin, Greek, and mathematics furnished the truly disciplinary studies fit for the foundation of all liberal education. Modern literature and the sciences were not and could not become culture studies, although they might be useful in the way of accomplishments in practical life. Accordingly the colleges pro-

ceeded to recognize the moderns by admitting them into the course of study only at the end. But the college did not discourage the introduction of modern literature and natural science into the preparatory school. Consequently the pupil who left school during his preparatory course, or before the senior year of college, found himself ignorant of these two great and rapidly growing provinces of human learning.

The Public School system has taken a different direction in the matter. It has been under the supervision and management of less highly educated men,—of men less thoroughly instructed in the forms of the past, and as a result less conservative. When the moderns appealed for a place in the course of study, some concession was made at once to the demand. A tendency has been established to recognize the moderns throughout the course of study. First, modern literature was admitted in the shape of a graded series of School readers containing many of the gems of English and American literature, and much, too, that was written in mere colloquial English, and much that was trashy in its style and thought. In the geographical text-book there was an attempt at a survey of the physical world in its relation to man,—the world in its mathematical features, in its physical aspects of interacting forces of light, heat moisture, and gravitation, and finally in its biological aspects of the plant life, animal life, and the races of men. This geographical text-book also drew on the social sciences and introduced scraps of information regarding political economy, the occupations of men, and also the political institutions, the laws and customs and religion. Geography has therefore developed from the beginning into a sort of compend, affording the pupil a survey of the results of the modern sciences, both in the physical and social world.

Having conceded the demands of the moderns in the Elementary School in these respects, and in the introduction of a history of the fatherland, it remains next to emphasize this tendency still more in the secondary Public School, and to make the High School course of study a more thorough work upon English literature, universal history, three or four selected sciences like geology, astronomy, physiology, and chemistry, in addition to the mathematics and some modern or ancient language.

It might be claimed that the graduate of the High School had a broad education. His education, under good teachers, might even be thorough, but certainly in his preparation in Latin and Greek the amount was not sufficient to give the High School pupil a fair chance by the side of the graduate of the special preparatory school. The directors of the common schools have therefore been compelled to establish a double course, a classical and an English course in the Public High School, a procedure so foreign to the spirit of the entire common school course of study that it has only partially succeeded.

Twenty-five years ago the requirements for admission to respectable colleges were much lower than at present. It was then possible for the High School graduate to enter college with a good standing. He knew nearly as much Latin and Greek as the average student from the private prepar-

atory school, and he knew far more science and history and modern literature. These moderns gave him a decided advantage. But there has been a widespread feeling among college men that the standard for admission ought to be raised until the degree of bachelor of arts should represent more learning and greater maturity of mind and body. The bold action of some of the ablest college presidents set into more rapid motion this increase in the demand for more work in the preparatory schools, and the consequence has been the general elevation of the standard college by one and one half to two years. The results of this change have become slowly apparent. There has followed a wider separation of the higher education from the Public School education. The preparatory school has been forced to fill the place that the college formerly held. The difficulty has been increased by the rapid multiplication of Public High Schools, which now number some 4,000. The smaller colleges, which are very numerous, having given up a year or more of their work to the great preparatory schools, felt very keenly the loss of students.

Inasmuch as the larger colleges have developed into universities, there is evidently to be a crusade against the small college that will force it to do the work of secondary education and renounce that of the higher institutions. This procedure will perhaps force itself upon them if the present high standard for admission is retained. But there are very strong reasons against this course. It is possible that there may be a change that will return the college to its old place in the educational system and this will save all the small colleges for the useful work which they have so long and so faithfully accomplished. This same move would likewise restore the college to a harmonious relation to the Public High School. Indeed it would bring about a better adjustment than has ever been before. For the elevation of the standard for admission to college has been accompanied to some extent by requirements of preparation in moderns,—some modern literature and French or German, together with some acquaintance with science is demanded. Hence a slight approximation of preparatory courses of study to that of the High School has been effected. If this tendency is preserved and accentuated in the change of requirements for admission, there may come about a complete adjustment of the higher education with the common school education and an inestimable advantage accrue to the people.

The old college did not know how to manage the years of post-graduate study. The fellowship endowments were paid to brilliant students who had carried off the honors, but who had worked rather for those same honors than for the sake of learning and insight. A reform of the greatest importance was inaugurated by organizing post-graduates into classes for the work of original investigation in the form of laboratory work and seminaria, wherein critical research was taught and learned. At once there sprang up a new and superior order of professors, which has been superseding step by step the type of college professor that formerly prevailed. The new university-trained professor has a very much improved method of

instruction, even if his work is in lower schools. He carries the method of investigation into practice with his students, and their work becomes far more profitable. It is this discovery on the part of our leading colleges of the true character of University work that has brought about the feeling that it is not necessary to include all higher education in the college. There should be a fourth stage of education, that of the University, quite beyond the education of the college, and its characteristics should be that of specialization and original investigation.

The Elementary School will always have the character of memory work stamped upon it, no matter how much the educational reforms may improve its methods. It is not easy to over-value the impulse of such men as Pestalozzi and Froebel; but the child's mind cannot seize great syntheses. He bites off, as it were, only small fragments of truth at best. He gets isolated data and sees only feebly the vast network of inter-relations in the world. This fragmentary, isolated character belongs essentially to primary education. But just as surely does secondary education deal with relations and functions and processes. It is the stage of generalization. College education strives to induce in the mind the habit of seeing the unity of things. The college rounds up the youth's view of the world and gives him an idea of the articulation of the various branches of human knowledge.

It has been contended by some educators that this phase of education, which is founded on the search for unity, is a spurious phase of education, and they would therefore willingly relegate all of the college work to the preparatory school and commence the work of specialization and original investigation at once after the secondary school or even in the secondary school itself. But these zealots do not duly consider that the only transition between the theoretical and the practical, between intellect and the will, takes place through the act of unifying or summing up one's knowledge. A rational man is bound to act in view of all the circumstances. The inventory of any field of reality can never be exhausted, but the practical man must act. When he acts he must stop investigating further and sum up the case. This is the transition from the intellect to the will. The college has in the past cultivated exclusively this frame of mind. It will not be needed to cultivate it in the future, although it will need to be supplemented by the spirit of investigation and verification which the university method brings with it. For we must learn both those methods in order to become liberally educated.

DO YOU FOLLOW THEM.

AN "Anxious Parent," in the *London Journal of Education*, gives the following rules for destroying the intellectual and moral faculties. They would undoubtedly prove effective, if well followed:

If a boy does his work thoroughly and well, give him harder work. If he does not do this thoroughly, tell him that it is his own fault, and that he is growing both stupid and idle.

Impress upon him daily that the object of school work is to do better than some other boy, or to appear to do so.

When a boy can do his mathematical work better than other boys of his age, tell him that he should also be able to do his classical work better (his mathematical faculty will enable him to see the force of this reasoning.)

Tell every boy that he ought to spend three hours on his evening lessons, but tell his father that they should only take an hour and a half.

If a boy sends in better work than you expect from him, tell him that he ought to have sent in better work before.

Always tell every boy in the class that he ought to be higher up than he is.

PRACTICAL RURAL GEOGRAPHY.

BY D. M. HAMILTON, HARRISTON, ONT.

ONE does not make many inquiries among young people in the country to learn that they possibly know more about parts of the country far from home than they do about the parts that their own eyes have seen.

In many of our schools Geography is taught systematically, *i.e.*, by systematically learning so many pages for each day's lesson. For reasons which are easily seen, the text books cannot go into details about every municipality in the counties, and consequently many things which every school-boy should know are quite unknown to many. Ask a boy from the country where he lives. He is apt to answer that his home is five miles from town, and is reached by going down "the gravel road" two miles and a half, turning to the left and going on until you come to a white house with green blinds on the right side of the road.

This answer could not be much plainer, could it? Another boy might have answered that he lives just the next farm south of Mr. John Brown's.

If you know where Mr. Brown lives you have some idea where the boy lives.

Every day we are brought face to face with the need of a more thorough knowledge of the plan of a township than these boys possess.

Lists of voters, and directories, are the ordinary sources of information as to where farmers live, but they don't publish particulars as to white houses, green blinds, or the nearness to Mr. Brown's farm.

The directory will perhaps tell us that Mr. Brown lives on lot 29, concession 7, and we must know where concession 7 lies, and in what part of it lot 29 is to be looked for.

Ask one of your country-boy friends where Mr. Jones lives and he will perhaps answer, "on the sixth." Ask him as to the whereabouts of Mr. Smith's farm, and you'll get "on the sixth, across the road from Jones."

Show him a copy of the township list of voters to be found in every school-house and set him to looking for the names of Messrs. Jones and Smith. Here he learns that while Jones lives in "the sixth," Smith lives in "the seventh" concession. He never knew that there was "a seventh" concession. He has been on the sixth, and the next road west of that is "the ninth," and he never knew there was any "seventh" or

"eighth." There are hundreds of farmer's boys all over the country just like this, and every rural school teacher knows dozens of them, and rural school teachers are a little to blame for the ignorance on this subject. Let the boys know that their mistake lies in regarding a certain road as a concession. Let them know that concessions are divisions of the township running in strips, north and south, or east and west as the case may be, these strips varying in width in different townships.

Let them know what all loyal citizens concede, that, nominally at least, the sovereign of Great Britain owned the land before it was settled, and made grants or concessions of it to the settlers.

Let them know that these concessions are composed of lots or farms, lying quietly side by side.

The fact will have dawned on them already, that the concessions and the lots are numbered; that two lots fronting on the same road are generally numbered alike, but are in different concessions.

By comparing numbers of concessions in which their acquaintances live they can determine for themselves in what part of the township the first concession is, and in which direction the numbering of the concessions increases.

They can also find out for themselves in which direction the lots are numbered. Tell them, if they can't find it out for themselves, that generally a concession is bounded on one side by a road, and that its rear touches the rear of another concession that fronts on the next concession road. If your township affords an example of an exception to this, tell them if necessary—only when they cannot find it out by questioning the voters' list.

Ascertain from them the distance between concession roads, and also between "side-roads."

Ascertain whether they know, from the number of farms between the "side-roads," how many rods or chains of frontage the lots have, and from the number of concessions between the concession roads, have them determine the number of rods or chains of depth each lot has.

If the lots are rectangular, you have here a very profitable exercise in the verification of the statement that the pupils have taken "on faith" from their arithmetic, *viz.*: that there are 640 acres in a square mile. Try your fourth class with it. You can have them ascertain the number of acres in each farm, with the knowledge of its frontage and depth, and of the "surface measure table." They can learn to compute distances from any one lot in a concession to any other lot in the same concession.

By using some ingenuity and more common sense it is quite wonderful what use can be made of the information gained in a few short lessons on "lots" and "concessions," and what pleasure each pupil can derive from a subject in which, with but little aid, he can be his own investigator.

Your township clerk can supply you with the descriptions of your section, as to its limits, and with this you should construct, and have your pupils able to construct, a plan, drawn to a scale, of the school section.

* English. *

Edited by F. H. Sykes, M.A., to whom communications respecting the English Department should be sent.

A CORRECTION.

In the article on Cowper's "Boadicea," in last issue, the English Editor regrets a serious typographical error—the wrong printing of the well-known name of Cowper's friends, the Unwins. It should be known by our readers, lest they should impute blame where undeserved, that neither author nor editor is responsible for the typographical accuracy of the columns of the English Department.

LESSONS IN LITERATURE FOR HIGH SCHOOL ENTRANCE.

"TIS THE LAST ROSE OF SUMMER," BY THOMAS MOORE.



THOMAS MOORE.

INTRODUCTORY

It is advisable that the teacher, before he refers to this poem, should talk with his class upon the theme of the poem itself, so that they may thoroughly appreciate the attitude of the poet towards 'the last rose,' and towards human life. He would do well to question them as to the effect of Autumn on Nature, noticing the influence of that season not only on the fields and woods, but also on the gardens, and especially on the flowers. Then let him make the supposition that flowers have feeling and thought like human beings, and ask his pupils what thoughts the few surviving flowers would have when they saw their fellow flowers dying one by one beside them. Tell them that Thomas Moore once thought that a rose, which he saw blooming when all her companions were gone, had sad thoughts, which he has expressed for us in a certain poem about to be given them for study. End by wondering if human life has its Autumn, if any human lives are like the rose, living on, sad and lonely, old friends and companions having gone to that distant country whence no traveller returns.

Having thus brought the subject matter of the poem within the range of the pupil's own experience, and excited his curiosity about the lonely rose, the teacher may read the poem to his class, and assign it, all or in part, for memorization.

The next lessons should be devoted to an examination of the memory work, followed by detailed analysis of the poem, clause by clause, stanza by stanza.

ANALYTICAL TREATMENT.

In the teacher's talks with his class over the poem, some scheme of questions such as follows will be found advantageous:—(I.) 1. What or whom is the poet addressing? 2. Does he treat the rose as a person or as a mere flower? Give reasons for your answer. 3. Where is the poet as he addresses the rose? 4. Describe the scene around him. [Require here a simple description of a garden in late summer, with flowers faded and leaves withered, lying scattered upon the ground, etc., and only one solitary rose left blooming upon her stem.] 5. In what state does the rose find herself? [A clear conception of "no flower of her kindred" is here of importance. It means, no flower of the same family as the rose, *i.e.*, no other rose, not even a rosebud, is near.] 6. What color is the rose? What does its color suggest to the poet? [The color of the red rose leads him to think of its power of feeling, and then of the absence of other roses that might sympathize with it—"reflect back its blushes."] 7. What thoughts come to the rose as she realizes her position? (II.) 1. What does the poet do when he realizes the loneliness of the rose? 2. What does "pine" mean? [Wear away from grief or distress.] 3. If he had left the flower to bloom what would have happened to it? 4. What thought prompted him to break off the rose? 5. What does he do as he says, "Go, sleep thou with them"? 6. What does he mean by "sleeping" and "sleep"? 7. Why "kindly"? 8. What "bed" is referred to? 9. Who are the "mates of the garden"? [Refer to the "lovely companions," "flowers of her kindred."] 10. Why does the poet scatter the petals of the rose upon the bed? (III.) 1. What is the poet's wish, as expressed in the third stanza? 2. What does "so" mean, in line 1? [Thus, in the same manner (as the rose)]. 3. What is the meaning of "may"? [Not permission, but wish, as in,—"May you be happy"—"I wish that you may be happy;"] hence the lines mean, "I wish that, just as the rose is made soon to follow her companions, so I, when friendless old age has come, may soon join my departed friends and companions."] 4. What is the meaning of "when friendships decay"? 5. What is "love's shining circle"? Why "shining"? 6. What is the meaning of a "gem" in "love's circle"? 7. What fanciful way has the poet of speaking of his loved ones? 8. What again is the poet's wish? 9. Why does he wish to follow his friends? 10. Does he tell us why he uttered such a wish? 11. When are "true hearts withered"? [Death blights all our feelings, according to the poet. When faithful friends lie in the grave, cold and unfeeling as the withered leaves of the rose.] 12. Why does the poet use such words as "decay" and "withered" in speaking of death? [These words imply a comparison with the rose of the preceding stanzas.] 13. What feelings must enter the minds of the aged, thinking of their lost friends? 14. How must the world appear to them, thus friendless? 15. Is the poet wrong to wish that he may soon follow his friends when they die?

Tell generally what each of the stanzas is about. [I. A description of a solitary rose in a garden in Autumn, lamenting its loneliness. II. The destruction of the rose by the poet, so that it may join its companions and be happy. III. The poet's wish with respect to the close of his own life,—that he may soon die, like the rose, when his friends shall have departed from this life.]

Why is the title of the poem a suitable one?

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTE.

Thomas Moore was Irish, with the warm-heartedness, jollity, wit and genius of the Irish race. He was born in Dublin in 1779, and lived until about forty years ago (Feb. 26, 1852). Even as a schoolboy he wrote verses; and when he went to college he distinguished himself in classics. His classical study led him to make translations of some Greek poems, but it was not until 1806 that he published anything really valuable. In that year he gave to the world two volumes of "Odes and Epistles," which contained many short poems written during an absence of over a year in America. It is interesting to us Canadians to know that Moore, in this trip to our continent, lived awhile in Canada. Visitors to the Ottawa are still able to see his cottage at St. Anne's, from the porch of which, according to a recent writer, "the poet used no doubt to see the boatmen and their rafts, and hear as well their songs as the log crafts swept towards the St. Lawrence. Modern houses

have been built in front of it, but the passer-by can still get a good view of the steep-roofed, rough-cast domicile, with its five little dormer-windows, its shabby green blinds and paint-scarred portico." Canadians are especially interested in one piece inspired by memories of the Ottawa,—"The Canadian Boat Song." (See Third Reader, p. 73).

Moore's next writings were satirical, light, witty, and effective beyond those of any other satirist of his day. But satirical poetry is not what has endeared this poet to the heart of the nation, especially to the hearts of the Irish. His fame rests durably upon a different sort of work. Everyone knows and sings some of the "Irish Melodies," old Irish airs with Moore's words to them—"music married to immortal verse." They breathe of Irish hopes, and glories, and sufferings, and must ever be dear to the poet's and the patriot's heart. Then came "Lalla Rookh," a brilliant story, or more correctly four stories in verse of oriental life. In spite of the demands of the highest society upon his time, for prince and peer delighted in the companionship of that gay, light-hearted, generous poet, Moore wrote many other works—"Loves of the Angels," "The Epicurean," "Vathek,"—but none possesses that sincerity of feeling which makes the "Irish Melodies" the most durable of his works.

"But wheresoe'er the exiled race hath drifted,
By what far sea, what mighty stream beside,
There shall to-day the poet's name be lifted,
And Moore proclaimed its glory and its pride."

—O. W. Holmes.

* Question Drawer. *

B.A.S.—(1) We do not think the trustees could lawfully withhold part of salary from a teacher, or, in other words, fine him for failing to hold a public examination at the close of the year. Probably the Inspector might suspend his certificate for violation of the School Act and the Regulations of the Department. (2) For information regarding the prospect of securing a situation in any of the States you name, write to the Superintendent of Schools for that State. The address in each case will probably be the capital of the State. An Ontario certificate would be a good recommendation, but it is not at all likely that it would be recognized otherwise.

STUDENT.—(1) B having passed the Third Class Non-Professional Examination, may, "on proof of good character and of efficiency as a teacher, obtain from the Board of Examiners of the county in which he has taught, a renewal of the same for a period of three years, at the discretion of the County Board of Examiners." (2) If B, having passed the Non-Professional Second and the First C Examinations, has not a Second Class Professional Certificate, it will be necessary for him to attend a Provincial Normal School one session, and pass the prescribed examinations, thus obtaining a Second Class Professional. He will then merely have to pass the final examination required in order to obtain a First.

E. R.—(1) If you have, in addition to a Second Class Professional Certificate, either a First Class Non-Professional or the Non-Professional qualifications of a High School assistant, you will be entitled to rank as Assistant Master of a High School, on simply passing the Training Institute (now School of Pedagogy) final examinations. (2) The School of Pedagogy is for the professional training of High School Masters. It takes the place of the Training Institutes. (3) The qualifications for the Head Mastership of a High School or Collegiate Institute are, (1) a degree in Arts, obtained after a regular course of study from any chartered University in the British Dominions; (2) at least two years' successful teaching in a High School or Collegiate Institute; and (3) a Professional High School Assistant's Certificate.

M.J.S. writes as follows:—"Previous to the Confederation of 1867, delegates from the various Provinces met in conference at Charlottetown, P.E.I. They subsequently met in Quebec

arrange the terms of Union. Quebec (?) and Prince Edward Island withdrew from the conference. The terms of Union were accepted with little opposition in Upper Canada and Lower Canada; met with strong opposition in the New Brunswick Legislature, but were carried; and were rejected by the Nova Scotia Legislature.

"(1) Now, had Confederation been made an issue in any of the elections in any of the Provinces previous to the *Conferences*?

"(2) Did an election occur in Canada, New Brunswick or Nova Scotia, between the meeting of either of the *Conferences* and the time the terms of Union were laid before the different Legislatures for their approval?

"(3) If so, was Confederation an issue?

"(4) Why had not Nova Scotia the same right to withdraw as P.E.I. and Newfoundland? Had Nova Scotia committed itself any further than these others to the scheme?

"(5) There was then but one Parliament for the two Canadas. Were the terms of Union laid before this united Parliament for approval, or had each Province to signify its approval separately? If separately, how?"

[Before answering these questions in order it may be well to explain that the Conference at Charlottetown was properly a Conference of delegates of the Legislatures of the three Maritime Provinces only. These delegates had met, by authority of their respective Legislatures, to deliberate concerning a union among the three Provinces themselves. During the interval between the action of these Legislatures and the meeting of their delegates at Charlottetown, which took place in September, 1864, a deadlock had occurred in the old Canadian Parliament and had resulted in a coalition, composed of the leading members of the Government and the Opposition, for the purpose of bringing about a federal union of the two old Provinces. Provision was also made for the inclusion of the Maritime Provinces in this union, if practicable. Pursuant of this idea of a larger union, a strong delegation of members of the Coalition Government proceeded to Charlottetown on the date appointed for the Conference of the Maritime Province delegates. Of course the delegates from the two Canadian Provinces had no standing in this Conference. They were, nevertheless, cordially received, and invited to express their views with the utmost freedom. They did so, with the result that the Maritime Province delegates, instead of proceeding with the work for which they had been appointed, agreed to adjourn to a date to be fixed by the Governor-General of Canada, when they should meet delegates appointed by the (then) Canadian Government, and discuss the question of the larger union. Thus originated the celebrated Quebec Conference. Quebec and Prince Edward Island did not withdraw from the Conference, but at its close each body of Provincial delegates stood pledged to use its utmost endeavors to secure the concurrence of the Legislature it represented, in the project of the larger Confederation. In answer to questions, we may say:—(1) No. It had been for years discussed in a general way, but had never been made a direct issue in an election. (2 and 3) Yes, in New Brunswick only. In that Province there were two general elections in which special reference was had to this question. The first resulted in an overwhelming majority of representatives opposed to Confederation. In the second, owing probably to strong influences brought to bear indirectly by the British Government, the decision was reversed and a Legislature returned which consummated the scheme, so far as that Province was concerned. (4) Nova Scotia had the same right. But in her case the Legislature, led by Dr., now Sir Charles Tupper, legislated the Province into the Confederation without appealing to the people, a majority of whom were no doubt hostile to the scheme. The question has since been warmly debated whether the Legislature, elected without reference to the Confederation scheme, had a right to effect a great constitutional change without a mandate from the people. No doubt much subsequent bad feeling and friction would have been avoided, had an appeal been made to the constitu-

encies. (5) Confederation was effected by the United Parliament, but a majority of representatives from each Province voted in favor of it.]

* Literary Notes. *

FOLLOWING is a list of the subjects treated of by competent and in many cases, well known authors in *The Chautauquan* for September:—“Russia and Russians” (illustrated), “That Angelic Woman,” “The American Association for Advancement of Science,” “What Shall the Boy Take Hold of,” “Sunday Readings,” “Modern Methods of Social Reform,” “A Poet’s Town” (illustrated), “The Social Side of Artist Life” (illustrated), “The United States as a Publisher of Scientific Books,” “The Hawaiians,” “The Old National Road,” “Civil War in Chili,” “A Beautiful Life,” “Washington a Literary Centre,” “The French Cook in her Native Land,” “A Colored Sisterhood,” “What English Women are doing in Art,” “Playing with Hearts,” “The Waifs’ Picnic at Chicago,” “Women in Literature,” “A Plea for Advanced Women.” The poems of the number are by Hugh T. Sudduth, W. H. A. Moore, and Oliver Farrar Emerson. The usual editorial and department space is well filled.

THE September issue of *St. Nicholas* is introduced by “The Song of the Goldenrod,” written by Grace Denio Litchfield, and illustrated by Laura C. Hillis. Charles F. Lummis begins in this number a series of Tee-Wahn, or Pueblo Folk-Stories which are truly remarkable. Of unknown age, these tales are aboriginally American, and will, no doubt, be as eagerly examined by wise professors skilled in such lore, as by their chubby children who care nothing for “comparative mythology,” but know a good story when they see it. “To Malcolm Douglas” is an echo of the little man who “bought him a big bass-drum,” and will find many sympathizers. “How the Great Plan Worked,” by Victor Mapes, is a bright story of boy-life, excellently illustrated; and the “Two Lads of Black Island,” whose adventure is told by Sarah J. Prichard, will also make friends among the bright lads who live a whole century later. Younger readers will perhaps prefer “Lost in a Cornfield,” by Kate M. Cleary, a simple story of the wanderings of a tiny girl in an enormous Western cornfield. The pictures by W. H. Drake are excellent illustrations and noticeable as well for their artistic qualities. Other pieces for younger readers are “The Old Clock’s Story,” a clever bit of fun by Annie L. Hyde, and “A Formal Call,” an unpretentious account of a child’s fascinating make-believe, which is prettily illustrated by Jessie McDermott.

THE *Century* for September has many salient points of interest. Mr. Kennan contributes the opening article on “A Winter Journey Through Siberia,” which may not only describe the country and Mr. Kennan’s adventures and perils among the exiles, but throw not a little light upon recent phases of the Siberian question. The article is fully illustrated, and includes a remarkable dream of the writer. The October number will contain a concluded article entitled “My Last Days in Siberia.” A sparkling article on “Play in Provenance” is contributed by Mrs. Elizabeth Robins Pennell, under the title of “A Painter’s Paradise.” Mr. Pennell’s illustrations give the article a light and attractive look. The frontispiece of the number is a portrait of Mr. Thomas Bailey Aldrich, whose poems are the subject of a critical review by Frank Dempster Sherman, which has the advantage of liberal quotations from the poet. Mr. Sherman’s conclusion is that Mr. Aldrich is “one of the rarest lyric poets of the nineteenth century.” This number contains two illustrated stories,—“Elder Marston’s Revival,” by Le Roy Armstrong, with a picture by Kappes, and “Zeki,” by Miss Matt Crim, with pictures by Kemble,—together with the conclusion of “The Squirrel Inn,” by Frank R. Stockton, which, as before, is illustrated by Frost. Numerous other articles by able writers, the Editorial Department, Open Letters, poetry by well known contributors, etc., make up an excellent number.

“CARLOTTA’S INTENDED” is the title of the complete novel in the September *Lippincott’s*. Its author, Ruth McEnery Stuart, is well known as the contributor of many clever stories to the leading magazines. This is a story of New Orleans life in

the Italian quarter. A remarkable and dramatic story is contributed by Julius Chambers, of the *New York World*, entitled “A Murderer for an Hour.” Another clever story, which tells of the conversion of a Chinaman, called “Mrs. Van Brunt’s Convert,” is contributed by Raymond Briggs. Mrs. Julia C. R. Dorr takes up the cudgels in defence of the pretty girl in “A Plea for Helen.” This article is in a measure a set-off to “A Plea for the Ugly Girls,” a paper in a recent number of *Lippincott’s*. Mrs. M. E. W. Sherwood writes of “Society in Different Cities.” Hon. Thomas P. Gill, M.P., has a dashing article descriptive of “Derby Day on Clapham Common.” Everyone interested in the betterment of public roads and highways should read the article by John Gilmer Speed on “Country Roads and Highways.” Among other articles to be noted are a clever skit by Edgar Fawcett, entitled “His Majesty the ‘Average Reader,’” and “The Days that are to Be,” a dip into the future, by J. K. Wetherill. Notable among the poems in this number is “No Tears for Dead Love,” by the late Philip Bourke Marston. There are other poems by Clinton Scollard, Louis Imogen Guiney, Geanie Gwynne Bettany, Charles Morris, Bessie Chandler, Susanna Massey, Douglas Sladen and William Rice Sims.

THE list of contributors to the *Popular Science Monthly* for September contains a goodly number of strong names. The opening article, by Prof. John Fiske, is on “The Doctrine of Evolution: Its Scope and Influence,” and cannot fail to give the general reader a better understanding of this great process. There is an essay by Herbert Spencer on “The Limits of State-Duties.” Dr. Andrew D. White continues his “Warfare of Science” series. A fifth paper is contributed by Prof. C. Hanford Henderson, to his illustrated series on “Glass-Making.” Dr. Charles W. Pilgrim, of the Utica Asylum, tells what beneficial results have come from “Schools for the Insane.” A decidedly novel subject is presented in “Views of Running Water,” by J. Piccard. “Can We Always Count upon the Sun?” is discussed by Garrett P. Serviss. Warren Upham tells how various kinds of mountains are formed. R. Francheschini writes about “Musical Insects,” describing the mechanisms by which insects produce sounds, with illustrations. John Murdoch contributes an interesting account of “Eskimo Boats in the North-West.” Dr. Karl Russ pleads for the lives of our feathered creatures. A sketch is given, with a portrait, of the retiring President of the American Association, Prof. George Lincoln Goodale. The editor writes on “The Warfare of Science and Individuality for Woman.” New York: D. Appleton & Company. Fifty cents a number, \$5 a year.

Scribner’s Magazine for September contains the fifth and concluding article in the successful Steamship Series, entitled “The Steamship Lines of the World,” by Lieutenant Ridgely Hunt, U.S.N., a son of the late Secretary of the Navy and Minister to Russia. Lieutenant Hunt’s article on “The Steamship Lines of the World,” is a very compact account of the great ocean routes of travel which connect the principal ports of the world. This number contains three articles on essentially American subjects—on “Odd Homes,” from the dug-out to the Adirondack cabin; on “China Hunting in New England,” particularly along the Connecticut River Valley, with an account of many rare American plates, which it was once the custom to make as souvenirs of important events; and on the “Present Ideals of American University Life,” by Professor Josiah Royce, of Harvard, who pleads for the idealization of our colleges, rather than their further adaptation to practical ends. Some of the other important articles in this issue are “Browning’s Asolo” by Felix Moscheles, the artist and friend of Browning, written with illustrations from the author’s own water-color sketches; a description of “The City of the Sacred Bo-Tree,” by James Ricalton, a veteran traveller and photographer, whose account of this wonderful city in Ceylon is abundantly illustrated; Andrew Lang’s “Adventures Among Books,” a sort of literary autobiography; the second instalment of the serial story, “The Wrecker,” by Robert Louis Stevenson and Lloyd Osbourne; and short stories by Thomas Nelson Page and Charles G. D. Roberts.

A STRAIGHT line is the shortest in morals as well as in geometry.—*Rohel*.

Examination Papers.

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT, ONTARIO —
ANNUAL EXAMINATIONS, 1891.

HIGH SCHOOL ENTRANCE.

HISTORY.

Examiners: { J. E. HODGSON, M.A.
ISAAC DAY.

NOTE.—Candidates will take any four questions in I., and any two in II. A maximum of five marks may be added for neatness.

I.—BRITISH HISTORY.

1. Give an account of any two of the following.—
 - (a) The defeat of the Spanish Armada.
 - (b) The Gunpowder Plot.
 - (c) The Massacre of Glencoe.
 - (d) The South Sea Scheme.
 - (e) The Jacobite Rebellion of 1745.
2. Narrate briefly the career of any three of the following men:—
 - (a) Robert Bruce.
 - (b) Oliver Cromwell.
 - (c) Archbishop Laud.
 - (d) The Duke of Marlborough.
 - (e) Lord Clive.
 - (f) John Bright.
3. State fully the causes and the results of the American War of Independence.
4. Give an account of the Irish Parliament (1782—1801), and explain the significance of the three crosses on the "Union Jack."
5. State definitely the great national questions which were decided by any four of the following battles:—
 - (a) Bannockburn.
 - (b) Naseby.
 - (c) Plassey.
 - (d) Quebec.
 - (e) Waterloo.
6. Write notes on four great events which mark the reign of Queen Victoria.

II.—CANADIAN HISTORY.

7. Write an explanatory note on each of the following:
 - (a) The Constitutional Act of 1791.
 - (b) The Act of Union of 1841.
8. What is meant by the "Confederation of the British American Provinces"? When and how was it brought about?
9. Explain fully the importance of the Canadian Pacific Railway.
10. Write brief notes on any three of the following men:—
 - (a) La Salle.
 - (b) Tecumseh.
 - (c) William Lyon Mackenzie.
 - (d) Louis Riel.
 - (e) Dr. Egerton Ryerson.
 - (f) The Premier of Canada.
 - (g) The Premier of Ontario.

THE HIGH SCHOOL PRIMARY, LEAVING,
AND UNIVERSITY MATRICULATION.

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

PRIMARY.

Examiners: { W. J. ALEXANDER, PH.D.
T. C. L. ARMSTRONG, M.A. LL.B.
JOHN E. BRYANT, M.A.

NOTE.—Only 9 questions in all are to be answered by any candidate; namely section A, two questions from section B, three questions from section C, and three questions from section D.

A.

1. Give an account of the Constitution and Government of Canada, and show the relations of the Provinces to the Federal Authority and of the Federal Authority to the Home Government, stating definitely the distribution of legislative powers as between the Provinces and the Dominion.

B.

2. Give an account of the passage of the British North America Act, and of the difficulties of which

it was intended to be the solution, and of the advantages hoped to be gained from it.

3. Give an account of the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854, and of its effects upon trade between Canada and the United States during the period of its continuance. When and how was the treaty terminated?

4. Give an account of the Montreal Riots of 1849, stating the causes that led to them. What result followed the Riots?

5. Give short accounts of:
 - (a) The Washington Treaty of 1871.
 - (b) The Seigneurial Tenure Act.
 - (c) The Secularization of the Clergy Reserves.
 - (d) The Ashburton Treaty.

6. Give an account of the passing of the Act of Union of 1841, describing (a) the causes that led to it; (b) its provisions; (c) its effects.

C.

7. Give an account of some of the more important scientific inventions and discoveries which characterize the nineteenth century.

8. State briefly the arguments that were used for and against the Repeal of the Corn Laws (1846). Give an account of the Repeal Agitation and of its results.

9. Give an account of the last war with Napoleon Bonaparte, stating briefly its causes and its results.

10. Describe the causes, progress, and results of the Seven Years' War (1756-1763), in so far as American affairs were concerned.

D.

11. Describe the Trade-Winds, giving their localities and their general directions. Describe fully their causes and the causes of their constancy. Give a similar description of the Return Trade Winds.

12. Describe and account for the relation between Vegetation and Climate. Describe in a general way the various Zones of Vegetation into which the earth's surface has been divided.

13. Describe generally the surface Physical Features of Canada.

14. Enumerate particularly the various natural resources of the several Provinces of the Dominion, stating, as nearly as possible, where these are found. Also state in a general way to what extent these natural resources have been already utilized in our industries and trade.

15. Give the geographical position and historical significance of (a) Ridgeway; (b) Kingston; (c) Navy Island; (d) Lundy's Lane; (e) Chateauguay; (f) Moravian Town; (g) Amherstburg; (h) Newark (Niagara); (i) Isle of Orleans; (j) Louisburg.

16. Give an account of Jamaica, its position, physical features, climate, natural resources, commercial products, government and population.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PRIMARY.

Examiners: { W. J. ALEXANDER, PH.D.
T. C. L. ARMSTRONG, M.A., LL.B.
J. E. BRYANT, M.A.

NOTE.—Candidates may take questions 2 and 3, or questions 13 and 14, but must take the rest of the paper.

A.

Ye who listen to the stories told,
When hearths are cheery and nights are cold,
Of the lone wood-side and the hungry pack
That howls on the fainting traveller's track,
The lost child sought in the dismal wood,
The little shoes and the stains of blood
On the trampled snow,—O ye that hear
With thrills of pity or chills of fear,—
Know ye that fiend that is crueller far
Than the gaunt grey herds of the forest are?
Each wolf that dies in the woodland brown
Lives a spectre and haunts the town.
Children crouched in corners cold
Shiver in tattered garments old.
Weary the mother and worn with strife,
Still she watches and fights for life,
But her hand is feeble and her weapon small;
One little needle against them all.
Follow thou when the spectres glide;
Stand like hope by the mother's side.

He does well in the forest wild
Who slays the monster and saves the child:
But he does better, and merits more
Who drives the wolf from the poor man's door.

1. (a) Analyze the first ten lines of this passage fully, showing the grammatical relation and structure of each clause.

- (b) Parse the words in italics.

2. Distinguish the use of: Ye, you; who, that; O, Oh, each, every; an, one; like, as; merit, deserve; watches, is watching; but, yet; woodside, wood-side.

3. Give the derivation of any ten words in this extract of Latin or French origin.

4. Conjugate *go* in the different forms of the present, the future and the present perfect tense of the indicative mood, and explain the force of the auxiliaries employed in each.

B.

Examine each of the following sentences and suggest any corrections you think necessary, with reasons:

5. The distinction is observed in French but never appears to have been made in English.

6. I doubt if this will ever reach you.

7. The exertions of this gentleman have done more toward elucidating the obscurities of our language than any other writer.

8. Such a work has long been wanted, and from the success with which it is executed can not be too highly appreciated.

9. The colon may be properly used in the following cases.

10. If I am not commended for the beauty of my works, I hope I may be pardoned for their brevity.

11. Words cannot express the deep sympathy I feel for you.

C.

To sleep! to sleep! The long bright day is done
And darkness rises from the fallen sun.
To sleep! to sleep!

Whate'er thy joys, they vanish with the day;
Whate'er thy griefs, in sleep they fade away.
To sleep! to sleep!

Sleep, mournful heart, and let the past be past!
Sleep, happy soul! All life will sleep at last.

12. Parse each of the words in italics.

13. Illustrate from this poem how adjectives, nouns and adverbs are formed from other parts of speech and form nouns from the same root as sleep, long, bright, be, done, fallen, fade, happy.

14. (a) Explain the nature, kinds and forms of the infinitive.

(b) Classify the words in italics in the following:—
He has a house to let. It is to let. He builds to let. He tries to let. He told me to let it. Ready to let. Letting is renting. Letting may be oral or written. Renting houses is expensive. Renting houses are dear. For renting he was praised. For renting, houses must be in repair.

School-Room Methods.

CONCRETE GRAMMAR.

BEFORE the West Bruce Teachers, at their recent meeting in Kincardine, Mr. F. C. Powell gave an address on the subject of "Concrete Grammar." He did not agree with Mr. Rowe's views given before the Provincial Teachers' Association last August. Technical Grammar should not be abolished from the public school course. He believed that the failures made in teaching grammar were not due so much to the pupil's inability to grasp the subject as to the defective methods employed in teaching it. Most pupils would be found incapable of learning arithmetic, history or geography as well as grammar unless these subjects were properly presented. The first great object in teaching grammar should be to make the child familiar with language and the changes made in words, phrases and sentences to express changes in position, appearance, quality, time, manner and

intention. In these early exercises physical realities should invariably be prominent. The objects described should be seen, felt and tasted, and the child should be taught to express in proper form what he sees, hears, feels, tastes or smells. The objects should be placed in different positions with reference to one another, always proceeding by easy steps from the simple to the more difficult. Begin with objects held in the hand, then place figures such as the square and oblong on the board, and put dots at the corners, sides, and have these positions described. The position of maps, seats and stoves in the school-room should be described, and objects should be placed in all kinds of positions in the room and the position described. The position of the fences, buildings and farms about the school-house should also be described. In all these exercises single objects should be first used and the changes in the word noted and placed on the board. Thus, first use pencil, slate, shoe, then pencils, slates, shoes. These should be followed by such words as dish, bush, box, switch, match, and their plurals, then shelf, leaf, sheaf, half, and their plurals, also fly, candy, penny, and their plurals. The object in all these exercises should be in the hands of the teacher and pupils. Words forming their plurals in the same way should be taken separately. The entire work should be conducted systematically and with a view to prepare the child for technical grammar in the advanced classes. The exercises on name words should be followed by exercises on words expressing quality, such as small, large, short, long, heavy, near, smooth and hard. In dealing with these the different forms, as small, smaller, smallest, should invariably be taught in connection with objects. In dealing with words expressing action, as walk, tear, strike, ring, rise, place, catch, cut, bite, fall, give, etc., the action should always be performed by either the teacher or the pupils. This plan enables the child to concretize the idea of action and connect it with the word by which it is expressed. The idea should first be expressed in present time, it may then be expressed in the past and future time and changes noted. The question form of sentence may also be easily introduced, as well as the progressive and passive forms. As the classes advance into the senior second book and junior third book, any form of tense of the verb may be written on the board and same forms of other verbs given by the pupils. In this way the observation of the children is cultivated and similarities and differences are discovered, and the way paved for intelligent and rapid progress in the higher classes. In fact, the subject ceases to be mechanical and becomes educative in the broadest and best sense.

Many teachers fail in dealing with the concrete method because they do not fully comprehend its use and value and are careless about making the necessary preparation and prefer hearing to teaching, fancying that they lose time by adopting the concrete method.—*Kincardine Reporter*.

THE SCHOOL-ROOM.

ONE-THIRD.

In many schools the fractions one-half, one-third, one-fourth, etc., are taught to first and second reader pupils. They are taught with objects. The pupil is given three objects—tooth-picks—and asked to divide them equally among three persons. He is led to understand that *equally* means that each person is to have as many as any of the others. He, of course, gives each of the three *one* tooth-pick. He is then made to understand that *one* tooth-pick is a third of three tooth-picks. He then finds the third of 6; of 9; of 12; of 15; of 18. He has now learned incidentally, that to find a third of any number of things is to separate it into three equal parts and take one of them. He may not be able to state this, but if he were asked how many parts a thing must be divided into to get a third, he would say three; and if asked whether the parts must be of the same size or of different sizes, he would say of the same size.

He is now asked to find a third of one tooth-pick. He asks if he may break it, and when told that he may, he makes an effort to break it into three *equal* pieces. His actions show that he has the idea of *one-third*. He may not yet know the figures that express it, but he knows what is better, viz., the thing itself and how to obtain it.

He is now asked to find *one-third* of two tooth-picks. This is the hardest problem he has had, but if he understands what he has had and the teacher

is skilful enough to let him have a chance he will work it out. The teacher should remember that all this kind of work is given for the sake of the pupil, not for the sake of the answer or the test that the superintendent may give at the close of the term. Then let the pupil exercise his own power on this. He breaks one tooth-pick into thirds and takes one of them and says to his teacher, "This is the third of *one* tooth-pick." Now, if she will just have the patience to say *yes* and wait for further developments! Sometimes she does not. She says, "Yes, but I asked you to get one-third of two tooth-picks, and you have got one-third of one tooth-pick instead of two tooth-picks, so you see you are wrong. Now, what can you say of this little piece that you gave me and called one-third of one tooth-pick? The little fellow looks dazed. Who wouldn't! What *can* he say of it? He might say many things of it. He ventures to say, "It is in your hand." This starts her again. "But that is not what I meant for you to say." How does he know what she meant for him to say!

She finally tells him that what she meant was that since this a third of *one* and she wished him to get a third of two, this must be just half of what she asked for. She asks him if he understands and he says, "Yes, ma'am." "Well, then give me a third of those two tooth-picks." He hands her one of them. She thinks he is stupid. Of course, this is "made up." No teacher ever did do this. If one ever should do this or anything like it, in any grade, it would be very bad and in direct violation of the principle that the child's mind can grow only by its own activity.

But if the teacher were skilful enough to say a word or two to set the child thinking in the right line, he will solve the problem himself. Having found a third of one, he will find the third of the other one and give the teacher the two thirds. The teacher now asks, "What are these (holding the pieces the child has given her) two thirds of?" The child says, "Two-thirds of two tooth-picks." "What part of *one* tooth-pick are they?" This bothers him, and no amount of talk will likely straighten him out. But the teacher places them end to end beside a whole toothpick and says nothing. The child looks a minute, and a flash of intelligence is seen in his face, and he spontaneously says, "Two thirds of one toothpick." Now this is about all he can do this time. *Don't* impose upon him now with such a question as this: "One-third of two toothpicks is what part of one toothpick?" He knows, of course, but this may be too wordy for him now. Let this come later.

This kind of teaching will steadily increase his power, so that by the end of a term he will be able to grasp and solve such as the following:

1. Divide eleven bananas among mother, sister and brother, so that their shares shall be equal.

He may be asked to show this on paper by a "picture." He places three oblongs in three different places on his paper. By each of these groups he places two oblongs, each of which is a third as long as one of the three. From this picture the teacher knows that he has thought the problem *through* correctly. He now expresses in words what he has found with objects. He says, "Each will get one-third of eleven bananas, which is three and two-thirds bananas."

2. Six girls are playing in the yard and three girls are studying. What part of all the girls are studying?

3. Make a question and use the third of twelve. —*Indiana School Journal*.

ENCOURAGE MENTAL WORK.

ENCOURAGE pupils in arithmetic to dispense, as far as possible, with pencils and paper. Have them solve mentally such problems as 7×15 , 6×18 , $75 \div 5$, $222 \div 3$. In an advanced grammar grade, they may learn without over-effort the squares of numbers from 1 to 25, the square roots of numbers from 1 to 625, the cubes from 1 to 12, the cube root from 1 to 1,728.

Also give them brief mental exercises in multiplication until they can give promptly such products as 12×13 , 7×17 , 9×18 , and so forth, without using pencil and paper.

Do not consume much time on this work; two or three minutes a day spent in calling rapidly for products will accomplish more than you expect. Introduce new topics with oral exercises designed to develop principles involved.—*Educational Gazette*.

For Friday Afternoon.

WHAT THE BIRDS SAID.

TEMPERANCE PIECE FOR SIX GIRLS.
To be given with slight action where appropriate.

First Girl:

Tell me, little sparrow,
In your coat of brown,
Chirping, chirping gaily
Over field and town—
Little bird, remembered
By the love of heaven!
Hath not beauteous water
For your use been given?
"Happy little maiden,"—
Sing they through the land—
"Sparrows all are members
Of your temperance band!"

Second Girl:

Robin, robin redbreast!
With your crimson coat,
Tuning in the winter
Still a cheery note—
Do you drink cold water
Mid your gladsome flight?
Can you be so merry
Just on water bright?
And the robin answers,
Winging o'er the lea—
"Water, only water,
Is the drink for me!"

Third Girl:

Jenny Wren, now listen,
Stop upon your way—
Leave your nest a moment—
Hearken what I say.
Do you give your nestlings—
Birdies sweet and dear—
Only just pure water,
Little drops so clear?
Ah, I hear her singing—
Little Jenny Wren—
"Water's best for birdies,
And likewise for men."

Fourth Girl:

Now, I'll ask a question
Of the tom-tit wee;
Very blithe and cheery,
Very gay is he.
Tom-tit, fly anear me!
I would talk to you,
Are you an abstainer,
Staunch and firm and true?
"Why, of course," he answers,
From his leafy place;
"Water, only water
Suits the tom-tit race."

Fifth Girl:

Skylark, bird of gladness,
Soaring to the sky,
On your joyful pinions
O'er the hills you fly.
Have you grown so mighty
On your glorious wing,
From the wine-cup's poison,
Or the crystal spring?
Softly sings the skylark,
Up anear to heav'n,
"Drink I but the water
Freely, freely given."

Sixth Girl:

Bird of sweetest music,
Nightingale so fair,
In the groves of twilight
Chanting notes so rare;
Wine, they sometimes tell us,
Helps the throat to sing;
Yet you find your music
In the wayside spring.
"Yes, oh yes, dear children,"
Sings the nightingale,
"Little birdies never
Drink your wine or ale."

All together:

Little birdies never
Love the wine-cup's hue;
So let lads and lassies
Choose cold water too!

—M. S. H., in the Temperance Record.

The Educational Journal.

Published Semi-monthly.

A JOURNAL DEVOTED TO LITERATURE, SCIENCE, ART
AND THE ADVANCEMENT OF THE TEACHING
PROFESSION IN CANADA.

J. E. WELLS, M.A. Editor.

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DO YOUR PUPILS ENJOY BRAIN WORK?

AN exchange well says that that school is a failure which does not develop in its pupils a love for hard work. This is a truth which needs to be reiterated and insisted on in these days. The modern methods are, many of them, excellent. We have no desire to disparage that which is good in them. Even many methods which are not good, but rather harmful, are based upon the right idea, the idea that the work of the school-room should be made pleasant and attractive. The fault of the methods is that they are based upon a false conception of what is necessary to the good end in view. The fact is that to the average boy or girl, hard mental work, within proper limits, can be made a means of the keenest enjoyment. Children delight in exerting their mental no less than their physical faculties. They exult in the sense of power derived from doing hard things, surmounting obstacles. But the proper limitations must be observed. The work must be fairly within the capacity of the pupil and a reasonable time-limit must be observed. The teacher must not forget that the powers of endurance of the young mind are soon exhausted and that the more vigorous the effort the sooner the

point of exhaustion is reached. But let it never be forgotten that the true education is that which teaches the young to put forth their powers at every step, and to enjoy the strenuous effort. The great practical merit of such teaching is that the habit of mental toil, with its accompanying pleasure, will last while life lasts and thus the process of education will go on to the end of life.

COUNTY MODEL SCHOOLS.

WE called attention some months since to Dr. McLellan's elaborate report on Normal Schools, appended to the Report of the Minister of Education for the year 1890, and proposed to present in a series of short articles, some of the salient points dealt with by the learned Inspector of Normal Schools. Our attention was for several numbers diverted, but it is not yet too late to give our readers the benefit of some fruits of ripened experience and close study of pedagogical questions, culled from the article in question. This we propose to do in subsequent numbers. The first section of Dr. McLellan's report, and that to which we specially referred in our former article, relates to the Model Schools, as in the Ontario educational system the county Model School lays the foundation of the professional training of teachers, and, as our space-limits preclude the discussion of more than one or two aspects of a subject in a single article, it may be well to study this institution a little more closely and practically before proceeding to other topics suggested. In so doing, we cannot do better than put ourselves under the guidance of Inspector Tilley, whose report on "County Model Schools," constitutes another valuable section of the Minister's voluminous book.

Setting out with a brief *résumé* of the history of the Model Schools since their institution fourteen years ago, in the course of which full justice is done to the improvements which have been wrought in them, Mr. Tilley lays the foundation of his criticism in a condensed analysis of "What the Training should Furnish." To be properly equipped for his work the teacher, he tells us, should be familiar with "the nature and end of education, the nature of the being to be educated, the studies used as a means of education, the methods of causing those studies to act on the nature of the child in such a way as to accomplish the end of education, the practice of eminent teachers as recorded in the history of education, and practical teaching in the school-room under skilled supervision." The meaning and scope of each of these topics, as a field for study and investigation in the Model School,

are briefly set forth. The reader is then fully prepared to assent to Mr. Tilley's first suggestion, which is, that "the work thus outlined cannot possibly be overtaken in fourteen weeks, the time allowed for training in Model Schools." This is putting it very mildly indeed, if it be admitted that the course should even touch one-half of the subjects above enumerated. Mr. Tilley significantly says:

"The hurrying" process which marked the course of many of the students in preparing for their non-professional examination is repeated in Model Schools. A few general principles are laid down, it is true, but these are not mastered by the students. The work consists mainly of the imitation of methods, as practiced by the principal and assistants. Rules for teaching are given, which the students take on faith, and then they go out to their schools with their note-books filled with these ready-made rules. Time has not been allowed for the investigation of mental processes or of pedagogical principles; hence no rational foundation has been laid, and imitation must be practiced throughout the course.

The conclusion, so far as the average student-teacher is concerned, is a matter of course. "Teachers trained in this way will not be efficient teachers. The defects in their own training will be repeated when they come to train others." There may, of course, be exceptions. A few will always rise superior to their opportunities and surroundings. But these few are they to whom the training is of secondary importance. They would have made efficient teachers had they never seen the inside of a Model School. Schools and courses of training must be arranged with reference to the wants of the many, the condition and needs of the average teacher.

The first suggestion then is that the length of the Model School term should be very materially increased, and the training course broadened. This opinion coincides with that which has been twice expressed by the teachers of Ontario in annual convention. The fact that more than half the teachers actually employed in the Province are third-class teachers, that is, teachers who have had no other professional training than that obtained in the Model School, adds emphasis to the demand for broader and more thorough work in these schools. And, may we not add, the average age of these teachers is not only such as makes it clear that they have ample time to secure a more thorough training before entering upon their work, but such that it must be clear to all that they might be held back from the practice of their profession for six months or a year longer with great advantage to themselves and to all concerned.

The next question touched is that of the qualifications of the principals of the Model

Schools themselves. Mr. Tilley calls attention to the need of higher qualifications for these important positions, and greater care in the selection of those who are to fill them. All that is now required in the way of professional training is that they shall have attended a Normal School one term, and have passed a written examination on two or three authors.

As a rule, the teachers appointed to these positions are those who have but recently obtained their first-class certificates. The suggestion that no teachers shall henceforth be eligible who have not taken the course of lectures given in the Training Institutes (now School of Pedagogy), and that the Inspector should have a voice in the selection, will commend itself to thoughtful readers.

Inspector Tilley further is of opinion that the number of Model Schools (fifty-eight) is quite too large, and should be reduced; that the salaries of principals should be raised to an average of not less than \$1,000, instead of \$813, as at present; that, with the lengthening of the term, the principal should be relieved of all class teaching, while taking charge of all promotion examinations; and having the oversight of all departments, thus becoming principal in reality, as well as in name; and that, as an equivalent for the additional expense incurred by students in consequence of the lengthening of the term, the certificates might be given for five years instead of three. The fact that the average number of student-teachers in attendance at the Model Schools during 1890 was twenty-two, points clearly to the possibility of reduction in the number of schools. That the salaries offered should be sufficient to command the services of the best men in the profession goes without saying. This is a *sine qua non* of efficiency and progress. The subject is one of primary importance. Good training is one of the indispensable conditions of good teaching. The first, the most direct and the only effective way to improve the schools is to improve the teachers. Inspector Tilley's report has in view directly the improvement of the teachers, and the changes he proposes are probably the most direct and practical means within reach for the accomplishment of that end. It is to be hoped that his suggestions will receive the consideration they merit.

✻ Editorial Notes. ✻

MR. WILLIAM HOUSTON'S second paper on University Extension will appear in next number.

THE papers announce what is called a rather interesting educational experiment in Aus-

tria-Hungary. A Chair of Modern Greek has been founded at a college in Buda-Pesth, and it has been decided to teach ancient Greek according to the modern Greek pronunciation in all the Public Schools in Hungary. The experiment may be interesting, but it is by no means novel. In the United States there are, we believe, many schools and colleges in which the modern pronunciation of Greek is taught.

A PROMINENT English newspaper, denouncing the "clap-trap" that is talked about the training of children, makes the complaint, amongst others, that soft-hearted people proceed on the assumption that every child is "a reasoning creature." Well, we should not care to put our child's education into the hands of a teacher who did not believe that every normal child is a reasoning creature and should be dealt with as such. We fancy that most teachers who have studied child nature will have found out that the average child is pre-eminently a reasoning creature and must be dealt with accordingly, if any genuine educational work is to be done.

AN exchange says: "When a student comes out preferring the lower to the higher things of life, it is pretty certain, many will say, that there is something wrong in the methods used in the school. Should the school busy itself in training the pupil to think and conclude concerning moral acts? For one thing, the course of study is full to the brim; there is no time to say that a blow given in anger is wrong; there is no time for discussing lying. But some teachers find time to take up this training in choosing the highest, and yet do good work in the imperative course of study." We have great sympathy with the difficulties of the teachers who tell us that the imperative work of the schools leaves them no time for such discussions. But, nevertheless, it is true, and no iron-bound curriculum can make it otherwise, that the teacher who does nothing in the way of leading his pupils to "think and conclude concerning moral acts," and to prefer "the higher things of life," has failed in the first, the fundamental, and incomparably the most important part of the true teacher's work.

THE following extract from a recent paper by Dr. Ezra M. Hunt, is interesting and important as touching a question of scientific fact, and may be useful to teachers in their scientific temperance instruction in the schools:

The trend of scientific-research, therefore, up to the present moment is more and more against assigning any definite food

value, direct or incidental, to alcohol. We know neither the calorimeter or chemical laboratory or physiological experiment that shows any such result. The debate in the fall of 1888, in the Pathological Society of London, led Dr. J. F. Payne, Dr. Lionel Beale and Dr. George Hay to express very significant opinions, representing the best medical talent in London. Dr. Payne spoke of alcohol in its terrible effect on the functions of organs, its poisonous and destructive work on tissue, and its interference with oxidation. He was fully supported by Dr. Harley, who claimed that "very moderate drinkers were in reality the most numerous class of alcoholic victims." Dr. Lionel Beale repeated and emphasized his well-known views. Since then Dr. Harley has given a series of lectures on the subject, which well represent the most thorough recent clinical beliefs as to the very restricted availability of alcohol in disease and its organic effects on moderate drinkers. The day is past when upon dietetic or medicinal grounds there is any indispensable call for the moderate or habitual use of alcoholic beverages.

THE following which we clip from an English contemporary seems almost incredible in Europe, and in the last decade of the nineteenth century:

The official crusade against education in Russia goes on apace. The Governor-General of Kiev, Volhynia, and Podolia (Count Alexis Ignatiev) issued instructions to the provincial police that all home instruction of children should be subjected to a strict censorship. The remarkable manner in which this censorship was conducted has just been illustrated in the manufacturing borough of Ouladovka in Podolia. The chief of police proclaimed that in future all working men were prohibited from instructing their children at all, and in order that he might test easily the fulness of their obedience to his order, he commanded that the working men's children should not be kept in the house, but sent into the streets, where he, in passing, might observe their occupations. This, however, was not enough. He was informed that several Catholic laborers let their children read prayers, and taught them how to write. Thereupon he announced that no educational books or tracts should be kept in the house. He made sure of the observance of his new order by having all his men turn in and search every working man's house in the city. Wherever educational matter was discovered, or children found studying, a full report of the details of the offence was made, and the books or other educational materials were confiscated.

As self-respect and respect for others is the key note of good behavior, good manners are surely one of the best heritages possible to leave our children.—*Louise Fiske Bryson, M.D., in Christian Union.*

LET me say, then, to every teacher, as you desire to rise in your profession, as you wish to make the task agreeable to yourself or profitable to your pupils, do not cease your studies as soon as you gain an appointment, but continue to be a learner as long as you continue to be a teacher, and especially strive, by all means and at all times to enlarge the bounds of your knowledge.—*Dr. Hart.*

* Hints and Helps. *

ENTHUSIASM.

TEACHERS count too little on the importance of enthusiasm in their work. Enthusiasm may sometimes provoke a smile, but it wins in all departments of life. We see examples of this truth everywhere. The man who has a personal love for his work, who thinks about it day and night, who talks about it to everybody, is the man who succeeds.

What great thing was ever effected without enthusiasm? Columbus showed such earnestness that people pointed to their foreheads and whispered, "crazy." Robert Fulton was looked upon as a "crank." Your cold, proper-like, circumspect man never moves the world. Why do we often see great congregations brought to tears by the preaching of a rude and uncultured man? It is because of his earnestness, his enthusiasm. He believes every word he says, and the earnestness of his manner enforces conviction.

The same principle applies to teaching. We must go into the school-room with a great love for our work and a burning desire to have others know what we know. Children catch inspiration from the earnest teacher. Their minds are stirred up to action. In the quick gesture, the animated voice, the sparkling eye, there is magic that cannot be resisted. Teachers, don't go to sleep in the school-room. Don't draw and dawdle. Cultivate life, energy, snap. Don't be afraid to have enthusiasm.—*Southwestern Journal of Education.*

REVERENCE.

BEBE.

APPARENTLY the children at Beechgrove had no thought of sitting still or listening while the morning chapter was being read from the old, worn, brown Bible; and could it be that they regarded prayer-time merely as a few moments to be seized for whispering and tittering and playing sly tricks?

"What shall I do?" said the new teacher to herself many times during that first day. "I cannot bear it; it must not be."

At four o'clock, when books and slates were put away, she said, "Children, I should like to see you sit out at the ends of your seats and fold your arms just so. (*Folding hers.*) There, you look very neat and orderly, just as I like my girls and boys to look. Now, I want to have a little talk with you. How many of you are glad to get home after school hours?"

"Yes, I thought so, everybody. Why? Perhaps it is because you will have a pleasant rest, or a good warm supper, or is it to see those who love you very much and will be so pleased to hear all about your day's work?"

"Your faces tell me I have guessed some of your reasons."

"But who gives you this home, and friends, and all good things? Who takes care of you and watches over you always?"

"I am glad you all know. Yes, it is God."

"What do you say when a friend gives you something you like?"

"Which does most for you, God or your friend?"

"Then should you not love God very much and thank Him often for His gifts, and try ever to do what He wishes His children to do?"

"In a moment we shall stand to thank God for His care over us to-day and to ask Him to guard us to-night; we shall all bow our heads and close our eyes, and be very, very still, for God is with us."

Next morning the teacher brought her own pretty black volume of God's Word, and carefully chose six—not thirty-six—verses and read them tenderly and reverently; and when the children rose, and stood in lines in the aisles, with bowed heads and closed eyes, she repeated slowly and earnestly the Lord's Prayer.

Of course you are almost sure everybody didn't keep perfectly quiet, and you are right; but very many did. The task before the teacher was not small, nor was it to be easily accomplished. How could these children offer what they had not, or did not know they had? They needed to be taught and helped to recognize a beneficent God, a worthy man, a noble deed and a lofty thought; then would

their hearts "to higher levels rise," and reverence and respect be offered freely as water from a never-failing spring.

Frequent admonitions were necessary as the days passed on. Often the school lessons furnished these, and the children yielded to their influence without knowing how much the teacher had contributed to make them effective. Unconsciously they caught the reverent tone when speaking of holy things, and detected beauty in the repetition of beautiful lines by other pupils. They learned to reverence the men to whom God had given power to write noble thoughts. Enthusiasm for the right roused a glow in their hearts, and there were greater strivings after right.

No, those children did not now always do right, nor even did their teacher. There were resolutions made and often broken, but new ones were made that proved that all were learning.

Rude words, mean actions and impertinent replies stung the ones who gave them even as sorely as they did those who received them.

The teacher's example was always more powerful than her words. Because she treated with respect the aged, the neglected and the little ones, the child found qualities in them to revere.

All nature, the sky, the stars, the woods, the waters, the flowers, the insects, etc., were to their eyes clothed with a new glory. Was not "God, the Lord, the Creator of the ends of the earth"?

"Not a flower

But shows some touch in freckle, streak or stain,
Of His unrivalled pencil. He inspires
Their balmy odors and imparts their hues,
And bathes their eyes in nectar, and includes,
In grains as countless as the sea-side sands
The forms with which He sprinkles all the earth.
Happy who walks with Him! Whom what he
finds

Of flavor or of scent, in fruit or flower,
Or what he views of beautiful or grand
In nature, from the broad, majestic oak
To the green blade that twinkles in the sun,
Prompts with remembrance of a present God."
—*Cowper.*

"Come to me, come to me, O my God!

Come to me everywhere!
Let the trees mean Thee and the grassy sod,
And the water and the air."

—*George Macdonald.*

Through every star, through every grass blade,
and most through every living soul, the glory of a
present God still beams.—*Carlyle.*

NOTES OF A MEETING OF THE HAMILTON PRIMARY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

A MEETING of the Hamilton Primary Teachers' Association was held in the Queen Victoria School, Friday, May 15th. The following was the programme:—A paper on "Education," Miss Locke; a phonic lesson, S. B. Sinclair, B.A.; papers on "Primary Geography," Misses Bowman and Mackay; on "The Moulding-Board," Misses Sutherland and Shepard; Question Drawer; General Business; papers on "Plant Study," Misses L. Wood and Rycroft; Drawing; Discussion.

The phonic class was led inductively to observe that when two vowels occur in a word, e.g., *time, sail*, there is a tendency for one to be silent, and the other to have what is usually termed the long vowel sound. In the application of this fact to word recognition, the pupils experienced little difficulty in naming new words written on the black-board, and showed a keen delight in the discovery. Slow pronunciation was recommended as a help in phonic teaching, and hints on voice culture were given.

The utility of the moulding-board as a means of expression rather than of impression was emphasized, and a unanimous vote was passed that, in the opinion of the Primary teachers, it would be an advantage if a moulding-board were placed in every school.

It was thought, as a result of experiments made, that one portable board was sufficient for each building.

Interesting papers on "Natural Science Study" were read, and it was agreed that the time now given to that work is a two-fold gain, in that it creates a greater love for school, and materially helps the discipline.

Considerable time was occupied in the discussion

of sequences of work submitted, with a view to the more thorough correlation of language, natural science, drawing and number work.

The lowest Primary grades are all supplied with one-inch cubical number counters, and for general work the teachers pronounced them much more satisfactory than shoe-pegs, splints, etc.

In drawing there was an opinion in favor of more exercises drawing from actual objects, after they have been studied and modelled.

As in the past, there was a verdict in favor of Kindergarten pupils as being in every way stronger for work than others.

Some interesting points were made in regard to the danger of remaining too long upon the concrete before proceeding to the abstract, and the necessity of keeping perfect ideals before children.

A large number of the teachers signified their intention of attending the approaching International Convention.

SECRETARY.

[The above was crowded out of the number in which it should have appeared, but it is not yet too late to suggest some good hints and methods to teachers.—*Ed. JOURNAL.*]

SOME ADVANTAGES OF WRITTEN WORK.

1. It holds the pupil's mind to the subject.
2. It keeps the pupil out of mischief.
3. It improves his penmanship.
4. It is a drill in neatness.
5. It is a drill in punctuation.
6. It is a drill in the practical use of capitals.
7. It is a drill in writing sentences.
8. It aids in the formation of business-like habits.
9. It develops the reasoning faculties.
10. It gives the pupils an opportunity to criticize each other's work by exchanging papers.
11. It aids precise and accurate expression.
12. It helps the pupil to shun laziness.
13. It secures much better lessons.
14. The pupil will be able to do more each succeeding hour.
15. It relieves the teacher from governing by substituting management.
16. It enables the teacher to know just how much each pupil does.
17. It enables the teacher to know just how much each pupil can do.
18. Not only can a pupil see his own advancement but his parents can see it.—*Southern Educator.*

QUESTIONS REQUIRING THOUGHT.

In which way is a little girl running when the first sunshine of the morning comes directly on her face?

In what direction will your shadow fall at six o'clock on a summer evening?

You see a rainbow in the evening: is it east or west of where you are standing? Why?

What direction is opposite S. E.?

In what part of the sky is the sun in the middle of the afternoon?

A ship was sailing southeast and was struck squarely on the left side by a steamer; in what direction was the steamer going?

Explain the difference between a picture and a map.

Explain the use of: express companies; the postal system; railways.

Of what use are the telegraph and telephone wires which we see on the roads and streets?

If a street runs north and south, which way do the houses on its east side face? Which way do the houses on the west side face?

Tell in what way farmers make money from sheep.

Name a tree of the forest which produces a valuable article of food.

Distinguish between an orchard and a forest.

What is meant when we say that the water of the Great Lakes is "fresh"?—*Eaton's Common Sense Questions in Geography.*

THERE'S many a trouble
Would break like a bubble,
And into waters of Lethe depart.
Did we not rehearse it
And tenderly nurse it
And give it a permanent place in the heart.

—*Arn.*

Primary Department.

GOLDEN OPINIONS.

RHODA LEE.

WITH the rows of fresh faces that follow as a matter of course these days of school openings, come many thoughts and speculations as to the various characters and abilities of the new-comers. The success of the session will depend in a measure upon the spirit and manner in which you have received your pupils. I do not intend to lay any great stress upon "first mornings," first words, or the reception at all in the outward sense. I refer to the opinions, golden or otherwise, that you will so quickly form, for of course, every earnest teacher wishes to know and understand her scholars as soon as possible. But let it be a matter of discovery, not hearsay. Another person's estimate will very often serve merely to prejudice you and weaken your influence.

I know of one teacher who makes a regular practice of interviewing the one immediately below her and obtaining a list of the troublesome, dull, lazy and otherwise "indisposed" children that she is to expect after promotions are made. I am perfectly sure that the teacher who does this will never have the influence she should have over her scholars, nor in any marked degree ever lessen their faults. She will be hopelessly prejudiced. Much rather would I receive a class knowing nothing of them but that they are little children with just the usual amount of good and bad that we generally find, and hold myself to blame if there be not some increase of good and the love of good during the time spent in my classroom.

The teacher who expects disorder will never be disappointed. Expecting nothing better she will never obtain order. She who expects to find nothing but dullards and drones in her class will never experience the delight afforded by the sight of a class of bright, active, earnest children busily engaged in their work. Of course it would not be wise to have such great expectations as to shut out the possibility of things ever going wrong. That were almost as great a foolishness as to expect a summer with never a dark day or a thunder-cloud. We must be prepared for disappointments, but never let them be imaginary ones. Hope for the best in your pupils, and think all that is good of them until you have just reason to think otherwise. Show your children that it is your wish to trust them and the majority will wish to merit your trust.

Rather an amusing and at the same time a very pleasing instance of the reformation of a lazy boy occurred recently in a school where an occasional teacher was in charge of a class for six or eight weeks during the absence of the regular teacher. No one had ever had a very high opinion of poor Oliver. In fact his teacher considered him rather a hopeless case. Play any day rather than work, seemed to be his governing rule, and when he did work it was in such a careless manner as almost to discourage any lover of neatness. However, when a few days after her arrival the substitute was

asked by a curious person how she liked the boy we were surprised to hear warm words of praise. He was "such a helpful little fellow, so thoughtful and careful in his work." She had thought at first that he liked to be active and had given him a position of honor for which it was necessary to have a particularly careful and trustworthy boy. And he had proved himself worthy of the trust, and continued to be, though not without some downfalls. That was a clear case of ignorance being bliss, as Oliver's page would probably never have been turned had report told differently of his character. It was a sort of moral "faith cure." Consider how much a good opinion can effect. Do not feel tired and disappointed when you do not always get the best from your scholars, but by all means *expect it.*

SECURING GOODWILL.

ARNOLD ALCOTT.

"SEEK not to have things happen as you choose them, but rather choose them to happen as they do, and so shall you live prosperously."

While reading the teachings of Epictetus I came across this counsel, which, though written by one of the ancients, will never, it seemed to me, grow old.

"But," says an impatient reader, "What has this thought to do with us?"

"How does this advice apply to the readers of the Primary Department of THE JOURNAL?"

May there not be among the many subscribers to this paper a number of inexperienced teachers, novices in the profession, many of whom, perhaps, have not surroundings as bright or as congenial as we might wish for them.

And with this line of thinking uppermost I felt that if this article, at the opening of a new session, contributed to the comfort and to the contentment of such as I have alluded to, then the purpose of this contribution would have been served.

I see you, a teacher full of high hopes, noble aims, ardent enthusiasm, in charge of your first class. You have just left the training school and are perfectly well acquainted with the theory of education. Through the historical and theoretical lens education presents an enchanting scene. You are now about to view it from the practical viewpoint.

You went to school the first day with lofty aspirations, and at four o'clock you came home feeling that, after all your thought, and all your effort, and all your self-examination, you had been worsted in your efforts; in fact, that you had mistaken your profession. Let me in the most sympathetic way ask you to listen to a little reason on this matter.

You have had a hard day. The previous teacher being a miserable disciplinarian, the class is very disorderly. The persistent offender is there, and a mean spirit has entered into these bright boys and girls.

How to secure their goodwill is the all-important question?

Good discipline and good order are synonyms. It was only the other day that a student of about eighteen said to me, "After all, we boys like those teachers est

who get us along well in our lessons." Good teaching and good discipline must go together. We do not believe that the former can exist without the latter, but that the former is conditioned on the latter.

The pertinent question then, is, how to obtain order.

As you are a new teacher with a new and badly disciplined class, of course you have not the sympathies of your pupils; therefore, you must make yourself felt, *i. e.* your power and your influence must be supreme. Now there is no need of my telling you, who have just come from pedagogical studies, anything of the qualities which you should possess, for you could name them off hand, you know them intellectually, but to KNOW them, you must prove them by experience.

I will just give here one hint on obtaining order. The first trouble will be with the persistent offender. Now, as you have not the pupils' consideration and regard, to get order you must appeal for the first week or so to external agencies, to enable you to establish your command. Of course the kind of external means used depends on the teacher, and on the nature of the class.

The next important question after the obtaining of order is, how to maintain order. For you will find that to obtain order is one thing, to maintain it is another. Order cannot be maintained by coercive measures. It must be maintained by inspirational and co-operative means. In other words, as teacher and class become better acquainted a feeling of good fellowship must be firmly established, else good discipline can never exist. When punishments are necessary, internal agencies, or those which appeal to the moral nature should be used.

Having shown the difference between the maintaining and the obtaining of order, let me give you two ways for securing the goodwill of your scholars, and especially that of the "bad boy." Ask a troublesome boy to assist you in any way, no matter how trivial, so long as you make him feel that he is doing something for you, and you will find that the natural desire for good, which is, we believe, in every human heart, is increased in this little pupil, and, that a wish to taste of this pleasure again is implanted.

Another most effectual method of securing the personal attachment of boys is for the teacher to notice them. Boys are naturally fond of being made much of. The teacher who takes an interest in their presents, in their games, in their pets, in their physical power, is sure to get along. All these will help a teacher to exert over his scholars a constant and powerful control.

Epictetus says, "There is no true conclusion in these reasonings: I am richer than thou, therefore I am better: I am more eloquent than thou, therefore I am better. But the conclusions are rather these: I am richer than thou, therefore my wealth is better; I am more eloquent than thou, therefore my speech is better. But thou art not wealth, and thou art not speech."

In the same way we should not say, "I have to take a badly disciplined class,

therefore I cannot succeed." But rather, "I have to take a badly disciplined class, therefore my responsibilities are greater, and therefore I will succeed." But I am not responsibility, and I am not success.

Courage, my young friend; show indomitable perseverance, and you will find that "nothing succeeds like success."

Book Notices, etc.

NEW BOOKS ON ENGLISH.

The Adventures of Oliver Twist. By Charles Dickens. Abridged for use in schools. Pp. 146; price 1s. London: George Bell & Sons.

This little volume is one of a series of works of English fiction, abridged and simplified for the use of junior pupils. The system that encourages the employment of books such as this is worthy of strong commendation. In place of the interesting pieces of many elementary readers, we have here a story of intense interest, which the child will strive to read of his own free-will. Eight of Cruikshank's illustrations are given in the text. With text-books such as this, the teacher's life will begin to brighten.

Great Deeds in English History. Illustrated. Pp. 118; price 1s.

A companion volume to the above, from the same house. It contains for young readers simple stories of Hereward, the Crusades, Joan of Arc, "The Revenge," Lord Nelson, "The Relief of Lucknow," etc. Valuable, like the preceding, in awakening in children a love for their reading lessons.

American Literature. An Elementary Text-Book for use in High Schools and Academies. By Julian Hawthorne and Leonard Lemmon. Pp. 319; price \$1.25. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

We Canadians must, I suppose, reconcile ourselves to the fact that there are Americans and Americans, and be ready always to decide to which of these classes we belong. Travelling recently on the St. Lawrence, we were told that our steamer would touch at a certain place in "America." This "America," we found, was simply the popular name of the United States. A Canadian, according to the Yankee's standard of speech, is in no sense an American—unless he becomes a citizen of the United States. American literature, we might have thought, would have told us something of Frechette and Roberts and Lampman, but, duly warned by experience, we are content to find that Mr. Hawthorne's "American Literature" treats merely of the literature of the United States, including that of colonial days. Short as is the life of the nation to the south, her history has been eventful enough, and the torches of war have too often kindled the muse's flame. Some two hundred and twenty-five authors have done something during that nation's life to warrant a record of their work in the volume before us; forty of them look pleasantly upon us in the beautiful illustrations in the volume. The great masters are, of course, most fully treated, there being an account of their lives and works, with a critical estimate of their genius, and illustrative extracts from their compositions. Appended to these extracts is a series of questions, often excellent of their kind, but, in our opinion, out of place. A companion volume of illustrative extracts would have afforded scope for a real study of literature, such as these few illustrative pieces will give only the merest semblance of. Mr. Hawthorne's style in this volume is pleasing—profound without being abstruse, simple without affecting simplicity, not decrying the work of his own land, yet never unduly lauding it because it is "America." He preserves throughout a judicial spirit (except in the title) that is pleasant to meet with. The truth and sincerity of his criticisms may be judged from the following interesting comment:

"'Evangeline' is kept alive by reason of its many exquisite lines, noble and touching passages and delicate descriptions. It is a beautiful and pathetic love story, with a harmonious background;

and the conception of Evangeline herself, making herself a blessing to others for the sake of her love for her lost lover, is as fine as anything this poet wrote. But when we return to the poem, after having once read and appreciated it, we find that the passages we re-read are comparatively few. The characters are not vividly drawn; there are long stretches of unimportant narrative, and, to speak more technically, the atmosphere of the story is sometimes more obvious than its features. On the other hand, what is good in it is lovely with an exalted and immortal loveliness; and the sonorous music of its verse perfumes the memory."

Outlines of History of Education. With Chronological Tables, Suggestions and Test Questions. By J. A. Reinhart, Ph.D. Teachers' Professional Library. New York and Chicago: E. L. Kellogg & Co. 77 pp. 25 cents.

The publishers, by means of these publications, bring to the very doors of those teachers who lack the opportunity to attend a normal school a chance to improve in the art of teaching. "Outlines of History of Education" is what its name implies, a brief but comprehensive presentation of the main facts in educational progress. A thorough study of this book will be a good foundation for a more detailed study of the subject.

Outline of the Principles of Education. By J. A. Reinhart, Ph.D. Teachers' Professional Library. New York and Chicago: E. L. Kellogg & Co. 68 pp. 25 cents.

To give an outline of a great subject, including nothing trivial and leaving out nothing important, is a great art. This difficult task has been successfully performed by the author of this small volume, who is an educator of long experience and a thorough student of the science of education. The first two chapters give a general view of the subject and the other chapters treat of the intuitive, imaginative, and logical stages of education, and the principles of moral education.

Pestalozzi: His Educational Work and Principles. By Amos M. Kellogg, editor of *The School Journal*. Teachers' Manuals, No. 15. New York and Chicago: E. L. Kellogg & Co. 29 pp. 15 cents.

The object of the author in preparing this manual was to arouse a desire in the reader to make a careful and prolonged study of the remarkable work performed by the great Swiss reformer. The main facts in Pestalozzi's life are given, and his foundation principles presented clearly and briefly. The thorough understanding of these is of incalculable benefit to the teacher. This little book makes a valuable pocket companion.

The Children's Primer. By Miss Ella M. Cyr, author of the *Interstate Primer*, etc. Boston, U.S.A.: Ginn & Company, publishers, 1891.

This is a very attractive addition to the lengthening list of reading books for beginners. The type, paper, illustrations, and other mechanical features are of the best quality, and, what is of still greater importance, the reading matter is simple and well adapted to interest the little learners. The common fault of introducing new words too rapidly is avoided, as the author tells us that the average number of new words is only about two and one-quarter to each page. But is this intended to be used as a first reading book? From the title "Primer" and some of the introductory remarks we infer that this is the intention. If so, we must, at the risk of being set down as hopelessly foggyish and antiquated, protest. The "Primer" is adapted, we suppose, for use in connection with the "word" method. Hence, it commences with such words as "baby," "mamma," "kitty," "doll," "state," etc. We have, we confess, no faith in this method. We are more and more convinced that the art of reading can be acquired with at least equal facility, and made at least equally interesting to beginners by a method which will exercise them from the first in learning the powers of letters, and in building up words syllable by syllable; and we are persuaded

that the latter is the only method by which intelligent, rapid and unlimited progress at the later stages can be secured.

A Primer of Ethics. Edited by Benjamin B. Comegys. Boston, U.S.A.: Ginn & Company.

We heartily agree with the view of Charles Dudley Warner, which is quoted as the motto of this little book, viz., that the thing which can be done, in the way of giving definite moral training in the schools, is "to introduce into every public school a simple text-book of Ethics, and drill it into every child from the youngest to the oldest," and that "the little book should present the principles of the moral conduct in the clearest and simplest manner; that is, the fundamental ideas of right and wrong, the proper relations in the family, of parent and child, of the young to the old, of inferior to superior, of the employer to the employed, the citizen and the State—the duties in all their relations, as well as the rights." We have long wished to see a book of this kind, which we could commend to the teachers and to the school authorities of Canada, as worthy of introduction into every school. So far as regards the substance of the teaching of the book before us, and the literary form in which that teaching is embodied, it is admirably adapted to the purpose. In support of this opinion we need only tell our readers that it is, as the Editor informs us in his preface, a new edition of "The Rollo Code of Morals," by Jacob Abbott. That admirable little work has been out of print for many years, and the Editor and Publishers have done good service to their generation in republishing it, with additions and improvements. We could wish that a copy of it were in the hands of every boy and girl in the land, and might lead them, as by its beautiful simplicity of style and its wealth of suitable illustration it is well fitted to do, to reflect upon such every day duties as Truth, Obedience, Industry, Honesty, Fidelity, Justice, Politeness, etc. But, while glad to give this hearty commendation to the little book which Mr. Comegys and his publishers have put before us in a very neat and readable form, we are constrained to add that, as a text-book, the work is not by any means what we should like to see it. From the standpoint of the teacher, it must be considered a failure, because it goes about the work in the wrong way. It is didactic and deductive, whereas it should, in our opinion, have followed the inductive method. Each lesson consists of three parts:—First, a general statement of a principle or duty. This stands in black type at the head of the lesson, and is intended to be committed to memory by the class. Then follow second, explanation, illustration and enforcement, and, third, a series of questions, adapted to bring out the dogmatic teachings of the lesson. This is the old school method. But, it seems clear to us that the main object—and this is in strict accordance with the grand educational principle now almost universally recognized—is, or should be, not simply to store the memories of the pupils with a set of moral rules suited to the requirements of various situations and circumstances, but to develop and train and strengthen the moral nature—in other words, the conscience. Few teachers of experience will now doubt that this can best be done by proceeding from the particular to the general, and not from the general to the particular. For instance, instead of setting out with the didactic statement, which we fear is not axiomatic to all minds, that "Truth is sincerity: and in all we say and do, we must be sincere. We must not make false impressions, directly or indirectly," the result sought, the development of the conscience in its relations to truth and falsehood, would be much more effectually attained by setting out from some specific case, say some such incident as is of almost daily occurrence in school life, and by a series of questions and illustrations, adapted to call out his own powers of thought, and at the same time appeal to his own innate sense of right and wrong, leading the pupil up to the broad generalization which we have above quoted. To the teacher who knows how to adapt it to this use, the book will be an invaluable aid in general moral training, but as a text-book to be put into hands of pupils, it is wrong in form throughout.

WITH souls of the celestial temper, each human life might be a triumph which angels would lean from the skies delighted to witness and admire.—*Horace Greeley.*

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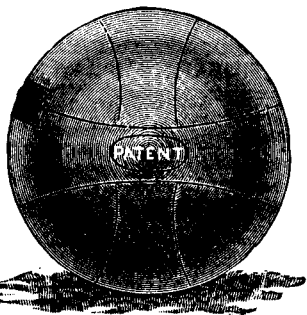
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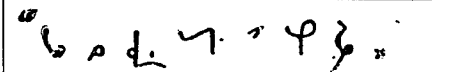
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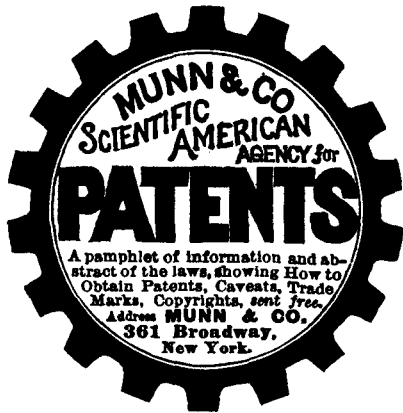
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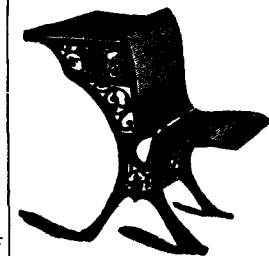


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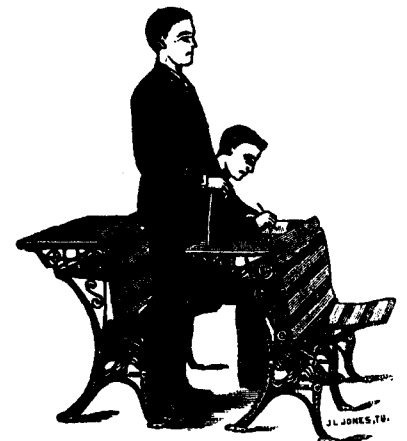
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Faculty of Arts—(Opening September 14, 1891). Donald Special Course for Women—September 14th.

Faculty of Applied Science—Civil Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Mining Engineering, Electrical Engineering and Practical Chemistry—(September 15th).

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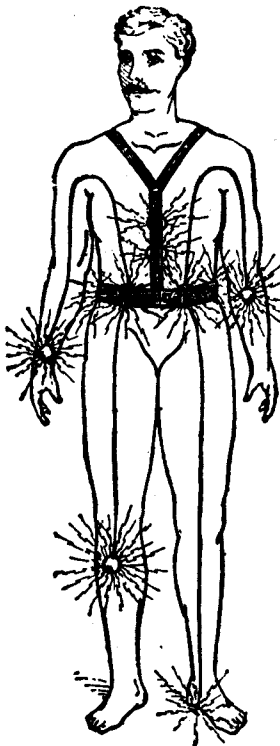
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