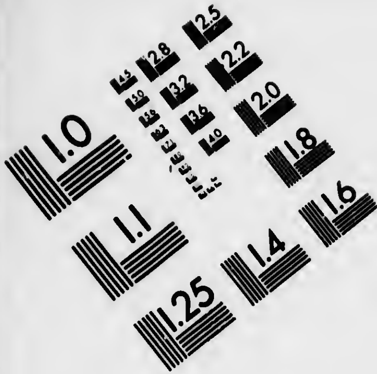

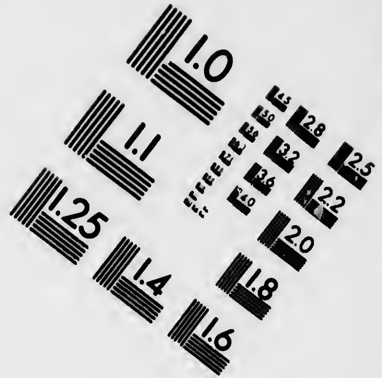

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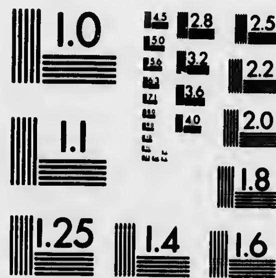

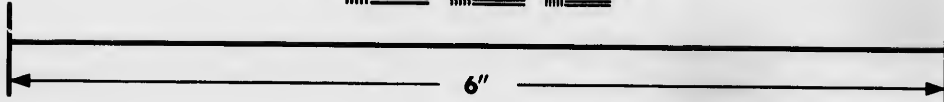

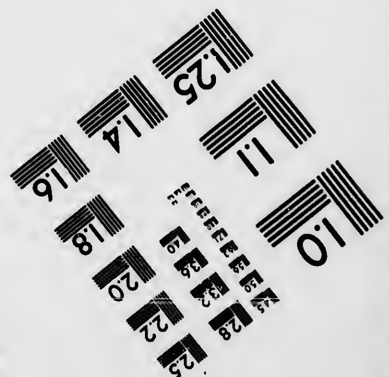

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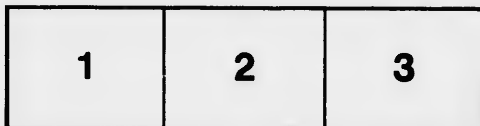

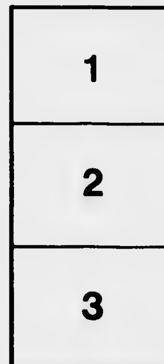

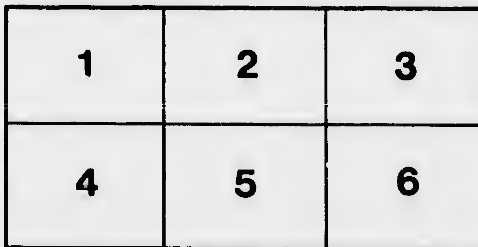

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R.Bell

AN OUTLINE

OF THE

GENERAL REGULATIONS

AND

METHOD OF TEACHING

IN THE

MALE NATIONAL MODEL SCHOOLS,

FOR THE USE OF TEACHERS.

BY PROFESSOR SULLIVAN.

FOURTH EDITION.

PRINTED BY AUTHORITY
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1845.

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NOTE TO THIRD EDITION.

As the "Method of Teaching Geography," "Exercises in Etymology," and "Rules for Spelling," which appeared in the preceding edition of this Outline, have been published in the Author's "Introduction to Geography and History," and "Spelling-Book Superseded," now in the hands of all the Teachers of National Schools, he thought it better to omit them, and to give in their place other articles, such as "Method of Teaching the Alphabet," &c. He has also given from the last Report of the Commissioners, their Regulations regarding the Appointment, Qualifications, Training, &c., of the Teachers of National Schools.

NOTE BY CANADIAN PUBLISHERS.

This little pamphlet is presented to the Superintendents and Commissioners of Education, and to Teachers throughout Canada, in the hope, that, though they may not be able to adopt the whole system as practised with so much advantage in the National Schools, many valuable hints may be gleaned from it, for the improvement of the several Academies under their management.

Copies of the pamphlet may be had gratis on application to the Superintendents of Education for Canada East at Montreal, and Canada West at Cobourg; Messrs. Armour & Ramsay, Montreal; Messrs. T. Cary & Co., Quebec; Mr. W. Brooks, Sherbrooke; Mr. J. Clint, Cornwall; Mr. Richard Kneeshaw, Bytown; Messrs. Ramsay, Armour & Co. Kingston; Messrs. H. & W. Rowsell, and Mr. H. Scobie, Toronto; Messrs. Ramsay & M'Kendrick, Hamilton; and Mr. A. Davidson, Niagara.

October, 1845.

AN OUTLINE,

&c.

MALE NATIONAL MODEL SCHOOLS.

There are three schools for boys on the premises, (in Dublin.) The largest, or principal school, which consists of about four hundred boys, is divided into five divisions, namely, first, second, third, fourth, and fifth: the first being the lowest or least advanced. To each of these divisions a certain number of desks, with a determined portion of the floor, is assigned, which they are never to leave without permission, or directions from the teacher. Over each of these divisions, a paid monitor, or pupil-teacher, is appointed, who is responsible for *the cleanliness, good order,* and *proficiency* of the children constituting his division.

As the pupil-teachers cannot possibly instruct all the children themselves, the *Monitorial* or *Mutual-instruction* method is applied to a certain extent. Each *division* is subdivided into *classes*, according to the proficiency of the pupils, and the subjects to be taught; and over each class a monitor is appointed, who instructs it under the guidance of the pupil-teacher in charge of the division, and under the general superintendence of the master. The number of children in a class assigned to a monitor should not exceed nine.

The *class-monitors* are selected from the best and most intelligent boys in the class—or rather, from the class immediately above it; and, as they receive no remuneration for their services, they are not required to act for more than an hour in the day, or a day in the week. To carry this arrangement into effect, the master should always endeavour to have a large number of pupils on his list, able

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and *willing*, to act as monitors in rotation. *Extra* instruction, and, occasionally, school-books and paper, are given to the pupils who act as class-monitors.

Besides the instruction given to the children by the class-monitors and pupil-teachers, each class receives at least one lesson in the day from the head, or second teacher. They also, in large drafts or divisions, receive *Simultaneous* instruction, once a day, in the class-room, or gallery, from the pupil-teachers or masters.

This, which may be called the MIXED system, combines the advantages of the *Monitorial* and *Simultaneous* methods of instruction. Under the former, the children are taught almost, if not altogether, by monitors; under the latter, as the master cannot divide himself, the children, even in schools of the smallest class, idle away half their time under the name of preparing their lessons. But, under the *mixed* system, every pupil is kept constantly at work, and every minute is turned to account; for, if not under the direct teaching of the masters, he is receiving instruction from intelligent monitors.

The head teacher examines all the divisions in rotation, and makes an entry in his note-book of the state and proficiency of each. The second master is expected to do the same, and to communicate to the head teacher the result of his examination.

The head teacher has the general superintendence of all the schools, class-rooms, and galleries, except when teaching or examining a class; in which case he deputes the second teacher to take his place. When the head teacher resumes the superintendence, the second teacher continues to examine the several classes in rotation.

The teachers are expected to observe themselves, and to impress upon the minds of their pupils, the great rule of REGULARITY and ORDER. "*A time and a place for every thing, and every thing in its proper time and place.*"

ORDER OF THE DAY.

AT nine o'clock every morning, the masters and monitors are expected to attend; the former to give, and the latter to receive, *special* instruction. If any of the teachers, or paid monitors, are absent or late, the head teacher enters their names in a book for the inspection of the Professors, and Commissioners, if necessary.

At the same hour, the play-ground is opened for the reception of the children, under the superintendence of one of the masters, who discharge this duty, morning or week about, in rotation. This regulation applies to the play-ground in the mornings only; during the other periods for play, all the masters and pupil-teachers are expected to be present, except those who may be specially engaged in the school-rooms by direction of the head teacher.

The children, while in the play-ground, therefore, *are never left to themselves*. They are always under the Superintendence of the teachers and paid monitors; who, without controlling or embarrassing them by their presence, keep a strict watch over their words, actions, and general demeanour.

Of all regulations this is the most important. The play-ground is not intended as a place in which the children may riot uncontrolled. It is the *school* for MORAL instruction; and, inasmuch as moral improvement is of more importance than mere literary information, there is even a greater necessity for the master's presence in the play-ground, than in the school-room itself. Of course, it is not meant that the masters should lecture the children while at play; nor interfere at all, except in cases which require immediate animadversion. On the contrary, they should throw up the reins and leave them to the full enjoyment of their freedom; taking care to note, for the materials of a moral lesson in the gallery, any excesses or faults they may commit in their uncontrolled moments.

It is scarcely necessary to add, that all the educationists of the present day consider the play-ground as essentially necessary for *moral training*. It is, in short, the best place for discovering the dispositions, developing the character, and forming the habits of children.

INSPECTION IN CLEANLINESS, &c.

AT five minutes before ten o'clock the masters proceed to the play-ground, for the INSPECTION IN CLEANLINESS. If the day be wet, the children enter the school, *salute the master respectfully* as they pass, and form themselves into lines parallel with the walls. The pupil-teachers, then, under the superintendence of the masters, pass up and down their respective divisions, and satisfy themselves by

personal inspection, that the hands, face, and ears of the children are clean; their hair combed, and their clothes clean; for even the plainest and the coarsest clothes may be clean and neat. Should any child continue deficient in cleanliness, a note is addressed to the parents on the subject, by the master. Any child having a cutaneous or infectious disease, is immediately sent home, and not re-admitted till completely cured. Every *Monday*, or admission morning, the medical attendant of the establishment inspects all the newly-admitted children, and any of the other pupils brought under his notice.

After the Inspection is over, the children march into the school—or if in it, take their places according to their division; and the business of the day commences.

In marching into and out of school, each division is accompanied by its pupil-teacher and his assistant, one preceding, and the other bringing up the rear, in order to observe that the pupils march orderly and in silence. This rule applies to the marching to and from the play-ground, as well as to the dismissal of the school.

The pupils are not to be permitted to speak to each other while business is going on.

The subjects taught, and the precise periods allotted for each, are notified in the School Rules; which are suspended conspicuously in the school-room. The following are the principal branches taught in the school; with an outline of the methods employed in teaching them:—

ALPHABET.*

(Extracted from an unpublished Lecture.)

As the Alphabet is the first and, indeed, the most difficult lesson that children have to learn, the teacher should do everything in his power to make it as easy and as interesting to them as possible. Pes-

* The term Alphabet is derived from *Alpha*, *Beta*, the first two letters of the Greek alphabet; just as we say the "A.B.C." for all the letters; and *Abecedarian*, for a teacher of the Alphabet.

For an account of the origin of alphabetic writing, the National teacher is referred to the author's Lectures on Popular Education, p. 112.

The ORDER of the letters in the Alphabet appears to have been a matter of chance; nor is it of much consequence how they are arranged. Some writers, however, have urged a new and philosophical arrangement. The VOWELS, they insist, should take precedence of the CONSONANTS

talozzi has called it "the first torment of children," and with great truth, for, as it is usually taught, it is a difficult and perplexing task.

If we cannot smooth the rugged path of learning for children, we should, at least, throw no unnecessary difficulties in their way. And to make them learn and recollect the names and forms of all the letters in the Alphabet, LARGE and SMALL, before they are permitted to advance a step in a *practical* direction, is a great and unnecessary difficulty thrown in their way. The difficulty to a child must be great. If we doubt it, let us try what trouble it would cost ourselves to learn and recollect the names and forms of six-and-twenty characters or figures which we never saw before. And the difficulty is unnecessary, as far as regards the CAPITAL letters; for they are not required for the purpose of learning either to read or spell. It is of the small or *common* letters that words and sentences are composed. The CAPITALS occur only one at a time, perhaps not more than two or three in a page; and the children will learn them as they proceed, without any formal teaching.

Till very lately, too, children were obliged to learn an additional character for the letter *s* (*ſ*); for no other purpose, it would seem, than to puzzle them between it and the letter *f*, to which it bears so close a resemblance, The *double* letters, too, as they were called were considered till lately a necessary part of the Alphabet; and the unfortunate tyros were consequently obliged to learn new and complicated characters for the same letter, before they were permitted to proceed to the simplest lesson in their primers.

But the difficulties which children encounter in learning the *names* and *forms* of the letters of the Alphabet, are trivial when compared to the labour which it costs them to learn their *sounds* or *powers*.

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and be marshalled with regard to each other, according to the aperture which each demands of the mouth to give it due utterance; while the CONSONANTS should be arranged with reference to the *organs* to which they are chiefly indebted; as the *lip*, the *teeth*, the *throat*, &c.

This would certainly be a more rational arrangement of the letters; but its now too late to make such alterations.

It is remarkable that the letter *A* holds the first place in every alphabet; perhaps because the *open* sound, as in the word *father*, is the simplest and easiest of all sounds. It is the first articulate sound which children make, as in the words *papa*, *mamma*; and in almost every language except the English, this is the only sound of *a*.

If every distinct articulate *sound* had a different and distinct *sign* or character, to represent it—or, in other words, if the *same sounds* were always expressed by the *same signs*, learning to read would cease to be a tedious and perplexing process; for in this case, it would, in a great measure, be reduced to a knowledge of the letters. But this is not the case in our, nor indeed, in any Alphabet. In some cases, we have distinct sounds without proper or *peculiar* signs to represent them, and in others, we have two or more different signs or characters for the same sound. Our Alphabet is, therefore, both *defective* and *redundant*. The very first letter of the Alphabet, for instance, represents, without alteration or external change, four different and distinct sounds; and with regard to all the other vowels, and several of the consonants, similar observations might be made.

We have nine simple vowel sounds, and only six signs or characters to express them—or rather only five, for *i* and *y* may be regarded as different forms of the same letter. We have also four consonants for which there are no proper or peculiar characters, namely, the initial consonant in the word *then*, the sibilating sound of *sh*, as in *shine;* and the final consonantal sound *ng*, as in the word *sing*.

But the redundancy of our Alphabet is more apparent. The letter c, for instance, has in every case, the sound either of *k* or *s*.* It is, therefore, as far as the *pronunciation* is concerned, an unnecessary letter.

In *ch*, as in *chest*, the sound might be represented by *tsh;* and when it is hard, as in words like *chaos* and *mechanical*, by *k*. *Ch*, therefore, is redundant.

The letter *q*, also, is redundant, for in every case its sound might be represented by *k;* as in the words *quarter* (*k*warter), *question* (*k*westion), *quiet* (*kw*iet), &c.

The letter *x*, too, is redundant, as its sound might be represented by *ks* or *z;* as in the words *exert*, *exist*, *Xenophon*.†

Ph is, in every case, equivalent to *f;* and is, therefore, a superfluous sign or character.

The vowel *y*, being another form of *i*, is redundant; and so also are the diphthongal forms *æ* and *œ;* as in the words *Cæsar* and *Crœsus*.‡

* Before the vowels *a*, *o*, or *u*, *c* has the sound of *k*, as in *cat*, *cot*, *cut;* and before, *e*, *i*, or *y*, it has the sound of *s*, as in *cell*, *city*, *cypress*.

† At the beginning of a word *x* is pronounced *z*, as in Xenophon;—in the middle or at the end, *ks;* as in Xerxes (Zerkses), boxes (bokses), box (boks). *X* is evidently compounded of *k* and *s*.

‡ But though these signs or letters are unnecessary, as far as the pronunciation and spelling of the words in which they occur are concerned, they are essential to their *etymology* and meaning, and must therefore be retained.

The difficulties which these Alphabetical inconsistencies occasion children in their first attempts at learning to read, have been so graphically described by the EDGEWORTHS in their "Practical Education," that we shall transcribe the entire passage:

As it is usually managed, it is a dreadful task indeed to learn, and if possible a more dreadful task to teach to read: with the help of counters, and coaxing, and gingerbread, or by dint of reiterated pain and terror, the names of the four and twenty letters of the alphabet are, perhaps, in the course of some weeks, firmly fixed in the pupil's memory. So much the worse; all these names will disturb him if he have common sense, and at every step must stop his progress. To begin with the vowels; each of these have several different sounds, and consequently ought to have several names, or different signs to distinguish them in different circumstances. In the first lesson of the spelling-book the child begins with a-b makes ab; b-a makes ba. The inference, if any general inference can be drawn from this lesson, is that when *a* comes before *b* it has one sound, and after *b* it has another sound; but this is contradicted by and by, and it appears that *a* after *b* has various sounds, as in *ball*, in *bat*, in *bare*. The letter i in *fire* is i, as we call it in the alphabet, but in *fir* it is changed, in *pin* it is changed again; so that the child, being ordered to affix to the same sign a variety of sounds, and names, and not knowing in what circumstance to obey, and in what to disregard the contradictory injunctions imposed upon him, he pronounces sounds at hazard, and adheres positively to the last ruled case, or maintains an apparently sullen, or truly philosophic and sceptical silence. Must *e* in *pen*, and *e* in *where*, and e in *her*, and *e* in *fear*, all be called e alike? The child is patted on the head for reading *u* as it ought to be pronounced in *future;* but if remembering this encouragement, the pupil should venture to pronounce *u* in *gun* and *bun* in the same manner, he will inevitably be disgraced. Pain and shame impress precepts upon the mind, the child therefore is intent upon remembering the new sound of *u* in *bun;* but when he come to *busy*, and *burial*, and *prudence*, his last precedent will lead him fatally astray, and he will again be called *dunce*. *O* in the exclamation *Oh!* is happily called by its alphabetical name, but in *to* we can hardly know it again, and in *morning* and *wonder* it has a third and a fourth additional sound. The amphibious letter, *y*, which is either a vowel or a consonant, has one sound in one character, and two sounds in the other; as a consonant, it is pronounced as in *yesterday;* in *try*, it is sounded as *i;* in *any*, and in the termination of many other words, it is sounded like *e*. Must a child know all this by intuition, or must it be whipt into him? But he must know a great deal more before he can read the most common words: what length of time should we allow him for learning when *c* is to be sounded like *k*, and when like *s?* and how much longer time shall

we add for learning when *s* shall be pronounced *sh*, as in *sure*, or *z* as in *has*; the sound of which last letter *z* he cannot by any conjuration obtain from the name *zad*, the only name by which he has been taught to call it? How much time shall we allow a patient tutor for teaching a docile pupil, when *g* is to be sounded soft, and when hard? There are many carefully-worded rules in the spelling-books, specifying before what letters, and in what situations, *g* shall vary in sound; but unfortunately these rules are difficult to be learned by heart, and still more difficult to understand. These laws, however positive, are not found to be of universal application, or at least a child has not always wit or time to apply them upon the spur of the occasion. In coming to the words *good gentleman*, *get an ingenious grammar*, he may be puzzled by the nice distinctions he is to make in pronunciation in cases apparently similar: but he has not yet become acquainted with all the powers of this privileged letter; in company with *h*, it assumes the character of *f*, as in *tough*; the next time he meets it perhaps in the same company, in the same place, and as nearly as possible in the same circumstances, as in the word *though*; but now *g* is to become a silent letter, and is to pass incognito, and the child would commit an unpardonable error if he claimed the incognito as his late acquaintance *f*. Still all these are slight difficulties; a moment's reflection must convince us, that by teaching the common names of every consonant in the alphabet, we prepare a child for misery when he begins to spell or read. A consonant, as saith the spelling-book, is a letter which cannot be pronounced without a vowel before or after it; for this reason *B* is called *be*, and *L*, *el*; but why the vowel should come first in the one case, or last in the second, we are not informed; nor are we told why the names of some letters have no resemblance whatever to their sounds, either with a vowel before or after them. Suppose that after having learned the alphabet, a child was to attempt to read the words,

Here is some apple pye,

he would pronounce the letters thus,

Acheare ies esoeme apepeele pewie.

With this pronunciation the child could never decipher these simple words. It will be answered perhaps, that no child is expected to read as soon as he has learnt his alphabet: a long initiation of monosyllabic, dissyllabic, trissyllabic, and polysyllabic words is previously to be submitted to, nor after this inauguration are the novices capable of performing with propriety the ceremony of reading whole words and sentences. By a different method of teaching, all this waste of labour and of time, all this confusion of rules and exceptions, and all the consequent confusion in the understanding of the pupil, may be avoided.

In teaching a child to read, every letter should have a precise single sound annexed to its figure; this should never vary. Where two consonants are joined together, so as to have but one sound, as *ph*, *sh*, &c., the two letters should be coupled together by a distinct invariable mark. Letters that are silent should be marked in such a manner as to point out to the child that they are not to be sounded. Upon these simple rules our method of teaching to read has been founded. The signs or marks, by which these distinctions are to be effected, are arbitrary, and may be varied as the teacher chooses; the addition of a single point above or below the common letters is sufficient to distinguish the different sounds that are given to the same letter, and a mark underneath such letters as are to be omitted, is the only apparatus necessary. These marks were employed by the author in 1776, before he had seen Sheridan's or any similar dictionary; he has found that they do not confuse children as much as figures, because when dots are used to distinguish sounds, there is only a change of place, and no change of fo[illegible] . but any person that chooses it, may substitute figures instead of dots. It should, however, be remembered, that children must learn to distinguish the figures before they can be useful in discriminating the words.

To the ingenious recommendations of the Edgeworths there are strong practical objections. Children thus taught would find it difficult to read books printed in the ordinary way; and, besides, the *upper*, *lower*, and *double* dots, and *horizontal*, and *slanting* lines, would tend to confuse rather than to simplify.

Other plans for simplifying the study of the Alphabet have been tried with more or less success by other educationists. Some have classed and taught the letters according to their *forms*, as Lancaster, who drilled and divided them into squadrons and groups, according to their resemblance, real or supposed, to geometric figures;* others have classed them according to their resemblance in *sound*, as Professor Pillans, who recommends that they should be taught in

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* In the French "*Manuel d' Instileur Primaire*" the following classification is proposed:—1. Letters which commence with a small straight line —i, r, t, u, n, m, v, w, y, x, z. 2. Letters which commence with a longer straight line (*une ligne droite plus longue*)—l, f, k, b, h, p. 3. Letters which commence with a curved line—c, e, o, a, d, g, q, s.

And with regard to CAPITAL letters a similar process is proposed—1. Letters composed of straight lines—H, L, T, K, A, V, W, Z, F, E, N, M. 2. Letters composed of curved lines—C, G, O, Q. 3. Letters composed of straight and curved lines—D, P, B, R.

But the PHONIC method of teaching the Alphabet is the plan now generally approved of in France.

brotherhoods, as they are pronounced by the several organs of voice, as *dentals*, *labials*, &c.; while others, as Jacotot, have succeeded in teaching children to read without putting them through the routine of alphabetic teaching.*

To these, and to the other learned and distinguished persons who have given up so much of their time in endeavouring to facilitate the study of the Alphabet, the gratitude of elementary teachers is particularly due. In our case, however, we must take and teach the Alphabet as we find it in our First Book of Lessons. And perhaps no easier, and, therefore, no better plan can be devised than the method adopted by the Board. Instead of distracting the minds of the children by obliging them to learn and recollect the names and forms of all the letters before they can advance a single step, they are taught only three or four at a time; and with their names they are taught

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* M. Jacotot would take up almost any book, open the first page, teach his pupils to read the first word, then the second, and so on. Suppose it were "Paradise Lost," he would proceed in this way:—After directing them to fix their eyes on the first line, he would pronounce the word "*Of*," and desire them to repeat it after him.

"This," he would observe, is the first word in the line, and it is composed of the two first marks that you see there. Now observe their shape, for they will soon occur again, and, of course you will like to recognize them! Can you describe them?"

"Yes, Sir! The first is round like a little ring or circle; and the second is a straight line curved or bent at the top, with a little cross line at the middle."

"Very well! Now let us take the next word—'*man's*.' How many marks or letters are there in this word?"

"Four!"

"Are any of them like the first two?"

Here every eye will run from letter to letter for the purpose of comparison.

"No, sir; they are different marks!"

"Well, repeat these two words, and pass on to the next—'*first*.' Now, is there any mark or letter in this word which you have seen before?"

"O yes, Sir! the first letter in this word is the same as the last letter of the first word!"

"Very well; repeat these three words and proceed to the next—'*disobedience*.' This is a long word; you must take care to pronounce it distinctly. Now, do you recognize any marks or letters in it which you met with before?"

"Yes! Here is one, and there is another: and here is the second mark again!"

"Very well; but would you not like to have some name to distinguish these marks, just as you do your school-fellows, instead of saying 'This letter and that letter,' or 'The first letter or the second letter?'

"O yes! we would, Sir."

Then he would *name* and make them *pronounce* the letter, &c.

their uses also, which plan renders their lessons, not only easy, but also practically interesting.

PHONIC METHOD OF TEACHING THE ALPHABET.

Except in a few cases, there is no resemblance between the *names* and the *sounds* of the letters. Name, for instance, the letters in any word or syllable, and compare the sound thus produced with the sound of the entire word or syllable, and the dissimilarity between the *names* and the *sounds* of the letters will be strikingly exemplified. What similarity, for instance, is there between the sounds *pee-aiche-wi-ess-i-see* and the word *physic?* Or, between the sounds *en-i-gee-aiche-tee* and the word *night?* Or, in short, between the *sound* or pronunciation of any word and the names of the letters which compose it? Even the simplest syllable, if resolved in this way, exhibits the dissimilarity between the *names* and the *sounds* of the letters. The syllable *ma*, for instance, if resolved into the *names* of the two letters which compose it—or, in other words, if SPELLED, is sounded or pronounced *em-may*.

Hence it has been proposed (originally by the Port Royal Society) to change the *names* of the CONSONANTS, so as to make them expressive of their *sounds*. Thus, instead of calling them *bee, see, dee, ef, gee, aiche, kay, ell, em, en, pee, kew, err, ess, tee, vee, ecks, zed* which names have little or no similarity with the sounds of the letters in composition, they are called according to the new nomenclature, *be, ce, de, ghe, he, le, me, ne, pe, ke, re, se, te, ve, xe, ze*. The difference between the *old* and the *new* names of the consonants is not so striking in our language as it is in French, in which the change was first made. It consist in this: in the one case, the consonants are pronounced fully, as *bee, dee,* &c.: while in the other, the *mute* or silent *e* added to each gives them a faint and echo-like sound. We have no open vowel which expresses the short and feeble sound of the French e mute; but the sound of the e in *battery* comes near it; also, the short *u*, as in *tub*, and o in the phrase, what o'clock is it?

The advantage of the new nomenclature of the consonants will strike us most in the case of *f, h, l, m, n, r,* and *s*. For if we join any of them to a sound or syllable beginning with a vowel, the correspondence between their sounds and their names will be evident: for instance, *l, m, n,* or *s*, joined to *et*, makes *let, met, net,* or *set*.

With this improvement, or innovation, in alphabetic teaching, there is another generally connected with it, called SYLLABIC SPELLING. That is, in learning to read, the pupil is not required to *spell* or name the letters in a syllable, as *a-b, ab, e-b, eb, b-i, bi,* &c. ; but merely to pronounce the sound, or syllable, without decomposing it. A modification of this method has been introduced into this country by Mrs. Williams in a publication called "Syllabic Spelling," or a summary method of teaching children to read; and the PHONIC method of teaching the Alphabet, about to be introduced by Mr. Kay Shuttleworth, under the auspices of the Committee of Council on Education, is the same in principle. For an interesting account of this method, see No. 647, of the Saturday Magazine.*

READING.

IN the preface of the First Book of Lessons, and in a few words, the foundation of not only the EXPLANATORY or INTELLECTUAL method of teaching, but of GOOD READING, is laid. "It is recommended to teachers to make their pupils perfectly acquainted with one lesson before they proceed to another; and to exercise them as much as possible upon the *meaning* of such words and sentences, as admit of being defined and explained." The teachers, therefore, from the very first, are expected to lead their pupils to inquire into, and consequently understand, *the meaning* of the words and sentences which they meet with in their lesson. Now, such a *habit* is the shortest and surest road to *good reading ;* for all the authorities agree, that, to read with *propriety* and *expression*, requires a person *to understand what he reads.*

The *other instruction* to our teachers in this important sentence, namely, that "their pupils are to be made perfectly acquainted with one lesson before they proceed to another," is also, in the highest degree, conducive to good readiug. If the children are instructed in this way, their lessons, which have been drawn up on the *progressive*

* The Constructive Method of Teaching, by J. P. Shuttleworth, Esq.

principle, will be comparatively *easy*, and they will consequently experience no difficulty in pronouncing the words, or *reading*. But, if any of the lessons in the series are omitted,—or if the pupils are taken over them in a hurried or careless manner, *difficulties* and *discouragement*, and BAD READING, will be the result. If a child feels no difficulty in reading, he can, and if properly instructed, will, from habit, pay attention to the meaning of what he reads; but if the contrary is the case, his mind will be too much engrossed with the mechanical difficulty of pronouncing the words, to think of the ideas which they convey. It is only when a child can read *without difficulty*, that he begins to pay attention to the meaning of what he reads; and when he does so, he will not only become a good reader, but what is of still greater importance, he will begin to feel a pleasure in reading.

As *understanding what is read* is the great rule for good reading, children should be *habituated* from the first, to give an uninterrupted attention to the meaning of what they read. With this view, they should be frequently and regularly called upon to close their books, and to give in their own language the substance of the sentence or passage just read. Such questioning, it is evident, fixes the attention of the children upon the subject of their lesson; and the answering in their own words, gives them a habit of expressing themselves in suitable language.

At first, and perhaps for a considerable time, teachers will find some difficulty in applying the *explanatory* or *intellectual* method. Children will often be slow to speak, or perhaps silent, even when able to give the required explanation, and time, so precious in a large school, will, in consequenee, be lost. But this is because they have not been *accustomed* to give explanations. "Exercise them," therefore, from the beginning, "as much as possible upon the meaning of such words and sentences as admit of being defined and explained." *Begin with the easiest and most familiar words*; and express yourself satisfied with almost any explanation the child may be able to give—provided he has a conception of its meaning. Do not *wait* for, nor *expect* accurate—nor *any definitions*, from children. Encourage them to say *just what they think of it*, and they will soon learn to describe it with ease and correctness.

Another rule for GOOD READING, is to read *slowly*, and *distinctly*; AND JUST AS WE SPEAK. The first part of this rule is expressed by the good old couplet,

> "Learn to read slow, all other graces
> Will follow in their proper places."

The second part of it requires an observation.—To read as we speak—that is, *naturally*, and with expression, is an excellent rule;* but if our *natural manner* or *accent* be faulty, we should endeavour to correct, rather than *imitate* it. "When I had begun to teach *reading*," Pestalozzi has observed, "I found out after a while, that my pupils wanted first to be taught *speaking*;" and this led him to commence with "*pronunciation*." Before his pupils were taught *reading*, or even the *alphabet*, he exercised them in *pronouncing*

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* READING AND SPEAKING.—"The object of *correct* Reading is to convey to the hearers, through the medium of the ear, what is conveyed to the reader by the eye;—to put them in the same situation with him who has the book before him; to exhibit to them, in short, by the voice, not only each word, but also all the stops, paragraphs, italic characters, notes of interrogation, &c., which his sight presents to him. His voice seems to indicate to them, 'thus and thus it is written in the book or manuscript before me.' *Impressive* Reading superadds to this some degree of adaptation of the tone of voice, to the character of the subject, and of the style. What is usually termed *fine* Reading, seems to convey in addition to these, a kind of admonition to the hearers, respecting the feelings which the composition ought to excite in them: it appears to say, 'this deserves your admiration;' 'this is sublime;' 'this is pathetic,' &c. But speaking, that is, *natural* speaking, when the speaker is uttering his own sentiments, and is thinking exclusively of *them*, has something in it distinct from all this: it conveys, by the sounds which reach the ear, the idea that what is said is the effusion of the speaker's own mind, which he is desirous of imparting to others. A decisive proof of which is, that if any one overhears the voice of another, to whom he is an utter stranger—suppose in the next room, without being able to catch the sense of what is said, he will hardly ever be for a moment at a loss to decide whether he is *reading* or *speaking*; and this, though the hearer may not be one who has ever paid any critical attention to the various modulations of the human voice. So wide is the difference of the tone employed on these two occasions, be the subject what it may."

The same distinguished author gives the following admirable rule for giving to reading, "something of the vivacity and interesting effect of real, earnest speaking":—

"The reader is to draw off his mind as much as possible from the thought that he *is* reading, as well as from all thought respecting his own utterance: to fix his mind as earnestly as possible on the *matter*, and to strive to adopt as his *own*, and as his *own at the moment of utterance*, every sentiment he delivers; and to say it to the audience in the manner in which the occasion and subject spontaneously suggest to him who has abstracted his mind from all consideration of *himself*, and from the consideration that he is reading."—*Archbishop Whately's Rhetoric.*

with propriety and ease, all the elementary sounds, and most of the difficult combinations. Several have adopted this plan, which is an excellent one; *pronunciation cannot be taught too early.* Mos children fall into a *monotonous* habit of reading, which cannot be too speedily remedied. The best way to break a child of this, is make him read *dialogues.* If the dialogue alternates briskly, he pupil, by personating both speakers, will, particularly if he feels an interest in the subject of it, soon learn to change his tone, and vary his manner.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

Teachers, instead of occupying the time of their pupils in the useless drudgery of committing to memory the uninteresting, and endless columns of a dictionary, or spelling-book, are strongly recommended to adopt the improved method of teaching orthography, namely, by dictation. It is simply this: The teacher reads a sentence from a book, or dictates one of his own composing to the pupil, who either writes it down verbatim, or merely spells the words as they occur, as if he were writing them down. This practical plan of teaching orthography, does not, however, entirely supersede the use of spelling-books. There should at least be a text-book on the subject, which the pupil may be made to consult, when necessary, and to which even the teacher may occasionally refer with advantage. This text-book should contain either in columns, or in sentences formed for dictation, almost all the words in the language which are liable to be mis-spelled,* such as:—

1. Words similarly pronounced, but differently spelled.
2. Words similarly spelled, but differently pronounced and applied.
3. Words spelled and pronounced alike, but differing in signification.
4. Practical rules for spelling.
5. All words of unsettled orthography.

* Such a Text Book has been supplied by the author, under the name of "The Spelling Book Superseded, or Exercises on Orthography, Etymology, and Verbal Distinctions."

THESE WORDS and SENTENCES in which they occur, or are worked up by the teacher, should be dictated to the pupils, who should either spell every word as it occurs, or if they are competent, write down the entire sentence on their slates. The latter mode is preferable, for no person arrives at accuracy in spelling till he has frequent occasion to write.

In the absence* of a text-book, containing the *difficulties of orthography*, the teacher must have recourse to the *reading* books. Let him make his pupils spell and explain the words at the head of each lesson, before commencing to read it; and, after the lesson is over, let him direct them to close their books, and spell any word or *sentence* he may select from it.

The practical superiority of such a plan is obvious. For the language of letters, and of composition in general, consists of such combinations of words as occur in the pages of a reading-book—not of words syllabically and alphabetically arranged, as we see in the columns of a spelling-book. Let the reader who may be disposed to dissent, dictate in the manner recommended, a few familiar sentences to a young person who has learned orthography from the columns of his spelling-book only, and, unless we are greatly mistaken, the inferiority of the old plan will be evinced by the erroneous spelling of some, perhaps, of the easiest and most familiar words.†

But how, it may be inquired, are children, without dictionaries or spelling-books, to learn the MEANING of words? By being accustom-

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* And even in connexion with such a text book this plan should be used.

† The sound or pronunciation of a word will not enable us to spell it, because, as we have seen in page 8, the same sounds are often represented by different signs or letters. The words *meet*, *mete*, and *meat*, for example, are spelled differently, though the sound or pronunciation of each is the same. To spell a word correctly, therefore, we must be well acquainted with it. We must know its meaning or signification, and the identical letters which compose it. The *sound* of it is not sufficient; we must know how it looks: and this the eye will enable us to do, for, as has been well said by an American writer, "the eye is such cases may be said to remember." Hence, when we are in doubt as to which of two ways a word should be spelled, it is a good rule to write down both, and the eye will enable us to decide which is correct. Hence, too, persons that write or even read much are, in general, correct spellers; for their eyes are so well acquainted with the form or appearance of the words, that they can at once detect the errors which arise from wrong or omitted letters.

ed to give, in their own language, their own ideas of every unusual and important word which occurs in their READING-LESSONS; the teacher, of course, correcting them when wrong, and explaining to them, when necessary, the proper meaning of the term in question; or referring them for this information to their dictionaries, which should always be at hand for their legitimate use.

In confirmation of the recommendations here made, we subjoin the opinions of the Edgeworths and of other eminent educationists on the subject of SPELLING and SPELLING-BOOKS.

SPELLING comes next to reading. New trials for the temper; new perils for the understanding; positive rules and arbitrary exceptions; endless examples and contradictions; till at length, out of all patience with the stupid docility of his pupil, the tutor perceives the absolute necessity of making him get by heart with all convenient speed every word in the language. The formidable columns rise in dread succession. Months and years are devoted to the undertaking; but after going through a whole spelling-book, perhaps a whole dictionary, till we come triumphantly to spell *Zeugma*, we have forgotten how to spell *Abbot*, and we must begin again with *Abasement*. Merely the learning to spell so many unconnected words, without any assistance from reason or analogy, is nothing compared with the difficulty of learning the explanation of them by rote, and the still greater difficulty of understanding the meaning of the explanation. When a child has got by rote—

"Midnight, the *depth* of night;"
"Metaphysics, the science which treats of immaterial beings, and of forms in general abstracted from matter;"

has he acquired any very distinct ideas either of midnight or of metaphysics? If a boy had eaten rice pudding till he fancied himself tolerably well acquainted with rice, would he find his knowledge much improved by learning from his spelling-book the words

"Rice, a foreign esculent grain?"

yet we are surprised to discover, that men have so few accurate ideas, and that so many learned disputes originate in a confused or improper use of word.

"All this is very true," says a candid schoolmaster; "we see the evil, but we cannot new-model the language, or write a perfect philosophical dictionary; and in the mean time we are bound to teach children to spell, which we do with the less reluctance, because, though we allow that it is an arduous task, we have found from experience that it can be accomplished, and that the understandings of many of our pupils survive all the perils to which you think them exposed during the operation."

Their understandings may, and do survive the operation; but why should they be put in unnecessary danger? and why should we early disgust children with literature by the pain and difficulty of their first lessons? We are convinced that the business of learning to spell is made much laborious to children than it need to be: it may be useful to give them five or six words every day to learn by heart, but more only loads their memory: and we should at first select words of which they know the meaning, and which occur most frequently in reading or conversation. The alphabetical list of words in a spelling-book contains many which are not in common use, and the pupil forgets these as fast as he learns them. We have found it entertaining to children, to ask them to spell any short sentence as it has been accidentally spoken. "Put this book on that table." Ask a child how he would spell those words if he were obliged to write them down, and you introduce into his mind the idea that he must learn to spell before he can make his thoughts understood in writing. It is a good way to make children write down a few words of their own selection every day, and correct the spelling; and also after they have been reading, whilst the words are yet fresh in their memory, we may ask them to spell some of the words which they have just seen; by these means, and by repeating at different times in the day those words which are most frequently wanted, his vocabulary will be pretty well stocked without its having cost him many tears. We should observe, that children learn to spell more by the eye than by the ear, and that the more they read and write, the more likely they will be to remember the combination of letters in words which they have continually before their eyes, or which they feel it necessary to represent to others. When young people begin to write, they first feel the use of spelling, and it is then that they will learn it with most ease and precision. Then the greatest care should be taken to look over their writing, and to make them correct every word in which they have made a mistake; because bad habits of spelling, once contracted, can scarcely be cured: the understanding has nothing to do with the business; and when the memory is puzzled between the rules of spelling right and the habit of spelling wrong, it becomes a misfortune to the pupil to write even a common letter. The shame which is annexed to bad spelling excites young people's attention, as soon as they are able to understand that it is considered as a mark of ignorance and ill-breeding. We have often observed, that children listen with anxiety to the remarks that are made on this subject in their presence, especially when the letters or notes of *grown-up people* are criticised.

Some time ago, a lady, who was reading a newspaper, met with a story of an ignorant magistrate, who gave for his toast at a public dinner "the two Ks," for the King and Constitution. "How very much ashamed the man must have felt, when all the people laughed at him for his mistake! they must all have seen that he did not know how to spell; and what a disgrace for a magistrate too!" said a boy who heard the anecdote. It made a serious impression upon him; a

few months afterwards, he was employed by his father in an occupation which was extremely agreeable to him, but in which he continually felt the necessity of spelling correctly. He was employed to send messages by a telegraph; these messages he was obliged to write down hastily in little journals kept for the purpose; and as these were seen by several people when the business of the day came to be reviewed, the boy had a considerable motive for orthographical exactness. He became extremely desirous to teach himself, and consequently his success was from that moment certain. As to the rest, we refer to Lady Carlisle's comprehensive maxim, "Spell well if you can."

The following is from "Wood's Account of the Edinburgh Sessional School:"

In the Sessional School, the children are now taught to *spell* from their ordinary reading lessons, employing for this purpose both the short and the long words as they occur. Under the former practice in the school, of selecting merely what are longer and apparently more difficult words, we very frequently found the pupils unable to spell the shorter and more common ones, which we still find by no means uncommon in those who come to us from some other schools. By making the pupil, too, spell the lesson, just as he would write it, he is less liable to fall in future life into the common error of substituting the word *their* for *there*, and others of a similar kind. In former times, the practice prevailed of telling a long story about every word which was spelt: thus, in spelling the word exemplification, for instance, even a child in the higher classes used to say, "*e x*, ex; *e m*, em, exem; *p l i*, ple, exemple; *f i*, fe, exemplefe; *c a*, ca, exemplefeca; *t i o n*, shun, exemplefecashun; six syllables, and accented on the penult syllable." This, obviously, as a general practice, was a great waste of time, and is, we believe, almost universally exploded. In our own school, the pupil, in spelling, merely names the letters, making a marked pause at the end of each syllable. If the child, too, be required to pronounce the word correctly, there can be no necessity in every case for the *technicalism*, (if we may so speak), of naming the accented syllable, more than for specifying the particular sound of each vowel in the word.

The following extract is from "Thayer's Lecture on Spelling and Definitions," (delivered before the American Institute of Instruction):*

I have said nothing of the practice, once so common, of assigning lessons in spelling and defining from the columns of a dictionary, sweeping through the whole, from the letter A. to the last word under Z,—if the pupil continued long enough at school to accomplish it,—for I cannot suppose it to have come down to this day. If it had,

* Published by Knight in the Schoolmaster.

however, I should feel impelled to pronounce it one of the most stupid and useless exercises ever introduced into a school—compared with which, the "committing to memory" indiscriminately of all the pages of an almanac would be agreeable, beneficial, and instructive.

To say that it would be impossible to remember the definitions thus abstractly learned, would be to assert what must be perfectly obvious to every one. And even if they could be remembered, they would be of little utility; for as the right application of a definition must depend entirely on the situation of the word to be explained and the office it performs in a sentence, the repeating of half a score of meanings, as obscure perhaps as the word itself, conveys no definite thought, and serves rather to darken than illuminate the mind.

As a book of reference a dictionary is useful; although it must be confessed that, even with the best, one often finds himself obliged to make his own explanation, in preference to any furnished by the lexicographer; and the teacher or the pupil who relies exclusively on his dictionary—without the exercise of much discretion—for the definition of whatever words he may find in the course of his studies, will not unfrequently fall into very awkward and absurd mistakes.

Experience and common sense must lend their aid—the former to teach us what is practicable; and the latter what is appropriate and useful.

Notwithstanding all that has been said and written against the old and absurd practice of loading the memories of children, day after day, and year after year, with heaps of unconnected, and, to them, unmeaning words, many teachers, particularly of schools in remote districts, continue to use spelling books and dictionaries "in the old way." And even in some schools of a superior class the practice is persevered in, because, as the teachers will tell you, the parents of the children like to see them thumbing over their "spellings and meanings" in the evenings at home. Besides, as we have heard an intelligent and *candid* teacher, who admitted the absurdity of the practice, say, "It is an easy way *for the teacher* of keeping children employed." Now this we admit, for however great the difficulty and drudgery may be to the children, it is an easy *way for the teacher* of keeping them employed.

That SPELLING may be learned more easily and more effectually without SPELLING BOOKS, must be evident from what we have said and quoted. And that a person may learn to spell without ever having a spelling-book in his hand, is certain; for there is nothing of the kind used in teaching Latin, French, or any foreign language; and yet we never hear that the persons who have learned any of these languages find any difficulty in writing or *spelling* the words.

WRITING.

IN teaching to WRITE, *more than ordinary attention is paid to beginners.* An hour's instruction to a pupil when first beginning to write, is worth a week's after he has contracted a careless or improper habit of managing his pencil or pen. *To teach is easy,* but *to unteach is difficult,* is of general application; but to *writing* it is particularly applicable. Before the children, therefore, are permitted to use the pen, or even pencil and slate, the writing master *teaches* them how they should be held; the proper movement of the hand; and the most improved position of the body.

When the children are thoroughly instructed in these preliminaries, they commence with the *elements* of writing, and *in classes.*

The elementary forms of written characters are

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All the children in this class write the same *element, letter,* or *copy.* They commence at the same moment, and are expected to finish about the same time; and as soon as one line is written, an examination takes place. The pupils are directed to *compare* what they have written with the *copy* before them, and to find out the *defects* in their *imitation of it.* The master then takes up one of the slates, or copy-books, and calls upon its owner, or any of the other pupils, to state what is *defective* in this, or that *letter;* and the answer will probably be, that it is either '*too long,*' or '*too short,*' or '*too wide,*' or '*too close,*' or '*too much,*' or '*too little sloped.*' The master will then, very likely, observe, "I am glad to find that *you know how* the letter should be *shaped,* and *proportioned;* by *comparing* what you write with the *copy* before you, and endeavouring to make *every line,* and *every letter,* BETTER *than the preceding one,* you will soon become good writers. And let me tell you, if you do not endeavour to make every line, and every letter, better than the preceding one, *you are not learning to write at all*—you are merely covering paper with ink." Always keep in mind that it is QUALITY, not QUANTITY, that is required in *writing.* Carrless writing is not merely a waste of time and paper; it is laying the foundation of a *bad method of writing,* which, if once confirmed, it will be impossible to remedy.

It is evident that children so *initiated*, and so *instructed*, by the master in their first attempts at writing, will, as the old copy says,

"By diligence and care, soon learn to write fair."

Writing in classes has many advantages. It produces among the children an emulation, or rather a desire of excelling; and it enables the master to teach ten or fifteen pupils almost as easily as one. It is also a more *social* way of teaching. Commencing each line at the same moment, and at the word of command, tends to produce that *uniformity* and *order*, so pleasing, and so *necessary* in large schools.

ARRANGEMENTS FOR WRITING.

Each class occupies a desk, and over each a monitor is appointed, whose business is to assist the writing-master. A minute or two before the time appointed for writing, the monitor places the pens on the desks, one before the place of each writer, and their copy-books on the end of the desk. Each pupil, in passing up the desk, takes his book, and holding it before him, remains standing until all the writers have taken their stations. The command is then given by the writing-master—

Front! — Take up pens!
In! — Attention!*
Open books! — Begin!

When the writing-lesson is over, the master, or superintending monitor, having sounded his bell, calls,

Writers! — Hands down!
Clean pens! — Monitors, collect pens!
Show copies!

If the lesson is on SLATES, the commands are—

Show slates! — Slates, in!
Recover slates! — Arms across!
Clean slates! — Turn out!

In this way, as nearly as practicable, children are taught WRITING, from the *elementary forms*, to *business*, and *ornamental hands*.

They are also regularly instructed in PEN-MAKING, and MENDING.

* Namely, to receive *previous* instruction or admonition from the writing-master.

Accuracy in executing the *forms* and *proportions* of the letters, is first to be attained; *facility*, and *rapidity*, will be acquired by *practice*.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

As a regular treatise on Grammar has been published by the Board for the use of their schools, a few observations on this subject will suffice. "Though grammar be usually amongst the first things taught, it is always one of the last things understood," has been observed by an eminent authority;* and the truth of this observation is obvious to every one. Almost all the children at every school in the country are said to be learning grammar; and yet how few, even of those who have gone regularly through all the definitions, rules, and exceptions, can be said to have any real or practical knowledge of the subject. This arises not so much from the difficulty of grammar, as from the injudicious methods generally employed in teaching it.

Long before a grammar is put into the hands of the pupils in our schools, they are made practically acquainted with the principal parts of speech; particularly *nouns*, *verbs*, *adjectives*, and *adverbs*. In fact, in teaching grammar, also,‡ we begin with general views and leading principles. We tell them that all the words in the language are reduced to *nine* distinct classes; and that to know these nine classes, is to become acquinted with more than fifty thousand words.‡ We then gradually introduce them to the several classes; and first, to the *noun* or *substantive*, which we inform them is the *name* of any *person, place*, or *thing*. We then add in explanation, that the word NOUN means a *name*, and the SUBSTANTIVE, any thing that has *substance* or *existence*. Hence, every word which expresses existence, either real or supposed, is said to be a *noun* or *substantive*. Thus the words *man, horse, book*, are said to be nouns or substantives, because they are the *names* of things which *exist*; and the terms *virtue, vice, beauty*, are also said to be nouns or substantives, because they are the *names* of things which are *supposed*

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* J. Horne Tooke, in the "Diversions of Purley."

‡ *Also*—As well as in Geography.

‡ Todd's Johnson's Dictionary contains 57,888 words; and Webster's, 64,236.

to *exist*; that is, we think of them, and speak of them, as if they *actually existed*. The following examples will serve to make this intelligible. The words in *italic* are nouns, because they are the names of things *existing in nature*; and the words in SMALL CAPITALS are also nouns, because they are the *names* of things *existing in the understanding*; that is, we have an *idea* or notion of them; and we speak of them, and reason about them with as much certainty as if they actually existed before our eyes: nay, we attribute *actions* to them as if they were persons or agents:—

The *king* exalted him: VIRTUE exalted him.

The *king* degraded him: VICE degraded him.

The *jury* acquitted him: his CONSCIENCE acquitted him.

The *judge* condemned him: his CONSCIENCE condemned him.

For my *father's* sake hear me! for PITY'S sake hear me!

John is cold: *ice* is cold: CHARITY is cold.

The *farmer* stores his *barn* with *grain*: the *scholar* stores his MIND with KNOWLEDGE.

PROPER nouns are the names which are *proper* or *appropriated* to individual persons, places, mountains, seas, and rivers; as *John*, *Dublin*, the *Alps*, the *Atlantic*, the *Shannon*. COMMON nouns are so called, because they are the *common* or general names of individuals or things of the same species or sort. Thus the name *man* is common to, or may be applied to every man; but *John* is the PROPER or peculiar name of an individual. In the same way *city*, *ocean*, *river*, are *common* or general names; but *Dublin*, the *Atlantic*, the *Shannon*, are *proper* or peculiar.

Having given the pupils an idea of the *noun* or *substantive*, we call upon them to *name* all the objects which they see in the room; as *chair*, *table*, *book*, *desk*, &c. &c. All these words, they will readily understand, are to be CLASSED as *nouns* or *substantives*. They are next desired to mention all the things which, though not the objects of their senses, they *have an idea of*, or *can think about*; as, *goodness*, *happiness*, *sweetness*, &c. They are also frequently called upon to point out all the *nouns* or *substantives* in any sentence or passage assigned to them, and to state what kind of noun each of them is, whether it is a *real* or an *abstract*, a *common* or a *proper* noun. This hunting after nouns or particular parts of speech, is an animating and always a favourite exercise with children.

Having made the pupils perfectly acquainted with the nature of the *noun,* they are introduced to the ADJECTIVE, which we inform them is a word *added to,* or put along with a noun to express some *quality* or distinguishing circumstance respecting it; as, a GOOD *man,* a FINE *day.* Nouns of the same species or sort *differ* from each other in several respects; and hence the necessity for additional words to express such *differences.* Such words are called ADJECTIVES, because they are *added to,* or put along with nouns. For example, one man may *differ* from the generality of men by being *tall* or *short; old* or *young; rich* or *poor; learned* or *ignorant; good* or *bad,* &c. Again, one day may *differ* from another day by being *wet* or *dry; cold* or *warm; pleasant* or *unpleasant,* &c. The similarity of *egg* to *egg* is proverbial, and yet eggs even of the same bird may *differ* from each other in *size, shape, colour,* &c. Hence, when we wish to describe an egg accurately, or to distinguish it from another, we are obliged to employ ADJECTIVES: as *small* or *large; long* or *round; fresh* or *stale,* &c.

When the nature of the *adjective* has been fully explained to the pupils, they are exercised in enumerating the distinguishing qualities or properties in the objects around them; as their *size, shape, colour,* &c. They may be led to discover that "the chair" which they pointed out before as a "noun," may be *large* or *small;* "the table" *square* or *round;* "the desk" *old* or *new;* and so on with the other objects in the school-room. Other objects, whose qualities are obvious and striking, should next be brought under their notice. For example, let the teacher hold up an apple, and ask them to state *what kind of an apple it is?* and the answer will probably be that it is either a *large* or a *small* apple; a *sweet* or a *sour,* or a *ripe* or an *unripe* one. He should also vary the exercise by writing upon his BLACK BOARD the name of an obvious *quality,* such as *sweet, round, black, white,* &c.. and call upon the pupils to tell him any thing that is "sweet," or "round," or "black," or "white," and they will vie with each other in enumerating the objects in which these qualities are found. They will most probably call out—"sugar is sweet;" "honey is sweet;" "apples are sweet;" "cakes are sweet," &c.

"A ball is round;" "a marble is round;" "an orange is round;" "a globe is round," &c.

"Ink* is black;" "coals are black;" "a hat* is black," &c. "Milk is white;" "snow is white;" "paper* is white."

Their notice is next directed to the VERB, which they are told is a word which implies *action*, or the *doing of something*; as, to *speak*, to *read*, to *walk*, to *run*, &c. "To be" and "to suffer" are too difficult for the comprehension of children; nor is it necessary to include either in the definition of the verb. In fact, "to be" or "to exist" may be said to come under the general definition, for the terms imply *the doing* of something, namely, to carry on the functions of life, or *to live*. When "to be" or "to exist" signifies to *live*, this explanation is evident enough; but when the term is extended to things incapable of life, it appears to fail. But even in such cases the general meaning may be made out; as "Herculaneum no longer exists," that is, no longer OCCUPIES a place in the world." "There *is* an island in the watery waste," that is, an island *exists* or OCCUPIES a space in the ocean.†

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* In such instances the teacher should observe, or rather lead the pupils to observe that, though *black* is the ordinary colour of ink and hats, yet there is *red* ink, and *blue* and *white* hats and *brown* hats. This will be another proof to them of the necessity for *adjectives*, to *distinguish* nouns of the same species from each other.

† This explanation of "*the substantive-verb*," TO BE, is perhaps inadmissable. But even so, we prefer the definition here recommended to those usually given, because it applies generally to all verbs, and particularly *because it is more easily comprehended by children*. The *logical* account of the verb is also easily understood, namely, that its essence consists in *asserting* something about a *noun* or nominative. The NOUN, they say, is the thing or *subject* about which we apeak, and the VERB is the *word* which expresses what we think or assert about it. ["Alterum est *quod* loquimur; alterum *de quo* loquimur."] Hence in every sentence the *nominative* is called the SUBJECT, and the *verb* the PREDICATE.

We subjoin the usual definitions of this important part of speech:—

DR. LOWTH says, "A verb is a word which signifies to be, to do, or suffer." He also states, when speaking of the PARTICIPLE, "But if the essence of the verb be made to consist in *affirmation*, not only the participle will be excluded from its place in the verb, but the infinitive itself also, which certain ancient grammarians, of great authority, held to be alone the genuine verb."

DR. CROMBIE says, "Its essence consists in affirmation, and by this property it is distinguished from every other part of speech. Without it there could be no communication of sentiment; and hence it was called by the ancient grammarians the *verb* or *the word*, by way of eminence."

COBBETT, after stating that the mind of man is unable to bring the whole of the verbs into any short and precise description, says, "Verbs are then a sort of words, the use of which is to express the *actions*, the *movements*, and the *state* or *manner of being* of all creatures, whether animate or inanimate."

In the same way many other verbs which do not appear to express action, as to *sit*, to *stand*, to *lie*, to *sleep*, &c., may be brought under the general definition; for all these words signify to *do something*. The following *questions* and *answers* make this evident: *What is* he *doing?* He *is sitting*. *What* do you *do?* I *stand*. *What are* they *doing?* They *are sleeping*.

Before proceeding further, great care is taken to show the pupils that the same word may, *just as it is used*, be a *noun*, or an *adjective*, or a *verb*, or in short any part of speech. If a word is used to denote a *thing*, it is a *noun*; if to express *quality*, it is an *adjective*; and if it implies *action*, or to *do* something, it is a *verb*. For instance, in the sentence "After a storm comes a *calm*," the word "calm" is a *noun* or substantive; in "a calm day" it is an *adjective*; and in "to calm the sea," or our passions, it is a *verb*. In the same way the words *damp*, *wet*, *water*, *salt*, *cross*, and hundreds of others which will occur to the reader, may be used as *nouns*, *adjectives*, or *verbs*. Even words which are naturally nouns, as the *head*, the *eye*, the *hand*, the *finger*, &c., may be used as *adjectives*, or *verbs*; as the *head* master, *to head* an army; an *eye* glass, to *eye* a person; a *hand* basket, *to hand* a seat; a *finger* ring, *to finger* any thing.

In a similar way they are made practically acquainted with the other parts of speech. *Number*,* *Gender*,* *Case*,* *Person*,* and *Tense* or TIME* are also familiarly explained to them long before

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* In explaining NUMBER as *one*, or *more* than one, the teacher will have no difficulty, that is, if he takes the natural and proper course. In fact, every child that knows any thing, knows the difference between the singular and the plural number. If a child has been promised *more than one* apple, he will not be satisfied at receiving only *one*; he will expect *apples* instead of *an apple*. The teacher, therefore, has only to draw the attention of his pupils to the difference between the form of the singular and the plural word—between the words *apple* and *apples* for instance, and they will at once see that it consists in the addition of the letter *s*. To fix this fact in their minds, let him call upon them to give the singular and the plural of the objects around them; as, *chair*, *chairs*; *table*, *tables*; *book*, *books*; *slate*, *slates*, &c.

Having learned the GENERAL RULE for forming the plurals of nouns, they will soon discover the exceptions to it. In fact, as they are words in common use, they are practically acquainted with most of them. He will be a very young pupil, indeed, who will say *loafs* of bread instead of *loaves*; or *foots* for *feet*; or *sheeps* for *sheep*, &c. The teacher, therefore, has only to name the exceptions, in the singular number, and his pupils will, in general, give their plurals correctly, even though they may never

they enter upon the regular grammar lessons. In fact, the majority of the children in our schools are taught grammar only in this way; and not a few of them, it may be safely asserted, have a more practical knowledge of grammatical principles than many pupils at schools of a higher class, who have committed to memory all the definitions, rules, and exceptions of the most approved grammars.

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have had a grammar in their hands. In several cases, they will of themselves see the reason or necessity for the departure from the general rule. In words ending in *x*, for instance, as *box*, the plural could not, except in writing, be distinguished from the singular, if the general rule were followed. For as *s* cannot be sounded after *x*, *box* and *boxs* would be no difference in conversation between the singular and the plural of words ending in *x*. The same may be said of words ending in *ss*, *sh*, or *ch soft*: as *ass*, *asses*; *brush*, *brushes*; *church*, *churches*.

GENDER.—With regard to *gender*, the English language follows the simplicity of nature. With us it really means the DISTINCTION of SEX; and, except in cases of PERSONIFICATION, the meaning or application of the word indicates its gender; *father*, *mother*; *brother*, *sister*; *boy*, *girl*; *lion*, *lioness*, &c. All therefore, that is necessary to be taught regarding the gender of English nouns may be stated in a few words.

CASE.—The grammatists formerly claimed six cases for English nouns (in imitation of the six Latin cases); but now they are satisfied with three, namely, the Nominative, Possessive, and Objective. In the Personal PRONOUNS these three cases are exemplified; as *I*, *mine*, *me*; but our NOUNS or substantives have, strictly speaking, no cases except the *Possessive*. It is the only case of a substantive which is formed by *inflection*; and it is, consequently, the only one in which a mistake can be made. The pupils, therefore should be made quite familiar with the formation of those possessive case of nouns, and the proper position of the APOSTROPHE.

PERSON.—This case, so familar in common parlance, is very puzzling to children, in grammar. A verb, they are told, implies *action* and not a *person*; and yet verbs are said to have three persons, the first, second, and third. It will be easy for the teacher to explain to them that it is with reference to its *nominative* that a verb is said to have person. If the *nominative* or agent of a verb is a pronoun of the *first* person, then the *verb* is said to be in the *first* person as *I am*, *I love*; if the nominative is a pronoun of the *second* person, then the *verb* is said to be in the *second* person, as, THOU *art*, THOU *lovest*: and if the nominative is a NOUN of the *plural* number, then the verb is said to be in the *third* person plural; as BOYS *love*,

It will be easy to recollect, too, that, with the exception of I and THOU, and their plurals, WE and YE or YOU, the other pronouns, HE, SHE, IT, THEY, and ALL SUBSTANTIVES, are of the *third* person, because they are spoken of.

TENSE OR TIME.—The simplicity of the English verb has been sacrificed to the vain attempt at making it conform to the models exhibited in our Latin grammars. In the Latin lanuage, and those more immediately derived from it, as the Italian and French, there are changes in the form or termination of the verb to express the several moods, tenses, and persons; but in the English verb there are forms for two tenses only, the PRESENT and the PAST. The English verb, therefore, has but two tenses—and why should not children have the benefit of this simplicity? The complicated forms which are spread over so many pages of our grammars have really no foundation in the English language. Why

LINEAR DRAWING.

"*Without drawing, there can be no writing*," was a *saying* of Pestalozzi's; and though it is evidently more than '*un peu fort*,' it is to a great extent true. Writing is, in fact, a species of linear drawing; and its acquisition is evidently facilitated by previous exercises in *straight* and *curved lines*, *circles*, and *ovals*. Linear drawing too, besides imparting a facility and freedom of hand, so conducive to good writing, is calculated to give children such a precision and accuracy of eye, as will enable them to conceive clearly, and describe properly, the form and proportions of any object that may come under their observation. "A common peasant," as Mr. Wyse has observed, "will often have occasion to recollect a particular construction, either of a house, instrument, the appearance of

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then puzzle and perplex children with names and forms for mere nonentities? It will be quite time enough for them to learn those moods, and tenses, and voices, when they come to learn the languages in which they really exist.

Even in our simplest grammars there are no less than six different tenses enumerated, though nature and common sense point out only *three* distinctions of time, namely, the *present*, the *past*, and the *future*. A verb signifies *action*, or the doing of something; and as it is quite clear that an action must either be *present*, or going on; *past*, or completed; or *future*, or yet to be done, it is evident every verb must either be in the **PRESENT, PAST, or FUTURE TENSE.** In fact, every child has a clear and correct idea of the great natural divisions of *time*, till he begins to learn the *tenses* in his grammar. Even persons familiar with the five Latin tenses are puzzled when they take up a grammar of the present day.

The PRESENT TENSE we find split up into "—The Present Definite, Present Indefinite, Present Perfect, Present Perfect Progressive, Present Future, Present Future Progressive, Present Future Perfect, and the Present Emphatic."

The PAST TENSE we find subdivided into—"Past Definite, Past Indefinite, Perfect Definite, Perfect Indefinite, Past Emphatic, Prior-past Definite, and Prior-past Indefinite."

And the FUTURE TENSE into—"The Future Definite, Future Indefinite, Prior-future Definite, and Prior-future Indefinite.

In the name of common sence, how are children to learn and recollect these numerous and nice, and, in many cases, useless distinctions! Are we to have rules for every variety of expression, and peculiarity of idiom? If the writers of school grammars cannot simplify and abridge the work which they have taken in hands, surely they ought not to render it more difficult than it really is. The three usual modifications of past time, namely, the Imperfect, the Perfect, and Pluperfect tenses, it is, perhaps useful to teach. Though they have really no foundation in the English language, yet they were early imported into it from the Latin, in which there are dictinct forms to express them. But what shall we say of the others which have been foisted into our grammars without authority, and without necessity? This much we shall say, that it is the duty of teachers and parents to discountenance them, and all useless and pedantic innovations.

a plant, &c. The artisan, the mechanic, absolutely require it. A stroke of a pencil is often worth, in accuracy, to say nothing of the economy of time and labour, a thousand written words."

Linear drawing too, is not only useful, but necessary, in several other branches of education, as in *Constructive Geography, Geometry, Mensuration*, and *Land Surveying*. But enough has been said to show the utility of this branch of education; let us now give an outline of our method of teaching it. The *simultaneous* method is employed in teaching linear drawing. The master draws with chalk on a large black board, conspicuously placed, the *lines* or *figures* which constitute the lesson, and the pupils in large divisions, after receiving the necessary instructions, draw them on their slates, commencing *simultaneously*, as in the writing classes.

The first lessons are *right lines, angles, rectangular figures; curved lines, circles*, and *ovals*; then copies of the *cube, prism, cylinder, cone, sphere*; and finally, the combinations of these figures, as in *boxes, tables, chairs; mechanical* and *agricultural instruments, machines, buildings*, &c.

SINGING.

In the popular National Schools in France and Germany, Singing is regularly and universally taught. In the Manual published for the use of the Primary teachers in France, it is recommended as an important branch of popular education; and, in connection both with the Government and Society* Schools, there are special teachers, and even inspectors, of music. And, in Germany, as Mr. Wyse eloquently informs us, in his valuable work on Education:—

"Every pupils sings; every master plays on that most difficult and magnificent of all instruments, the organ. In fact, travel where you may, the results of this education every where meet you;—in the mountain, in the plain—in the chapel, in the cathedral—you every where hear the music of the human voice; and wherever you hear it, it is impossible not to bow down before it, not to feel yourself profoundly and solemnly moved. Well may Haydn have asserted that the finest things he ever heard in music, did not approach to the effect produced by the uniting of the voices of the London charity

* "La Société pour l'Instruction Elementaire."

children, at the anniversary meeting in St. Paul's Cathedral." "And why," he continues, "are these voices not heard in every church and chapel in the land? why is singing not taught in our schools? A better preservative of pure morals—a more delightful addition to their innocent amusements—a more cheerful stimulant to all their exercises, whether of labour, study, or religion—can scarcely be devised. Nor would its effects be confined to the school-room or to childhood; it would soon penetrate the paternal dwelling; in another generation it would be natural to the land."

Though Singing is not especially nor systematically taught in our National Model Schools, it is far from being neglected.* Portions of the "Sacred Poetry," published by the Board, are sung by the children every day at the opening and closing of their respective schools; and, occasionally,—particularly in marching to and from the play-ground—moral and animating verses. On these occasions the children are led by a small choir of pupils and monitors, who are particularly distinguished for the excellence of their voices, and natural taste for music.

REWARDS AND PUNISHMENTS.

A GENEROUS, and well-regulated emulation is permitted and encouraged in the schools. The children take places in their several classes according to the superiority of their answering; and when a pupil surpasses all his class-fellows, he is promoted in the face of the school, to a higher class; and is presented at the same time with a *merit-ticket,* or with some mark of the master's approbation. Merit-tickets are also given to the pupils for *punctuality in attendance, personal cleanliness, attention to their lessons,* and *general good conduct.* A certain number of such merit-tickets entitles the holder to a National school-book, or copy-book, *gratis.*

The proceeds of the school *for the week* preceding the Christmas and midsummer vacations, are distributed among the pupils according to the number of merit-tickets held by each. The *money* merit-tickets are given only to those boys who act as *unpaid* monitors. The names of all the pupils who distinguish themselves by such marks of their teacher's approbation, are entered in the "*Register of Honor,*" which will always remain in the school, and be open on visiting days for the inspection of their parents, and the public who visit the school.

* Since this was written, Hullah's or Wilhem's system of Singing has been introduced into the Model Schools with great success.

PUNISHMENTS.

No species of punishment is ever resorted to, till all other means have failed; such as *admonition, remonstrance, reproof.*

1st *Punishment*—Confinement in the school-room during a portion, or the whole of the play-time. During the periods of confinement, there should always be a master, pupil-teacher, or monitor, present, to prevent the boys undergoing the punishment, from speaking or communicating with each other. Nor should they be permitted even to leave the seats assigned to them.

2nd *Punishment*—If confinment in the school-room during the period of play, fails of the desired effect, the offender is to be condemned to *idleness,* while his class-fellows are at their lessons. In such cases, the offender is to stand in a corner of the room, with his face to the wall.

If these punishments are found insufficient to reclaim the pupil, the head master sends for his parents; and if they neglect to attend, or are found unwilling or unable to produce a reform in the boy, he is brought before the Professors, who, if there is no hope of his amendment, will recommend the Board to expel him from their school.

NOISE.

THE master, and pupil-teachers, are required to do everything in their power to prevent all *disorderly* and *unnecessary noise.* In fact, LESS NOISE, AND AN INCREASED ATTENTION TO CLEANLINESS, are still *desiderata* in our schools; and the teachers are strictly charged to do everything in their power to prevent the one, and promote the other. It should be recollected, however, that much of the noise complained of, is the noise of *business,* and not of *disorder;* and that it is quite impossible, without considerable noise, and even some appearance of confusion, to make 400 children go through their lessons on the same floor, at the same time. In fact, with the *mutual* or *monitorial* method of teaching, *noise is inseparably connected;* and the larger the school, the greater, of course, must be the evil. To lessen it as much as possible, the teachers are recommended to instruct, and *accustom* the monitors to address their classes in a low but strong and distinct tone of voice. *It is only the children forming*

their classes that require to hear them. They should never, therefore, pitch their voice beyond their own circles, which are seldom more than five or six feet in diameter. When a monitor speaks so as to be heard by the adjoining classes, he is not only noisy himself, but the cause of noise in the others; for he obliges them to raise their voices higher than would, otherwise, be necessary. In a word, NOISE BEGETS NOISE. If one monitor be permitted to speak loud ween addressing his class, all the others must necessarily raise their voices in proportion.

THE LOWER OR SUPPLEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

THE preceding regulations and observations apply generally, to the two lower schools also. One of them, the larger, is intended as a model of a MIXED or *modified* monitorial school for 130 pupils; and as in the upper or principal school, the children are either preparing or repeating their lessons to monitors, in classes—or receiving, in large divisions, in the gallery annexed, simultaneous instruction from the master.

SIMULTANEOUS SCHOOL.

THE remaining school, which consists of about 70 pupils, is intended to exhibit a model for the generality of country schools. It is conducted *without monitors*, the only teachers being one master and a pupil teacher. The method of teaching is consequently *simultaneous*, or in large division.

The SIMULTANEOUS method of instruction differs from the monitorial principally in this, that in the former, the pupils are taught *directly* by the master himself, and not by the intervention of monitors. This is considered the great advantage of the simultaneous method. If the school be large, however, or rather if it cannot be divided into a few classes, the master will be obliged to intrust to some of his more advanced pupils the instruction of certain divisions; or, in other words, he will be under the necessity of applying the monitorial system to a certain extent.

To put into the same division pupils of the same proficiency, and to make the lesson of a few serve for the lesson of many, is the basis of the simultaneous method of instruction.

If all the children attending a school were engaged in learning the same branches, and if they were all equal, or nearly equal, in proficiency and abilities, the whole school, according to this system, would form one class, and receive instruction at the same time. But as this is never the case, the schools under this system are usually divided into three great classes or divisions—1st, 2nd, and 3rd. The French Law, in the third regulation on Primary Schools, expressly enacts that "Every elementary school shall be divided into three great divisions, according to the proficiency of the pupils, and the subjects to be taught." In practice, however, it is often found convenient, and sometimes necessary, to separate these classes into sections or divisions, according as the branches to be taught are applicable to the whole class, or only to a portion of it. In some cases, two classes may be instructed *simultaneously*, and not unfrequently, the entire school.

The teacher, therefore, who wishes to introduce the simultaneous method into his school, should, in the first place, divide it into three great classes, according to the proficiency of the pupils, and the subjects to be taught; and, having assigned to each class its specific duties, he should so arrange that the instruction of each should follow in regular and systematic order. These classes he will sometimes unite, and sometimes separate, just as the subjects to be taught are applicable to two, or three, classes, or only to a division or part of a class.

If the school be small, and the classes few, he will be able to instruct the entire school himself. If the school be large, and the classes numerous, he will be obliged to avail himself of the assistance of some of his more advanced pupils. In short, this system combines the advantages of the *individual* and the *monitorial* methods of instruction; for it so arranges, that the children are either under the direct teaching of the master, or preparing lessons for him, superintended and assisted by the more advanced pupils.

DEPARTURE FROM SCHOOL.

To maintain order in departing from school, the pupils are arranged in groups or divisions, according to the quarter or district of the city in which they reside.

The several groups, or divisions, under the superintendence of certain pupils called *conductors*, are expected to proceed homewards *without noise*, or *disorder of any kind*. They are neither to run, nor loiter, but to walk quietly two by two, separating only as they arrive at their different places of abode.

REGULATIONS REGARDING THE APPOINTMENT, CONDUCT, &c., OF TEACHERS.

Extract from the Ninth Report of Commissioners of National Education, Ireland.

1. The appointment of Teachers rests with the Local Patrons and Committees of Schools. But the Commissioners are to be satisfied of the fitness of each, both as to character and general qualification. He should be a person of Christian sentiment, of calm temper, and discretion; he should be imbued with a spirit of peace, of obedience to the law, and of loyalty to his Sovereign; he should not only possess the art of communicating knowledge, but be capable of moulding the mind of youth, and of giving to the power which education confers a useful direction. These are the qualities for which Patrons of Schools, when making choice of Teachers, should anxiously look. They are those which the Commissioners are anxious to find, to encourage, and to reward.

2. The Commissioners have provided a Normal Establishment in Marlborough-street, Dublin, for training Teachers and educating persons who are intended to undertake the charge of schools; and they do not sanction the appointment of a Teacher to any School, unless he shall have been previously trained at the Normal Establishment; or shall have been pronounced duly qualified by the Superintendent of the District in which the School is situated.

3. Teachers selected by the Commissioners for admission to the Normal Establishment, must produce a certificate of good character from the officiating clergyman of the communion to which they belong; they must also take the oath, or make a solemn declaration of allegiance, before a Magistrate, and in the presence of the Commissioners; and they pass through an examination in the books published by the Commissioners. They are to be boarded and lodged at an establishment provided by the Board, for the purpose, at Glasnevin,

in the immediate neighbourhood of Dublin, to which an Agricultural department is attached. They are to receive religious instruction from their respective pastors, who attend on Thursdays at the Normal Establishment; and on Sundays they are required to attend their respective places of Worship; and a vigilant superintendence is at all times exercised over their moral conduct.

4. They are to attend upon five days in the week at the Training and Model Schools, where lectures are delivered on different branches of knowledge, and where they are practised in the art of teaching. They are to receive instruction at Glasnevin, particularly in Agriculture, daily, and they attend on Saturdays at the Commissioners, and where they see theory reduced to practice. They undergo a final examination at the close of their course, and each will then receive a certificate according to his deserts. The course of training at present occupies a period of four months and a half, and for a considerable time previous to their being summoned, they are required to prepare themselves for the course.

5. Teachers of Schools unconnected with the National Board, if properly recommended, are also admitted to attend the Normal Establishment, as day pupils, without any charge for tuition; but such persons maintain themselves at their own expense.

6. The Commissioners grant Salaries to the Teachers, varying from £8 to £20, (and, in the case of Female Teachers, from £8 to £15), per annum, according to the class in which they may be placed; regard being had to their qualifications, the *average number* of Children in attendance, the state of the School, and the extent of the instruction afforded in it.

7. Teachers of National Schools are divided into three classes, to which the following Salaries are attached:—1st, or highest Class, £20; 2nd, £15; 3rd, £12 per annum; and, in the case of Female Teachers, 1st, or highest, £15; 2nd, £12; 3rd, £10 per annum.

8. Masters and Mistresses not sufficiently qualified for Classification, constitute a *Probationary* Class, and receive at most £8 per annum each, in which they must remain for at least *One Year*. They are afterwards to be examined by the Superintendent of the District, or, if in training, by the Professors, and such as are deemed sufficiently qualified to be placed in a higher Class, receive the

increase of Salary to which they may become entitled, from the commencement of the second year.

9. National Teachers are eligible to be re-classed at the termination of one year, from the date of any previous classification. They are also liable to be *depressed* a Class, if they have conducted themselves improperly, or if their Schools have declined, either as regards attendance, or in any other respect.

10. The Commissioners require that a further income be secured to the Teacher, either by Local Subscription or School-fees, to such amount in each case as they may direct; and the Commissioners also require that the payments made by the Children shall not be diminished, in consequence of any increase of Salary which may be awarded to the Teacher.

11. In Schools consisting of Male and Female Children, occupying the same room, under the care of one Male Teacher, the Commissioners grant a Salary not exceeding £6 per annum to a Teacher of Needlework, provided the average daily attendance of Children be sufficiently large to warrant the Commissioners in so doing.

12. In Schools attended by Female Children only, under the care of a Female Teacher, such Teacher must be competent to conduct the Needlework, as well as the Literary Department.

13. The Commissioners also grant Salaries to Assistant Literary Teachers, not more than £8 per annum each, in all Schools where, in their opinion, the daily average attendance is so large as to render additional Teachers necessary.

14. Salaries are granted by the Commissioners to the Teachers *individually*. No new Teacher, therefore, is to receive a Salary from them unless they have first approved of him; the amount is regulated by the class in which he may be placed.

The Lectures for Teachers in Training commence in the first weeks of February and August in each year, and occupy from Four to Five Months each Course.

MONTREAL: Printed by ARMOUR & RAMSAY.

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The Subscribers having, in the course of last year, obtained permission from the National Board of Education, to reprint their publications, for the use of schools in Canada, are now enabled to announce that the following are ready and for sale :—

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