A MANUAL OF METHOD

FOR

PUPIL-TEACHERS AND ASSISTANT MASTERS.

INTENDED FOR THE

GOVERNMENT INSPECTED SCHOOLS OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND,

AND FOR THE USE OF STUDENTS IN TRAINING COLLEGES.

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This little treatise is essentially practical, and deals, almost exclusively, with "Method" viewed in relation to the Government Inspected Schools of this country; and has been drawn up for the express purpose of meeting the professional wants and necessities of pupil-teachers—"the sinews of English public instruction."

The Author has had constantly under his care, for many years, somewhere about thirty of these young people, and has, to the very fullest extent, realized that "no part of a teacher's work is so difficult and so harassing, and at the same time so important and so responsible, as the training of pupil-teachers" in the practical work of school instruction. Nothing is here recommended, therefore, but what has been put to the test of experience under the author's own eyes from day to day, and with the most beneficial results.

The endeavour to secure the young teacher's "thoughtful intelligence" in his every-day duties cannot be over-estimated. Perhaps, therefore, the Author may be excused for mentioning the fact that several of his pupil-teachers have passed the "Matriculation Examination," in connection with the University of London, during the course of their apprenticeship, as affording an evidence that some of the " hints" to be found embodied in this treatise have (however feebly) conduced to develop the higher intellectual powers of these young people.

The thoughts of many minds have been laid under contribution in the compilation of this work, and it is now sent forth in the hope that it may prove helpful in promoting the great cause of popular education in England—a work dear to the Author's heart, and in which he has spent many years of his life.

Ashton-under-Lyne,
12 April, 1879.
PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

The Author is greatly pleased to learn that a large Edition of this little Manual has already been disposed of, and acknowledges, with much gratitude, the very favourable reception it has met with from the teaching profession, and from the various Magazines and Newspapers that have been good enough to review it. Only in two instances, to which his intention has been drawn, has the Author been censured because he has attempted "too little," and has not set before the pupil-teachers of this country a sufficiently lofty ideal of the profession to which they belong. To critics of this class the Author would simply reply, that, were they intrusted with the responsibility of training the average pupil-teacher from day to day, they would most assuredly find that even the very moderate platform which is here set before him would be a position very difficult to attain under existing circumstances.

A few verbal alterations have been made in this edition, and two extracts from a late "Circular Letter" from the Education Department to Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools have also been added at page 88, as directly bearing on the object for which this little treatise has been written.

Ashton-under-Lyne,
12 June, 1879.

PREFACE TO THIRD EDITION.

The Author is much gratified to learn that a third edition of this little Manual is called for, and, in order still further to add to its usefulness, he has given a second Appendix, containing a carefully-selected Series of Questions from the papers on School Management, which have been set at the Scholarship and Certificate Examinations of recent years.

Albion School,
Ashton-under-Lyne, October, 1881.
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MANUAL OF METHOD.

I.—SCHOOL DISCIPLINE.

WHAT IS MEANT BY SCHOOL DISCIPLINE.

School discipline seeks to attain "good order," "due obedience," "careful attention," "steady work," and "right conduct." If these be wanting in a school little true progress can be made in the way of study, and no real moral training is secured.

It has been well remarked that "teaching does not exist for the sake of discipline, but discipline for the sake of teaching." The young teacher should try above all things to realize this distinction.

Experience will show that almost everything in the way of good discipline depends on the personal character of the teacher.

WHAT ARE THE BEST METHODS FOR SECURING DISCIPLINE.

1. There should be perfect order.—Above all things order must be obtained, and with this end in view there must be obedience to rule. To obtain this

(a) The pupils should be actively employed.

The true maxim here is that "every child at every moment of the day shall be employed at some one of those duties for which a school is properly intended."

(b) The children should be trained to do their work in
a quiet and methodic manner, and with as little noise as possible.

(c) There should be a proper time and place for every person, and for every thing.

There is no better test of a teacher's skill and fitness for his work than the ingenuity he can show in adhering to this rule. Young teachers require much guidance, however, in relation to it. For instance, the copy-books ought to be carefully kept in boards with straps, the pens and pencils should be kept in separate boxes, the black-boards should be properly fixed—everything, in fact, requiring to be used either by the teachers or the scholars, should be orderly and properly arranged and prepared before instruction begins, and no time should be wasted afterwards.

These suggestions may appear to many as simply "trifles," but when the business of school-keeping is seriously considered in its bearing upon the formation of character, as well as in the training of the young in correct habits, they must conclude that they are very important. One of Her Majesty's Inspectors, of great experience, writes: "It is only an inspector that can accurately understand the inconvenience which results from inattention to apparent trifles. These arrangements are often all the difference between an ill-conducted and a well-conducted school; and I have known a master's labours entirely thrown away, and himself worn out and dispirited, from a mere neglect and indifference to such slight matters."

(d) Order should be maintained with persistent regularity and uniformity.

This is very important, as nothing is so detrimental to the maintenance of healthy discipline as alternations from severity to laxity. The order should be constant and regular in its exercise.

(e) "Neatness and cleanliness are closely connected with good order." As these notes are intended especially for pupil-teachers, neatness and cleanliness in their relation to school discipline may be considered under four heads.
(1) With reference to the teacher.

The teacher should be a model and example to the scholars. He should therefore be neat and tidy in personal appearance, as any neglect in this direction must have an injurious effect. Many young female pupil-teachers require to be cautioned against the display of tawdry jewelry and gaudy showy colours, which are highly calculated to create a false taste among the young and to excite vanity.

(2) With reference to the children.

It has been often remarked that “children will be clean only from habit,” and the teacher has every opportunity of fostering and promoting this. Indeed it is no exaggeration to say that if children are not neat and clean in school, the fault lies to a very large extent with the teacher.

When we consider, that under the operation of the compulsory clauses of the late educational legislation in England, our public elementary schools are attended by many children drawn from poor, vicious, neglected, and unhealthy homes, the importance of creating a regard for neatness and cleanliness in the minds of the children, in relation to health and character, must never be lost sight of. Every teacher should insist upon absolute cleanliness, and a teacher who fails to do this ought to be considered as unfitted for his office.

(3) In relation to the school-room.

Pupil-teachers require much training and caution in regard to this aspect of the subject. Too many of them are apt to allow the children to litter the floors of their class-rooms with torn and soiled papers, broken pieces of slate, pens and ink-wells scattered and tumbled about, and hats, bags, &c., huddled in every corner. This state of matters ought not for a single moment to be allowed to exist. For their own comfort in after-life, for the sake of the children whom they, oftentimes unconsciously, are training, every effort ought to be put forth to guard against it. Pupil-teachers and assistants can show, even in this, much sympathy and kindness to the principal teachers to whom they stand related.
(4) With respect to the school premises and offices.

No excuse need be offered for bringing this point under the notice of teachers. It is in the highest degree identified with the health and comfort of the children. The offices ought regularly to be inspected—a few moments would do it—and kept sweetened, flushed, and disinfected. This ought to be recognized as one of the duties of all "school cleaners" or apparitors, and when the managers are neglectful, their attention ought to be called to the fact. The playgrounds ought to be freed from rubbish of all sorts, and, where practicable, a border of flowering plants should be laid out round them. This would tend to create a healthy taste on the part of the children, and the cost would be but a trifle. The pupil-teachers and the elder scholars might charge themselves with the responsibility of keeping these plots in good order. The windows also should be kept cleaned and freed from dust, and it would certainly add immensely to the pleasure of the children if flower-pots could be arranged round the window sills. For the attainment of all these ends the hearty co-operation of the pupil-teachers would be invaluable.

2. There should be good government.

(a) The rules laid down by the teacher for the conducting of the school and the management of a class, ought to be few, brief, and simple.

The object of school rules should be to secure obedience and steady application on the part of the scholars, and with this end in view the young teacher must be careful not to make a rule which would be inoperative because impracticable. To do so would simply defeat the object the teacher had in view and lead to the reconsideration of a new rule.

(b) The teacher must be careful to be strictly impartial in his government, and to avoid the very appearance of favouritism.

Monitors and pupil-teachers in the earlier years of their apprenticeship require this caution to be pressed upon them with considerable emphasis, because if they yield to what
is occasionally a very natural temptation, the moral tone and vigour of the class are certain to be weakened. "Treat all alike" should be the maxim.

(c) Do not indulge in threats or in the use of "names" to the children.

A teacher who employs threats and is abusive in his language towards his pupils is setting them a very bad example which they are only too apt to copy. Besides, it has been truly said, "it is cowardly, because the pupils cannot retaliate." Authority can best be maintained by "kindness, patience, undeviating firmness of purpose, and a strict regard to principle in all our dealings with our scholars."

(d) Avoid a spirit of too frequent fault-finding.

This hint is of far more importance than most assistants are apt to imagine.

Many assistant teachers, in the government of their class, are only too apt to be absurdly and ridiculously particular. While aiming at the most complete order and quiet which are desirable, some allowance must necessarily be made for that restlessness which is peculiar to children, and the impossible must not be expected. To be constantly warning, rebuking, and fault-finding, would be to conduce to a serious loss of moral power. Dr. Calderwood remarks that "Nothing so impairs authority as a too frequent or indiscreet use of it. If thunder itself were to be continual it would excite no more terror than the noise of a mill." The teacher's eye can do much to check the very beginnings of wrong-doing, and if the teacher were only to use the eye in the government of the class, there would be much less necessity for the use of the voice, and the interruption to the general work. The eye "is the most quick and most silent of messengers, and the scholars can understand it more quickly than they can understand words." Besides, "it is the primary source of the teacher's influence."

(e) Anger and passion should be avoided.

This is also an advice of very great moment to junior
assistants, as, unfortunately, in our public schools they are too prone, if anger and passion are fostered, to treat the scholars with harshness, and roughness, and even with blows. No head-teacher worthy of the name will allow his junior teachers to strike the children, and if corporal punishment be resorted to by them, it should always be considered a serious breach of school discipline on the part of the teaching staff, and demoralizing in its influence.

The duty of the assistant is to represent the misconduct of the pupil to the principal teacher, and leave to him, if need be, the duty of punishing in proportion to the nature of the offence. Let the young teacher, however, above all things, remember, that "if the government of the class be unvarying and correct, severity will very seldom be required."

SUPPLEMENTARY HINTS ON SCHOOL DISCIPLINE.

In addition to the foregoing suggestions, one or two other hints might be given, which, if wisely acted upon, would largely contribute to the teacher's power in the discipline and training of the young committed to his care.

1. Endeavour to instil into the minds of the children a love of truth, good-will, persevering industry, and proper conduct.

In these, as in every kind of moral training, example is better than precept. It is of the very highest moment for the teacher to create in his pupils "purity of motive." Mr. Robinson of the Irish inspectiveal staff observes that "The children should be accustomed to do a thing simply because it is right to do it, and not because it is pleasant or novel; and the teacher ought not to be too ready to render them assistance in overcoming whatever little difficulties present themselves." Goethe, the great German thinker, remarks that "with children the faulty is not to be removed by violent measures, but to be substituted by the good. Fear is the worst means of education."
movements” in class changing, in rising, marching, and taking seats.

These movements could all be very effectively carried out “and signalled” by the figures 1, 2, 3, &c.

“Any such form of drill is an aid to discipline, training the scholars to instantaneous obedience.” There can be no manner of doubt that “when changing classes—gathering or dismissing the pupils—time is not misspent which is given up to secure a steady march in and out.”

The signalled figures may be made to denote any movement required, and their use prevents unnecessary speaking, which must assuredly be the result if each command had to be given in words.

II.—READING.

In the reports submitted year after year by Her Majesty’s Inspectors of Schools to the Education Department, the conclusion drawn is a most unfavourable one in regard to the “Reading” in the elementary schools of the country.

Though the percentage of “passes” is the largest in reading, yet, comparatively, it is the subject worst done.

It is, therefore, in the highest degree important to inquire into the reasons they assign for this.

Whatever objections teachers might be disposed to urge against the competency of these gentlemen to give good advice on “method” in connection with elementary education, there can be no manner of doubt that as educated and cultured men they are highly qualified to form a correct judgment as to what constitutes “Good Reading.”
1. REASONS ASSIGNED BY HER MAJESTY'S INSPECTORS FOR DEFECTS IN READING.

The reasons assigned for defects in reading are somewhat after the following nature:—

(a) Too much noise in school during a reading lesson.
(b) Reading is not taught frequently enough as a distinct lesson.
(c) Imperfect enunciation and articulation.
(d) Slurring over of final letters and syllables, with little or no attention to stops.
(e) Unheeded emphasis, mumbling, inaudibility.

One inspector says, "During the past year I have frequently had to complain of the inaudible mumbling, particularly among the lower classes of my schools, which frequently passes current for reading." Another boldly says, "I am not aware that in any school is attention given to just expression or correct emphasis." While yet another inspector of the most varied and lengthened experience observes, "By great courtesy only, and forbearing allowance, can that inaudible sound, which, because a pupil is standing with a book in his hands, and his lips are doubtfully moving, you hope to hear, but might as easily hope to see, be called reading."

Many of these gentlemen complain also of affectation and hesitation in reading, of the unnatural pitch of the voice, and of mal-pronunciation. Not a few also take exception to the small amount read by the pupils, owing to the size of the class, and the time spent in questioning, spelling, meanings, taking places, &c. A far more common complaint made by inspectors, and probably the most serious of all, is, not that the children do not know what the words are, especially the younger children, who probably read from a book they have read through many times before, but there is the consciousness that all the time the child does not understand the meaning of what he is reading. "The maxim with many teachers," observes an intelligent inspector, "is to hurry on the child
as soon as he can sound the words, and disregard their meaning altogether."

2. TO WHOM ARE THESE FAULTS MAINLY DUE?

There is no doubt that for many of the defects in reading the teacher is mainly responsible. Unfortunately, in the majority of our inspected schools, the head-teachers are unable to give much of their time to the reading lessons of the younger children, and, consequently, this part of instruction falls largely into the hands of the pupil-teachers and monitors. Commenting upon this, Mr. Vertue observes, "It is most important, therefore, that those to whom this duty is intrusted should be taught both to read properly themselves, and how a reading lesson should be given. Where this has been done I have found the reading of the children distinguished, not merely by fluency and accuracy, but by the gradual acquisition of all the higher qualities of intelligent reading in the different classes. Where this trouble has not been taken, monotonous sing-song drawling, . . . and ignorance of the meaning of the simplest words are all more or less to be found in the reading of the lower Standards, while much of the time that should have been devoted to the improvement of the reading of the upper Standards in respect of intelligence and expression, has to be spent in correcting faults the children should never have acquired."

3. IN WHAT GOOD READING CONSISTS.

(a) In clear, plain, and distinct articulation.

That is, each word should be sounded clearly by itself—the final syllables should not be slurred over—and every scholar in the class should hear with perfect ease and comfort.

(b) In trying to give utterance to the spirit of the
sentence as well as to the words of which it is composed.

This is generally described as "intelligent" reading, and it supposes of course that the scholar knows not only how to pronounce the words, but also their exact meaning in the sentence.

Teachers, especially in the elementary schools of the country, "should always remember that the poor know little of written language, and that, as a consequence, many words familiar to them are to such children as unintelligible as Greek or Latin." The pupil, therefore, by careful attention should be made to perceive that the "more nearly reading approaches in style to speaking, the more correct and pleasing" will it be considered. The question, therefore, for the children to have constantly before their minds in a reading lesson is, "How should I speak this sentence?" and in this way secure a natural style of reading.

(c) The pupil-teacher should as much as possible, in conducting a reading lesson, make use of the "rule of imitation."

With respect to this suggestion, Mr. Fussel, one of H.M. Inspectors of Schools, in his report in the Blue Book of 1857-8 observes, "Few things are more painful to me than to see the energies of a young teacher frittered away after this fashion. A child reads a sentence—he commits gross faults. 'Read it again,' says the teacher. He reads it again, and, as might be expected, he reads it very much as at first. 'Read it again,' repeats the teacher; and so on. It does not seem to enter into the teacher's conception that his own labours and the child's too would be immensely lightened if he would but tell the child what his faults are and why he was to read it again."

The true remedy is to read the sentence as it ought to be read so that the child may have a clear notion of his shortcomings, and that he may find out what his defects are, and how he may correct them. This is usually termed "pattern-reading," and it of course assumes that the young teacher has acquired the art of "good reading" by diligent

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application. "It is not surprising that the style of reading adopted by the children is vicious when the example set them by their teachers is not good."

Good reading on the part of the pupil-teachers "will bear abundant fruit in the improved reading of the children."

(d) Endeavour at all times not only to cultivate purity of pronunciation, but, also, to eradicate the common provincialisms and vulgar blunders that are to be found in every district in the country.

For example, the aspirate (the letter ā sounded) is often omitted, and it is as frequently inserted in pronunciation when it is altogether improper to do so; e.g. hair is often pronounced air and vice-versa. Again, if "children are allowed to say savidge for savage, noine for nine, vice for voice, idear for idea, winder for window, singin or sing-ing for singing, and pint for point," it is not surprising that they mis-spell these words when they come to write them.

Mistakes in pronunciation of a similar character are common everywhere; and it should be the teacher's special care to train the scholars to avoid them.

(e) The children should uniformly be interrogated on what they have read, and every difficult word and phrase should be carefully explained; a liberal use of the blackboard being made for this purpose.

This, more than anything else, perhaps, tests the pupil-teacher's powers of teaching. Not only does the practice raise a reading lesson from the region of mere mechanism to intelligence, but it is of infinite value to the teacher himself, as it enriches his vocabulary, gives him a readiness and facility in the use of simple and appropriate expressions, and adds to his power and usefulness. It is of the utmost moment that the scholars should be keenly alive to the sense of what they read. It is idle to expect the grown-up labourer or artisan to take any pleasure in his book or his newspaper, if reading in the days of his schooling has been associated with a mere successive series of meaningless syllables.
SUPPLEMENTARY HINTS ON THE TEACHING OF READING.

1. See that the scholars stand with their bodies erect and firm, the head well up, and the book held so as not to interfere with the sound of the voice.

2. Insist upon the pupils pitching their voices in order to be heard by every child in the class as well as by the teacher, so that all may be benefited by the teacher's corrections.

3. Secure distinctness, body of voice, and confidence, and train the voices of the children into harmony, especially in the lower standards, by simultaneous reading, for which purpose, however, class-rooms are almost indispensable.

4. See that all errors are detected, dwelt upon, and pointed out with care.

5. Take the utmost care with the reading lessons of the Primer and First Standard classes, and prevent the tendency young children have to accent all the words in a sentence equally, and to pause and nod after each word. "The habits the pupils acquire while learning the First Book accompany them into the higher classes, and once contracted are never thoroughly cured."

6. Make the children acquainted not only with the meanings of the words printed usually at the top of the reading lessons, but read the passage over to them first, carefully explaining the meaning of every apparently difficult word in connection with the text, and not merely from a dictionary.
III.—WRITING.

The general opinion of most of Her Majesty's Inspectors of schools seems to be that the penmanship of the scholars attending the elementary schools of the country is far from satisfactory. And yet there is no more important subject to the teacher, as, especially among illiterate parents, "writing forms the popular test by which the value of a school is tried." To a large extent, also, this is due to the teaching. Very often "teachers hear the reading, and tell the boys to go on writing without paying that decided attention to points of detail on which all successful teaching depends."

Dr. Morell in his report to the Committee of Council on Education in 1873, observes: "Writing is of course an almost purely mechanical faculty, but not wholly so. Good writing shows incidentally that there must have been carelessness, attention, perseverance, and practical skill on the part of the teacher, and the power of infusing these qualities into the minds of his scholars. Good writing is therefore an indication of some of the qualities of a good school." Another inspector remarks: "It is common unfortunately in small schools where there are many classes and few teachers, to set some divisions to write alone from a copy by way of occupying them. Mistakes in consequence are copied and re-copied; corrections perhaps are never made, and the absence of any guiding help perpetuates irregularities. Letters are rude and awkward, and the writing becomes a scrawl."

This "absence of any guiding help" is, without doubt, the most fruitful cause of the bad writing that is found in our schools.

Too often teachers treat writing in school as a means of "killing time," or of keeping the children quiet, and preventing absolute idleness, rather than sincerely desiring to improve their scholars' penmanship.

Though we would not have the more intellectual part
of subjects taught in school to suffer, yet the neglect of adopting proper systems in this branch of instruction, so that the scholars may be able to write with freedom, rapidity, legibility, and, if possible, even with beauty, is totally unjustifiable.

Perhaps the use of engraved headlines is a strong temptation to the teacher to extend to this exercise only some slight supervision, instead of giving it careful, systematic, and intelligent teaching.

METHOD RECOMMENDED.

Train the children to hold the pen properly, and attend with care to the position of their bodies.

No faults are more common among children than those of holding the pen improperly, and sitting in a constrained position when writing. It is no doubt exceedingly difficult to get the children to hold the pen properly, and perhaps this very fact often causes the young teacher to become careless and indifferent about it. Everything, however, depends upon first-beginnings here. Habits are formed when children are first set to use pen and ink, and unless the teacher shows them what they are to do, and by judicious and constant correction assists them in the process, the habit they acquire is almost certain to be a bad one. Considering the design of this little manual, directions are not given for the correct method of holding the pen. No doubt the principal teacher will lay down special instructions on this point. With respect to the posture of the child the following hints are perhaps the best that could be given.

1. POSITION OF THE CHILD.

(a) "He must sit firmly but easily, with his feet resting steadily."
(b) "The body, with exception of a gentle inclination of the shoulders forward, must be upright."
(c) "The left hand should rest on the nearest corner of
the paper, while the left elbow is kept off the desk and brought closely to the side.”

(d) “The weight of the body should be thrown slightly on the left arm so as to leave to the other greater freedom of motion.”

(e) “The elbow of the right arm should approach the side, and the hand with the pen properly held in it should move easily over the paper, the pressure of the fingers being just sufficient to give the pen steadiness.”

All these suggestions are of great value, inasmuch as a constrained attitude is not only calculated to interfere with the correct forms of the letters, but is likely to lead to injury to the health.

2. EARLY STAGES OF WRITING.

(a) Let the children begin to write early—because “the faculty of imitation is strong in young children, and in this way it may be turned to good account.”

(b) Have a fixed and definite standard of proficiency for each class. This is of very great importance, and necessitates some care and discretion on the part of the teacher in the selection and graduation of the headlines. In this matter, therefore, the assistants are certain to have the advice and judgment of the principal teacher. It should be, however, the duty of the pupil-teacher to exercise every diligence to keep his class well together, and, as far as possible, up to the standard set.

(c) Take the greatest possible care with the writing of the Junior Classes. It is here where the pupil-teacher is apt to fail. He ought to go round from scholar to scholar and not only tell them what to do, but show them how to do it, and even help them. The hands of the younger children also require guiding, and the pupil-teacher should on no account neglect this. He should also pencil the copy-books for those who seem most backward. This is even better than having the books printed with traced lines, as the pupil sees how the characters are formed by the teacher’s pencil. Where time is a consideration, and
the teaching power limited in a school, the traced copybooks of Mr. Vere Foster\(^1\) might be used, and the correct forms illustrated on the black-board.

\((d)\) *In the upper sections the great object should be to secure a bold, free, round hand.* Here, therefore, a liberal use should be made of the black-board, pointing carefully out the relative heights of the letters, their slope and distance, and the proportions they bear to each other. The badly-formed letters, &c., should be placed side by side with the properly shaped ones on the black-board, and the faults, in imitation, judiciously criticised. Rapidity of penmanship, so essential in business, can only be acquired by practice.

**SUPPLEMENTARY HINTS ON THE TEACHING OF WRITING.**

1. Insist upon the copy-books being kept scrupulously clean, neat, and free from scribbling. This can only be done by their being carefully examined after or during every lesson. Tidy, neat, and careful habits, of the utmost importance in the formation of character, are greatly aided in this way.

2. A good supply of pens and ink should be provided, and the teacher should see that these are renewed from time to time.

3. Let the copy-books be carefully collected, those belonging to each class being strapped between boards.

4. Let your own writing, whether on the black-board or in the copy-book, be as neat and correct as possible.

5. Let every fault, no matter of what kind, be pointed out to the scholar.

\(^1\) These can be had from the publishers of this *Manual* through the ordinary channels of trade.
IV.—SPELLING.

It has been well observed that "Spelling is one of our great English bugbears," yet when the great difficulties connected with this branch of instruction are considered, most of Her Majesty's Inspectors, in their Reports for the last few years, assert, that, on the whole, it is taught in a fairly satisfactory manner.

"Its difficulties are undoubtedly great, and perfect accuracy is a stage very seldom arrived at." Where bad spelling does exist the unvarying testimony of Her Majesty's Inspectors is that it is due to imperfect or unsuitable methods of teaching.

It may be set down as a truism that the child who can read well will also be able to spell well.

It used to be supposed that spelling could be learned by rules, but as our language is so irregular very few are now found who advocate this system.

Again, many maintained that the ear was the best medium for the teaching of this subject, and that the sound of the word, or its pronunciation, was the best means of being able to spell well. Hence spelling-books were compiled, consisting of uninteresting and disconnected columns of words, which were to be committed to memory with the utmost care and diligence. Experience has now demonstrated, however, that good spelling depends to a very large extent upon the eye. An American writer has said that to be able to spell well is due in most cases to a memory of the eye.

The London Times a few years ago said that "Spelling is learnt by reading," and that "nothing but reading will teach spelling."

This truth suggests to us the best means of teaching it in our schools.

1. The children, in the early stages of their school course,
should be set to transcribe, or make out a written copy of some part of a printed book.

This exercise should be prescribed for home tasks every evening, and should form a considerable share of the work of the younger children during the school hours. For improvement in spelling its utility is evident. The eye of the child is obliged to look carefully at the printed words, and to remember the combination of the letters in each, and their true position.

2. In copying passages from their reading books the young teacher should insist upon the children not simply glancing at the printed words, but carefully observing the true position of each letter, and comparing what has been written letter by letter with the printed form of the word.

The whole value of the exercise depends upon this, and the utmost diligence should be shown by the teacher in insisting upon it.

3. Train the eye also by writing out the more difficult words in each sentence on the black-board, and make the class spell these simultaneously, the teacher meanwhile pointing to each letter as the children proceed.

This is a valuable exercise in classes even beyond the very junior, and, in combination with transcription, is certain to result in improvement in spelling.

4. Let the transcription of the children be examined by the teacher with the utmost care, the mistakes pointed out to them and corrected.

This hint might be considered unnecessary, but unfortunately the value of the exercise is very frequently entirely lost through the carelessness of the junior teacher, who may perform this part of his duty in a slovenly and hurried manner.

5. Insist upon the children inserting the "pauses as they occur in the passage before them."

This is very often entirely neglected, though the practice of it necessarily induces care and attention on the part of
the children, and is of great value in teaching punctuation when they come to compose.

6. See that the children use Capital Letters when they occur in the printed book, and that the reason for their use is explained to them.

This is also often neglected by the young teacher, who therefore needs a word of warning in this respect.

7. Insist invariably upon a proper division of the word when part of it is carried over to the next line.

This is of very frequent occurrence, and it is the custom too frequently to treat it with indifference. Even words of one syllable are frequently divided into two parts when a child, in writing, finds he has not space at the end of the line to write the word in full.

Children should therefore be early exercised in the correct method of writing words according to their syllables.

V.

WRITING FROM DICTATION.

Dictation is less a method of teaching spelling than it is a test of the manner in which it has been taught.

THERE ARE THREE WAYS IN WHICH WRITTEN EXERCISES MAY BE A TEST OF SPELLING.

1. Writing from dictation, i.e. reading a portion of a book slowly over by a few words at a time, and making the children write them.

2. Writing from memory, i.e. reading a passage slowly and deliberately over once or twice, and then getting the scholars to reproduce it as closely as possible on paper.
3. Writing an essay, or an original composition, on any given subject.

THE DICTATION EXERCISE PROPERLY DIVIDES ITSELF INTO FOUR HEADS.

(a) Reading the passage clearly and distinctly.
(b) Writing it down on slates or on paper.
(c) The correction of the errors in spelling or punctuation.
(d) Employing the black-board in pointing out the mistakes that the children have made, so as to prevent their repetition.

With reference to these four divisions pupil-teachers ought never to forget that the whole value of a dictation exercise, if it is to be employed as a means of teaching spelling, consists in the care with which the work is examined, the errors pointed out, and their repetition prevented.

SUGGESTIONS FOR GIVING A DICTATION EXERCISE.

1. The piece to be dictated should be selected from a lesson which the children have previously read, and with which they are tolerably familiar.

2. It should be read over with great distinctness to the class, and every difficult word explained before the children are requested to write it.

3. The passage should be read out in a clear firm tone by two or three words at a time, and the children should on no account be allowed to ask any questions, but, if unable at any point to hear the words that are dictated, they should be instructed to hold up their hands so as to obtain a repetition of them.

N.B.—The teacher ought not to read the passage too hurriedly for the scholars to follow. If it be read too quickly they are apt to write badly, and this ought by all means to be prevented. This exercise ought to be characterized by neatness in penmanship.
CORRECTION OF DICTATION EXERCISE.

The following are a few of the methods that have been suggested for correcting the exercises of the class after the dictation has been finished.

1. The children are made to change slates and to correct each other's exercise.

   The objection to this is that it is apt to lead to deception, which must have an injurious effect upon the moral nature of the child. This might be counteracted, however, if the teacher were to select a number of slates at random and test the accuracy of the corrections.

2. The teacher spells over each word letter by letter, and instructs each scholar to mark every error that occurs.

   It has been objected to this plan, that in practice it is found very ineffectual. Many errors are wilfully passed over by the children, and many more are omitted from thoughtlessness and inattention.

3. Each scholar in the class is made to spell one word alternately, and the errors noted by the teacher.

   The objections to this plan are similar to those of the preceding methods.

4. The children (when slates are used) are told to change slates, and correct each other's exercise, while the teacher, with much care and deliberation, spells over each word.

   This is the method in most general use, and the children are told to write out the corrected form of each mistake several times; the teacher meanwhile using the black-board to aid in the process.

   All these methods are recommended on the plea of economy of time in a large school, and with large classes.

5. The best method of correction, however, is to read over every exercise and to mark every error that has occurred, whether it be in spelling, in omissions, or in
the use of capital letters. The true spelling also ought to be written above the word that is wrong.

This should be done by the master or his assistants. Sometimes a monitor who is distinguished for his care and good spelling might be selected for this duty.

6. The errors of more frequent occurrence also should be carefully written down in the teacher's note-book, pointed out on the black-board, and used as tests in future dictation exercises.

**DICTATION EXERCISES FOR THE HIGHER CLASSES.**

These exercises ought to present many difficult forms of spelling to the pupils, as, for instance, a few of the following:

1. Extracts from good poetry.
2. Sentences containing words that are pronounced alike but have a different spelling, as *The heir of the estate removed his chair to the open air long ere sunset.*
3. Words that are both spelt and pronounced alike but differ in the meaning, as *He made light of the light he saw in the distance.*
4. Passages containing illustrations of words with silent letters and other peculiarities, as *He said the knot was not useful to the dumb boy in climbing the stairs for the lumbs.*

Mr. Robinson, in his deservedly popular *Manual of Method and Organization*, suggests that the scholars in the upper or advanced classes in schools "ought to be called upon to write down lists of all the commodities generally sold in different kinds of shops. They will frequently find this of advantage to them, as they are very likely to be called upon to use these words in after-life."

Auction bills also, and other extracts from our daily
papers "will be found a trying exercise for the best spellers in the senior division of the school."

VI.—ARITHMETIC.

This subject is, without doubt, the least satisfactory, in the results attained, of any of the branches of instruction carried on in our elementary schools.

One of the most intelligent and thoughtful of Her Majesty's Inspectors remarks that "Arithmetic remains as great a stumbling-block as ever; it is taught mechanically and by rule, without intelligence, without anything but a parrot-like repetition of formula." Another inspector of great experience also observes, "In regard to arithmetic, the most mechanical and unintelligent methods are often followed even in schools where accurate results are obtained." The same gentleman asserts that this is owing to the teaching being left too much in the hands of the pupil-teachers, many of whom are too young to be teachers at all. Perhaps this is only too true, but, in any case, there is no subject of more practical utility than that of arithmetic, and hence every means should be adopted in the teaching of it to explain not merely the terms employed, but the processes, principles, and uses of the rules.

IMPORTANCE OF THE SUBJECT.

Mr. Currie, in his Common School Education, with great wisdom, observes, that "The teaching of arithmetic ought to be carried on with two ends in view, a special and a general; the one to give the pupil skill in computation, the other to strengthen the powers of the mind."

John Locke, in his Thoughts on Education, published so far back as 1693, says, "Arithmetic is of so
general use in all parts of life and business, that scarce anything is to be done without it. This is certain, a man cannot have too much of it, nor too perfectly.” Considering how large an extent arithmetic enters into the business of daily life, it is of the utmost importance that our young people when at school should be trained to calculate with rapidity, accuracy, and ease.

To secure these, there should be careful instruction, and abundant practice, in the rules.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INSTRUCTION IN ARITHMETIC.

In a small treatise like this it is impossible to attempt almost anything in the way of explaining the rules of arithmetic, this duty pertaining more to a treatise upon the principles of arithmetic. Still, a few guiding principles may be suggested as helpful to the pupil-teacher in class-teaching.

I. ARITHMETIC IN THE INFANT SCHOOL.

(a) Children should, as early as possible, be trained to form some conception of number.

(b) This can be done very simply, even with very young children, somewhat in the following manner.

(c) The child is familiar with the number of his hands and fingers, but the number of the forms and pupils, of the doors, windows, and other things around him, should all be used as a basis to found simple arithmetical operations upon. To these the processes of addition and subtraction can be very easily applied. The reason for this advice is very simple—all a child’s notions are of concrete numbers. To a child, three books, four boys, five pictures, &c., are intelligible enough, but not three, four, five, &c., in the abstract. Hence, objects which a child can see and handle should as much as possible be used in teaching him.

(d) The next step should be to make the children
acquainted with the names of the figures, and also with the order in which they should be repeated. The ball-frame ought to be used freely in this stage. For example, the pupil ought to be shown that eight is one less than nine, and one more than seven. The free and intelligent use of the ball-frame supersedes, to a large extent, the counting by the children on their fingers at this stage.

(e) The teacher ought then to test the children’s proficiency in counting by framing such questions as—

“If I have 7 pens and get 1, how many shall I have?”
“If I have 9 marbles and lose 1, how many shall I have?” &c. &c.

The children should be exercised in this manner for some time until they are able to add and subtract figures up to 10.

2. ARITHMETIC IN THE STANDARDS.

NOTATION AND NUMERATION.

Notation and numeration are two of the most important rules in arithmetic, and the utmost diligence and care should be taken in explaining them.

Notation is the name usually given to the expressing of numbers by means of characters or figures. Numeration, again, signifies the act of expressing numbers in words.

The best authorities on the “Science of Education” recommend that these two rules should be taught together, “for they require the same explanations, and they are founded on the same principles, and they mutually assist each other.” In addition to the mechanical method of teaching notation, such as using dividing compartments by lines drawn on the slate or black-board to denote the order for units, thousands, millions, &c., with which every pupil-teacher is more or less familiar, the following hints abbreviated from Mr. Robinson’s work, previously mentioned, may be found very useful.

(a) The scholar should be made to understand thoroughly what is meant by a place and a period in nota-
tion, and to be able to change the value of any number by using either ciphers or figures.

First Illustration.—If the figure 4 be given to the scholars they should make out of it the complete period (004), or out of 61, the period (061).

Second Illustration.—If a figure, as 3, be given to them, they may be called upon to state how they would make it stand for thirty or three hundred; or if 400 be put down, how they would make it stand for forty or for four.

Third Illustration.—The scholars may also be asked to affix ciphers to any figure without altering its value, or to remove any figure from the first to the second or third place, and in each case to state what the total result is.

(b) They should also be able to state orally what figures are used to represent any number.

First Illustration.—The number three hundred and twenty-one may be selected, and they should be required to say at once 3, 2, 1; if four hundred and five, they should be able to say 4, 0, 5, &c.

Second Illustration.—They should be able also to reduce numbers to their component parts, and to give the proof of the result by addition.

Example.—526 is equal to 500, 20, and 6. Thus—

\[
\begin{array}{c}
500 \\
20 \\
6 \\
\hline
526
\end{array}
\]

In this way the children will be gradually brought to understand the value of what is called a place in arithmetic, and to know also the use of the cipher, and the difficulties of expressing numbers of three places will be mastered.
SIMPLE RULES.

ADDITION.

Addition is the method of finding the sum of two or more given numbers, that is, the number to which they amount when taken together. In this rule the real difficulty requiring explanation is the process of what is called carrying, and this should be made as plain and simple as possible to the children.

METHOD SUGGESTED.—1. Show that carrying is simply breaking up a number into its "elementary parts," and placing each part into its proper group, as was illustrated in the remarks on notation and numeration.

Example.—Add—

   44
   29
   6

In this example we say 6 and 9 are 15 and 4 are 19, which consists of 9 units and 1 ten. Therefore we put the units under the line of units, and the ten is carried to the tens, making with 2 tens and 4 tens a total of 7 tens.

Of course the value of the figures might be indefinitely increased to hundreds, thousands, &c., and the same principles would still apply.

2. Constant practice, and equally constant explanation on the black-board are imperatively necessary to secure accuracy and rapidity on the part of the children.

SUBTRACTION.

Subtraction is the method of finding the difference between two given numbers, that is, the number by which the greater number exceeds the less, or the remainder after the less is taken from the greater.

In this rule the principal difficulty which the children will experience is with respect to borrowing, as by this time they ought to be able to arrange the numbers properly.
Method Suggested.—"In subtracting, say 38 from 92; since 8 cannot be taken from 2, we 'borrow' from the place of tens, *i.e.* the 2 is increased by 10, and 8 taken from 12 leaves 4. The 10 added (or 'borrowed') has to be taken away again, and this is done by taking 1 from 9 in the place of tens. But 3 has also to be taken from this 9, so, first of all, the 1 and 3 are added together, *i.e.* 1 is 'carried' to the 3, and 4 taken from 9 leaves 5, giving 54 as the complete remainder." An explanation of this kind is as much as the children can understand, though, it is true, other methods might be suggested.

It would be well, however, to dictate the sums to the children occasionally somewhat in the following manner:

How much does fifty thousand and thirty exceed nineteen thousand and twenty-six? The object being to secure their thoroughly understanding the fundamental principle of subtraction, *viz.*, placing invariably the *small* number under the *other*.

Other tests might also be applied, such as the following:

(a) How to deal with ciphers in the *small* and in the *large* number; for example—

From 52010
Take 24062

(b) How to manage in the case of those figures to the left of the small number that have no corresponding figures in the large one; for example—

From 7214162
Take 38765

Multiplication.

Multiplication is simply the method of finding how much a given number taken a given number of times will amount to, and this is nothing more than a process of addition.
Illustration: Multiply 7 by 9.—This could be found by writing down 7 nine times, and adding them together—
$7 + 7 + 7 + 7 + 7 + 7 + 7 + 7 = 63$. The teacher should show, however, that this is unnecessary, as we can find the result—63—at once from a table of products, called the "Multiplication Table," which is committed to memory. Multiplication by one figure should present no difficulty to a class, seeing that any child who knows the tables well, and thoroughly understands the principle of "carrying," should be able to work such sums almost at once.

Suggestions for Class Instruction when the Multiplier Consists of Several Figures.

(a) Be careful that the children clearly understand the value of the figures by which they multiply.

Illustration.—In multiplying 52736 by 527 the 2 of the multiplicand is really 2000, and the 2 of the multiplier is 20, and the product of these, 4, i.e. 40,000, will fall into its proper place.

N.B.—The terms multiplier, multiplicand, and product should be carefully explained.

(b) Explain the reason of "skipping" with equal care; and a method has been suggested by Mr. Robinson somewhat as follows:

Illustration.—Multiply 5268 by 342.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
5268 \\
342 \\
\hline
10536 \\
210720 \\
1580400 \\
\hline
1801656
\end{array}
\]

Here we multiply by 2, 40, and 300. By this process they will soon see that if the figures were put in their proper places there would be no need of cyphers. Thus—
ILLUSTRATIONS IN MULTIPLICATION AND DIVISION. 37

\[
\begin{align*}
5268 \\
 342 \\
\hline
10536 \\
21072 \\
15804 \\
\hline
1801656
\end{align*}
\]

(c) When the pupils are well exercised in the rule by practice, show them how the process of multiplying may be shortened.

ILLUSTRATION.—Multiply 6734 by 728.
Here multiply first by 8, and then take 9 times the result, obtaining the product of 72 at once, taking care, however, to arrange the figures correctly. Thus—

\[
\begin{align*}
6734 \times 728 \\
8 \\
\hline
53872 \times 9 \\
484848 \\
\hline
4902352
\end{align*}
\]

DIVISION.

Division is the method of finding how often one given number contains another. The following points might be brought before the pupils.

(a) Show that division is the converse of multiplication.

ILLUSTRATION.—How often is 8 contained in 59? Here by remembering that \( 8 \times 7 = 56 \), we have at once the number required—7, with 3 as a remainder; so that the process is shortened by multiplication.

(b) Show that division is an abridged form of subtraction.

ILLUSTRATION.—Divide 94 by 7.
Here by subtracting the divisor from the dividend, and subtracting it again from the remainder, and continuing the process till a remainder less than the divisor is obtained, and then by reckoning up the number of times
the subtractions have been made we have the answer required. Thus—

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
94 & 45 \\
7 & 7 \\
\hline
87 & 38 \\
7 & 7 \\
\hline
80 & 31 \\
7 & 7 \\
\hline
73 & 24 \\
7 & 7 \\
\hline
66 & 17 \\
7 & 7 \\
\hline
59 & 10 \\
7 & 7 \\
\hline
52 & 3 \\
7 & \hline
45
\end{array}
\]

Suggestions for a Black-board Lesson on Division.

1. Show when the process can be carried on mentally.

Illustration.—When the divisor does not exceed 12 we proceed thus—

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
9 & \underline{7864 \div 9} \\
\hline
& 873 + 7
\end{array}
\]

This process is called short division.

2. Show also that short division may be employed when the divisor is made up of factors, each factor being less than 12.

Illustration.—8923 \div 54.

Here the factors of 54 are 6 and 9. Then we proceed thus—

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
6 & \underline{8923} \\
9 & \underline{1487 - 1} \\
\hline
& 165 - 2
\end{array}
\]
ILLUSTRATIONS IN DIVISION.

Here, however, the method of obtaining the true remainder must be carefully explained to the scholars. In the above example the true remainder is 13, obtained as follows:—1487 is 2 more than 9 times 165, and 8923 is 1 more than 6 times 1487. Therefore 8923 is one more than the sum of 54 times 165 and 6 times 2, i.e. it exceeds 54 times 165 by \(6 \times 2 + 1 = 13\); or it contains 54, 165 times and 13 over.

3. Train the scholars to use factors in division only when they are not numerous, and when they can be found out easily.

This advice is given simply because too much time would be taken up in discovering the factors, and the result could be attained more easily and more rapidly by long division.

4. Show that the differences between short division and long division consist in the following:—

(a) Short division is employed when the carrying and subtracting can be done mentally.

(b) Long division is employed when the processes cannot easily be carried on mentally, but require to be recorded on slate or paper.

This might be illustrated by commencing long division with a small number as divisor, and showing the working in both cases. Thus—

Divide seventy-four thousand five hundred and thirty-eight by seven.

Long Division—

\[
\begin{array}{c}
7) 74538 (10648 \\
7 \\
45 \\
42 \\
33 \\
28 \\
58 \\
56 \\
1 
\end{array}
\]
Short Division—

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
7 & 74538 \\
\hline
10648 &=& 74538 - 10648 \\
\end{array}
\]

COMPOUND RULES.

In this treatise it is not intended to attempt to discuss the methods that might be recommended for the class teaching of each of the compound and higher rules of arithmetic.

Such a treatise as that of De Morgan's *Principles of Arithmetic* can be confidently recommended for giving a clear and exhaustive explanation of the "reasons and processes" of each rule, and this work ought to be diligently studied by every pupil-teacher.

The hints and suggestions given in the preceding pages will, it is hoped, unfold such simple methods of instruction in arithmetic as the writer believes would be serviceable in class teaching. The following supplementary suggestions are, however, here added in order to give a fuller exposition of his views on this branch of instruction.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS INSTRUCTION IN ARITHMETIC.

1. Notation should *always* be used; *i.e.* instead of reading out the figures to the class, the number should be given. Thus, the teacher should say, *Three thousand and forty-eight*, and not 3,048.

   The reason of this suggestion must be apparent when the time already spent in learning notation is considered.

2. Insist, uniformly, upon the scholars putting down the figures, whether on slate or paper, both neatly and correctly.

   Though this may take more time at first, yet the habit
of neatness and carefulness will prove of great value afterwards. Besides, rapidity will follow, in time, as a matter of course, though expertness and promptness ought by all means likewise to be insisted upon.

3. Exercise every diligence to prevent copying, as nothing does more to retard progress than the practice of this vicious habit.

**Mechanical Means to Prevent Copying.**

(a) Make the children stand back to back in pairs.
(b) Dictate different sums to the class, as A, B, C, &c., sums, taking care that those of the same letter are kept apart.
(c) Use sets of cards with different sums.

Suggestions (b) and (c) cannot be carried out, however, until each pupil has acquired some proficiency in the rules. Besides, children never copy when they can, without much difficulty, work the question for themselves.

**True Means for Preventing Copying.**

Constant vigilance, watchfulness, and care on the part of the teacher are the best means to prevent the children copying their neighbours' answers. Young teachers should be ever on the alert during the arithmetic lesson, and should, with much firmness, repress the habit of copying.

**Moral Means to Prevent Copying.**

(a) Train the children to look upon copying as dishonest and deceitful.
(b) Show them that truthfulness extends not merely to words but to acts as well, and that copying is a habit which no right-minded boy should indulge in.

4. Take the greatest pains with the junior classes in the class teaching of arithmetic.

Mr. Sheridan observes very justly "That the seeds of expertness in calculation must be sown in the junior classes,
and if neglected there the crop will be poor ever afterwards."

5. Let the scholars use paper instead of slates occasionally in the working of their sums.

This may be done somewhat after the following method:—

(a) In early stages let the sums be transcribed from the slates to the paper ruled for the purpose.

This practice secures neatness and accuracy.

(b) Let paper be used alone in the working of the sums.

This will create a habit of greater care on the part of the pupils, and lead also to greater thoughtfulness.

(c) Insist upon the home work being invariably done on paper.

VII.

MENTAL ARITHMETIC.

This is a subject of great practical importance, and considering how useful and even essential it is in many departments of every-day life, and how easily and even wonderfully the power of ready calculation can be acquired by most young people, the teacher ought, by all means, to give the scholars some training and practice in it from time to time.

Not only should short methods for arriving at correct answers in different rules be taught, but the reasons of the processes carefully explained.

The following hints—for the writer does not attempt to give rules, which can be found in text-books on the subject—are given for the young teacher's guidance:—
(a) Begin early with its instruction, and in the "Standard course," when a class has a fairly intelligent grasp of a rule, always frame a few questions to be worked out mentally by the scholars.

It has been observed that the chief value of this consists in the mental concentration which it necessitates. It is an educational effort, and gives strength and activity to the mind.

(b) Avoid rules got by rote, or what may be called "tricks" got up for show.

The object of this hint is simply to secure that instruction in "mental arithmetic" should be imparted in such a way that it might be helpful to the practical business of life, and to prevent the possibility of the subject being taught in that worthless manner of which exhibitions are often given in public examinations. Every true teacher who knows "these tricks of trade" gives the practice his unhesitating condemnation.

(c) In the early stages part of this exercise might be set down on slates, and the general results worked out mentally.

This often has the effect of creating a greater interest in the lesson, and tends to produce more lasting results.

(d) Let the sums to be worked mentally consist as much as possible of those processes which involve the addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of money, or of such items as are connected with the business and duties of every-day life:
VIII.—GRAMMAR.

The reports of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools for 1877–8 speak in very favourable terms of the progress made by the children in what are termed the "class subjects," and of grammar in particular.

Without exception these gentlemen warmly recommend the selection of grammar from the list of the "class subjects" in the "Code" as of the very highest value in improving the intelligence and quickening the general mental activity of the scholars.

Mr. Kennedy observes that grammar "Is the only subject in our elementary schools in which the scholar is carried into the region of perfectly pure thought." And he is also decidedly of opinion "That those public elementary schools, which shall succeed best in giving the scholars sound grammatical training, will, as a rule, turn out scholars having more intellectual power than the public elementary schools where grammar is not so acquired by the children."

There seems, however, to be a complaint, very general on the part of the inspectors of schools, that the teaching of grammar is too "booky and technical." It is also urged that lists of words and definitions are learnt by heart and said by rote, that these are too often got up from cheap little pamphlets, and that the children are not capable of applying the simplest rules of grammar.

The Saturday Review of the 8th September, 1877, describes these pamphlets in the following terms:—"They may be had on every theme, from the principles of cooking to those of physical geography. The knowledge packed in primers is the tinned meat of the intellectual life, and has almost taken the place of the fresh preparations which can only be obtained by the aid of grammar and dictionary."
SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING GRAMMAR.

1. Grammar is best taught by oral lessons, especially to the junior classes, and the use of technical terms should be as far as possible avoided.

   The grammar of any language presents difficulties of various kinds at every stage, and only careful, simple, and intelligent teaching, with familiar illustrations judiciously selected, can enable the pupils to overcome them.

2. Let the children carefully understand that the principal use of grammar is to teach how a language should be spoken and written correctly, and therefore they should try, as much as they possibly can, both in and out of school, to speak as they read, and to avoid incorrect forms of expression.

   This cannot be impressed too strongly or too frequently upon the scholars. We speak very much by ear, and unfortunately the large majority of the children in our elementary schools rarely hear language spoken in its grammatical form at home or in the street.

   Hence, the teacher should secure, as far as lies in his power, that the rules of grammar taught in schools should have a practical bearing upon the speaking, as well as the written compositions, of the pupils.

3. Let the earliest instruction be restricted to etymology, as orthography has very little to do with securing the great object which the teacher should have in view in giving instruction in grammar.

   The object of this hint is to prevent young and inexperienced teachers compelling the children to commit to memory many rules about vowels, consonants, diphthongs, triphthongs, liquids, labials, gutturals, nasals, palatals, &c. "How can these possibly help a child 'to speak or write his language with propriety,' which, in common school education, is all that grammatical instruction should aim at?"
4. The teacher should uniformly correct every ungrammatical form he observes in the language of his scholars.

   It is here that much good can be done. It is quite common for the children to say, "We have said us lessons." "There's the pens." "William and me was there." "They done it," &c., and though such expressions may be used in the hearing of the teacher, for no attention to be paid to them. They ought to be told of them at once, and instructed to avoid such errors in future.

5. Endeavour to cultivate a taste for reading, as it is a valuable agent in making the scholars to speak and write grammatically.

   Mr. John Bright, M.P., remarks that "It is very difficult for any person who reads well-written books and tries to understand them not to acquire a competent knowledge of grammar."

   Mr. Brookfield, an inspector of schools, has remarked, "The better instructed children acquire the principles of grammar unconsciously by reading and writing under the correction of their teachers."

6. Separate lessons, with a very large measure of practice, should be given on each of the parts of speech, or classes of words.

   The black-board should be freely used in this, as well as in every branch of the subject, and frequent exercises prescribed to the children

   HINTS FOR LESSONS ON THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

1. Begin with the noun, and explain clearly the distinction between a proper and a common noun, leaving out altogether, in the first stage, the discussion of the abstract and verbal noun.

   The primary duty of the teacher is to secure that his scholars can detect at once in their reading books the
THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

"naming words" or nouns, and to distinguish clearly between the names of persons, places, and things. Their further subdivision into abstract, verbal, collective, &c., being wholly unnecessary in a first course on grammar.

2. The adjective should of course be taught after the noun is clearly understood, but its definition should, as indeed in the case of all the parts of speech, be as simple and as little technical as possible.

The definition "Adjectives qualify nouns" is neither clear nor accurate, and is manifestly beyond the capacity of young children to appreciate. Perhaps it would be better to say that "It is a word used to describe an object."

3. The verb, adverb, pronoun, preposition, conjunction, and interjection should next follow in regular order, each with its clear and simple definition, with abundant and appropriate illustrations on the black-board.

With a clear and simple definition forcibly illustrated to the children, they will soon acquire correct ideas of each of the parts of speech, and be able to distinguish them readily enough in a sentence.

4. Try to secure from the children themselves "a sufficient number of examples" under each definition, "their attention being kept up, and their thought and observation exercised by being required to supply the examples from objects and actions familiar to them."

No better test could be suggested for ascertaining the extent of the pupil's knowledge of the parts of speech. It does not go beyond the range of his vocabulary, and is an appeal to his every-day life.

5. Not only should the teacher be careful that the definitions are correct, but he should be equally careful that they should not be changed, but "committed to memory exactly as they stand, and be repeated afterwards always in the same form of words."

The necessity for this suggestion is thus explained:—
“Changes in the form of definitions produce looseness and general inaccuracy not only in expression, but in the ideas themselves.”

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INFLECTIONS.

The changes which certain of the parts of speech undergo should by no means be hurried over. The utmost care should be taken not only in explaining, but in illustrating by simple and familiar examples, such terms as number, gender, case, mood, tense, person, comparison, &c.

The rule which should guide the teacher should be to leave inflection alone until the children can clearly distinguish and point out the parts of speech in a simple sentence.

HINTS FOR LESSONS ON INFLECTION.

(1) NUMBER.—Having explained the terms singular and plural, the teacher should endeavour, by interrogation, to get the children to name nouns that will vary in the manner of forming the plural: thus, book, dress, box, potato, leaf, day, wolf, body, &c. The children may now be asked to give the correct spelling of each of these words when it stands for more than one thing of the same kind.

The object of this hint is to show how easily the grammatical rules for the formation of the plural of nouns can be evolved from simple and familiar examples.

2. GENDER.—The children ought to understand the distinction between gender and sex very clearly—“that things may be of the male or female sex, but only words can be of the masculine, feminine, or neuter gender.”

3. CASE.—Perhaps it would be as well to leave the discussion of case until the children have some knowledge of the preposition and verb, and of the earlier rules of syntax.
This hint is given because the nominative and objective cases of nouns in English end alike, and the children ought by all means to know something about the rules of government before they can fully appreciate a lesson upon case as a simple inflection.

4. The comparison of the adjective, the moods and tenses of the verb, should all have careful explanation, and this explanation should be frequently dwelt upon by class instruction, and examples and illustrations on the blackboard, until it is apparent that the children clearly understand them.

It is important that the scholars should be well drilled on the inflection of the verb—perhaps the most difficult part of etymology—seeing that they are expected, in the Fourth Standard in our inspected schools, to be able to give full parsing in the grammar of the “class subjects.”

PARSING.

A writer on school management has observed that “Parsing is the A B C of grammar;” but this is only true in part. The children must know etymology well, and must also have acquired some little acquaintance with several rules of syntax, before they will be able to parse with ease and correctness.

Instead of laying down methods for a parsing exercise such as those understood by the terms “simple,” “etymological,” and “syntactical,” all of which are fully discussed in any of our good text-books on grammar, perhaps it would be better to submit a few suggestions that may be helpful to the young teacher in conducting the studies of his class on this branch of the subject.

HINTS ON PARSING.

1. Be careful that the children clearly understand the meaning of the passage, as much of the failure on the part...
of the children in the parsing of a sentence lies in their inability to grasp its true sense.

This is a difficulty common to most children in the early stages of parsing, and the teacher ought to take considerable pains in helping them over it.

2. In parsing, insist upon the scholars not only naming the several grammatical parts of the words in the passage, but also upon their showing the connection each word has with any other word in the sentence.

This is of importance, as it secures that the children are taught to answer such simple questions on syntax as the following—

1. Why is the verb first, second, or third person singular or plural? &c. &c.

2. Why is such and such a word in the nominative, possessive, or objective case?

The application of the rules of syntax bearing on these and other forms of government and concord is of great value when the children pass on to the study of composition.

3. Insist upon the children arranging the words of the passage in the direct or logical order before they begin to parse them.

Thus, in the passage—

"Then rose from sea to sky the wild farewell"

the words should be parsed in the following order—

"The wild farewell rose then from sea to sky."

4. The derivations of the technical terms used in English grammar should be explained, and the children should be frequently exercised on the simple definitions, and on the more common rules of syntax.

It would be well for the young teacher to cultivate some acquaintance with Latin—a knowledge of which is of great value in the study of English grammar. The frequent interrogation of the children in regard to the reasons of their
detailed parsing would also prevent them falling into mere mechanical forms.

ANALYSIS.

The true object of analysis is to give "definiteness, precision, and accuracy in the use of language."

Unfortunately this object is but too seldom realized by some teachers, and the pupils are treated to a long array of "very learned and cumbersome terms" at once unnecessary and dangerous.

The use of such expressions as "adjuncts," "accessory sentences," "subordinate accessory sentences," "abridged subordinate adverbial sentences," &c., cannot but be very bewildering and confusing to most school children.

Mr. Robinson observes that "Pupils who are taught these terms very often know nothing clearly of what they really mean."

If well and simply taught, analysis is of very great service in unfolding the true meaning of an author's thoughts as these are expressed in language, and of enabling the children to have a clear and accurate acquaintance with grammatical forms in their application to parsing.

The method of teaching this subject recommended by the author, will be found in his *Elementary English Grammar and Analysis*, where it is treated at some length.

SIMPLE HINTS ON THE TEACHING OF ANALYSIS.

(1) Use the black-board very freely.
(2) Restrict the attention of the children, for some time at least, to the following points:—

(a) That in every sentence we have *first* "the thing spoken of," and *secondly*, "what is said about it."

(3) Give numerous examples to be similarly divided
until the children thoroughly understand what is termed a simple sentence.

(4) Explain at this point the meaning of the terms subject and predicate.

(5) Deal then with the word or words sometimes joined to the subject and so on with those attached to the predicate, at the same time giving the children sufficient examples to analyse as home work.

(6) Gradually train the children in this way to a knowledge of the different parts of a complex and a compound sentence, deferring the technical terms by which they are distinguished until they are thoroughly able to pick out the different clauses.

(7) Passages involving some little difficulty in the exact apprehension of their meaning, occurring in the selections of prose and poetry in the class reading books, should be daily analysed, thereby gradually enabling the children to "acquire the power of dealing with the logical construction of propositions," and to exercise the critical faculty in regard to what they read.

IX.—COMPOSITION.

This subject could not be better introduced here than by the following quotation from a report of one of the most intelligent and observant of Her Majesty's Inspectors, who, in giving the results of his examination of upwards of 300 schools, says—"Composition is, I am sorry to say, extremely poor. The exercise given is generally a letter or a theme upon some common object, with which the children ought to be acquainted, a description of the last school treat or holiday excursion, or the school-room and a day at school. The short, ill-expressed, and for the most part idealess pro-
ductions, which I have to revise, are proofs that our education has as yet failed to affect the intelligence to any extent. There should be no difficulty in setting down in simple grammatical sentences, with some regard to sequence, the recollections of observations of a natural object frequently seen, or of an event in which a part has been taken, if the mind has received any training worthy of the name. But I fear that the habit of observation is not quickened and directed, nor is much attention paid to the cultivation of the faculty of expressing in words the thoughts that float in the mind."

This extract, it is to be feared, only too faithfully represents the state of the case in regard to "composition" in the great majority of our elementary schools.

Perhaps the too mechanical nature of the instruction which the "Revised Code" fosters and necessitates lies at the root of the evil.

Considering how important it is that young people, when they pass from the upper classes of our inspected schools, should be able to express their thoughts in writing with readiness and clearness, as well as with grammatical accuracy, some little pains should be taken to encourage them to acquire this art.

A few brief hints are here given to guide the teacher in this direction.

**HINTS ON COMPOSITION.**

1. Let the earliest attempts be of the very simplest possible character.

   (a) Use the black-board in view of the class in a first stage, getting the children to "build" a description of a common object, such as a hat, bell, pair of boots, &c., the teacher *drawing* from the scholars, by interrogation, such replies as would be necessary to give unity and completeness to the description.

   This might be repeated from time to time until the teacher considers that the scholars have a fairly intelligent appreciation of the method, and then one or two *subjects*
might be prescribed as an occasional exercise for homework.

(b) The form and arrangement of a letter might also be worked out on the black-board in a similar manner, and home work prescribed for the children at the same time, the subjects suggested being, however, very simple and easy.

These exercises should be corrected with great care, and the various faults in composition, &c., pointed out to the children.

2. Writing from memory should be the next step, the narratives at first being of the simplest possible character, and selected from the short stories found in the reading books of Standards I. and II.

3. Equivalent phrases from good authors, or what is termed paraphrasing, should next follow.

These equivalents are very numerous in the English language.

Phrases or sentences from books might be selected, and the scholars might be expected to set opposite to them equivalent forms of expression. Passages might thus be very profitably translated from one set of expressions to another.

4. Simple original composition should next follow, the teacher by the exercise endeavouring to secure the following objects:—

(a) Clearness, i.e. presenting what is intended without the smallest obscurity, so that the meaning cannot be misapprehended even by the most careless reader.

(b) Conciseness, i.e. avoiding the repetition of the same sentiments and arguments, and endeavouring to be direct and plain.

"Clearness and simplicity in composition are the most seemly medium for the manifestation of truth."

To avoid—

(c) All incorrect forms of expressions, and the use of barbarisms and provincialisms.
(d) All pompous diction and high-sounding expressions—"a conceit which shows a wish to display learning, and partakes of affectation."

In some such way as this, and by encouraging a taste for reading among the children, there is little doubt that considerable improvement would be made in the subject of "composition" in our elementary schools.

X.—GEOGRAPHY.

Most of Her Majesty's Inspectors, in their recent reports, complain of the manner in which geography seems to be taught in school.

The following are some of the remarks made by these gentlemen:

"The cases are still too numerous in which mere cram of a little text-book is the sole preparation for the examination in geography." Another gentleman says—"There are many teachers who make the weary scholars learn by heart tedious strings of mere names and numbers, who are content with mechanical instruction and stereotyped sets of words, who work as if they and their scholars were machines and not reasonable beings."

Observations also to the following effect are only too common in the reports of these gentlemen. Of the geography of the II. Standard the results are most unfavourable. As far as the chief part of it is concerned—the motions of the earth, cause of day and night, &c.—it is a complete failure. The children in the III. Standard are able to repeat strings of names, but their replies seem to indicate that they have only the words of the book before their eyes, and not the aspect of the places on the map. The same style of criticism applies to Standards IV. V. and VI. as well.
Perhaps the true explanation of all these shortcomings is to be found in the remarks of the Rev. W. J. Kennedy, M.A., one of Her Majesty's senior inspectors, when he says—"As a rule, I find that the teaching staff is insufficient for all the work of the school, and that in geography, time cannot be found to give all the oral explanations and instruction which the teacher would desire to do if practicable." No doubt the intelligent and successful teaching of geography is difficult, at any rate with the present teaching staff. Still let us, as far as we possibly can, endeavour to ascertain on what intelligent principles it may be improved.

SUGGESTIONS FOR A COURSE OF INSTRUCTION IN GEOGRAPHY—PRELIMINARY HINTS.

(a) The maps ought not to be rolled up, but exposed, like the wall pictures, before the view of the children.

By this means, and without a monitor, and even before receiving any regular instruction on the subject at all, the children, through the eye, are able to collect a good deal of information; such as the relative sizes of the oceans, continents, &c., the distribution of land and water, &c., all of which are of great value to the teacher when the children are advanced to class instruction.

(b) Let the children begin the study at a very early age (a monitor assisting them), during the brief intervals from other lessons (such as reading and spelling), to "distinguish the coloured from the uncoloured or white parts of the map.”

The object in view here is to enable the young people to understand what is really meant by a map.

(c) It should be now clearly explained to the children that the words "top," "bottom," "right-hand," and "left-hand," used with reference to a map, are simple substitutes for the more technical ones of "north," "south," "east," and "west;" and these points should be illus-
trated on the map by showing that Africa is below, i.e. to the south of Europe, &c. &c.; and by working in this simple way even very young children may be gradually prepared for the geography of the first stage, or that prescribed for the Second Standard.

Diagrams such as those published by the Messrs. Cameron of Edinburgh, and Jarrold, Murby, of London, are of great use in this stage.

GEOGRAPHY IN THE STANDARDS.—

STANDARD II.

There is no doubt that the geography of the Second Standard is exceedingly difficult to teach, especially so when this duty is assigned to young pupil-teachers. Dealing as it does with the shape and motions of the earth, the causes of day and night, the seasons, &c., it requires a facility of illustration and a keen appreciation of the mental grasp of young children which most young teachers fail to comprehend.

HINTS FOR ITS INSTRUCTION.

1. Endeavour to procure a working model of the earth to illustrate its shape and motions, and, with the aid of a lamp or candle, the children can readily appreciate the causes of day and night.

2. Avoid asking the same questions day after day in identically the same words, as this is certain to lead to little interest on the part of the children, and to answers being given "without an intelligent understanding of the reply."

One inspector remarks as the result of a wide experience on this point—"One favourite form of question is that in which only one word has to be supplied by the children, the teacher giving the rest, as 'The earth rotates about an imaginary line passing through its centre called the—' 'Axis,' shout the children in a body, led by one or two of the sharp ones in the class who are in the habit of answering."

(71)
Instead of asking what an island is, the question might be varied thus—"Tell me the name of a piece of land round the edge of which a traveller has walked, close to the edge of the water, until he returned to the place he started from."

Variations such as this in dealing with the definitions of a cape, bay, river, &c., might be freely practised, and no doubt with much profit to the young people's understanding.

**GEOGRAPHY IN STANDARDS III. IV. V. and VI.**

In these standards the geography is principally of the *descriptive* character, and there is great danger, therefore, in the subject being taught more from text-books than from maps.

Not only is this the case, but as Mr. Morris observes, "There is much reason to fear that the black-board does not occupy the position which it merits in the lessons on this subject."

If well taught the geography of these standards ought to be "full of interest and even of fascination" for the scholars. The following brief suggestions, it is hoped, may be found useful to secure this:—

1. Prescribe a certain amount of work to be learned at home from a text-book, and insist upon its being well prepared, and let it be repeated as a class lesson by the children in school with the map before them.

2. Do not consider the lesson as complete when the mere matter of the text-book is repeated, but add to this what has been carefully collated by the teacher in his own preparation.

Mr. Robinson observes in connection with this that geography "Ought not to be taught as a system of names, but as an interpretation of nature and art." It might well be said also "that there is scarcely any subject which requires from the teacher a greater amount of general knowledge, or a greater tact in bringing his information to bear on each day's lessons."
3. Make the subject interesting and instructive by combining with each day's lessons something of history, as connected with the races and habits of the people, and with the productions of each country.

Mr. Collins, H. M. Inspector, recommends that the political side of geography should be more dwelt upon. He also adds, as appropriate to the above hint, that "Of all countries, England is emphatically one of which it may be said that 'wherever we walk a history is beneath our feet'; and every county has its own historical associations, its own local traditions, its own famous men of past times; and some acquaintance with the history of their county would be more interesting, and not less valuable infor-

mation, both to the children and their teacher, than the names of its manufactures and market towns."

4. Let the teacher study books of travel, and lively narratives of tourists, with which the literature of our times abounds, and use this information in giving freshness and life to the teaching of the subject.

In the Minutes of Council 1848–9, vol. ii., page 469, there is the following observation:—

"The description of a country like Switzerland for in-
stance, its mountains, lakes, plains, glaciers, waterfalls, avalanches, smiling valleys, and eternal snows, all accom-
panied by a proper map and a description of the habits, history, and government of the people, would certainly do far more to instruct the mind than a catalogue of boundaries and divisions, involving a number of names, to which no mental imagery whatever is attached."

5. The teacher should not only make an intelligent use of the map, and exercise lively oral instruction, but he ought also to seek his illustrations, first of all from the local objects of interest, physical or historical, which are familiar to the children.

Mr. Steele says, "I have seen Preston boys receive quite a new sensation on being told that when they walked up the river and saw the Darwen run into the Ribble, they
had before them what the geography books describe in
mystic terms as a 'tributary' and a 'confluence.'"

In the same way, too, familiar and homely illustrations
might do much to make intelligible several of the subjects
prescribed for the geography of the Second Standard.

6. Use skeleton maps when the scholars are familiar
with the physical and political facts of any country, and
get them to fill in the towns, rivers, mountains, &c.

The use of a skeleton map might be made extremely
interesting if the situations of the different mountain-
chains and ranges were first filled in, because the slope of
the land, and the courses of the various rivers might then
be deduced, and through them, also, the situation of the
principal cities and towns.

7. Accustom the children, likewise, to give a rough out-
line of any country, with whose conformation or coast-line
they are tolerably familiar, on the black-board with a piece
of chalk. Each child might be asked in turn to fill in
a small portion of this outline.

These hints on the teaching of geography could not be
better brought to a close than by quoting a few observa-
tions made by Mr. Moseley in his report printed in the
Minutes of Council of 1845–6.

"Speak to the scholar of the living men who inhabit
any of these places pointed out by the teacher on the
map, tell him of their stature and aspect, and dress
and ways of life, and of their forms of worship. Speak
of the climate of that country, of the forms of vegetable
and animal life with which his life would be conversant
if he dwelt there, of the trees and flowers that grow
there, and of the birds and beasts—and you will carry
his interest with you."
XI.—HISTORY.

Of all studies pursued by the young people attending our elementary schools, that of history, perhaps, admits most of being treated in a picturesque and pleasant manner. Besides, as it has been well observed, "In a free country a knowledge of history must be regarded as necessary and not a luxury of the people's intellectual life." And the reason for this is not far to seek, and deed must be apparent to the least inquiring of minds. Every man is a citizen, and one part of his work in life is to discharge well and truly the duties of a citizen. He cannot do this if he is altogether ignorant of history." A man who knows little or nothing of the struggles which have been made to form the constitutional life of his country, and to secure to him his political privileges, must be sadly wanting in the dignity and intelligence of citizenship. Unfortunately, however, as a "class" subject for examination by Her Majesty's Inspectors, it appears to be sadly neglected.

In the Blue-book on Education for 1877–8, remarks like the following in the different reports of these gentlemen are not infrequent.

"Of history as a class subject I have not had much experience, and what I have examined is to a large extent worthless." "The results of the teaching of history in the upper standards are the same as pupil-teachers and teachers—date knowledge, exemplifying memory or cram is plentiful, but intelligent knowledge is wanting." "History is certainly meagre, very rarely undertaken, and often confused to a distressing degree."

Observations of this kind manifestly suggest the best means of teaching the subject so as to make it, not only interesting and instructive, but also to render the scenes and events with which history deals a good field for mental discipline and elevated thought.
“How can young Englishmen be better taught to love their country than by learning what their country has done in the past, how she has established her institutions, and achieved her fame?”

HINTS FOR THE TEACHING OF HISTORY.

1. In the first place the teacher ought to know the subject well himself; he ought to qualify himself to teach it properly, so that the “history lesson may not be a gaunt skeleton, but a warm and goodly living body.”

   Unless the teacher’s mind is full of the subject, the teaching of history simply means the pupils reading aloud in succession a certain number of pages from some textbook or manual, and a few uninteresting, spiritless questions framed upon what they have read.

2. “Casual” or “informal” lessons on history might be given in connection with instruction in geography—a tale of war, ambition, industry, lofty genius, or of great suffering, might naturally be suggested by the sight of a place on the map, and interestingly narrated to the scholars.

   Battle-fields and birth-places might very well afford opportunities for this. For example, a great war like that of the “Rossee,” or the signing of “Magna Charta” might be, very pleasantly, and with little expenditure of labour, used to enlist the “attention and sympathies of a very youthful class.”

3. The exhibition of a Roman coin, or the derivation of a local name from the Norman, Danish, or Saxon languages, could also be used as “pegs” on which to speak of the Roman occupation of Britain, and the changes produced in our islands by the Norman, Danish, and Saxon invasions.

   Subjects of this kind might be now and then brought before children of comparatively tender age, just as many facts in astronomy are done.
4. "Epoch men" should also be referred to in the earlier stages of a historical course, for to relate the life of one of these men is to relate the history of the times in which he lived.

Not only would a biographical sketch of such men as King Alfred, Thomas à Beckett, The Black Prince, Sir Walter Raleigh, &c., embody to a large extent the political, religious, and social circumstances of the times in which they lived, but "an inspiration is caught by the most artless learner from the words and deeds of our great historic men."

5. When text-books are introduced be careful, while insisting upon the scholars committing to memory the outlines of English History, such as the great periods, the succession of the Dynasties, the important events in each reign with dates "to mark the lapse of time," that the teacher is the master, not the servant of the text-book, thereby guarding against dry, formal, and unintellectual instruction.

As a rule mere text-books on history are "heavy, mechanical, and unanimating," packed full of names, and dates, and facts, and to restrict the pupils' attention simply to their contents is not worthy of the name of teaching.

6. Do not confine the historical lessons to the earlier epochs of English History, but let the most modern times with their stirring events have due prominence.

It is too much the case for the children in our elementary schools to be taught all about the "invasion of Julius Caesar," "the settlement of the Danes," the reigns of the Norman kings, &c., and to hear little about how our great Empire in India was won, how America was colonized by, and lost to, us, and how our immense colonial possessions were acquired.

These latter ought to be specially interesting to the children of the working-classes, and should be dwelt upon by the teacher.

7. "Oral" lessons should be given, with the aid of the
black-board, on points in history which are the result of the teacher's own reading and research, and these ought to be lively and graphic.

**ILLUSTRATION.**—Suppose the Feudal age to be selected for treatment as an oral lesson, the teacher should proceed somewhat in the following manner:—

(a) Set forth the leading features of those institutions identified with the system by

1. A description of chivalry and its usages.
2. Serfdom, picturing out its character and influence.
3. The great castles and cathedrals erected during the period, with descriptions of domestic life and manners.

(b) He should also refer to the foreign and domestic wars connected with the period, describing—

1. The military system.
2. The dress and degrees of rank in the armies.
3. The effect of these wars.

In this way the political system, and the condition of society extending from the Norman Conquest to the wars of the Roses, might be utilized as oral lessons full fraught with interest to the scholars.

8. Some few facts on political economy ought also to be communicated in the course of the lessons on history, especially to the upper class, such as the following:—

(a) The condition of the labouring classes at different eras in the history of England in the past.
(b) The relation which they sustained to their employers.
(c) Their manner of living and the wages they earned, &c.

This is adapting history to the conditions of life of the large majority of those attending our inspected schools, and to their possible future experiences.
CONCLUDING REMARKS ON THE TEACHING OF HISTORY.

(1) Cultivate the art of "picturing out" in every stage of the instruction in history.
(2) Let the biographical and the historical be combined.
(3) Train the children to the writing of "abstracts" or "continuous narratives" on the subjects, from time to time, brought under their notice.
(4) Read aloud to the class occasionally descriptive passages from Macaulay or Sir Walter Scott, which will help to give colouring to a sober record, and to assist the learner in embodying forth to himself the life and spirit of the past.

The previous remarks and hints, though made with reference to a course of study in English History, apply with equal force to courses of study in the history of Rome, Greece, &c.

XII.—OBJECT LESSONS.

In a little work published on this subject by the author of this manual, the following remarks may be found in the preface.

"Many years' practical experience with all the details of school work justifies me in asserting that no part of school instruction is more interesting or beneficial to the pupils than a collective, or gallery, lesson in some department of natural history, or connected with the industrial occupations of our civilized life. Indeed, in all good schools it will be found that the time-tables for the regulation of the working of the classes make provision for lessons on such subjects, at stated intervals, during the week. The danger is that, in our elementary schools,
and under the operation of *Revised Codes*, the instruction is apt to degenerate to what is merely mechanical and routine, so that the *true* teacher will be only too glad to adopt such a course of training as will tend to excite interest and to develop thought."

**BRIEF HINTS FOR THE PREPARATION OF NOTES OF LESSONS.**

*(a)* The pupil-teachers in the infant school, or those who have the charge of the lowest standard in the boys' or girls' school, should confine themselves to "object lessons" or lessons in natural history; as the prominent principle in the teachers' mind at this stage should be to cultivate the children's powers of observation.

Dr. Calderwood justly remarks, in one of his essays on "Teaching," that "Pictorial illustrations and object lessons must supply attraction to the youngest scholars. The earliest demands upon memory should, for the most part, involve little more than involuntary recollection."

For a course of this kind the school should be abundantly furnished with objects, specimens, and pictorial illustrations.

*(b)* The subjects for the "Notes of Lessons" for the upper standards should be much more varied. Those which relate to physical phenomena, and those which relate to man, might be selected. At various stages in these standards the scholars ought to be trained not merely to observe, but to "account for changes."

Lessons upon the "tides," the "atmosphere," "water," &c., and upon prominent events in English history might be suggested.

*(c)* The young teacher should also provide himself with some good works on "Object Lessons" as guides and models for him in the preparation of his "notes."

Such works as Walker's *Object Lessons*, Ross's *How to Train Young Eyes and Ears*, Lake's *Object Lessons*, and Park's *Object Lessons*, can be recommended.
(d) Avoid the slavish use of "prepared" notes of lessons, however "conveniently" they may be arranged for the teacher, as this practice would little tend to his own improvement, or be productive of the best "mental training."

The teacher, indeed, ought to make these prepared notes simply his "models," or if he uses them as lessons at all he should supplement the details given under each of the subjects by careful and accurate research.

(e) In every "object lesson," and, indeed, in every lesson whatever, the teacher ought to use no word that is not perfectly apprehensible by the scholars, or within the range of their thought.

Mr. Fearon observes, in his work on School Inspection, that many teachers fail in giving a successful gallery lesson because it is not set out in "plain, homely language," and in not "dwelling on those points in it which come home to the children."

(f) In preparing "notes of lessons" for any class in the school, let the subject be what it may, the teacher should ask himself the question, "Is this that I am going to say such that the children can see it and feel it," and, therefore, profit to the fullest extent by my instruction?

The rule, here, simply is that every lesson should be arranged and thought out in relation to the class, junior or senior, for whose benefit it is intended. Great care should be exercised that the child should be taught by words which he clearly apprehends and fully realizes.

(g) Not only should the "matter" of the lesson be interesting as well as instructive, but the "manner" should be lively, cheerful, and vivacious.

The object of this hint is to induce the teacher to avoid the lecturing style, and to endeavour to be as conversational in his lesson as possible.

"The great value of object lessons does not consist in the information conveyed by them, for that at best can only be scanty, but of cultivating accurate observation and of arous-
ing interest in things around the children, and within the
range of their every-day experience."

This can be best secured, not by lecturing to the children,
but by endeavouring to get them to take some active part
in what is going on.

Instead of giving abstract rules for the construction of
an "object lesson," two model forms are here appended,
which are extracted from the author's little work on
"object lessons," with some few alterations to suit the
present purpose.

1. FULL NOTES OF A LESSON ON THE MOLE.

STANDARDS III. IV. V. AND VI.

Time.—Forty-five minutes.

Apparatus required.—Picture of animal, black-board,
chalk, &c.

Object of lesson.—To show the wondrous and beautiful
adaptation of the entire organization for the underground
life which this animal has to lead.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Heads</th>
<th>Matter</th>
<th>Method</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General Description</td>
<td>Frame - work of mole apparently long</td>
<td>Sketch on the black-board a rough outline of the bony framework of the mole, and explain term cylindrical.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- limbs short — body thin — ribs much the same length — bones of neck very strong.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>— Skeleton cylindrical in shape.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fore Parts</td>
<td>Fore-feet very strong, thick, and muscular.</td>
<td>Explain the purposes served by this. (1) Can dig its way with great force and rapidity. (2) Can pursue its prey. (3) Can escape the search of active enemies.</td>
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</table>
### Heads | Matter. | Method.
--- | --- | ---
**Hind Parts.** | Small and tapering—general shortening. | Show the purposes served by this arrangement. (1) It enables the animal to pass easily through the earth which the fore-feet have thrown behind. (2) If each part of the body had been of equal thickness (a) Its flight would have been hindered. (b) It would have been more difficult to secure its safety.

**Hands.** | In the form of a scoop—every finger armed with a strong pointed nail—*groove* on the under surface—all come together at the tips. Fore-feet indeed turned outwards. | (1) This arrangement makes the hands a powerful kind of digger or hoe. (2) Had the fore-feet been longer they would have impeded its course. (3) Would have hindered the quick repetition of its strokes in working. The fore-feet turned outwards enable the animal to throw all the loose soil behind it. (Draw sketch of hands of mole on black-board.)

**Skin.** | Very close and tough—can only be cut by a sharp knife. Hair short, silky or velvety, lies smoothly in every direction. Short hairs growing perpendicularly from skin. | The tough skin prevents its being injured when digging in soil among bits of glass, sharp stones, &c. The smooth, short, silky hair preserves the skin clear as the animal moves backwards and forwards through its underground passages.

**Eyes.** | Very small, and covered very closely with fur. | (A rough section of habitation of mole might be drawn on black-board.) Small eyes a source of great comfort to the mole. (1) A small degree of
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<th>Heads</th>
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<tr>
<td>Hearing and Smell</td>
<td>Hearing very acute—nose long and slender</td>
<td>Acute sense of sound gives notice of the most distant approach of danger. Sense of smell directs it to its food in the midst of darkness. Long nose well adapted for thrusting into small holes in search of its food.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where Found</td>
<td>Common mole abundant throughout the greater part of Europe, except extreme north and south—not found in Ireland or some of the Scottish islands. Other varieties found in North America, Mozambique, and Cape Colony.</td>
<td>Point out these places on the map.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Habits</td>
<td>Entirely carnivorous. Lives on earthworms, frogs, snails, and small birds—very voracious—digests rapidly—fond of blood—will even eat its own kind if pressed by hunger.</td>
<td>The habits of the animal have been inferred in previous remarks. Explain the term carnivorous.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Uses to Man</td>
<td>Considered rather to be destructive than useful. Skin is often made into purses and other articles.</td>
<td>Explain, however, that they must contribute to the fertility of some kinds of soil by the continual tillage which they carry on.</td>
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</tbody>
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FULL NOTES OF A LESSON ON NAILS AND NAIL-MAKING.

FOR STANDARDS I. AND II.

Time.—Thirty minutes.

Apparatus.—Black-board, chalk, and a number of specimens of different kinds of nails.

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<tr>
<td>Description.</td>
<td>A pointed piece of metal, usually with flattened or rounded head for driving into woodwork.</td>
<td>Endeavour to draw from the children by a few simple questions what a nail is. Why it has a head.</td>
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</table>

Varieties.  
(1) Screw-nails.  
(2) Hob-nails.  
(3) Driving-nails.  
(4) Brads.  
(5) Tacks.  
(6) Spikes, &c.  

(1) These can easily be described, and their utility. (2) Used for driving into boots and shoes. Why is the spike small and the head large? (3) Why called driving nails? (4) Describe these either as headless nails or with a small projection in place of a head. (5) Flat-headed nails. (6) Used for heavy carpenters' work. A specimen of each of these varieties ought to be shown to the class, and, where possible, sketched on the black-board.

At this point the teacher should explain to the class that all kinds of nails may be divided into two classes—one called wrought nails, because they are worked or made by the hand with the aid of a hammer. The other called cut nails, because they are shaped, cut, or made by machinery.
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<th>Heads</th>
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| Wrought Nails—process of manufacture | Iron of cheap quality used.  
1st Process.—Iron put through a rolling-mill, then cut into thin rods in proportion to size of nail. These rods called nail-rods, and are bought in this state by nailers.  
2nd Process.—Nails made in smithy. Light weight put on bellows when nail-rods are in the fire. Two or three rods kept in smithy fire at one time. When sufficiently heated a rod is taken out and beat on an anvil. Point made by beating or hammering, cut off in lengths to suit size of nail required. Cut on short chisel fixed upright on the anvil. Size of nail correctly measured by slips of iron—nail when cut drops into pan—two nails made from rod before it is again heated. | Why inferior iron is used? Explain that this rolling-mill is for the purpose of making the iron into thin bars. 

Nailers—i.e. those who make nails from the iron rods. Explain the term smithy. Why so? Because the rods are thin and do not require much time to heat. Why bellows are used at all? Why is this necessary? Explain what the anvil is. |
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<tr>
<td>Head of nail.</td>
<td>3rd Process.—Hot nail lifted by <em>tweezers</em>—put into a steel instrument with holes in it suited to size of nail—instrument called <em>bore</em>—holes at top of <em>bore</em> shaped like head of nail required. By a few blows of the hammer to thick part of nail, the head takes the shape of hole of bore, and a perfect wrought nai is made.</td>
<td>Explain the word <em>tweezers</em>. Why made of steel?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Cut Nails.     | Different kinds of machines employed for different kinds of nails. Principle, however, very much the same. 1st Process.—Sheet-iron cut into strips by rolling - shears. Strips held by men or boys and driven onwards into the machine as fast as nails of required size are cut off. 2nd Process.—The nail, after being cut off the strip, is caught by a kind of clasp, and pressed, to give a head to it. 3rd Process.—Cut nails then put into oven and heated, and, when taken out, allowed to cool very gradually. | Explain that nails are more generally made by machinery, because the process is a much cheaper one than by hand. |

"Some machines will turn out ten miles of nail-rods every hour."

This process is called *annealing*—the object being to harden them and make them less brittle. (Explain.)
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<tr>
<td>Where manufacture is carried on.</td>
<td>Nails largely made in Birmingham, and in the towns and villages around it—also largely made in France and in the northern parts of Europe. America is also famous for nail-making.</td>
<td>Map to be used here, and explain why the trade is carried on in this part of the country.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concluding Remarks. History of Trade.</td>
<td>Large numbers of girls and grown-up women employed in making nails. Most inventions for improvement in the manufacture of nails have had their origin in America.</td>
<td>The art of nail-making one of the most ancient trades in Great Britain.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CONCLUDING REMARKS.**

Should the young teacher desire to investigate further into the utility and scope of the "object lesson," the author would recommend him to consult Herbert Spencer's work on the *Science of Education*, and a more recent and very interesting volume by Professor Bain on *Education as a Science*, being vol. xxv. of the "International Series," published by Messrs. C. Kegan, Paul, & Co. of London.
XIII.—SPECIFIC SUBJECTS OF SECULAR INSTRUCTION.

Though it is hardly within the objects contemplated by this little work to discuss the method in which the various subjects included in Schedule IV. of the Revised Code should be taught, yet, as every good school now makes some attempt to impart specific instruction in one or more of them, a few general observations on the schedule are here given.

This schedule "specifies" ten subjects, with three stages in each, on a successful examination being passed in any one of which, extra grants are given, by the Education Department, from year to year.

These subjects are English Literature, Mathematics, Latin, French, German, Mechanics, Animal Physiology, Physical Geography, Botany, and Domestic Economy (for girls).

For the sake of brevity and "method" these different subjects are here shortly discussed under three heads, viz. "English Literature," the "Languages," and the "Sciences."

ENGLISH LITERATURE.

Perhaps it would be as well, in the first place, to suggest the names of a few authors from whose works the requisite amount of matter might be judiciously selected to meet the requirements of the course prescribed in the schedule referred to.

FIRST STAGE.

Sir Walter Scott's poems: Lady of the Lake, Marmion, Lay of the Last Minstrel. Longfellow: Voices of the Night,

Scott is recommended because he has an innate sense of beauty drawn from every natural object, and rejoices in “air and sunshine and leafy trees,” and possesses a healthy tone of feeling, glowing in genial sympathy for all human pains, sorrows, and joys. These characteristics are of the highest value in our elementary schools, as, by means of such literature, a taste for what is true, beautiful, natural, and refined might be cultivated on the part of the young attending them.

Longfellow’s Voices of the Night are simple and natural, and breathe forth a freshness that is peculiarly attractive to the youthful mind. Many of his miscellaneous pieces, as for instance The Village Blacksmith, Excelsior, and The Bridge, have the same general features, and are clothed in language suited to the capacities of children for a “First Stage” in the Literature course.

Goldsmith has been spoken of as “In wit a man; in simplicity a child;” and The Deserted Village and The Traveller have “no equals in purity of diction, sweetness of rhythm, just feeling, and natural truth.”

Wordsworth’s Minor Pieces and Thomson’s Seasons are all extremely well adapted for the first stage also, from the beauty of their versification and the power of “description” which they exhibit.

Of Burns it may be asked, “Where in the whole range of poetry is there anything so perfect as the poems To a Mountain Daisy, The Vision, and The Cotter’s Saturday Night?”

SECOND AND THIRD STAGES.

For these stages the range of English poetry is very much wider, as there is less reason for the selection of those authors whose pieces are clothed in language at once simple and easily apprehensible.

The great object, however, which the teacher should
ever have in view, in his selection of pieces for these stages, should be to introduce those only in which a healthy moral tone breathes and predominates in every page.

Amid much in our poetical imaginative literature that is fitful, irregular, immoral, and sceptical, there is a still greater quantity that may be given to youth, without the smallest hesitation, as being wholly free from every taint that might corrupt or predispose to what is immoral or profane.

The selection ought to be by all means free from what is hackneyed, but should be true to nature, pervaded by thoughtful observation, pure in diction, elegant, forcible, and fascinating. Selections therefore from such authors as Milton, Shakespeare, Cowper, Wordsworth, Southey, Keats, Rogers, Kirke White, Hannah More, Felicia Dorothea Hemans, &c., can be highly commended.

HINTS FOR CLASS INSTRUCTION IN ENGLISH LITERATURE.

1. The first duty of the teacher is to carry out systematically a careful explanation of the meanings of words.

   This ought not to be done in a "dry, technical, dictionary-like style," but by the use of the black-board, giving a lively, clear, and animated description and illustration of the words.

2. Train the pupils in the use of language by encouraging them from the first stage to repeat the substance of a paragraph in their own words, "their manner of doing so being criticised and corrected by the teacher."

   This is something more than a mere examination on the subject matter of the lesson. It implies also an examination on the language of the passage, certain expressions and ideas being "pressed on the children's notice and associated with certain thoughts."

3. Each passage in the authors selected should be care-
fully analysed, so as to conduce to habits of accuracy and observation, and to the pupil’s ability to “pick out and distinguish the leading and subordinate thoughts, to follow the course of an argument, and to grasp the real drift and meaning of a passage.”

It has been remarked by a writer on education that “Analysis insensibly gives a pupil the habit of pausing on what he reads, and familiarizes him with the recognized combinations and current idioms of the language.”

4. The teacher should carefully explain all allusions, “metaphorical expressions, and peculiar idioms” that occur in the different passages, and should see that they are properly translated into simple grammatical prose.

If pupil-teachers and assistant masters would set themselves with diligence and earnestness to the task of qualifying themselves to conduct a class on “English Literature” according to the system herein recommended, we might look “with confidence to the fruit that would be reaped from a generation nurtured with the kindly milk of their native literature and their noble mother-tongue.”

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THE LANGUAGES.

From the fact that comparatively few of our young teachers have qualified themselves to impart specific instruction in the subjects included under the term “Languages” in Schedule IV. of the Revised Code of Education, our remarks must be necessarily brief on this, and intended more to show their importance as a branch of study than to indicate the manner in which they ought to be taught.

The subject therefore may be considered under the heads—1st, The Classical Tongues; and 2d, Modern Languages.
THE CLASSICS.

Under this designation are included of course the Greek and Latin languages, though Latin only is specified in the schedule referred to.

The extent of each year's course is clearly defined, and of course varies in difficulty from stage to stage. Though it is but very little, comparatively speaking, that a scholar in one of our state-aided schools can acquire of the Latin tongue, still that little may be turned to good account. The study of Latin is a very effective discipline for the mind, and, at the same time, it furnishes a rich store of knowledge which has a highly practical bearing on an English youth's ability to appreciate, and to use with facility and elegance, his own mother-tongue, which is, to a large extent, derived from Latin. The larger his acquaintance, therefore, with the language of ancient Rome, the deeper and more thorough will be his understanding of that living language which he has to speak and write.

This very fact should suggest to a teacher's mind the best manner in which the subject can be taught, so that his pupils might derive the largest possible amount of benefit from the very short time he has at his disposal in which to impart instruction in Latin.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS INSTRUCTION IN LATIN.

1. Let Latin grammar and English grammar be taught simultaneously, beginning, of course, with Standard IV., and as far as boyish minds at this stage could appreciate, explaining the nature of the parts of speech and the principles of classification.

Even at this stage, by adopting simple methods of explanation, the children might be brought to appreciate the uses of so many inflected forms in Latin, as for example, the large number of cases, &c., a Latin noun has, as compared with an English noun.
2. When the children have committed to memory portions of the Latin vocabulary, their attention should be directed to the processes by which many of the words “have passed into the English language and become naturalized there.”

This would practically show how our language has been enriched by contributions from the Latin, and the habit of following, by derivation, words in English down to their original condition “is not only an exercise in the science of language,” but also one “which will teach the pupil a good deal of Latin, and make him more thoroughly intimate with his own mother-tongue.”

3. The words which are derived from Latin, occurring in their reading books, should be carefully pointed out, and their roots “collected into a vocabulary” and committed to memory.

In reading such works as those of Milton, Tennyson, Dryden, Macaulay, and many other writers of the same school, this practice would make him accurately acquainted with the exact force and meaning of a great many words that might otherwise be difficult of apprehension.

4. The teaching throughout the whole course of Latin should be carried on “chiefly in relation to English language and literature, and just as far as it is necessary for understanding the structure and genius of our native tongue, and for appreciating the spirit of our national literature, the forms it has assumed, and the allusions that are scattered through it.”

MODERN LANGUAGES.

Under this head in the Schedule of Specific Subjects are included French and German, the latter language being seldom selected for examination. The remarks
here presented on the teaching of these languages are, therefore, necessarily brief, as instruction in them is not likely to be intrusted to young teachers.

While the teacher must conform to the requirements laid down in the schedule in the different stages, yet as these languages are living tongues, spoken by nations with whom we sustain intimate commercial and political relations, and whose literature is of great importance to us, the purely scientific method of teaching ought not to be followed.

**SCIENTIFIC METHOD OF TEACHING A MODERN LANGUAGE.**

(a) The grammar of the language is first taught to the pupils, *i.e.* the facts and laws which are identified with, and govern, the orthography, etymology, and syntax of the language are first taught.

(b) This method is simply that recommended in the teaching of English Grammar.

**MATERNAL METHOD.**

This method proceeds on the principle of training the scholars to read and speak the language mainly by imitation, as in learning their mother-tongue. This latter system may also be termed the "conversational," and, of course, assumes that the teacher has a good appreciation of the language itself, both in regard to its pronunciation and its idiomatic and grammatical construction.

The scientific method is the one most usually followed, but, for practical purposes, the maternal method is perhaps to be most highly commended, though it is almost impossible to be followed in our inspected schools.
THE SCIENCE SUBJECTS.

The subjects comprehended under this title, in the Specific Schedule, for instruction in day schools are Mechanics, Animal Physiology, Physical Geography, Botany, and Domestic Economy (for girls).

Appended to the schedule is a note of very great value, which is here quoted as forming a very safe guide in regard to the manner in which instruction in these subjects ought to be imparted.

"It is intended that the instruction of the scholars in the science subjects shall be given mainly by experiment and illustration, and, in the case of physical geography, by observation of the phenomena presented in their own neighbourhood. If these subjects are taught to children by definition and verbal description, instead of making them exercise their own powers of observation, they will be worthless as means of education. It cannot, therefore, be too strongly impressed on teachers that nothing like learning by rote will be accepted as sufficient for a grant, and that the examinations by the inspectors will be directed to elicit from the scholars, as far as possible in their own language, the ideas they have formed of what they have seen."

The limits of the various subjects of science are extremely well defined in the schedule, and among educationists meet with a considerable amount of commendation.

Perhaps the most interesting, and certainly the most useful of these various subjects for instruction in elementary schools is that of animal physiology, and its selection is to be commended for the following reasons:—

1. Young people ought to know so much of the structure and functions of their own bodies as to give them an impulse towards obedience to the laws of health.

2. Those influences which injure or preserve health can by the systematic study of physiology be forcibly
IMPORTANCE OF PHYSIOLOGY.

brought under the attention of the young, as for example—

(a) The need of pure air.
(b) The need of sufficient and wholesome food.
(c) The need of absolute cleanliness in the person as well as in the home.

3. By an acquaintance with a few facts of physiological science the "medical man can secure," in many cases, "the co-operating intelligence of the patient in the process of cure."

HINTS FOR CLASS TEACHING IN SCIENCE IN DAY-SCHOOLS.

1. The teaching should be as practical as possible, as recommended in the note to the Schedule of Specific Subjects; that is to say, "The teacher should present to his pupils actual experiments and specimens."

In the opinion of Professor Huxley—no mean authority certainly—physiology cannot possibly be taught with any measure of intelligence unless the student practise dissection. This, of course, might be done in connection with a science class in the evening, but is hardly practicable in our day-classes.

2. Diagrams, excellent in quality and design, ought invariably to be used with the class, and occasionally Saturday afternoon excursions ought to be made with the scholars, especially in prosecuting the study of botany.

3. A judicious combination of the "lecture and the textbook" is perhaps the most effective mode of carrying on a course of instruction in science.

4. Let there be constant practice in the taking of "notes," and a reproduction of the science lessons by the class, these exercises being corrected with much care.

The results of a proper course of science training to the children in the day-schools should be "to develop a self-reliance in adapting their knowledge to their voca-
tions, and also in the further pursuit of truth as the most
elevated of their enjoyments."

DRAWING LESSONS.

Only a very few words can be said in a work of this
kind on the subject of drawing, and what little is said is
simply intended to encourage the young teacher to foster,
as far as he possibly can, a taste for drawing among the
children under his care. Mr. Herbert Spencer remarks,
in one of his works, that the child's earliest attempts to
draw should by all means be encouraged, so that when
the age for imparting formal lessons in drawing is reached,
there will exist a facility that would else have been
absent.

Without going the length of Karl Fröbel, who asserts
that "Drawing lessons ought to be the first of all lessons
given to children," we can, at least, appreciate the follow-
ing reasons for encouraging its systematic instruction even
in our common schools.

1. To diffuse a knowledge and love of art amongst
artisans and others of similar rank.

A writer in the Museum some time ago, with reference
to the diffusion of a love of art amongst men of this class,
said that it is "Not to enable them to paint beautiful pic-
tures, but to make better shaped cups and saucers and
crockeryware, to hang their rooms with less offensive
papers, to change their homes from chambers of horrors to
abodes of good taste. It is in fact the application of art
to material wants, so that the pleasures of taste may be
added to the use of even the common necessaries of life."

2. To enable our workmen in the various trades and
professions to "compete with, and even excel," in their
productions, "the superior designs of foreign craftsmen."

By making a certain amount of art a common school
requirement, we are thereby helping forward the young,
when they enter on the practical duties of life, in "their
various crafts and mysteries."
The teacher who has qualified himself to give systematic and superior instruction in art is a most invaluable "adjunct to our great manufacturing centres."

With respect to the best methods of conducting classes in drawing, these can be best acquired by a course of instruction under a certified teacher of Art, in one of the many classes scattered throughout the country in connection with the "Science and Art Department at South Kensington," and from a diligent study of the different treatises on Art published in London and Glasgow. To these, therefore, the pupil-teacher is directed.

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XIV.—PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

This subject is only touched upon here, and that not as if it formed an essential part of a pupil-teacher's duties, but simply to explain to the pupil-teacher what is meant by physical training as applied to inspected schools, and to point out the best means by which it can be secured.

For pupils attending our common schools, such subjects as rowing, croquet, archery, walking on beams, vaulting, &c., need not be discussed.

The subject must be narrowed, and the importance of physical exercises in and out of school considered only with a view to promote health, to secure correct habits of body, and to relieve the tedium of lessons.

Experience shows that when children are bright and lively they do the best work, and in as far as the physical exercises practised at school serve to make young people "lively and vigorous, the outlay is as profitably bestowed as if it had been in food and clothes."

Expansion exercises and simple drilling can all be practised in school, and in the play-yard; but, in fine weather, the children should assemble for some little time before the morning and afternoon meetings of the school
to be more thoroughly drilled and trained to correct habits of body.

The children would take "spontaneous delight in the exercises themselves," and the result would be the strengthening of the body and the securing a larger share of vigorous physical health.

This drill is no doubt more effectively given by the master or mistress, who could easily acquire the necessary qualification either from a diligent study of several works on "School Drill" which have been published lately, or by receiving some little training from a drill-sergeant attached to the militia or volunteer forces located in almost every town and village in the country.

XV.—CONCLUDING REMARKS TO THE YOUNG TEACHER.

Many subjects have been left untouched in this little manual, as hardly coming within the scope which the author had in view. For example, he has not discussed the important and vexed question of corporal punishment in schools, prizes and rewards, school organization, music, needlework, time-tables, &c.

The pupil-teacher is earnestly recommended not merely to study "method" as applied to teaching, a restriction which must necessarily cripple his own intellectual power and resources, but to extend his studies to works that deal with the philosophy of education.

A list, that is almost an exhaustive one, is here given of the best works in this department, any one of which may be read with much profit and delight.

WORKS ON THE SCIENCE OF EDUCATION.

Education as a Science, by Professor Bain.—Kegan, Paul, & Co. Education—Intellectual, Moral, and Physical,


In addition to these, the "Reports on the Common School System of the United States and Canada, by Bishop Frazer; on the Burgh Schools in Scotland, by D. R. Fearon; and on Secondary Education in France, Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, by Matthew Arnold, included in Parliamentary papers (3857) 1867 and (3966b) 1868," may be consulted with much intellectual and professional advantage.
Extracts from Circular Letter, No. 153, from the Education Department, to Her Majesty’s Inspectors of Schools.

I.

CHARACTER OF SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS.

In connexion with this subject, as affected by the Code, and your own action as a representative of the Department, I have to direct your attention to their Lordships' views respecting the moral character of the Schools, and the character and condition of the Teachers.

My Lords are anxious that you should lose no suitable opportunity of impressing upon both Managers and Teachers the great responsibility which rests upon them, over and above the intellectual teaching, in regard to the moral training, of the children committed to their charge. You will express your special approbation of all Schools where, from knowledge which you have gained by repeated visits, you observe that a high moral tone is maintained; you will not fail to enlarge upon the Article (19A)* in the Code respecting Discipline as showing the interest taken by Parliament and by their Lord-

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* "The Inspector will bear in mind, in reporting on the organization and discipline, the results of any visits without notice (Article 12) made in the course of the school year; and will not interfere with any method of organization adopted in a Training College under inspection if it is satisfactorily carried out in the School. To meet the requirements respecting discipline, the managers and teachers will be expected to satisfy the Inspector that all reasonable care is taken, in the ordinary management of the School, to bring up the children in habits of punctuality, of good manners and language, of cleanliness and neatness, and also to impress upon the children the importance of cheerful obedience to duty, of consideration and respect for others, and of honour and truthfulness in word and act."
ships in this all-important subject; and, where it is not satisfactorily attended to, you will not hesitate to recommend a reduction of the grant. You will, in the spirit of that Article, urge the Managers to do all in their power to secure that the Teachers maintain a high standard of honesty, truth, and honour in their Schools, and that they not only inculcate upon the children the general duty of consideration and respect for others, but also the special duty of obedience to, and reverence for, their parents.

II.

PUPIL TEACHERS.

It is needless to remind you that the condition of the Pupil Teachers of your District should receive your very careful consideration. My Lords have reason to fear that sufficient care has not been bestowed upon them in many cases, either by Managers or Teachers. You will do well therefore to bespeak the special attention of the Managers to this important subject. You will oppose the appointment of sickly precocious children as Pupil Teachers, and you will insist upon good health as an essential qualification for those who aspire to the Teacher’s office. You should warn the Managers and Teachers against allowing Teachers of this tender age to be overworked, and should point out to them that under the revised Memorandum of Agreement, arrangements can be made, with great general advantage to the School, by which the Pupil Teachers may be allowed a portion of the school hours for their own instruction or preparation of lessons, provided that the time so employed is devoted exclusively, like their five hours of special instruction, to the subjects prescribed by the Code. You should discourage the habit of sacrificing to the preparation of their lessons the times allotted for Meals, and you should specially warn Teachers of the serious effect upon the health of the female Pupil Teachers—girls of 14 to 18 years of age—of being kept standing all day at work in their
Schools. You should endeavour to secure that the Pupil Teachers receive a regular course of systematic instruction from their Teachers, instead of a mere "Cram" preparation for examination, and you should do all you can to maintain in the Teachers and Managers a sense of responsibility for the formation of the character as well as the attainments of their Pupil Teachers.
APPENDIX I.

QUEEN'S SCHOLARSHIP QUESTIONS ON SCHOOL MANAGEMENT
AND METHOD SET AT THE ORDINARY EXAMINATIONS
SINCE 1874.

SECTION I.

1. Illustrate from your practical experience in a day-school or elsewhere the vital importance of securing good order in a school.

2. In what way did the head-teacher of your school support the authority of the pupil-teachers? Should pupil-teachers be allowed to inflict corporal punishment? Give reasons for your answer.

SECTION II.

1. How would you teach children to write: (a) on slates or (b) on paper?

   What are the important points to be attended to in teaching children to write?

2. What kind of desks would you like to find in any school-room in which you might have to teach writing?

   Give the ground of your preference.

SECTION III.

1. Write an essay on the teacher's influence in and out of school.

2. Write notes of a first lesson on:
   (a) The verb.
   Or (b) Long division.

SECTION IV.

1. Describe the various methods used to teach spelling in your school. Did you rely chiefly on the eye or on the ear in teaching spelling?

   How did you correct written exercises in spelling?

2. By what means would you try to prevent copying either
in a dictation lesson, or in working examples in arithmetic? Show how copying is calculated to produce general demoralization in a school.

Section V.

1. How would you begin teaching geography to a class of young children? Give the substance of a few of your first lessons.
2. How would you commence teaching arithmetic in an infants' school? and how far do you think children under seven may be expected to go in learning arithmetic?

Section VI.

1. What were the chief hindrances in the way of the progress of the children you used to teach? and how did you attempt to remove them?
2. Were any special means used to secure the co-operation of the parents of the children who attended your class? and if so, what was the result?

Section VII.

1. By what special means would you try to promote (a) truthfulness and (b) punctuality among your scholars? State the motives which you would lay before the children as incentives to the constant observance of truth and punctuality.
2. Write notes of a lesson on one of the following subjects:—(a) Numeration and notation. (b) The inflections of the verb. (c) Home lessons. (d) Kindness to animals.

Section VIII.

1. Name some of the qualities of good reading.
2. What peculiarities of pronunciation of vowels or consonants have you observed in your scholars, or in your own locality? Name some words beginning with the aspirate, in which it should not be sounded.

Section IX.

1. In learning the multiplication table, which products do children commonly find most difficult in committing to memory? Account for some of the most difficult cases.
2. Before giving out a passage for dictation, what preparation is needed to prevent possible mis-spellings?

**Section X.**

1. Name some oral lesson that a fourth-year pupil-teacher is capable of giving, which a second-year pupil-teacher should not give.

2. A want of common sense is often shown by children in answer to sums and in geographical quantities. Give some examples of this fault, and state some causes from which it proceeds.

**Section XI.**

1. In giving an object lesson, what is the aim of the teacher in using terms denoting the qualities of the object? What is meant by vulgar and by pedantic language?

2. What methods were used in your school to prevent copying in arithmetic? Show that it is not fair to very young children to give them an opportunity of copying.

**Section XII.**

1. What is truthfulness? Name some ways in which a child may be untruthful in act without saying a word.

2. What is the advantage to young children of having lessons on such subjects as a spider, wool, sugar? Enumerate the qualities or peculiarities in each case to which you would specially direct their attention.

**Section XIII.**

1. Is it a sufficient definition of good discipline to say that "it is the power exercised by the teacher over the children?" Give some distinguishing marks of good discipline.

2. Show that what is called stupidity in children may arise from faults on the part of the teacher. Name some of the faults.

**Section XIV.**

1. Describe the successive steps by which you would proceed to teach mental arithmetic to a class of children.

2. What companionship had you with your scholars out of
school hours in their games, walks, etc. Of what advantage is such companionship, &c., to teachers and scholars?

Section XV.

1. What drill or similar course of exercise was used in your school? State the good effects of such exercise both on body and mind.

2. If you have ever seen a gymnasium, state the effects intended to be produced by the exercises on different parts of the human frame.

Section XVI.

1. What are the principal faults of questioning that produce a habit of guessing in children? Show the bad effect of such a habit, and give illustrations from your own experience in teaching geography.

2. Name some of the chief causes of truancy arising from faults in the teachers or parents of children. What steps were taken in your school to acquaint parents with irregularity of attendance?

How were truants punished?
APPENDIX II.

QUESTIONS ON SCHOOL MANAGEMENT SET AT RECENT GOVERNMENT EXAMINATIONS.

SCHOOL DISCIPLINE.

1. By what means do you propose to gain an influence over your school, to repress that which is objectionable, and to encourage all that is noble and good?

2. What principle would you adopt to enforce honesty, truthfulness, and kindness amongst the children in your school?

3. What kind of children give most trouble, and how are they best kept in order?

4. What do you consider the uses of a play-ground, and how would you endeavour to make it subservient to the discipline of a school? To what extent (if any) would you take a personal part in the children's play?

5. By what exercises are habits of attention best cultivated?

6. (a) Write an essay upon the duties and indispensable qualities of an Elementary Teacher; (b) the personal habits which ought to be cultivated; (c) the faults which have to be guarded against, and the examples that should be set.

7. What rules were employed in your school to carry out the regulations of the Code that "reasonable care should be taken to bring up children in habits of good manners, of cheerful obedience to duty, and of truthfulness?"

8. By what arguments would you impress upon children the evils resulting from (a) wanton mischief, e.g., throwing stones at telegraph wires, &c., or (b) petty thefts of school money, or (c) bullying younger children.

READING.

1. What method should be adopted in teaching little children to read? Explain fully the method.

2. What are the chief difficulties in giving a reading lesson to a class of children from six to eight years of age? How should these difficulties be overcome?

3. A reading lesson is often made to consist of explanation of difficult words, spelling, exposition of the meaning of a passage, reading proper, and questioning. In what order would you take these divisions, and what time would you
assign to each in a reading lesson to boys of Standard IV.?
Give your reasons.
4. Describe the manner in which you have been accustomed
to conduct a reading lesson. Do you let the children read
simultaneously, or only singly? How do you correct mistakes,
and how do you endeavour to make the children understand
what they read?
5. Give instructions as to a pupil teacher on the manage-
ment of a class in reading.
6. What is the object of simultaneous reading? How may
its defects be supplied?
7. What do you understand by expression, emphasis, and
intonation in reading.
8. Explain how the reading of dialogue and recitation may
be employed to remedy want of intelligence in reading.

WRITING.

1. What are the first lessons in writing that you would give
to young children?
2. Describe first lessons in penmanship. What must receive
chief attention?
3. What use would you make of the black-board for teaching
writing? In what classes would you use it?
4. What are the chief and commonest faults in writing to
which the teacher should direct his attention?
5. For what reasons should paper be used instead of slates
in the higher classes of schools? With what standard would
you begin the transition, and how would you facilitate it?
6. What are the chief difficulties to be encountered by a
child beginning small-hand copies? How would you deal with
them?
7. Give some distinguishing marks of good large-hand
writing.
8. State clearly the method by which writing should be
taught to infants.

ARITHMETIC.

1. A class can multiply by numbers up to nine (inclusive).
What intermediate steps of reasoning and practice are needed
that they may be able to multiply intelligently by such a
number as 67?
2. Describe clearly the method by which children should
be taught simple subtraction and illustrate it by an example.
On what principle do you select this method?
3. Suggest three ways of working the following sum: £339.
APPENDIX

11s. 2½d. x 145, and discuss the merits of each method as to simplicity, brevity of working, &c.

4. Show that the difference between long and short division is one of form only and not of principle.

5. The rule of multiplication by a fraction is "Divide by the denominator and multiply the result by the numerator." Explain the rule as you would to a class.

6. Distinguish between numeration and notation, and give your method of teaching them.

7. By what method would you teach "rule of three" sums?

8. Explain the method by which you would teach compound addition to a class of children who have no knowledge of arithmetic beyond simple rules, and state the plan which you adopt for teaching the backward children in a class.

GRAMMAR, GEOGRAPHY, AND COMPOSITION.

1. State fully the purposes for which a black-board may be used in geography lessons.

2. What simple method would you adopt for giving a class some correct idea of the magnitude and measurement of the earth? Explain in simple language the terms "latitude" and "longitude."

3. Explain simply the causes of day and night and of the seasons of the year, and describe any good apparatus which you know of for illustrating your explanations.

4. What order should be followed in teaching the parts of speech? Give your reasons.

5. How would you teach grammar in an Elementary school?

6. What general rules of composition would you give to a class which was required to write out from memory the substance of a short story?

7. What do you mean by "teaching" composition and how may it be best taught?

8. A complaint is frequently made that geography, as taught in schools, is confined to a list of capes, heights of mountains, &c. How far are such lists useful, and for what purpose? Illustrate from your knowledge of British capes and mountains.

HISTORY.

1. Explain why biographies of eminent persons are more suitable for children than the histories of institutions.

2. What is the best method of teaching history?

3. How was history taught, if taught at all, in your school? What text-books were used, and what time was given to the subject?

(71)
4. Give the substance of Herbert Spencer's remarks on the teaching of history.

OBJECT LESSONS.

1. What is the advantage to young children of having object lessons on such subjects as a spider, wool, sugar? Enumerate the qualities or peculiarities in each case to which you would specially direct attention.
2. Explain the term notes of a lesson. State clearly the principles upon which they should be drawn up.
3. What are the characteristics of a good object lesson?
4. To what points would you give your attention if required to criticise a lesson?
5. Give a full account of any oral lesson that you remember to have given. What preparation did you make for it? What apparatus had you, and what use did you make of the blackboard?
6. What are the most judicious lessons for gallery teaching? What limit (if any) should there be to the variety of age and intelligence in children for a gallery lesson?
7. What illustrations would you prepare for a lesson on *printing type*, and for a first lesson on *mountains*?
8. What are the results to be obtained in an object lesson by the enumeration of the characteristic qualities of an object?

ENGLISH LITERATURE.

1. Name two prose authors, and two poets whose works you consider suitable for boys of Standard V. and VI. Give reasons for your selection in each case.
2. Write down any English poem you may remember, and put as many questions on it as you possibly can. State your general purpose in the questioning.
3. Give an easily intelligible exposition, as you would to a class of children, of the following stanza:

   "Beneath these rugged elms, that yew tree's shade,
   Where heaves the turf in many a mouldering heap,
   Each in his narrow cell for ever laid,
   The rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep."
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