Editorial.

THE Northwestern Christian Advocate of February 6 contains an editorial entitled "Should Professional Teaching be a Life Business?" The article was called out by a recent contribution in the Weekly, from the pen of Hon. J. L. Pickard, on "Permanence in the Teacher's Work." The Advocate does not concur in the opinion that a lack of permanence in the service is to be deplored. While conceding that knowledge and experience are valuable to a teacher, it thinks, and very justly so, that enthusiasm and a profound sympathy for youth are equally necessary. It urges, however, that while advancing age enlarges experience and knowledge, it yet cools enthusiasm and removes the instructor further from the level of the motives and passions, the hopes and fears, that actuate his pupils. It affirms that "knowledge and experience without the kindling eye and the sympathetic heart are not particularly attractive to the young," and that a person may be too old to teach well. Now, there is a grain of truth and, we think, several grains of error in this view of our respected contemporary. We think the error lies in assuming that those who love the work well enough to continue in it through all the years of active life are the last persons to lose enthusiasm or permit the "kindling eye" to fade. Only those who do love the profession should be allowed to remain in it for any considerable length of time. Only those will love it who possess an aptitude for it and are prepared to perform its duties wisely and well. Those who truly succeed in it, love it, are enthusiastic in it, and their enthusiasm grows by what it feeds upon. If there be those who have taught too long it is because there are those who should never teach, or, having taught, have become too old for acceptable service in any field demanding vigorous, earnest, and sustained effort.

Who can think of Plato, Aristotle, and Socrates; who can recall the memory of Ascham, Arnold, Pestalozzi, and Frobel, or who can reflect upon the lives and labors of Nott, Wayland, Emerson, Sherwin, Page, and a host of others, living and dead, teachers of a life-time, many of them teachers of the ages; who can contemplate the career of "Louis Agassiz, teacher," and declare that enthusiasm cools with advancing years in this profession? That advancing years may "remove the instructor somewhat further from the level of the motives and passions, the hopes and fears that actuate his pupils," is quite true. But instead of diminishing, this may be said to increase his qualifications for the duties of his office. The passions of childhood and youth need to be restrained, the motives elevated and refined, the hopes moderated, and the fears assuaged by the teachings of wisdom and experience, by examples of patience, fortitude, and self-denial, and by the discipline of a perfect obedience and subordination to rightful authority. The enthusiasm of the true teacher never dies, neither does he become sour and peevish, nor does he fail to make due allowance for youthful foibles. The true teacher is a life-long student. He grows in knowledge and wisdom as he increases in years. He preserves the freshness of his spirit by copious draughts from the fountain of truth, and by cultivating those graces of character which attract rather than repel the sympathies of those whom he instructs.

How can it be possible that youth and inexperience are best fitted to guide, instruct, and restrain youth and inexperience? This is actually the great overshadowing evil of the hour in our educational work. We need more age, experience, knowledge, and skill in the average teacher. We need more permanence. We need greater inducements to a better, broader, and deeper preparation. We need more teachers inspired with higher motives and with an ambition for those studies which counteract the corroding tendencies of the profession. To this end there must be more stability. There must be the assurance of a competent material and moral support. Is it to be wondered at that there are teachers in Chicago, and everywhere else, who, in one sense, "have taught too long," and whose "enthusiasm has decayed"? Whose enthusiasm would not decay in any calling with the prospect of starvation superadded to the wear and tear of the schoolroom? Look at the history of the salary question in the Chicago schools for the past few years. Look at both the material and moral support which the action of the city authorities seems to imply. Look at the average school board everywhere. See how these boards are too often constituted. What sort of appreciation of the teacher's difficulties and duties, what delicate apprehension of the motives, methods, and needs of true education can be expected from men whose souls are absorbed in law, lumber, life insurance, lager beer, and—lure generally? Is it strange that the enthusiasm of teachers should decay under such circumstances? Is it strange that the best talent is retiring disheartened and disgusted from the field? It is true that large
numbers do teach too long,—for their own interest, too long to enable them to engage in other pursuits where talent, tact, and industry reap an adequate reward. But the reason for it is, too much rather than too little enthusiasm. They have loved not wisely but too well!

The Advocate declares that "there is nothing intrinsically new in the profession of teaching, that there is nothing in it to excite interest unless the teacher specially strives to present it in some new aspect!" The clause which we have italicized in the quotation spoils the hypothesis implied in the preceding part of statement, even if there were no other answer to the assumption. We think we do not overstate the case when we express the conviction that in no field of human inquiry and effort have there been greater changes, during the past fifty years, than in the motives, methods, appliances, and subject matter of education. The school conducted according to the best modern ideas of education is as different in its machinery, motives, methods, and results, from the school of fifty or a hundred years ago, as the railway is different from the turnpike, or the telephone from the horn of the post-boy! The principles of Pestalozzi, a far better knowledge of the human mind, and the astounding revelations of modern discovery and invention in every field of thought, have begun to revolutionize education. And why not? What significance can there be in these triumphs of man's intelligence in unveiling the mysteries of the universe, if they are not to be made serviceable in the higher development of his powers and in the intellectual and moral elevation of the race? The question is whether all the marvelous light of modern discovery shall be allowed to shine upon and into the schools, and thus be made to answer its supreme purpose, or whether it shall be shut out through a dogged devotion to the obsolete mummeries of the past? If our contemporaries will procure and read a little pamphlet entitled "The Past and Present of our Common School Education," recently prepared by Supt. Rickoff, of Cleveland, and published by order of the Northwestern Ohio Teachers' Association, it will begin to realize that there is something both intrinsically and extrinsically new in the business of modern teaching as compared with that of our forefathers. This pamphlet contains but a mere epitome of the testimony as to the character of the schools, the teaching, and their results during the earlier and middle portions of our first century as a nation, gathered from whole volumes filled with similar facts, and we commend it to the attention of all who have not access to the original sources of information.

We regret that want of space prevents us from pursuing this subject farther at present. It is a fruitful topic, and is worthy of a more extended development. That our schools as a whole are behind the demands of the age is as clear to those who comprehend their condition as any other fact of current history. But that many of them are vastly in advance of the past is equally clear to the close observer. That there is no broader or fresher field for the exercise of the best talent and the most ardent enthusiasm; that experience and skill, from a moral point of view at least, are in great demand; and that permanence, an adequate material and moral support are the prime necessities of the situation no person who is well informed upon the subject will undertake to deny.

The question of professional education for teachers under state authority bids fair to be thoroughly agitated in Ohio during the present year. Her leading educators have for years desired that
without the commendation of any champion who expressed an implicit belief in its immediate signal success. We may speak disparagingly of the often frivolous distinction between theory and practice, which ignores the harmonious parallelism between the world of thought and the world of fact, but we shall nevertheless insist upon practical usefulness as the test of any psychologically correct method of teaching.

To-day Grube’s Method of teaching arithmetic does not lack friends and supporters; it has been tried and adopted not in one city alone, but has become recognized throughout the country. Long before its practical test in the district schools of St. Louis, it was made part of the regular course of instruction in the schools of San Francisco, and many other cities have adopted it since. Practical experience has shown the advantages and disadvantages of this system as far as the part which was presented at that time is concerned, namely, the numbers from one to ten only.

Beyond this limit there is still disputed ground, and it may be allowable to say that the continuation is offered to-day in the same spirit as the beginning was years ago. It is simply a report on an ingenious method which is considered worthy the notice of thoughtful teachers, and which seems to deserve a fair trial, continued for a sufficient length of time to extend beyond the period during which a new method seems objectionable because it is new, and hence collides with a practice which habit has made convenient.

The leading idea is the same throughout Grube’s Method. To show the principle of teaching the higher numbers to 100 is to recapitulate the principles that are to guide the teacher in his treatment of the numbers from 1 to 10. That the four processes are taught with each number before the following one is considered forms, no doubt, a characteristic feature of Grube’s Method, but it is a common mistake to suppose that it is the leading idea. It certainly emanates from this idea, but it is not the idea itself. The leading principle is rather that of objective illustration. In a very general way it may be said that in examples in primary arithmetic two numbers are given and their relation, expressed by a third number, is to be found. Hence the elementary processes may be considered as the comparing of one number with the other, or the measuring of one by the other. On the basis of this general theory, Grube suggests a general plan of illustration, according to which the larger number of the two numbers given is represented by the total number of lines or dots placed on the blackboard. These lines are arranged into sets or groups, each containing as many lines or dots as are indicated by the smaller number of the two. Thus, if the numbers 6 and 2 are to be compared with each other, the illustration consists of six lines, arranged two by two.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\circ \circ \\
\circ \circ \\
\end{array}
\]

The measuring of 9 by 4 is illustrated by four lines and four lines and one line.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\circ \circ \circ \circ \\
\circ \circ \circ \\
\end{array}
\]

This contains the main principle of Grube’s Method. If perception has seized this illustration and wrought it into a mental picture, the solution of all the existing elementary relations between the two numbers has been grasped implicitly. For the four processes are simply different interpretations of this symbolic diagram. When this picture appears before the mind it may be interpreted as addition or multiplication, \( i.e. \), our illustration may be read

\[4+4+1=9, \quad (2\times4)+1=9,\]

and by the retrograde process, when the illustration is made to disappear from the blackboard, it may be interpreted by subtraction or division, as \(9-4-4=1\), or from \(9\) I can take away \(4\) twice and leave \(1\). But the main point in this is that the whole process is based on well-selected and arranged illustrations, and is an object lesson on numbers. A plan of teaching which ignores this main point and flatters itself to have found the gist of the new idea by jumbling together addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, without the most extensive use of illustrative objects, and without systematic arrangement, has nothing in common with Grube’s Method. In the latter, the clearest order and regularity prevail throughout. Below 10, each number is compared with the number 1, by means of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, then with the number 2, then with 3, etc. The pupil will soon learn to perceive the regularity of this process, and at the moment he has understood that part he can by independent work discover the primary arithmetical relations of a number and prepare a synopsis or diagram of the same.

A frequent and very dangerous mistake is the omission, or neglect, of applied examples. The pure number as the universal expression of arithmetical truth is of the greatest importance, but the pupil throughout his school course finds the greatest difficulty in working with applied numbers. Moreover, arithmetic is studied for life, and in life there are none but applied examples. Hence, after the universal, the pure number, has been mastered by means of observation, particular application should follow immediately, and copious examples, clothed in the most varied forms, should be solved. The training which the pupil receives from practice with applied problems is different in kind from that with pure numbers, and hence cannot be slighted in the primary grades without retarding the progress in the higher classes. Without sufficient practice in this direction, there is danger of mechanical and dull work and the best opportunities for the pupil’s display of inventive ingenuity is lost. The difficulty which the study of arithmetic presents in the higher grades lies not in the mechanical handling of numbers, in most cases the pupils succeed very well in that, but it lies in the fact that the words of the problem puzzle them. The qualitative element disturbs and conceals the quantitative. If this assertion is correct, a great deal of training with applied numbers should be given at a time of the course when the pure number, which is considered so small that it allows the scholar, after having mastered it, to concentrate his whole attention on the puzzle that lies in the wording, in the qualitative. Wherever sufficient training of this kind has sharpened the wit of the pupils in the lower grades, they will no longer consult the heading of the chapter as the first step in the solution of a problem in order to find whether it means addition or division, interest or long measure, and find themselves in a helpless and forlorn condition when they meet an example which is not labeled by any heading.

An analysis of the operation with each number shows as the two principal elements:

I. The number considered in its universal quantitative character, or pure number.

II. The quantitative in special qualitative form, or applied number.

Under the first or pure number we have the sub-topics: 

- a.
Comparing with, or measuring by each of the preceding numbers from 1 to 10, considering addition, multiplication, subtraction, and division. b. Combinations of the two numbers treated of, the results to be within the limits of the greater one of the two numbers. This is a very important process, no doubt, but the temptation lies near to give too much prominence to it by forgetting that it is a part only of Grube's Method. The systematic comparison of numbers is of greater importance, and it is an error to spend as much time on these combinations as if the method consisted of nothing but these. c. Sufficient practice in the rapid solution of examples.

INFLUENCE OF THE FORM OF THE SCHOOL ROOM UPON SCHOOL DISCIPLINE.

In the January number of *Revue Pedagogique*, published in Paris, I find an article which I translate because of its general applicability. The periodical from which it is taken is very ably edited by one of the leading men in educational matters of France. J. L. Pickard.

The maintenance of discipline in school depends upon very diverse conditions. We shall not insist upon the *intelligent* mastery of pupils, nor upon the character the master should possess, nor yet upon the constant vigilance he must exercise during recitation. These are upon the moral side of the question. An intelligent distribution of exercises, such that no class of pupils is at any time unoccupied, assures in large measure good order in school. This condition of pedagogic organization is of great importance.

But little attention has been given to the *form* of the school room in its influence upon school discipline. The general opinion agrees to the rectangular form; but there is wide disagreement as to the relative dimensions of the rectangle. The square form has its partisans. The French law is silent upon this point, although it demands a surface of a square meter (about 11 sq. feet) to each pupil. Other European states have been more particular. The oldest regulations upon construction of school houses are those of the Swiss cantons, Schaffhausen and Zurich. The former in 1852 determined the relation of the sides of the rectangle as 3 to 4. The latter in 1862 fixed the relation of 2 to 3.

The Prussian law, 15th Oct., 1872, and the ordinance of the King of Saxony, April 3, 1873, demand the rectangular form, but do not prescribe the proportions.

In Belgium, a royal decree of 25th Nov. 1874, prescribes simply a rectangular form, with the strange provision that the corners be rounded.

The free city of Bremen leaves the decision between the square and the rectangle to the architect.

Austria, without expressing preference for any form, provides for the proportion of 3 to 4 whenever the rectangular form is adopted.

The little realm of Wurtemburg, the country which of all Europe has given the closest attention to details of school management, has attempted to allow the largest freedom in the construction of classrooms, but singularly enough, it has made either the square or the rectangle obligatory. The ministerial ordinance of 28th Dec., 1870, fixes the square as the best form for a class of 40 pupils, and the rectangle for a class of greater number.

The plan of a school house, which M. Buisson has inserted in his excellent work upon "Primary Instruction at the Vienna Ex-

position," does not present an invariable form for all school-rooms. In proportion to the number of pupils, the form is more or less elongated. The dimensions which are as 3 to 5 for 85 pupils pass to that of 3 to 4 for 70, and by degrees to the square form for 54 pupils.

In the school houses recently erected by the city of Nancy, we have observed the form of the rectangle elongated in the proportion of 3 to 5 for rooms designed for 50 or even 40 pupils.

We have endeavored to put in evidence upon this point the diversity of usage. If there appears to be no agreement of ideas, it must be attributed either to the nature of the question, which must be complex, or to the fashion, which in some countries is reduced to the problem of pure symmetry. On the contrary, the form of the school room really teaches most intimately the question of good order and the maintenance of discipline in the school.

Our personal experience, the result of observations made in 1639 in schools which we have visited, has convinced us that the form to be adopted is not a matter of indifference. * * * In school organization an element of the highest importance presents itself—the grouping of pupils. From a speculative point of view, this should precede and determine that of form of the room. But practically this is not the case, since the master must arrange his pupils to suit the room in which he is placed. From this necessity, difficulties of more than one kind arise. In order that the master may find himself in condition most favorable to good discipline, his pupils must be so arranged that from his chair he can readily see the whole school. This condition is indispensable, but it is not sufficient, for he must, wherever placed, perceive the school with equal facility. In a word, it is necessary that the field of vision, in whatever grouping it appears, be subject to the least possible variation. We have noticed for a long time, in elongated rectangular rooms, relaxed discipline when the rostrum is placed upon the shorter side of the rectangle. The pupils in such rooms are presented to the view of the master in lengthened files, cover each other beyond a certain distance, and put whole ranks outside of efficient surveillance. It is also an established fact that the disciplinary power of a look decreases rapidly and is expended beyond a limit not very remote.

For this reason we consider the collection of more than sixty pupils in one room under the direction of a single teacher excessive. Discipline in a school beyond this number becomes a very serious task. Experienced men are not ignorant of it. With 80 pupils the double obligation of teaching and of securing necessary discipline costs efforts which very soon become exhausting. Beyond this number, surveillance exercised over a too extended area loses its energy. Still further, the "field of hearing" enlarged beyond the pulmonary power of the teacher furnishes only weak and powerless echoes of his words to the pupils occupying the most remote parts of the room. So the pupils, returning so to speak to themselves, take that character of lightness and want of fixed attention which is peculiar to large schools, and which contrasts so strikingly with those of a small or medium number of pupils.

Still another inconvenience presents itself when the master's chair is placed upon the longer side of the rectangle. If the hall is very oblong, the pupils facing the master in lengthened rank and shortened file so enlarge the field of vision that the extreme sections, both right and left, very nearly escape his look and render his surveillance very painful. We have often heard teachers complain of extreme fatigue experienced in school rooms of this character. It is not astonishing, for the space over which vision accompanied by mental tension must extend demands an ex-
penditure of nervous force which rapidly exhausts the teacher. It follows from what has preceded, that the school rooms which favor the best discipline are those in which the arrangement of pupils can be in the most compact form, occupying as nearly as possible a square form before the desk. Such an arrangement is favorable to a surveillance from all sides of individual ranks as well as of the whole school.

These ideas, founded entirely upon experience, have led us to conclude that small schools may be properly gathered in square rooms, and schools of 40 to 60 pupils or 70 at the most, should have a rectangle departing from the square only enough to allow for the disposition of the necessary teacher's rostrum and other material. The front rank facing the teacher should not exceed ten pupils. Rectangular rooms in the proportions of 2 to 3, or 3 to 4, or 3 to 5 are not favorable to discipline. We prefer the proportion of 8 to 9.

J. CREUTZER,
Inspector of Primary Instruction.

NOTES BY THE WAY.

The far-famed Illinois Industrial University, of which Dr. J. M. Gregory is President, is located at Champaign. Ladies as well as gentlemen attend. A faculty and corps of instructors amounting to twenty-nine, a main building containing sixty rooms and all in use, a fine chemical laboratory building in process of completion, a stock farm of over 400 acres, an experimental farm, a school of horticulture, a school of mining and engineering combine to afford unusual facilities for fitting a young man or woman for active business life. The schools of military science and commerce are at present receiving a favorable to a surveillance from all sides of individual ranks as well as of the whole school.

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Spelling Reform Department.

Conducted by O. C. Blackmore, Director of the Northwestern Branch of the Spelling Reform Association, Chicago.

In his late address before the Spelling Reform Association of St. Louis, Supt. W. T. Harris makes the following charges against our present orthography, and then proceeds to show the advantages of a phonetic alphabet.

1. It stands in the way of a sound, comprehensive national education. Hence the prevalence of illiteracy.
2. No one is certain how to pronounce a word he has only heard pronounced, and never seen written.
3. No one is sure how a word is spelled which he has only heard pronounced, and never seen written.
4. It throws a barrier in the way of all sound and accurate philological research.

The confirmation of these principles, in England and Wales (according to the *British Quarterly Review*), in 1846, nearly one half the people were unable to write their names, and five millions unable to read their mother tongue. In fact, there are at least five years as good as thrown away learning the mass of heterogeneous conventionalities dignified by the name of orthography (the Greek words orthos and grapho), correct writing (1). *Heterography* has been suggested as a word which would more aptly express it, i.e., various writing.

If the phonetic alphabet were adopted, these five years would be saved, and could be devoted to useful science.

There would also result a uniformity of pronunciation, because all people would write just as correctly as they speak, and we should have the pronunciation of the best authors and the best dictionaries. Another very weighty consideration is this, the child who is just commencing his education should have the advantage of knowing it is he himself who is pronouncing, and never seen written.

It is still in use with us after ten years: 'Of course, this word is French, I have often seen it in a newspaper, and I am sure it is pronounced thus.' It will be relieved of its present ambiguity. There is another objection urged is this: . . .

The origin of the present Association is due to that respectable body, the American Philological Association.

Not willing to recommend and support such sweeping changes as the phonetic alphabet, thirty years ago recommended and supported to no purpose, they have adopted a report setting forth certain slight modifications which may be adopted without incurring any of the objections usually made, while they cover the essential advantages of phonetics. The committee to whom was intrusted the selection and recommendation of modifications in letters and orthography consisted of Messrs. F. A. March (one of the leading Anglo-Saxon scholars of the world to-day, who has applied the same principles to the German language), and S. S. Haldeman (long distinguished as comparative philologist and investigator of our Indian language).

The important task of re-arranging all the modifications which the presentation of original systems of reaching a phonetic alphabet, it is clear, as a principle, that no success will accrue to our movement until there is unity and harmony among all reformers as to just what steps are to be taken first. There must be such a plan, a diagram of the whole, before we are even safe to take the first step, and that first step must be a short and easy one. When we have succeeded once in getting a single modification adopted, the ice is broken, and the remaining steps to a phonetic alphabet are easy enough.

Within the last century the Spanish and the Netherlanders have altered their orthography, the former reaching a phonetic basis by their modifications. The German language, being an eclectic—i.e., having chosen the strongest and best part of other languages—is more uniform in grammatical construction than any other. The chief marks: "Although the French language has for centuries been the common language of Europe in a diplomatic and social sense, yet it has never obtained a firm footing in large tracts of country beyond Europe. The English language, being an eclectic—i.e., having chosen the strongest and best part of other languages—is more uniform in grammatical construction than any other. The chief marks: *English* is still in use with us after ten years: 'Of course, this word is French, I have often seen it in a newspaper, and I am sure it is pronounced thus.' It will be relieved of its present ambiguity. There is another objection urged is this: . . .

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writes to 200 readers. "In Germany," says Emerson, "there is one speech for the learned and another for the masses, to that extent that it is said no sentiment is ever expressed from London as it is from Berlin, among the lower classes; but the English language is at the same time the language of the noble and the serf—the rich and the poor."
Now that our philologists have started this question, our colleges and universities will follow the lead, and it certainly will not be impossible for the higher institutions of education in this country and England to modify our orthography within a few years.

Notes.

LITERARY.—The "Second Harvest at Olympia," in the current number of the International Review, written by Prof. Ernst Curtius, having been spoken of by the press as a reprint from some foreign publication, the publishers of the Review take occasion to say very emphatically "that all the articles printed in the International Review are strictly original, and are obtained at high prices from the ablest living writers."—Messrs. A. S. Barnes & Co., of New York, are the publishers of Dr. E. C. March's "The Mexican War"—"Life of General C. E. Scott," works which will be read with great profit in the presence of threatening difficulties on the Texas frontier. These works were written immediately after the Mexico-Texas War, and are, as it were, fresh from the field of action. Their great popularity at the time of publication is illustrated in the fact that 30,000 copies of each were called for. The author's reputation was enhanced during the Civil War by his letters to the N. Y. Times under the name of "Veteran Observer."—"Summer Schools," in the March number of Harpers' Magazine, presents a New England view of this peculiar feature of our American educational institutions. It was written by C. F. Thwing, and is made more interesting by eleven illustrations. He has written chiefly of those summer schools which have been established in New England, and seems unaware that several have already been successfully established in the Western States—some by educational institutions, and some by the enterprise of individual professors.—"The Young Scientist" is the name of a new publication works some from New York, monthly, at fifty cents a year. It bears the imprint of the Industrial Publication Company. It devotes considerable attention to practical science, amateur mechanics, scientific news, etc.—Messrs. Lothrop & Co. will shortly issue "Concessions of Liberals to Orthodoxy," by Daniel D. Rochester, D. D. It discusses in an able manner the Divinity of Christ, the Atonement, and Endless Punishment. Further, there is a review of the "Atonement," by Dr. J. H. M. Grant; of "The Life of Beloved Sir Walter Scott;" of "Herodotus," by H. H. Bancroft; of the "Rev. Mr. Scott," by Mr. J. D. S. Finley; of "Fanny Kemble," by Mrs. W. B. B. W. S. S. Scott; and of "Latin America," by Mr. A. S. T. Tucker.

REVIEW.

APPLETON'S Hand Atlas of Ancient Geography in 28 Maps, on the Plan of Appleton's Hand Atlas of Modern Geography. Edited with an introduction by the Rev. George Butler, Principal of Liverpool College. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. Chicago: C. E. Lane, Agent, 117 State St.)—One of the greatest aids to the student of history, unless he is able to travel through the countries decribed, and perhaps even if he is permitted to enjoy their privilege, is a clear and accurate atlas, showing not only the political, but also the physical conditions of the various countries of which the history treats. The student of Herodotus, Xenophon, Thucydides, Tacitus, Livy, or Cesar, must have at hand a reliable atlas for reference; and scarcely less essential is an atlas to the student of Homer, Demosthenes, Cicero, or Virgil.

The design of the editor of Appleton's Hand Atlas of Ancient Geography, as in case of the "Public Schools Atlas of Modern Geography," for the modern world, has been to present in a distinct, accurate, and simple manner, the physical and political features of the ancient world, without unnecessary details, and at a price within the reach of the majority of students in the public schools and academies. The maps have been made with a special view to the illustration of classical authors. In some of these maps, details are abundant, especially in such as are intended to illustrate the history of several centuries. The topography of ancient Athens is in general that given by Kiepert; of ancient Rome that of Barn in his "Rome and the Campagna."

We commend this atlas particularly to the attention of high school teachers. The print is remarkably clear and distinct, and in point of accuracy it probably has no superior. The large size of the maps, and the moderate price of the volume ($3.00 at retail, $2.00 to schools), are also points in its favor.

The Origin of the World, according to Revelation and Science. By J. W. Dawson, LL.D., F. R. S., F. G. S. (New York: Harper & Brothers. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 12 mo, cloth, pp. 438, $2.00.)—The author of this volume is a scholar, recognized as authoritative not only in natural science, but to an unusual degree in theology, on account of his earnestness, intelligence, and honesty in the investigation and discussion of religious and scientific questions. In the question of which this volume treats, he does not undertake to champion either side. While enthusiastic as a scientist, he is evidently sound in theology. The volume is one of the most satisfactory and thoroughly instructive of all that have been written on the subject. It examines with deliberation and minute care the Hebrew Genesis, and the unity and antiquity of its contents, as well as for the public and private life of its authors. The work is rich in theological speculation, and in the examination of the evidences of Hebrew Epic, as a means of elucidating the truth of the Bible.

The Convention and Choir. A Collection of Sacred and Secular Music for Choirs, Conventions, Singing Schools, Musical Institutes, etc., consisting of a Statement of the Principles of Music, Elementary Exercises, Glee, Quartets, Hymn-lines, Chants, and Anthems. By S. W. Straub. (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 1877. pp. 320. Price, $1.00.)—Prof. Straub is the author of Good Cheer, a work designed for singing classes, conventions, day schools, etc., and Cream of Glory, a new collection of Sunday School music. The Convention and Choir contains an unusual number of excellent anthems, some of a classical character, though none of them too difficult for the ordinary choir. In this respect the work will supply the place of an anthem book. The anthems are of a little higher grade than those found in most works of the kind. Sixty pages are devoted to glees, songs, quartets, etc., a valuable feature of the book, as choirs are often expected to provide music for all the social and literary meetings of the church, as well as for the public worship.

A comparison of the coal discovered in the far north by the recent English arctic expedition, with coal from thirteen different seams in Great Britain, shows that the composition is very nearly the same.
MICHIGAN.—Ferri s Institute, Grand Rapids, which has been maintained by a public spirited gentleman to the extent of $5,000 for a school for girls, has fallen into discredit through inability to maintain the highest educational standards. The girl pupils have been guilty of filthy language, and putting pictures on the black board. The board has decided to dismiss the girl teacher forthwith, and to have her replaced by a substitute who will not be permitted to teach until she has given them a lesson in anatomy and physiology. The girls, at home, repeated portions of the lecture to the mothers, who decided that it was improper, and began demolishing furniture, and fighting over the family silver. Mrs. Whitney Demille, of Ypsilanti, in whom was comprised a legacy of $7,000 to $8,000 to the College and a Baptist Missionary Society, has been refused admission to probate on account of its being made prior to the maker's marriage. The school is supported by Mr. and Mrs. Dennis, who are members of the Presbyterian church, and now wife of a Congregational pastor at Alpena, has recently become insane, from the excitement of mind caused in herself and husband, by the outrageous conduct of a female "evangelist" from Illinois, who wrote letters charging them with sexual immorality. She will probably recover, although the danger of utter physical and mental woe is imminent.

MINNESOTA.—At the late meeting of the Regents of the State University, there was a motion to close the school for the summer, and to avoid a large deficit, and a provision be made for the support of a University. The Governor having been authorized and empowered to employ such additional force as may be deemed necessary to continue and complete at the earliest practicable moment the state geological survey, and that such survey be pro-ceded for the present in the regular manner, the regents declared that the survey must be continued. The resolution contained a proviso, that no student should be admitted to the examination against his will. Action was also taken at this meeting which is of much importance to the public schools of the state. The legislature shall in the meantime have provided for the suitable preparation elsewhere of students to enter the freshman class.

THE STATES.

MISSOURI.—Major Merwin has been re-elected State Superintendent, R. D. Shannon an associate editor of the Missouri "American Journal of Education." Missouri's educational interests are "looking up," and the Journal is doing much to promote their advancement throughout all parts of the state. Miss Missour, a teacher at St. Louis, has lectured her class of girls on the evils of titillating, and gave them a lesson in anatomy and physiology, at home, repeated portions of the lecture to the mother, who decided that it was improper, and fought combined against the teacher, and did not rest until she was dismissed from school. Miss McArthur, the girl teacher, has been threatened by a local group of parents, who have demanded that the school be discontinued, and a provision be made for the support of a Private Grammar School.

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CHICAGO, FEBRUARY 28, 1878.
The following stirring memorial is now being circulated in Ohio by Prof. Ogden, of Worthington, who has taken the field in behalf of a State Normal School. The memorial is represented in The Educational Weekly, the Ohio Monthly, and New England Journal.

"To the Honorable the General Assembly of the State of Ohio:"

GENTLEMEN: Believing that normal schools, for the professional training of teachers, are an acknowledged necessity in any well-regulated system of education, your memorialists beg leave to respectfully suggest that there is no such training, thereby incurring their just reproach, and imperiling her high assembly. The necessity for such an organization, all the grades of school educational science and systems, but for practicable, in such a normal school as contemplated in the foregoing, one that shall reflect honor and renown upon our state and nation. All of which is respectfully submitted.

JOSEPHINE B. MOORE, of Ringwood, writes: "Our school has enrolled 50, has nine teachers, all enjoy reading The Educational Weekly." For several months past Superintendent Smart, of the Department of Public Instruction, has been engaged upon a task of great public importance, requiring the exercise of considerable judgment, namely, the codification of the laws affecting the common school system in this state. He has undertaken this duty in compliance with a resolution of the last General Assembly. The necessity for the codification of these laws is apparent upon which there is a very imperfect understanding among school trustees and others is very generally recognized, and will be more apparent when it is known that since the passage of the general act in 1895, there have been adopted in the legislature twenty-six acts, and seven supplementary sections. Many of these new provisions have become law in such a shape as to conflict with previous statutes, and necessarily there have been in consequence grave misunderstandings and complications in the administration of the law in all parts of the state. The department has been in constant receipt of scores of letters asking questions as to the right course to be pursued in matters as to which the law ought to be very plain and unambiguous. The work undertaken by Mr. Smart is of the utmost importance, and he is to be congratulated on the light of decisions by the courts and department of public instruction; and in fact, compiling a new law embracing every provision on the statute book, couched as far as practicable, in such language as will be easy to understand and apply. When the bill is completed it will be made to the next meeting of the legislature. As this does not take place until 1879, it is probable that the result of Professor Smart's inquiries may be published in convenient reference form for the use of school trustees, principals, teachers, and other county and city authorities interested in the administration of the common school laws.

INDIANA.—Sept. R. G. Boone, of Indianapolis, writes: "Our school has enrolled 50, has nine teachers, all enjoy reading The Educational Weekly." For several months past Superintendent Smart, of the Department of Public Instruction, has been engaged upon a task of great public importance, requiring the exercise of considerable judgment, namely, the codification of the laws affecting the common school system in this state. He has undertaken this duty in compliance with a resolution of the last General Assembly. The necessity for the codification of these laws is apparent upon which there is a very imperfect understanding among school trustees and others is very generally recognized, and will be more apparent when it is known that since the passage of the general act in 1895, there have been adopted in the legislature twenty-six acts, and seven supplementary sections. Many of these new provisions have become law in such a shape as to conflict with previous statutes, and necessarily there have been in consequence grave misunderstandings and complications in the administration of the law in all parts of the state. The department has been in constant receipt of scores of letters asking questions as to the right course to be pursued in matters as to which the law ought to be very plain and unambiguous. The work undertaken by Mr. Smart is of the utmost importance, and he is to be congratulated on the light of decisions by the courts and department of public instruction; and in fact, compiling a new law embracing every provision on the statute book, couched as far as practicable, in such language as will be easy to understand and apply. When the bill is completed it will be made to the next meeting of the legislature. As this does not take place until 1879, it is probable that the result of Professor Smart's inquiries may be published in convenient reference form for the use of school trustees, principals, teachers, and other county and city authorities interested in the administration of the common school laws.

NEW YORK.—Christopher G. Fox has entered upon his duties as superintendent of the public schools of Buffalo.—The Legislature, in joint session, has appropriated $18,000 to Professor Peck and Whitelaw Reid Regents of the University.—Professor Peck of the University is for the present in Europe. A specimen of the ball was snatched from the boy's hand and thrown into the stove. Last week the same boy attempted to toss another ball in the air during school hours, and the teacher promptly seized it and opened the stove door. Something in the chimney's manner aroused the suspicions of the pupil, who dropped the ball, and after a moment's hesitation, he closed the stove door and laid the ball on his desk. At the close of the session he dissected the ball, and found underneath the cover a gunpowder, with two bullets in it. The order makes the point that the estimated cost of the new Capitol at Albany is double the price expected. In the Erie Canal, and that adds sometimes to comparisons of this kind help to determine whether or not a proposed expenditure is worth while.—In N. Y. the Clerk of the board of education receives a salary of $5,000; the Auditor $5,000; Superintendent of schools $5,500, Superintendent of Primary Instruction $4,500; The same person as teacher in normal College, $700; President of Normal College, $5,000; The same person as teacher on Saturdays, $400; President City College, $3,500; Professor City College, $4,750; Teacher Normal College, $700; Secretary City College, $500; House rent paid Prest. City College, $1,000; total, $41,850, or an average of $6,900. A tax-payer calls attention to these facts in the Sun.

WEST VIRGINIA.—A Roman Catholic college is about to be founded at St. Johnsbury.

OHIO.—The following stirring memorial is now being circulated in Ohio by Prof. Ogden, of Worthington, who has taken the field in behalf of a State Normal School. The memorial is represented in The Educational Weekly, the Ohio Monthly, and New England Journal.

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Practical Hints and Exercises.

SKETCHES OF LESSONS IN PRIMARY READING.—FIRST YEAR.

Miss Isabel Lawrence, State Normal School, Whitewater, Wis.

The children are gradually taught one sound for each of the following characters: a, e, i, o, u, and beta (short sound), b, c (hard sound), d, f, s, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z, ng, ch (sound as in chin), sh (as in shop), th (as in this), ow and ew (as in loud), oy and ai (as in boy). Each letter or combination must uniformly represent the sound mentioned above, and no other. A sufficiently large list of words, capable of being analyzed in this way, may be selected from any primer or first reader.

Class. Ch. are taught a new sound a day character, by analyzing a word containing it, as in Sketch VI.

New words should be constantly given. They may be selected from the book which they will subsequently read. If the words are incapable of analysis into the above sounds, they must be taught by the word or sentence method. If the children are familiar with the sounds composing them they may be given as in the following sketch.

SKETCH VII.

Tr. reviews sounds of t, b, v, j, and others.

Point.—To lead ch. to find out the word stop, by the phonetic method.

Method.—Tr. prints * on the board. Ch. give the sound. Tr. prints t before it, points to it, and then the other, ch. giving the sounds nearer and nearer together, till they are united.—op. Ch. are drilled on this part of the word.

Tr. prints t before op. Ch. give sound of t, then the united sound of a and t. They say the sounds as near together as they can.

Tr. "What word do you hear?" Ch. "Top!"

Drill upon this word. Ch. print it without seeing it, etc.

Tr. prints letter b before op. Ch. unite this sound with word top, and readily get the word step.

Drill until ch. are able to spell the word by sound and to print it from dictation.

At first, it requires skill and patience to teach the children to unite the sounds. Soon they become expert. Then, the new word may be printed in the usual way, ch. giving sounds as the tr. proceeds. When he finishes, the children will find every hand raised, each child eager to tell the word. The enthusiasm and delight of the children at finding themselves able to discover new words, without help, is boundless. Word after word may be thoroughly learned in one lesson, by this method, because the children's interest seems scarcely ever to flag.

CHAPTERS IN SCHOOL ECONOMY.

V.—ORGANIZATION.

BY THE EDITOR.

Assigning Lessons. The classification of the school having been effected by methods heretofore suggested, the assignment of lessons will next be in order. In the discharge of this duty much care and good judgment will be necessary. Young and inexperienced teachers are especially liable to err here. Hence, they should strive to study the capabilities of their pupils, measure the difficulties to be encountered in each lesson, and lay out the work after a careful consideration of those two elements of the problem. The judicious teacher will also reflect upon the number of lessons to be mastered by each class, and the time necessary to their thorough preparation. It is safer to assume that the work assigned is clearly within than beyond the powers of the pupils. It is better that whatever is undertaken should be well done. The quality rather than the quantity is the supreme consideration. The habits formed rather than the facts accumulated at this stage of the work are of the greatest importance. In the assignment of lessons, allowance must be made for interruptions likely to occur in the form of general exercises, and other unavoidable causes. There is scarcely any duty demanded of a teacher that requires more prudent forethought than this.

18. Programme of Daily Exercises. Order and system may be said to constitute a law of intellectual and moral as well as of material progress. They should therefore be made a habit of the mind and of the daily life. Without the practice of this law in human conduct there can be no real success in the management of affairs. The mind that acts without method must act without achieving worthy results. As "the mind makes the man," if that be in disorder, all that proceeds from it must be confused, profitless, and unsatisfactory. As education is to form the mind, education must be conducted in an orderly manner. As school exercises of every kind are designed to discipline and educate, it follows that they should be conducted according to a clearly defined system. The necessity of school programmes is based upon these considerations. They are not mere conveniences. They are indispensable to an orderly evolution of the human faculties so far as that work is to be accomplished by the processes of the school. A school devoid of system in general management and in detail is more of a curse than a blessing. The importance of wisely constructed and efficiently executed programmes can not be easily overestimated. No school "can afford" to dispense with their aid.

19. Hints to be observed in making a Programme. 1. See that there is a time provided for each duty and that each duty is limited to its time. Carefully survey the entire field of operations and strive to embrace your school work within the provisions of the programme. 3. Bring the study hours as well as the recitations of each and every class within the arrangements of the programme and define each with precision. 4. Clearly mark out your plan of work and give to each duty its full share of attention. 5. Remember that pupils in the lower or primary grades require less time but greater frequency in class exercises than those more advanced. 6. Let the recitations of the lower classes, as a general rule, occur in the earlier part of the daily sessions and immediately after the recesses. 7. Recitations in some branches, as reading and spelling, may be made shorter, if time be limited, than others requiring more elaborate illustration, as geography, grammar, or arithmetic. In large schools where the studies are numerous, classes in one of the more advanced studies may be heard only on alternate days. Two or three recitations a week thoroughly conducted will be more valuable to a class than five or six that must be hurried for the lack of time. Let us emphasize the importance of prescribing the study hours of each class and of holding each pupil to their faithful observance. This plan will not only promote orderly habits, but will give efficient aid in the discipline of the school by providing constant and useful occupation to the pupils throughout the entire session. By this arrangement the teacher is enabled with very little difficulty to supervise the study hours of the children while conducting the class exercises. The best method of preventing disorderly practices in a school is to provide for and enforce those of a useful and industrial character. Indirect measures for preventing idleness and mischief are far preferable to those designed to suppress such irregularities when once allowed to arise. Make a complete programme of your daily work and then faithfully adhere to it. Much time and study may be necessary to perfect it, but when once accomplished it will prove to be both time and labor saved to all concerned in the operations of the school. As an illustration of what ought to be done, reference is made to the programme presented in number 42 of the WEEKLY and in number 1 of the PRACTICAL TEACHER.

TARDINESS.

In conversations with teachers, I am often asked how tardiness may be prevented. I believe it impossible entirely to prevent it, but the duty of fighting so troublesome a trait certainly belongs to the teacher. In the country schools, where times must necessarily differ, and the homes are too remote for the sound of a bell to reach them—if there is any bell—it is a more remote and serious matter to secure prompt attendance than in the town.

Teachers have tried with excellent success reading continuously an entertaining book a quarter of an hour before school time in the morning. They have found other things in the attractive way also potent, such as singing, etc. But, like all wrong tendencies to be overcome, it is better that pupils be earnestly taught the necessity of forming the best habits in the school-room. It is wise that they be led to feel that tardiness is a serious drawback to success in everything; and that they can correct it in themselves if they try with enough will and persist for a long enough time. We should teach those apt to be tardy to look into the reasons for the fault, and afterward to bend every effort against whatever has been in the way.

The clock has been allowed to run down or is known to lose time.

The breakfast was late.

The wood and kindling were not dried the day preceding and the fire wouldn't burn.

Too short a time was allowed for making preparations for school.

Too little time was given in which to reach the school-room.

Books, pencils, paper, etc., were not in their places, and time was consumed in gathering them together.

If the pupil has the right spirit about his faults, he will be anxious to correct them and will be willing to punish himself in some way, so as to be less apt to fall again into the same error. Perhaps the school will vote that every tardy one shall record his name and the number of minutes late in a certain reserved
place on the board, the list to be copied in a book of records at the close of the day.

One very successful teacher required the pupils who came after time to state verbally to the school his excuse, as they were disturbed by the arrival of any one out of time.

The keeping of a faithful record is a great help to securing promptness, provided any use is subsequently made of the same. Monthly reports of department, recitations, tardiness, etc., sent home to the parents, occasionally serve to correct faults at home as well as in school.

The summing up of term records, and publication in the town paper of a list of such names as have a clean record in their minds is also helpful.

On one occasion a teacher said: "This is a bad day for teaching, but the children are getting up to correct faults at home as well as in school."

A roll of honor made up of such names, framed and hung in the school-room, is also helpful.

Where tardiness is a chronic disease, and prevails in a school to an alarming extent, it may be best to use as a severe remedy as locking the doors for a time. This, however, is apt to bring trouble, and is only advisable when deemed best by the acting school board.

In this master teachers have an excellent opportunity to teach strict justice and rectitude. We are sorry to be compelled to admit, however, that not a few teachers are habitually careless, and occasionally dishonest, about their reports. To explain: Here are several departments under one supervision, all directed to mark as tardy those not in their seats at the beginning of roll call. One or two see a few petted pupils hurrying over the school grounds, and so delay roll-call a few minutes. According to other regulations, the teacher marks herself tardy at the close of the ringing of the first bell, and her pupils at the close of the second bell. The strictly honest ones scrupulously perform their duty, even to their own discredit; and their written reports at the term's end compare most unfavorably with those of the less conscientious.

When parents are evidently to blame for their children's tardiness, a visit to the home, and a long talk about the annoyance and its cure almost always bring a reforma-tion.

There are schools in which this subject is made too much of a hobby, where this fault is placed several degrees beyond absolute wrong doing. Pupils of such schools will prefer to forge excuses from parents, or turn back from the school door, losing a half-day of class-drill, and walking a long distance, rather than meet the severity of the teacher.

K. B. F.

COMPETITIVE EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

THE following are some of the questions which were used in the Competitive State Examination which was held in Illinois Feb. 13, 1876.

UNGRADED SCHOOLS.

COMMON THINGS.

Time, 40 Minutes.

1. What is a section of land? Give its size and shape?
2. Who is governor of Illinois? President of the United States?
3. What do you mean by the state legislature? Name the branches of which it consists.
4. Which is heavier, a pint of tallow, or a pint of water? A surface four feet square equals how many surfaces two feet square?
5. What is a milk tooth? Does it ever have a root?
6. Name s. me cloven-footed animals. Name an animal which chews the cud.
7. Which is the larger, the sun, or the moon? Which is farther away?
8. Name three forms in which water exists.
9. Does the sun move around the earth, or the earth around the sun? Name the autumn months.
10. From what animal is veal obtained? From what grain is oat taken?

LETTER WRITING.

Time, 1 Hour.

Write a letter of not less than ten lines, exclusive of date, address, and signature, about Christmas, telling how you spent the last one, or what presents you received; or, you may tell any fact you have learned during the past week, either from your school-books or elsewhere.

SPELLING.

Time, 15 Minutes.

See "Directions to Teachers."

1. Fleury.
2. Ascendant.
3. Felicity.
4. Wrinkle.
5. Knuckle.

In going to sea, the ship sailed straight through the strait of Gibraltar. The captain said to the mate, "Do you see that perfidious"? They cast anchor. Four sailors started in pursuit and captured the prey.

PHYSIOLOGY.

Time, 90 Minutes.

1. What is digestion?
2. How does the nutritious portion of the food find its way into the blood?
3. What is the office of the veins? Of the arteries? What is the difference in their appearance?
4. Locate each of the following parts of the body and tell what it is: humerus; pharynx; duodenum; aorta; esophagus.
5. What change is the air undergo in the lungs?
6. Describe the structure of the eye by which the amount of light is regulated.
7. Name the parts of the cerebro-spinal system. What is its office?
8. What changes take place in the bones as a person grows older?
9. What is the cuticle or scar-lik? Its office?
10. Where are the maxillary glands? What is their office?

QUERIES AND ANSWERS.

To Correspondents. Make your answers as brief as possible and not sacrifice clearness. Never send an answer or a question on a postal card. Never make any marginal marks in your solutions. Always revise your answers before sending, to see that it is perfectly clear and contains no errors. The shortest and best answers will be published in preference to others. When it is possible, send your own answer when you send the query. Make as few diagrams as possible. Write only on one side of the paper. Questions will be repub-lished for three weeks if no answer is received.

NO answers have been received for the following queries, viz: Nos. 22, 31, 13, 24, 21, 34, 36, 28, 39, 31, 32, 37. The following are among the best of the answers now on hand. We have answers also for Nos. 43, 33, 34, 35, 36, 39; also several queries.

ANSWERS.

1. In ancient times, the Mediterranean; at present, the Atlantic.
2. The Panama Canal opened June 22, 1826, and closed July 15, 1826.
3. 16 and 36. Queries 16 and 36 indicate that there is possibly some very important reason for insisting that algebraic calculations should always be reduced as quadratics. Why this is? If a solution as a cubic is immediately apparent, it is always the case when there are integral roots, why should one waste precious time in looking for another solution which as a quadratic is no better? i.e.,

\[ \frac{8}{x} - \frac{7}{x} \]
Clearing of fractions, \( x^2 - 2xy - 8y^2 = 16 - 7x \).

Put \( x^2 - 2xy - 8y^2 = 16 - 7x = 0 \).

This equation has plainly two real roots and one imaginary one.

Factoring, \((x-4)(y-4) = 0\).

\[ x = 4, y = 4 \]

There are three real roots.

Factoring gives \((y-4)(y-2)(y+2) = 0\).

\[ y = 4, y = 2, y = -2 \]

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