

SPRAWOZDANIA SZKOLNE
Książnica
Kopernikańska
w Toruniu
SCHULPROGRAMME

Zu der

Abiturienten-Entlassung,

welche

am Donnerstag, den 2. April, Nachmittags 4 Uhr,

im Saale der

Friedrich-Wilhelms-Schule,

Realschule erster Ordnung, zu Stettin,

Statt haben wird,

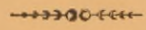
ladet

Beschützer, Gönner und Freunde dieser Schulanstalt

ehrerbietigst und ergebenst ein

der

Director Kleinsorge.



Inhalt:

Abhandlung des ordentlichen Lehrers Starburg: On English schools and their Methods of teaching English.
Schulnachrichten vom Director.

Stettin 1868.

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On English schools and their methods of teaching English.

In the educational system of England we have to distinguish the Education of the Poor, in the National and British Schools; the Education of the Middle Classes, in a variety of Private Schools and in establishments of a mixed character; and the Education of the Higher Classes, in the Public Schools.

The National and British Schools.

These two classes of elementary schools differ only in the point of religious instruction, which in the British schools is entirely confined to the Bible, no dogmatic teaching taking place. The management of National Schools is practically in the hands of the rector of the parish, whilst in British Schools this business is performed by some of the leading Nonconformists. These authorities determine what system of instruction shall be followed, appoint teachers and dismiss them, take care of the school buildings, and regulate the internal arrangements — in fact manage the whole school business.

The means for supporting these schools are of different sorts. In the first place, there are not unfrequently certain endowments for the purposes of popular education. In the second place, fees are demanded from the parents of the children, which, however, are kept very low. In the third place, there is a sum raised by local subscription within the school district, this being the condition upon which the school is entitled to claim what forms a fourth item, viz. a portion of the Parliamentary fund.

It is by the power of according or refusing the Government aid, that the Educational Department, which is intrusted with £ 800,000 annually, forces the managers of Parish Schools to conform to the regulations of the Education Code and to the principles embodied in certain "Minutes" of the Privy Council. Under the Code of 1861 these annual grants, which were formerly bestowed in various ways, have been merged into one, the payment of one penny for each attendance of a child after one hundred attendances at the morning or afternoon meetings. But the payment takes only place, if certificated teachers, instructed in the 'Normal Training Colleges', are employed; it is to be reduced in case the Inspector who visits the schools every year, is not satisfied in the prescribed

subjects. One third is to be deducted for defective reading, one third for defective writing, and one third for defective arithmetic. Besides, if, in the opinion of the Inspector, who in the case of National Schools is almost always in orders, the condition of the school building is not satisfactory, or if there occur faults of instruction or discipline on the part of the teacher, Government aid may either be absolutely or partially withdrawn.

As so stringent measures are taken to ascertain whether the children are really capable of reading, writing, and ciphering, it may be supposed that the managers will compel the teachers to devote much time and care to these subjects. And warmly we must approve of a contrivance to secure a sound instruction in the elements to the lower classes, considering that a defect in this respect usually arises not so much from a want of teaching power in the masters, who have been trained to their business, as from a desire to escape from the mere drudgery of their profession. This, however, is the very defect which the Inspectors are appointed to remedy; their chief business being, by examining the schools thoroughly, to ascertain wherein the master fails, and to insist upon his doing his duty.

In the year 1861 there were sixty Inspectors, and 10403 departments of schools which they had to visit.

A system of examinations and certificates for the teachers of elementary schools has been in operation for twenty years at the least. There are elaborate examinations and nine classes of certificates. In the reports of the school-inspections annually published the Inspectors are agreeing that the trained teachers are far superior to those who are not trained; but they are also unanimously of opinion that the rate of the certificate affords no true standard as to the real qualification of the teacher. The reason is perhaps that many of the ablest masters are, at the same time, the most discontented with their lot. Without the prospect of anything better than £2 a week so long as they continue to please the local managers, they have contracted to teach the ordinary, humble, un-ambitious peasant boys, to bear, day after day, the din, the smell, and the stupidity of the young day-labourers who form the vast majority of their pupils. Now, as their education, though high in relation to their social position, is after all very superficial; it is not astonishing that not a few of them should try to shirk their duty, and find a vent for their ingenuity and learning in the task of decoying and fitting others to tread in their steps and do most of their work. An opportunity for this is offered in the Pupil-teacher-system.

Pupil-teachers have been employed since 1846. The primary object of their institution was, to provide elementary schools with competent assistant-teachers, drawn from their own ranks. A schoolmaster generally finds in his first class one or two boys whose home circumstances and general intelligence naturally indicate them as embryo teachers. A lad of this stamp, supposing a selection to be made by the Inspector on the master's recommendation, as soon as he is thirteen, is bound by indenture to

teach in the school for five years. At the end of each year he passes an examination, for which he is specially prepared by his master, before the Government Inspector. Provided this is passed, he receives from the Parliamentary fund a salary rising by a fixed scale from £ 10 to £ 20. By the Code of 1861 these stipulations have suffered an alteration, as the salary is no longer paid directly by government, but by the managers of the school.

This system has proved highly beneficial for elementary education. Not only do the pupil-teachers form a constant and sufficient supply to all the training-colleges, but the apprenticeship of the youthful assistant to his master carries with it a great moral weight. The mutual interdependence of the two parties — the one looking to his subordinate for support, the other looking to his chief for instruction — the mutual consciousness that the welfare of the one is involved in the welfare of the other, and that the prosperity of the school depends on the soundness of the relation between its rulers — this has formed the great success of the system.

The "Neue Stettiner Zeitung" of the 24th Dec. 1867 brought an abstract of an article in the "Pall Mall Gazette", in which an Englishman extolling the preferences of the elementary education in Germany, points out as a principal defect in the English system, the grouping of the children according to age. It must be observed, however, that it is not for the lessons, but for the examinations by the Inspector, that the pupils are grouped or classified by age; a separate standard of examination being fixed by the Revised Code of 1861, which the boys or girls of a particular age must have reached, in order to earn for the school a share in the Parliamentary grant. A critic of the "Saturday Review", to whom we are indebted for many of the particulars, censures this system very severely. He shows that in a country where compulsory instruction does not exist, age is not the proper test to apply in order to ascertain the merit of the schoolmaster or the progress of the pupils, and that the result of this method must be, to drive away from the school-doors those who need instruction most, — the neglected and the dunces, as being a mere unprofitable burden.

Private Schools.

The Elementary Schools stand under the inspection of government, and Royal Commissions inquire now and then into all the details of the large Public Schools and the Universities; but the education of the middle class is left to take care of itself. And so it does. There are a multitude of Private Schools scattered all over the land, destined for those who despise the National School, and do not aspire to the Public School and the University. Here, in the education of the lower middle class, is the weakest point in the English school system.

No law in England hinders any man who likes from calling himself a school-master, or, if there be any such law, it is by no means rigidly enforced. A great number of private educational establishments are, it is true, in the hands of clergymen; but many people who know no better way of making an existence, as if the art of teaching came by intuition, set up "Academies for Young Gentlemeu" or "Establishments

for Young Ladies". About Christmas and in Midsummer the newspapers abound with advertisements in which Mr. Such a one promises "the best parts of Classical Instruction, with a first-rate Commercial Education, and the acquisition of the Modern Languages", or Lady So and so recommends her school, in which "a careful and systematic training in sound religious principles is combined with a solid English Education, together with the acquirements of the more ornamental attainments". In spite of the big words, a miserable training and a corrupted moral atmosphere are evils proper to the greater number of the class. Dickens made an attempt in Nicholas Nickleby to show what private schools really are; but he failed by laying on the colours too thick and strong. Every body feels that the sufferings of Smike are a caricature, and the portrait of Squeers himself is so effective a satire, that it discredits the whole description. The difference between public and private schools is especially one of size. In a private school the check of public opinion is wanting both to masters and to boys. The public schoolmaster is under the eyes, not only of several hundred boys, but of all his fellow-masters. A private school represents an Oriental despotism; a public school is a constitutional government. In the latter the headmaster takes counsel with his peers, and is guided by the rules and traditional customs of the school. In inflicting punishments the private schoolmaster follows no rule but his own temper, whereas a public school system controls the master in all the actions of his pedagogic life. And yet, the superior tenderness of treatment which private establishments are supposed to guarantee, and the fear of exposing their children to the corruptions of a public school, are the chief reasons why fond parents mostly prefer the former.

The evils of private schools were first attempted to be cured by the establishment of proprietary schools, which failed chiefly, because the master was not only a nominee, but almost the servant of an ignorant local proprietor. Besides, the proprietor, the master, and the system were in a state of continued flux, one inefficient master was changed for another, until a crisis of parental interference led to a pecuniary break down. In short, the failure of private and proprietary schools may be traced to three principal causes, want of skill and knowledge in the teachers, want of method and settled principles in the school, and the influence and interference of ignorant and injudicious parents.

Public schools for the middle classes.

Efforts, and considerable ones have been made to counteract the evils connected with private schools. In conformity to the principle that no small school can compete with a large public school, that only in a large school the expenses can be kept low, that only in a public school the masters can act with independence, that only in a school with many pupils character can be thoroughly formed, that only with highly educated masters discipline and the right way of intercourse with the boys is to be maintained, three great public schools have been founded in Sussex about twelve years ago, in

which the boys of farmers and tradesmen are educated. Similar public schools, having neither a special aim nor being confined to a certain neighbourhood, have been established in other counties, and generally comprise both a boarding and a day-school; the former at the cost of £ 25 to £ 30, the latter at less than half that amount. A beginning has also been made with the foundation of County Schools and Colleges on the largest scale. (Suffolk School as an Albert Memorial.) According to the plan, the elementary education is common to all boys in the school, and will equally suit them, whether they are destined for agricultural or commercial life. Of the more advanced pupils the commercial scholars have their own training College, whereas the young farmers receive also special teaching in chemistry, mensuration, and mechanics. It has been calculated that all this can be well taught at a price ranging between £ 20 and £ 30 per annum, if the number of the boarders surpasses 500. Such County Schools would seem to unite just those elements upon which the successes of the old Public schools were founded. Sufficient numbers to contrast and educate character, independence in the masters, a tolerably uniform level among the boys, a local character and local associations, an "esprit de corps" in which both boys and masters must feel themselves parts of a system organized for them, with its principles settled and its traditions growing; — these are the essentials to a good school, and are impossible in a private establishment.

In many towns excellent schools have been established for the middle classes, which commonly combine the characters of Grammar School and Commercial College. Their origin is explained by the denomination of Endowed, or Foundation Schools. The management is in the hands of trustees. The Headmaster, who reads Latin and Greek with the senior classes, one or two more Oxford or Cambridge men for Mathematics and assistance in Classics, the teacher of Chemistry, Mechanics, and Land-surveying, an Englishmaster for elementary instruction, and a Drawingmaster, are mostly appointed for life and, especially the Headmaster, liberally paid. As the latter receives the larger portion of the fees, he has to provide for such assistance as is wanted, together with French and German instruction, for which extra fees are charged. In large schools there are frequently one or two foreign masters for this purpose, and they are expected to teach every thing, religion and English etymology not excluded.

A boy enters such a school after having passed two or three years in a preparatory establishment, where he has learned elementary reading, and where, at the same time, all sorts of collateral information have been instilled into his mind in Geography, History, Arithmetic, the Bible etc. On the second stage of his education he now begins Latin, Mathematics, and English Composition. Having been about two years at Latin he has to choose whether he will begin Greek, or follow one of the two other courses which afford a training with a special view to his calling in after-life. We are incapable to examine into the technical instruction which may be given to the commercial and agricultural young gentlemen; but we have been told that the latter acquire such practical

knowledge as will enable them to understand the construction of farm machinery, and the nature and composition of soils and manures; whilst the former are made to write a hand fit for business and to be quick at accounts. We subjoin two catalogues of examination-questions which the pupils of such a school were desired to write out in Arithmetic and in Geography.

S. GRAMMAR SCHOOL.

1. Express in words the number 503016007, and divide three hundred and sixty millions six thousand and eighteen by seventy-eight and prove your result.
2. If 56 times £23 14s. 2½d. be taken from £1500, how much remains?
3. A cubic inch of water weighs 253 grains, what is the weight of a cubic foot in lbs., &c.?
4. A man walks 25 miles in 7¼ hours, how many yards &c., does he walk in a minute? Supposing his average step is 2½ feet, how many steps does he take in a minute?
5. Find the cost of 3 cwt. 1 qr. 26 lbs. at £4 17s. 10d. per cwt., by "Practice".
6. Reduce 1s. 8½d. to the fraction of a crown, 25 poles 4 yards to the decimal of a mile, and add together ⅓ of a guinea, .027 of a shilling and ⅔ of 3¼ of 7s. 6.
7. Find the product and quotient of 103.5 by .064, and prove your result by Vulgar Fractions.
8. If 20 men can build a wall 135 feet long in 12 days, how many men will be required to build one three times as long in ⅓ of that time.
9. How does Interest differ from Discount—strictly and in ordinary business? Find by how much the true discount on £752 10s. 6d. for 18 months at 4 per cent. is less than the interest on the same sum for the same time.
10. An article which was sold for 12s. 6d. realized a profit of 10 per cent, what was its prime cost?
11. A square field contains 3 acres 3 roods 75 yards, find the length of a side.
12. A person transfers £1500 stock from the 4 per cents. at 91½ to the 3 per cents. at 72. How much of the latter stock will he hold, and what will be the alteration in his income?
13. Out of 150 lbs. of tea a grocer sold 50 at 5s. per lb., thereby gaining 7½ per cent., at what rate must he sell the remainder per lb. to clear 10 per cent. on the whole?
14. Equal weights of gold and silver are in value as 78 to 5, a shilling weighs 3 dwts. 15 grs., find the weight of a sovereign.

S. GRAMMAR SCHOOL.

Examination. June, 1859.

1. Define the terms, Longitude, Zone, Ecliptic, Isothermal line; also Peninsula, Isthmus, Promontory, Strait, giving examples of each of the latter taken from Europe, Asia, Africa, and America.
2. Describe the course of the Gulf-stream. What influence has it on the climate of England?
3. Give the names of the chief towns, rivers, mountains, and form of government in Holland, Austria, Switzerland, Persia, and Egypt.
4. Trace the course of the Thames, Humber, Shannon, Rhine, Rhone, and Danube, mentioning some of the principal towns on each.
5. Name the principal colonies and foreign possessions of Great Britain and give the geographical position of each.
6. Draw up a list in order of the chief headlands, inlets, mouths of rivers, and seaports on the shores of the English Channel.

7. What are the names and situation of the principal chains of mountains in Europe and N. America? "From the great central table-land of Asia extend four distinct chains." What are the names and directions of these chains and what large rivers take their rise in each?

8. Enumerate the principal islands of the West Indies, stating to what countries they belong.

9. Name three of the most important sea-ports in England, in Scotland, and in Ireland, with the counties in which they are situated, the rivers on which they stand, their principal trade, and anything remarkable about them.

10. From what countries and ports do we import our chief supplies of corn, cotton, sugar, coffee, indigo, hides?

11. Draw a map of one of the following countries, France, Italy, India.

12. What and where are the following, and for what are they remarkable, Canton, Metapan, Boston, Bassora, Ladoga, Sheffield, Tigris, Trieste, Cayenne, Amazon, Montreal, Pavia, Surat?

In the mercantile department a sound foundation may also be laid in French and German.

For the senior classes of the Grammar school-division the study of the Classical languages and of Mathematics is now the great requisite in favour of which every thing else is sacrificed. The method of teaching consists in hammering every thing well into the boys' heads, according to the letter, the rules of Grammar frequently with hopes that the understanding will come afterwards. (Cf. Wiese, Letters on English Education pp. 87—88.) We have seen the headmaster himself making the boys of a lower form go over the same lesson (three pages in a Latin Delectus, sc. a reading-book containing sentences arranged in a systematic progression) twice a week, throughout a quarter of a year; it was the same lesson the boys had to write out on the subsequent examination. Of the whole school a few boys only of good talents will advance in Latin as far as correct prose writing and some skill in mechanical poetic composition. Greek grammar is not a great subject of care; but Homer, Euripides, Aeschylus are read with boys who do not know properly the conjugation of the regular verbs.

Singing-lessons are not in use. By way of gymnastics, a drill-sergeant is commonly engaged to attend once or twice a week for the purpose of practising the extension motions with the boys. Drilling, however, after the English system, seems not to be the right sort of gymnastics for boys. It is beneficial for boys whose necks or shoulders have a tendency to curvation, it may be of good service for the moral and physical improvement of the children of the poorer classes, giving them strength and activity, habits of obedience and combined movement, which make them useful beyond their years to employers after they have left school; but of the healthy boys in advanced schools, even those who are persevering and make progress in the use of clubs and dumb-bells go through their exercises for the prescribed time in a spiritless and languid fashion, counting the minutes during which they have to sustain the task. Yet, whoever has seen English boys on their playground cannot desire to see what are especially called gymnastics supersede the active sports which have so long been popular in England, and

which are so eminently adapted for promoting agility and energy of character. In the heart of a large town, however, where rowing, cricket, and football are impossible, gymnastics after the German fashion would be the best means of physical education.

Upon the whole, these public middle class schools afford a good education according to the English notion. Notwithstanding there is one great objection to be made against most of them, arising from the loss of social unity among the boys. The schools are intended to be day-schools for boys of the town and neighbourhood; but the headmaster being provided with accommodations for boarders, the number of whom often amounts to thirty and more, and the English master keeping an equal number of boarders of humbler rank, rivalry and quarrels cannot fail to occur both between these two sets of private boarders, and between them and the day-boys, which must often lead to discord between the masters also. Besides, the mere advertisements of the schools show that the teaching power of the superior masters will be principally devoted to the boarders. We reprint such a notice from a newspaper of 1860:

"The Head Master of a Grammar School, with a rich endowment and Building, staff of Masters etc. beyond the requirements of the small town to which it belongs, is desirous to receive a few more boarders to prepare for the Universities or Competitive Examinations. He is assisted by a High Wrangler, and himself obtained very high University distinctions in Classics, Mathematics, English Composition, and the Moral Sciences, and subsequently had very successful experience at Cheltenham College, and other eminent schools.

The Head and Second Masters are enabled to devote much of their time to the Senior classes. The treatment is unusually liberal, and the situation extremely healthy and agreeable. Terms fifty guineas.

Apply to:"

Public Schools.

The Public Schools have always been the pride of England, not so much on account of the superior teaching they are supposed to supply, but for the age of their foundation (Eton 1440), for their present size and grandeur, and because the boys who are assembled there, are in large proportion sons of the nobles and of the wealthiest parents in the United Kingdom — boys who are to become the legislators in Parliament, and who in the administration of justice or by the wise or mischievous expenditure of their wealth are to exercise a predominant influence over the happiness of the population. It is not easy to give a strict and complete definition of what is popularly understood by a Public School. Sir J. Coleridge, in a lecture on Public School Education, 1860, says: — "No one would call a school public unless it had a permanent foundation. Its continued existence must not depend on the will of any individual, or number of persons associated together for the time being, nor on the popularity of any teacher or teachers; it must be public in its character, it must have something eleemosynary in its constitution. Children who satisfy certain conditions of parentage, or birth, or fortune,

or other qualifications, must have an inchoate right to be admitted. It ought to have public buildings, and it usually, if not necessarily, is connected by endowments with one or both of our great Universities."

Nearly all the ancient considerable towns of the kingdom possess schools which, according to these tests, might unquestionably be called Public Schools. Combining a permanent foundation, in most cases owing to posthumous munificence, with a body of trustees supplying their own number, they pursue about the same course of instruction which is pursued at Eton or Winchester, and are not confined in the admission of pupils. Not a few of them are also in possession of one or two scholarships at University Colleges, and consequently enjoy every year the advantage of a public examination by gentlemen sent from Oxford or Cambridge, who assist in electing the boys on whom these rewards of industry and ability are bestowed. Frequently, however, when a certain part of the school has been reached, these schools are in some measure divided, and the boys not destined for a learned profession then enter a course framed with a view to some special preparation for their separate destinies in life. Such are the schools of a mixed character mentioned on a preceding page. Yet, although the unity be strictly preserved and the real object considered to be the general preparation of the mind and heart for the duties of manhood, there is a proneness prevailing in England to restrict the appellation of Public School to a few establishments; and in the same manner as Oxford and Cambridge are acknowledged to be the only true Universities, Eton, Winchester, Westminster, Harrow, and Rugby are specially understood to be the Public Schools.

These schools, or rather Eton alone, "from its size and its composition at once the most important, and also the most complete and accurate type of the class to which it belongs," form the subject of the lecture quoted above. Sir J. Coleridge states his view of the system to which he owes his proper education in the following manner:

"Every institution of education has its idea, — that which, so long as it is consistently carried on, influences, whether intentionally and consciously or not, and with more or less precision, all its practises and details. I conceive the Eton system to be the fostering in the boy all that independence of thought, and permitting all that liberty of action, which are consistent with the maintenance of discipline and subordination; without these a school cannot even exist, much less the scholars make any advance in the detail of school-learning. But the play of the machine is in the former; the latter are the checks, necessary indeed, but which it is desired to make as little felt and apparent as properly may be.

I think it cannot be denied that the tendency of the Eton system is to make a boy generous and firmminded, to exercise his common sense early, to make him habitually feel a moral responsibility, to act not under the impulse of fear, but of generous shame and generous emulation, to be willing and determined to keep trust because he is trusted; — in a word, to make him a manly boy and a gentleman."

This is rather a favourable picture, but, when going into detail, the lecturer discusses also the weak points of the system, though with a delicate regard to the private interests

of the Eton masters. In 1860 the number of pupils was above 820, including the Lower School with a hundred boys under the direction of the Lower Master; and only 20 Assistants, besides the Head Master and Lower Master, were appointed for the teaching in school and the tuition out of it. For every master, but the Head-Master, is also a tutor, and every boy must have his own tutor. We can easily judge from these numbers, how large the school-classes of the teachers, how great the assembly in their pupil-rooms must be. Now the tutor is bound to exercise a peculiar care over his pupils in every branch of education; every exercise is first to be submitted to him for inspection, and then carried into school; every lesson is first gone through before the tutor. This is the rule, indeed; but it is above the power of a man, whatever his intellectual energy and sense of duty may be, after his regular school work efficiently to guide the studies of fifty or more pupils, and to maintain a proper discipline among them — not to speak of the necessity of cultivating his own mind by the pursuit of private studies. The control of the industry of the boys cannot therefore be sufficiently exercised, and the facility of avoiding real labour and practising deceit in overgrown classes, must seduce even those who would gain honour and the approbation of their masters. The danger in point of idleness and sloth among the pupils is the more urgent, as the expensive Public Schools are preferred by many parents who care little of the studies, and only want their boys to make high acquaintance, form useful connections, and acquire what they call good manners. Considering all this, and allowing the Head-master to be a man of very superior qualities; is it not to be questioned whether his mind can permeate so vast a frame and prevent or even know all the mischief that may be working?

Still more than the insufficient number of the masters, is the manner in which they are elected liable to decided remonstrance. The assistants are young men chosen by the Head and Lower Masters from the number of Etonians who have succeeded by patronage to King's College at Cambridge, sometimes when they are only in their third year. No examination, no previous training in the difficult art of teaching or dealing with boys is required. It seems obviously unwise, while Rugby and Harrow, and other great schools select the best men they can get from both the Universities, that the master-ships at Eton should be regarded the monopoly of a second-rate college at Cambridge, or even restricted to Etonians in general. The desire of cherishing the unity of ideas and principles in the school by composing the staff of masters of men who have been familiar with the system as boys, and accept without any scruple the settled routine and traditions of it, has probably given rise to a privilege which is even now but slightly broken in upon, though it is in manifest defiance of the interests of public education.

It was natural that the suggestions publicly made for the improvement of some deficiencies in the Public School system by a man so well qualified as Sir J. Coleridge, should occasion a good deal of controversy touching the merits and demerits of the system in general. In the "Cornhill Magazine" the question was discussed, as if it were

rather an issue between private and public schools, the value of a school rising in proportion to the supervision exercised over the boys. That many parents measure schools by the same standard, is proved by the popularity of some private schools, the masters of which vie with each other in the diligence with which they manipulate every boy's character by way of watching, questioning, and lecturing. This opinion was with great ability refuted in the "Saturday Review", and the self-education in the Public Schools, meaning the education of the boys by the boys, efficiently defended. The writer protests that human character is not an article of manufacture constructed by a cunning artificer; that a youth who has been in the habit of being guided in all his steps, is just as likely to be guided to evil as to good; that a boy who constantly relies upon an other for aid in difficulties, guidance in perplexities, and shelter from temptations, can never attain to the genuine stout selfreliance and true manliness which is obtained by the vast majority of boys in public schools by battling for themselves against their difficulties and forming their own characters by the light of their own blunders and their own troubles. An excellent illustration of this view is offered in "Tom Brown's school days."

It is true, the education of the boys by the boys must not be the only education which they acquire in school; but, whatever the deficiency of mere instruction may be, it may be remedied without altogether changing the system of the Public Schools, which are the best for English boys, because they are the most congenial to English life and character. In them a boy lives as he will afterwards live in the world, under laws the provisions of which he knows, and subject to a public opinion which he himself has a share in forming. He may be bullied by those that are stronger than himself, and misled by those that are deeper than himself; but he is thus trained for the struggle that lies before him, and the fibres of his character will be invigorated, when he reaches the age at which passions begin to drive him, and at which a false step is attended with serious consequences.

We will not conclude these observations without mentioning a praxis generally prevailing in the advanced schools of England. They act in accordance to the old saying that —

All work and no play

Makes Jack a dull boy.

There are two holidays in the week, and there is a tendency increasing to shorten the time allotted to books without any diminution of that bright voluntary attention which is essential to real progress. The yearning almost irrepressible of an active boy to play truant on a fine hot summer afternoon is frequently indulged without interrupting his education; and according to the experience that the second half of an hour of instruction so often drives out of the feeble heads of boys whatever the first half may have put into them, the lessons have advantageously been restrained instead of lengthening them. It is not an absolute novelty to hear that the attention of boys to mathematics is apt to be deficient after dinner, but it is a novelty to suppose that the lessons of grammar,

arithmetic etc. do not equally suffer under the effects of hot weather and digestion upon the intellect. Some discoverers of that weakness in the puerile nature have proposed to remedy it by the use of some instrument of flagellation; a good deal has been said about the power of first-rate teaching to command attention; but we rather think that, if a demonstration were addressed to a man under the same unfavourable circumstances, he would not make a much better figure than the little boys long before a full hour had elapsed.

We will now try to explain the Methods of Teaching English employed in English schools, as far as we can form an idea of them from one year's experience as a teacher in a Public Endowed School, and from several specimens of the sort of books which are employed.

The study of the words with regard to sound, spelling, and meaning.

In preparatory schools the teaching of English is of course the chief part of information. The letters, and the few principles clearly laid down and faithfully carried out in spelling and pronunciation, may be assumed to be known. The child knows exactly the sounds of simple combinations of letters and the correct pronunciation of words like fate, fat, far, fall, fare; me, met; pine, pin; no, not, nor, move; tube, tub, turn, full; out, boy, etc. Then every individual word which presents some difficulty, must be made the subject of separate study. The words plough, enough, though, through, all with a different vowel-sound; and ware, wear, were, where, all sounding alike, show how little connection often exists between the letters and the sounds.

Walker in his Rhetorical Grammar advises every teacher to make it a part of his lesson, to go regularly over the alphabet with his pupil, and to make him pronounce every letter distinctly, dwelling a considerable time on each; then to proceed to those monosyllables that are perfect rhymes, and to make him go over a portion of them every lesson by pronouncing every word distinctly after the teacher. This plan is adopted in several "Spelling-Books" or „Gradations", while others, for inst. Duncan's "English Expositor", arrange their tables and divide the lessons according to the number of the Letters and Syllables of the words, in alphabetical order, so that the boys can easily refer to them, when in doubt. In Crossley's "Comprehensive Spelling" the words are grouped according to their meaning and grammatical classification. Still an other method is followed in the "Etymological Spelling-Book and Expositor" by Henry Butter, of which the 217th edition, London 1857, is lying before us. The original preface was written in 1829.

The figure of the editions this book has gone through, shows sufficiently that it stands foremost among the books used in private schools, and must be more closely

examined. It is divided into three distinct parts, treating on Spelling, Pronunciation, and Derivation. The beginning is not filled up with the alphabet and easy words of one or more syllables, and it is consequently intended for the use of those who already know something of reading and spelling.

The first part offers lists of difficult words of one, two, three, four, and more syllables, especially those in which the pronunciation differs considerably from the spelling; they are arranged according to the vowel-sound of the accented syllable. Out of 19 columns we give the words classed under fall:

<i>fall</i>	balk	thwart	spa	nauseous	besought	auricle
squall	chalk	warmth	—	saucer	exhaust	authorize
shawl	walk	warn	falcon	caustic	applause	almanac
erawl	hawk	scorn	halser	haughty	landau	ordeal
fault	fawn	thorn	palfrey	daughter	macaw	orchestra
vault	spawn	scorch	caldron	awkward	pacha	porphyry
halt	drawn	sauce	thraldom	orphan	—	—
caught	prawn	pause	qualmish	forfeit	laudable	hydraulics
fraught	thaw	gauze	autumn	corsair	plausable	tarpaulin
fought	fraud	false	auburn	gorgeous	nautical	marauder
bought	broad	daub	gaudy	mortgage	nauseate	enormous
brought	sward	scald	faucet	—	paucity	instalment.
groat	quart	wharf	maugre	assault	audience	—

In the second part treating on pronunciation he groups under the same heads words pronounced exactly alike, but spelt differently; as:

all	ought	caws	gall	law	paws
awl	ought	cause	Gaul	la!	pause
—	—	—	—	—	—
alter	ball	claws	hall	mall	salter
altar	bawl	clause	haul	maul	psalter
—	—	—	—	—	—
augur	call	cord	haw	pall	Wall
auger	caul	chord	haugh	Paul	wawl etc.
—	—	—	—	—	—

There are some errors to which in England even respectable people incline as, to confound words from not sounding the letter r, so that they pronounce alike: —

arms — alms
barm — balm
boar — boa etc.

Or, c, s, and z are to be distinguished: —

advice — advise
 practice — practise
 price — prize
 sink — zink etc.

Very careful speakers only make a difference between: —

accept — except
 catch — ketch
 descent — dissent
 serious — Sirious etc.

A great number of words have a different signification according to the seat of the accent as, august, buffet, compact, confine, discord, incense, instinct, etc.

Others differ both in accent and sound as, desert, minute, rebel, etc.

Aspiration is a matter of great difficulty; two lists are drawn up: —

aloe	—	hallow	ail	—	hail
arras	—	harass	air	—	hair
artless	—	heartless	ale	—	hale
awl	—	haul	all	—	hall
coward	—	cowherd	alter	—	halter
		etc.			etc.

So far the book furnishes the matter which is offered to the German scholar in the second portion of Flügel's "Praktisches Handbuch der Englischen Sprache," dealing with "Words of similar sound, but different in spelling and sense."

Then follows a catalogue of equivocal words, such as, although written and pronounced alike, have very different meanings as: —

air, *s.* what we breathe, music, mien;

v. to expose to the air.

court, *s.* space before a house, a little street, a hall of justice, an assembly of judges, the residence of a prince;

v. to solicit, to woo.

fair, *s.* an annual market;

a. beautiful, just.

fine, *s.* a forfeit, the end;

a. clear, thin, splendid; —

v. to purify, to punish by fine;

— etc., etc.

Adding an enumeration of different nouns and nouns of different terminations denoting pairs of males and females and grouped under "Genders", and two more lists of irregular plurals and Verbs, we have all the ordinary matter of the Spelling Books used in Elementary schools.

It requires indeed a good deal of patience in the master, till the pupil by reading, spelling, copying, and continually repeating the former lessons becomes master of these words, getting along with the spelling a short and easy definition of them implanted in his mind. There is work through a lengthened period for the master and his assistant, but there is at the same time the danger that the teacher may be satisfied with making the pupil learn by rote these elements of his language, supposing he will learn English well enough by hearing it spoken.

But the aspirations of Mr. Butter are higher than it is usual with authors of Spelling Books. In the first division we find under his difficult words such as, heliacal, calamanco, phylactery, purulency, animalcule, chalybeate, oesophagus, adscititious, phlebotomy, masticatory, coadjuvancy, circumgyration, inamorato, accessariness, isoperimetrical, etc.

All these the unlucky pupil has to spell, syllable by syllable, with the proper accent, without any hint as to their meaning.

The Polysyllables are followed by "Synonymous Words" derived from Greek, Latin, English, some of them rather hard: —

Greek.	Latin.	English.
analogy	— correspondence	— likeness
baptize	— immerse	— dip
bishop	— supervisor	— overlooker
chrysalis	— aurelia	— grub etc.

After two columns of "Geographical nouns and adjectives" come "Opposites", "Correlatives", "Trines", "Quaternions". Examples of "Trines" are: —

son	— husband	— father
red	— yellow	— blue
knowledge	— intelligence	— wisdom
literature	— science	— art etc.

Examples of "Quaternions" are: —

point	— line	— surface	— solid
Europe	— Asia	— Africa	— America
Matthew	— Mark	— Luke	— John etc.

Thus the first part furnishes a good deal of curious matter, whilst the second part does not much differ from other collections for the purpose of teaching pronunciation. The third portion, which occupies more than half of the book, is the strictly etymological part, of which Mr. Butter has a pretty good opinion himself, as he declares in the preface: "I can only say that I think it far surpasses, in importance and practical utility, anything that is to be found in other Spelling Books."

But the main substance of this portion of the book consists of long lists, filling fifty pages, of Latin words, with their English derivatives. The definitions and the

derivations too, are sometimes odd, and the grouping is no less so. Under *cura*, for instance, we find *cure*, *curable*, *curate*, *curacy*, *curious*, *incurious*, *curiosity*, *accurate*, *accuracy*, *procure*, *security*, *sinecure*. Under *ducere* we have *duke*, *ductile*, *abduction*, *abduce*, *conduct*, *conduce*, *conduit*, *deduct*, *deduce*, *education*, etc.

No attempt is made to explain the derivation of both halves of a compound word. No distinction is made between those Norman words which, after ages of naturalisation, no one feels to be strangers, and the merest technical importations of the last centuries. Even a good Teutonic word, like *time*, has been set down as "derived" from Latin. Among the Greek derivatives are: *Hydragogue*, *aphilanthropy*, *autoptical*, *orthodromy*, *ectype*, and *alectoromachy*. We find also "to urge" set down as derived from *ἔργον*; but our chief objection is to cramming boys, and perhaps girls too, with these absurd words, many of which are technical terms of particular sciences.

The usual way of teaching derivation is, to submit to the pupil's notice how English nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, and prepositions have been formed out of simpler words or roots, by certain changes of letters, by the addition of prefixes or suffixes, or by the operation of both these modes at the same time. Lists more or less elaborate of English prefixes and suffixes are studied, and the manner in which the meaning of the roots is qualified by these additional syllables, is explained by numerous examples. The derivation of such words of Latin origin as are in common use, is also taken into consideration; however, as the analysis cannot well be carried to any great extent beyond the limits of the English language itself, the young people who do not enjoy the advantages of studying other languages beside their own, are directed rather to avoid all those words the distinct sense of which they cannot understand, and to express what they want to say, in the simplest possible manner. In Grammar schools the derivation from Latin and Greek roots is carefully studied, and great attention bestowed to make the pupil understand the exact meaning of the words of foreign origin together with the shade of difference in the sense of the English synonymous words.

Thus the study of the meaning of the words is, from the beginning, diligently practised. Precision of expression is the chief aim and, considering how often in our own language vague expressions, or terms which have a meaning most remotely connected with that which they are thought to convey, are used carelessly and profusely, we must allow that method of studying the elements of the mother-tongue to be a very successful one.

It is by this method that English boys acquire the knowledge mentioned in Wiese's Letters pp. 93, 94; for it enables them, in translating Homer and Herodotus, to use plain, homebred English in simple sentences, to latinize in their versions of tragedies, and to employ ornate, elevated, and sonorous English where correspondence with the style of the original author requires it. Such results, however, are only obtained by the boys who reach the highest form in first-rate schools; and not a few of them are lads who were sent to the Public School after enjoying at home the very best private tuition

that could be obtained. In the middle forms the construing of Latin and Greek authors after the old English school fashion gives a boy the habit of reading, as if he were neither knowing nor caring for the sense of the words his tongue is uttering: Three or four words of Latin, then the corresponding English, alternated through several sentences, intermixed with stoppages, or at least a hesitation now and then, because he is not quite sure of the right order or right meaning of the words — this is practised by a school-boy, day after day, for several years of his life. We should think the English construction must rather suffer by this method of reading the classic authors; nevertheless, in the upper forms, translations from foreign languages are almost the only exercise in style.

The Study of Grammar.

Though English grammar is usually among the first things taught, it is, as we have already mentioned, with the exception of the matter contained in Spelling books, not an object of particular care. The pupils are made practically acquainted with the different parts of speech, and the meaning of the terms Number, Gender, Case, Person, Tense, etc., has been familiarly explained to them long before they enter upon the regular grammar lessons. In fact, the majority of the children in English schools are taught grammar only in this way; and not a few of them, it may be safely asserted, have a more practical knowledge of grammatical principles than many pupils at schools of a higher class who have committed to memory the definitions, rules, and exceptions of grammar. The reason is perhaps that most of the teachers to whom this branch is intrusted, having never studied any other language than their own, and being without a systematical knowledge of the principles of Grammar generally, find themselves rather incompetent to their task. They will then teach English either in the mechanical way appointed by Mr. Butler, or treat the rules with much pedantry, often enforcing silly definitions with great minuteness. The books employed seem to be selected chiefly with regard to size, form, and general arrangement; for many which, to judge from the number of their editions, are most extensively used, are defaced by serious inaccuracies, omissions, and blunders. Mr. Mason in his treatise on English grammar gives a catalogue of such incorrect rules and definitions as, "Gender is the distinction of sex," as if words were divided into males and females, as animals are. "The possessive case represents a noun in the state or case of possessing something"; "a preposition is a word placed before nouns and pronouns, to show the relation which they bear to each other"; "the comparative degree is that which exceeds or lessens the positive"; "the superlative degree is the greatest or least quality of an adjective"; "a verb is a word which affirms what is said of persons and things", etc., etc. Indeed, when Grammar is taught in this style, it had better be let alone.

Etymology.

In the school grammars we have before us, there are many differences in the etymological part, especially in the classification of adjectives and pronouns; adverbs, conjunctions, and prepositions. For inst. "but" is for most Grammarians a hard word to deal with; before, since, after, therefore, still, yet, nevertheless, notwithstanding, consequently, however, hence, accordingly, likewise, also, are treated by some authors as conjunctions, whilst others set them down as simple adverbs. Mason follows Latham in treating my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their, as possessive cases of the corresponding pronouns.

"When we say My book, my is not an adjective qualifying the noun book, but a possessive case governed by the noun book, just as the word John's is in John's book. It follows from this that it is perfectly correct to say: "Pity my sorrows, who am bereaved of my children." "I bewail thy fate, who art so poor." Nevertheless such expressions as the above are unusual."

Now, if such phrases are unusual, and if moreover we cannot say "This knife is my", as we may say "This knife is John's", we see no reason for calling it a mistake that the words above mentioned are generally set down as possessive pronouns.

The greatest variance and confusion in the writings of English grammarians occur on the subject of moods, voices, and conjugation in general. Some writers have been misled, and have perplexed others by an undistinguishing attachment to the principles and arrangement of the Greek and Latin grammarians, whereas others will restrict the English verb to two tenses only, pretending the complicated forms to have no foundation in the English language; but to be mere importations from Latin and Greek.

According to Dr. Crombie the English verb has only one voice, namely the active, and he likewise discards the subjunctive together with the potential mood. Some grammarians apply what is called the conjunctive termination both to the persons of the principal verb and to its auxiliaries through all the tenses of the subjunctive mood, which, certainly, is against the practice of good writers. Johnson applies this termination to the present and perfect tenses only. Lowth restricts it entirely to the present tense, and Priestley confines it to the present and imperfect tenses. Under these standards the authors of school-books choose a position, fighting it bravely with the arms of their authorities.

Sullivan is ready to annihilate the imperative along with the subjunctive, declaring it to be really the infinitive mood governed by some verb understood, as, "go", that is, I wish or I order you to "go". He adds, "the classical scholar knows that in Greek language the infinitive is frequently used in this way for the imperative." He might have added too that in the English navy orders are given in the infinitive mood, a style of commanding which has also become the rule for Prussian men-of-war.

In the following we give some tables in which the forms of verbs have been arranged by several authors.

Sullivan (38th edition, 1859).

CONJUGATION OF A REGULAR VERB.

To love.

Present tense.

Past tense.

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
1. I love	1. we love	1. I loved	1. we loved
2. thou lovest	2. ye or you love	2. thou lovedst	2. ye or you loved
3. he loves	3. they love.	3. he loved	3. they loved.

Imperative. Love. Infinitive. To love. Participles. Imperfect. Loving. Perfect. Loved.

Murray.

To love.

Active Voice.

Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present tense.</i>	I love etc.	I am loved
<i>Imperfect tense.</i>	I loved	I was loved
<i>Perfect tense.</i>	I have loved	I have been loved
<i>Pluperfect tense.</i>	I had loved	I had been loved
<i>First future tense.</i>	I shall or will love	I shall or will be loved
<i>Second future tense.</i>	I shall or will have loved	I shall or will have been loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>First Person.</i>	Let me love	Let me be loved
<i>Second Person.</i>	Love, or love thou.	Be thou loved
<i>Third Person.</i>	Let him love.	Let them be loved

POTENTIAL MOOD.

<i>Present tense.</i>	I may or can love	I may or can be loved
<i>Imperfect tense.</i>	I might, could, would, or should love	I might, could, would, or should be loved
<i>Perfect tense.</i>	I may or can have loved	I may or can have been loved
<i>Pluperfect tense.</i>	I might, could, would, or should have loved	I might, could, would, or should have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

<i>Present tense.</i>	If I love, if thou love, etc.	If I be loved, if thou be loved, etc.
<i>Imperfect tense.</i>	If I loved, if thou loved, etc.	If I were loved, if thou wert loved, etc.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	To love	To be loved
<i>Perfect.</i>	To have loved	To have been loved.

	Active Voice.	Passive Voice.
PARTICIPLES.		
<i>Present.</i>	Loving	Being loved
<i>Perfect or Past.</i>	Loved	Been loved
<i>Compound Perfect.</i>	Having loved	Having been loved.

Mason (1858).

Smite.

	Active Voice.	Passive Voice.
INFINITIVE MOOD.		
<i>Indefinite tense.</i>	(To) smite	(To) be smitten
<i>Imperfect tense.</i>	(To) be smiting	(To) be being smitten
<i>Perfect tense.</i>	(To) have smitten	(To) have been smitten.
<i>Perfect of continued action.</i>	(To) have been smiting.	

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Imperfect.</i>	Smiting	<i>Indefinite P.</i>	Being smitten
<i>Perfect.</i>	Having smitten	<i>Perfect P.</i>	Smitten
<i>Perf. of continued a.</i>	Having been smiting	<i>Compound Perfect P.</i>	Having been smitten.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present Indefinite tense.</i>	(I) smite	(I) am smitten
<i>Present Imperfect tense.</i>	(I) am smiting	(I) am being smitten
<i>Present Perfect tense.</i>	(I) have smitten	(I) have been smitten
<i>Present Perfect of continued action.</i>	(I) have been smiting	(I) have been being smitten.
<i>Past Indefinite tense.</i>	(I) smote	(I) was smitten
<i>Past Imperfect tense.</i>	(I) was smiting	(I) was being smitten
<i>Past Perfect tense.</i>	(I) had smitten	(I) had been smitten
<i>Past Perfect of continued a.</i>	(I) had been smiting	(I) had been being smitten.
<i>Future Indefinite tense.</i>	(I) shall smite	(I) shall be smitten
<i>Future Imperfect tense.</i>	(I) shall be smiting	(I) shall be being smitten
<i>Future Perfect tense.</i>	(I) shall have smitten	(I) shall have been smitten
<i>Future Perfect of cont. a.</i>	(I) shall have been smiting	(I) shall have been being smitten.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Singular.</i>	Smite (thou)	Be (thou) smitten
<i>Plural.</i>	Smite (you or ye)	Be (ye) smitten.

Active Voice.

Passive Voice.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

<i>Pres. Indef. tense</i>	(I) smite	(I) be smitten
(after if, that, though, lest, etc.)	(thou) smite etc.	(thou) be smitten etc.
<i>Pres. Imperf. tense</i>	(I) be smiting	(I) be being smitten
(after if, that, though, lest, etc.)	(thou) be smiting etc.	(thou) be being smitten etc.
<i>Pres. Perf. tense</i>	(I) have smitten	(I) have been smitten
(after if, though, unless, etc.)	(thou) have smitten etc.	(thou) have been smitten etc.
<i>Present Perfect of c. a.</i>	(I) have been smiting	(I) have been being smitten etc.
(after if, though, unless, etc.)	(thou) have been smiting etc.	
<i>Past Indef. tense</i>	(I) smote	(I) were smitten
(after if, though, unless, etc.)	(thou) smotest etc.	(thou) wert smitten etc.
<i>Past Imperf. tense</i>	(I) were smiting	(I) were being smitten etc.
(after if, that, though, etc.)	(thou) wert smiting etc.	
<i>Past Perfect tense</i>	(I) had smitten	} The same in form as in the Indicative Mood.
(after if, that, etc.)	(thou) hadst smitten etc.	
<i>Past Perf. of c. a.</i>	(I) had been smiting	
(after if, that, though, etc.)	(thou) hadst been smiting etc.	
<i>Future Indefinite tense.</i>	(I) should smite	(I) should be smitten
<i>Future Imperfect tense.</i>	(I) should be smiting	(I) should be being smitten
<i>Future Perfect tense.</i>	(I) should have smitten	(I) should have been smitten
<i>Future Perfect of c. a.</i>	(I) should have been smiting	(I) should have been being smitten.

Allen and Cornwell's (18th ed. 1851)

Conjugation-table differs from that arranged by Mason in using the terms "Incomplete, Complete, Progressive form" instead of "Imperfect, Perfect, — of complete action"; in adding a Present and Past Emphatic: "I do praise — I did praise"; and in containing a Potential mood, exhibiting all the forms made up by means of the auxiliaries: — May, might, can, could, should, would, must.

The attempts to bring the Irregular Verbs into a systematic order, are as various as we find them in German grammars; the prevalent method, however, is to class them according to the vowel sound in the present tense, with subdivisions for the different modifications of that sound in the past tense and past participle, arranging those verbs in which, besides the change of the vowel sound, d, or t, is added as a suffix, in separate groups.

Syntax.

English Syntax is of course treated very differently according to the class of schools for which the Grammars are destined. Commonly a number of rules and "cautions" regarding the construction of sentences, are mixed with the etymological portion. At the beginning of the syntactical part, properly so called, Sullivan dispatches the general principles and explanations on one small page. He divides syntax into two parts, namely, Concord and Government, and gives the whole matter in 20 rules. Examples of the rules are: — R. XIV. "Adverbs are, generally speaking, placed after verbs, before adjectives and other adverbs, and in compound tenses between the auxiliary and the participle." R. XIX. "Never use the Past Tense for the Past Participle; nor the Past Participle for the Past Tense."

As an appendix to rules of such a character is added an explanation of the "Figures of Speech" — divided into: 1) Figures of Orthography, Aphaeresis, Prosthesis, Syncope, Apocope, Paragoge, Diaeresis, Synæresis, and Tmesis. 2) Figures of Syntax, Ellipsis, Pleonasm, Enallage, and Hyperbaton. 3) Figures of Rhetoric, Simile, Metaphor, Allegory, Hyperbole, Irony, Metonymy, Synecdoche, Antithesis, Apostrophe, Prosopopoeia, and Climax. This seems to be a selection, and not a very judicious one, from Murray's observations for assisting young persons to write with perspicuity and accuracy. But those observations were destined for scholars who had acquired a competent knowledge of English grammar, which is hardly to be obtained from Sullivan's work.

A little more explicit and offered in a more systematical way, are the syntactical rules in Allen and Cornwell's grammar; notwithstanding a few specimens will show their want of accuracy. Under the head "Verbal Nouns" we find four rules: —

R. 1. Most Verbs have nouns derived from them called verbal Nouns; as, Early rising is conducive to health.

R. 2. The Verbal in *ing* may, like other Nouns, take *of* after it; as

R. 3. But it has often the power of a verb governing the Noun following in the Objective; as, The receiving this news gave him pleasure.

R. 4. Verbal Nouns are often used after Possessives or Possessive Pronouns.

About the Relative 'which' we find a single rule: —

"The Relative 'which' has sometimes a clause as its antecedent; as, He likes reading, which I am glad to hear."

The principal source from which these authors have taken their matter, is evidently the Grammar of Murray, of which we have the 15th edition (1806) before us. In this work a medium is observed between offering too much, and, on the other hand, giving such short and general precepts as convey no clear and precise information. As a school grammar the book seems to be rather antiquated; but it presents in a condensed way the views of Harris, Johnson, Lowth, Priestly, Beattie, Sheridan, Walker and Coote.

In works of more recent date destined for superior education, which try to give the learner a system of principles which, though applied in the first instance to English, are applicable also to other languages of the same family, the syntactical portion derives most of its leading features from the principles developed by Becker in his German Grammar. The outlines of Becker's system were first presented to the English in Arnold's "English Grammar for Classical Schools". Afterwards a full and accurate exposition of these principles as applied to English grammar was given in Morell's "Analysis of Sentences". Now, within the last decennary, scarcely any school-grammar has been published, but the influence of the German grammarian may be discerned in it. Besides the old division of sentences into Simple and Compound, a distinction is also made between Compound and Complex sentences, the former consisting of several coordinate sentences, the latter of the principal and one or more subordinate clauses depending on it. The subdivision of subordinate clauses into Substantive, Adjective, and Adverbial Clauses etc. is also duly carried out.

Although the leading doctrines of Becker are generally acknowledged to be sound and philosophical, the same unqualified praise is by no means bestowed on the details of their development. Mason, whose book is distinguished for the accuracy of grammatical definitions, speaks of many of the distinctions and generalisations made by the German author, as being capricious and arbitrary. Becker distinguishes three relations in which words stand to each other: 1) the Predicative; 2) the Attributive; 3) the Objective. In place of the third, Mason has substituted two separate relations, the Objective Relation and the Adverbial Relation. There are, indeed, several difficulties involved in the system of applying the term "object" also to the circumstances of time, manner, and causality which are connected with the action; and the term "object" is better kept for that which is commonly understood by it in Grammar, and from which the adverbial relation is something altogether distinct. Mason's method of dealing with the predicate is also very different; as English Grammarians, in general, most anxiously avoid all that might puzzle the learner and bewilder his mental faculties. Every thing, therefore, that is rather speculative than of practical advantage, every metaphysical subtlety is carefully shifted. Technical knowledge of a sentence, and of the parts into which it is divided, is the chief thing; and when in reading sentences occur in which there is some difficulty, for instance, in determining to which of the parts certain adjuncts belong, the master will declare that difficulty to be arising either from a confusion of ideas in the mind of the writer, or from a want of accuracy in the construction of the sentence.

Practical Exercises.

Questions of examination. — Of the practical exercises in which the pupils in English schools have to prove their knowledge, and by which it is rendered familiar to them, we must first mention the questions of examination generally found in

English school-books of every kind. Thus we find in the etymological part of Sullivan's Grammar the following questions about the relative pronouns:—

1. What are relative pronouns?
2. Name them. What is the distinction between who and which?
3. Is who ever applied to inferior animals? Is which ever applied to persons?
4. That as a relative is used for?
5. Why is that applicable both to persons and things? What other parts of speech may that be? How may it be known in each case?
6. What is equivalent to? What is it called?
7. Decline who and which.
8. What are compound relatives?
9. Whoever is equivalent to?
10. What other part of speech may which and what be?
11. What are interrogative pronouns?
12. Can you tell the distinction between who, as an interrogative, and which and what?
13. In what case was whether formerly used?
14. Is as to be considered a relative?

From such lists of questions fitted to the preceding lessons we may form a conclusion on the mechanical way in which school labour is commonly performed. The master in his daily routine hears the boys say the rules they have learned by heart, he asks the subjoined questions, which are then written out. This method serves well for employing the pupils, part of whom, as there are generally more divisions than teachers in a school, are engaged in writing, while another portion are grouped before the master's desk.

Correction of misspelt words and ill-construed sentences. — An other class of exercises consists in placing before the learner a catalogue of misspelt words or blunders in construction, punctuation, etc., which he is desired to correct either orally or in writing. We remember such orthographical traps from our own school days, and think it a great progress that this method is now generally rejected in our country. In England it seems to be still in vogue; for not only do exercises of this kind form an essential part of the appendixes of school grammars, but it is still, or at least it was till a few years ago, a usual praxis in the Civil Service Examinations, to test the intelligence of young men by their skill in detecting the errors in ingeniously ill-spelt vocables and in rectifying erroneous dates in modern history, or other branches of knowledge.

Analysis of Sentences. — The chief method, however, of fixing the substance of English Grammar in the boys' heads is the Analysis of Sentences and what is called Parsing. Exercises of this sort are, indeed, practiced wherever a language is properly taught; but they are nowhere so extensively and systematically employed as in English schools.

Mason recommends the analysis of a simple sentence to be conducted in the following manner:

- 1) Set down the subject of the sentence.
- 2) Set down those words, or combination of words, which stand in the attributive relation to the subject. (Attributive adjuncts of the subject.)

- 3) Set down the predicate, that is to say, the verb which forms the essential part of every predicate. (A verb in some one of its personal forms, not the infinitive mood or participle.)
- 4) If the verb is one of incomplete predication, indicate this, and set down separately the complement of the predicate.
- 5) Set down any words which are in the attributive or adverbial relation to the complement of the predicate.
- 6) If the predicate be a transitive verb, set down the object of the verb, or, if the verb is one of incomplete predication, such as may, can, must, etc., followed by a transitive verb in the infinitive mood, set down the object of the dependent infinitive.
- 7) Set down those words or phrases which stand in the attributive relation to the object of the predicate, or in the objective or adverbial relation to the object, if the latter is a verb in the infinitive mood.
- 8) Set down those words or phrases which are in the adverbial relation to the predicate. (Adverbial adjuncts of the predicate.)

Simples sentences. — Examples of the Analysis of Simple Sentences.

“The enraged officer struck the unfortunate man dead on the spot with a single blow of his sword.”

1. Subject: ‘officer’.
2. Attributive adjuncts of subject: 1) Article, ‘the’.
2) Adjective, ‘enraged’.
3. Predicate: ‘struck’.
4. Complement of predicate: Adjective, ‘dead’.
6. Object of verb: ‘man’.
7. Attributive adjuncts of object: 1) Article, ‘the’.
2) Adjective, ‘unfortunate’.
8. Adverbial adjuncts of predicate: 1) Adv. adj. of place, ‘on the spot’.
2) Adv. adj. of cause, ‘with a single blow of his sword’.

“And now, their mightiest quelled, the battle swerved, with many an inroad gored.”

1. Subject: ‘battle’.
2. Attributive adjuncts of subject: 1) Article, ‘the’.
2) Participial phrase, ‘with many an inroad gored’.
3. Predicate: ‘swerved’.
4. Adverbial adjuncts of predicate: 1) Adverbe, ‘now’.
2) Noun, with attributive adjunct, in the nominative absolute, ‘their mightiest quelled’.

Compound sentences. — In co-ordinate or collateral sentences all that is to be done is, to analyse each separately, and indicate the link of connexion.

Sentences containing subordinate clauses. — When there are subordinate clauses, the analysis of the entire sentence must first be conducted as if each subordinate clause were replaced by some single word. When the relation of the several clauses to the main sentence has thus been clearly marked, the subordinate clauses are to be analysed on the same principles as simple sentences. Connective words which are not substantives, adjectives, or adverbs, do not enter into the grammatical structure of the clauses which they introduce. Example:

"The opinion of the judge was, that the prisoner was guilty."

1. Subject: 'opinion'.
2. Attributive adjuncts of subject: 1) Article, 'the'.
- 2) Preposition and noun, 'of the judge'.
3. Predicate (incomplete): 'was'.
4. Complement of predicate, substantive clause: 'that the prisoner was guilty' (A).

Analysis of A:

1. Subject: 'prisoner'.
2. Attributive adjunct of subject: 'the'.
3. Predicate (incomplete): 'was'.
4. Complement of predicate: 'guilty'.

Contracted sentences. — Before proceeding with the analysis of a contracted sentence, the parts omitted must be expressed at full length.

"What man, seeing this, and having human feelings, does not blush and hang his head to think himself a man!"

In full: — "What man, seeing this, and having human feelings, does not blush to think himself a man (A); and what man, seeing this, and having human feelings, does not hang his head to think himself a man!" (B)

Analysis of A:

1. Subject: 'man'.
2. Attributive adjuncts of subject: 1) 'What'.
- 2) 'Seeing this', and
- 3) 'Having human feelings'.
3. Predicate: 'does blush'.
8. Adverbial adjuncts of predicate: 1) Adverb, 'not'.
- 2) Adverbial phrase of cause, 'to think himself a man'.

The construction of (B) is precisely analogous.

Parsing. — The preceding system of analysis still leaves groups of words, into the mutual relations of which it does not enter. When a minute account of each word of a sentence is given, including not only its syntactical relation to other words, but also its etymological inflections and accidents, the process is called Parsing. Example:

"I told him that I did not know who had taken the red book that lay on the table."

I. — Personal Pron. of the first pers., sing. number, in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb 'told'.

told. — Transitive verb in the active voice, indicative mood, past indefinite tense, first pers. sing. number; in the predicative relation to I, with which it agrees in number and person.

him. — Pers. pron. of the third pers. and the masculine gender; in the singular number and objective case, standing in the adverbial relation to the verb told, of which it is the indirect object.

that. — Subordinate conjunction, connecting the substantive clause: "I did not know — table" with the verb 'told'.

I. — Subject of the verb did.

did. — Auxiliary verb, active voice, indic. mood, past indefinite tense, first pers. sing.; in the predicative relation to I.

not. — Adverb of negation, modifying the verb did.

know. — Transitive verb, active voice, infinitive mood, imperfect tense; depending on did.

who. — Interrogative pronoun, third person, sing. number, nominative case, subject of the verb had taken.

had taken. — Trans. verb, active voice, ind. mood, past perfect tense, third pers. sing. number; in the predicative relation to the pronoun who, with which it agrees in number and person; etc. etc.

We now conclude our attempt of giving an explanation of the manner in which the study of the meaning of the words, of etymology, and of the construction of sentences is carried on in those schools in England which have a regular study of the mother tongue adopted as a part of the education. The study of English means, however, a good deal more than the study of style. It means also the study of English literature, an acquaintance with the thoughts of the greatest English authors, and a knowledge of their lives and actions. But the reading of the English standard authors is left to the leisure hours without any control in school, and is consequently neglected. Yet, if persons of ordinary education had been made in youth to read carefully a large portion of the English classics, they would have through life a valuable standard of taste, and a sound basis for the national pride, which is spread generally, but is very often founded on ignorance

Schulnachrichten

über das Jahr von Ostern 1867 bis eben dahin 1868.

Lehrplan.

Religion. Sexta: Biblische Erzählungen des Alten Testaments. Lernen der Gebote mit der Erklärung. Lernen von Gesängen. — Unter=Sexta: Erzählungen von der Schöpfung bis auf Moses. Lernen der fünf ersten Gebote. — Ober=Sexta: Erzählungen bis zum Schluß des Alten Testaments. — Unter=Quinta: Biblische Erzählungen des Neuen Testaments. Das Leben Jesu und die apostolische Zeit, angeschlossen an das Evangelium Matthäi und die Apostelgeschichte. Sprüche. Gesänge. — Ober=Quinta: Erklärung des ersten Hauptstücks. Sprüche. Gesänge. Lesen des Evangeliums Lucä. — Unter=Quarta: Erklärung des ersten Artikels. Sprüche. Gesänge. Lesen von Psalmen. — Ober=Quarta: Erklärung des zweiten Artikels. Sprüche. Gesänge. Lesen messianischer Psalmen, ausgewählter Stellen aus den Propheten und des Evangeliums Marci. — Unter=Tertia: Erklärung des dritten Artikels. Sprüche. Gesänge. Lesen des Evangeliums Johannis und der Apostelgeschichte. — Ober=Tertia: Geschichte der Reformation. Leben Luthers. Erklärung des dritten, vierten, fünften Hauptstücks. — Unter=Sekunda: Geschichte des Reiches Gottes im Alten und im Neuen Testamente. Lesen von Abschnitten aus beiden Testamenten. — Ober=Sekunda: Lesen leichter Briefe und einzelner Abschnitte aus den schwereren. Kirchengeschichte bis auf die Reformation. — Prima: Lesen schwererer Abschnitte des Alten und Neuen Testaments. Kirchengeschichte seit der Reformation. Glaubenslehre.

Deutsch. Sexta: Lehre vom einfachen Satze mit entsprechenden Übungen. Diktat zur Einübung der Orthographie. Lesen im Lesebuch. Lernen von Gedichten. Abschriften und Aufsätze (Wiederholung kleiner Geschichten). — Unter=Quinta: Fortsetzung der Lehre vom einfachen Satze mit entsprechenden Übungen (Attribut, Partizip, Apposition). Hauptsachen vom zusammengesetzten Satze (Relativsatz; Konjunktionen). Interpunktion. Lesen und Gedichte. Diktat. Aufsätze (Wiedererzählung unter einander zusammenhängender Geschichten). — Ober=Quinta: Wortbildung, Ableitung und Zusammenfügung; sonst wie Unter=Quinta. — Unter=Quarta: Erweiterung der Lehre vom einfachen Satze, Kasuslehre, Präpositionen. Lesen und Gedichte. Aufsätze, Anfang im freieren Aufsätze, Darstellung des Wirklichen (Erzählung, Beschreibung, Schilderung). Wiedergabe von Gedichten in Prosa. — Ober=Quarta: Zusammengesetzter

Satz, Konjunktionen. Lesen und Gedichte. Aufsätze, Darstellung des durch die Phantasie Geschaffenen. — Unter-Tertia: Betrachtung größerer Perioden, indirekte Rede. Lesen und Gedichte. Aufsätze (Ausdruck des Denkens: Vergleich, Zusammenhang nach Ursache und Wirkung, Grund und Folge. Feststellung von Lezriffen). — Ober-Tertia: Grundzüge der Veralehre. Gedichte. Anfang im prosaischen Vortrage. Aufsätze wie in Unter-Tertia. Briefform. — Sekunda und Prima: Lesen der bedeutendsten Werke aus der klassischen Zeit von Klopstock, Lessing, Herder, Göthe, Schiller. Lesen von Werken des klassischen Alterthums in Uebersetzungen. Vorträge und Aufsätze nach dem Standpunkt jeder Stufe. — *improvisatione* *quintilla* *lectura* *in* *noxi*

Latēin. Sexta: Regelmäßige Deklinationen der Substantiva. Allgemeine Grundregeln. Regelmäßige Deklination der Adjektiva, Komparation. Sum und die vier Konjugationen. Uebungen im Uebersetzen in beiderlei Richtung, innerhalb des einfachen Satzes mit Subjekt, Prädikat, Objekt und den übrigen casus obliqui in leichtester Anwendung. Das Pensum ist so getheilt, daß für Ober-Sexta die Komparation und die zweite bis vierte Konjugation fallen. — Unter-Quinta: Regelmäßige Deklination der Substantiva und Adjektiva. Genusregeln, unregelmäßige Komparative, Deklination der Pronomina. Entsprechende Uebungen im Uebersetzen nach beiderlei Richtung. — Ober-Quinta: Zahlwörter, Deponens, unregelmäßige Verba. Vorläufige Einübung der Konstruktionen des accusativus cum infinitivo und der ablativi absoluti. Entsprechende Exercitia. Anfang in zusammenhängender Lektüre. — Unter-Quarta: Fortgesetzte Einübung des accusativus cum infinitivo und der ablativi absoluti. Einübung des im Lateinischen und Deutschen übereinstimmenden Theils der Syntax. Lernen der a verbo. Exercitia, Extemporalia. Lektüre. — Ober-Quarta: Kasuslehre. Vom Nominativ, Akkusativ, Dativ, mit Auswahl der Regeln. Wiederholung der Formlehre (Deklination und Genusregeln). Exercitia. Lesen im Cornel. — Unter-Tertia: Kasuslehre. Vom Genitiv und Ablativ mit Auswahl der Regeln. Wiederholung der Formlehre (Konjugation). Exercitia, Extemporalia. Cornel. — Ober-Tertia: Ergänzung und Wiederholung der Kasuslehre. Lesen des Cäsar de bello gallico. Exercitia und Extemporalia. — Unter-Sekunda: Syntax vom accusativus cum infinitivo und den Konjunktionen. Fortsetzung der Lektüre des Cäsar. Exercitia, Extemporalia. — Ober-Sekunda: Abschluß der Syntax; von den Partizipien, ablativi absoluti, Gerundium, Supinum, indirekte Rede. Exercitia, Extemporalia. Lesen des Livius. — Prima: Lektüre, so eingerichtet, daß die Schüler in die Hauptzweige der prosaischen römischen Literatur, Geschichte, Rede, Philosophie, eingeführt werden. Außerdem in jedem zweiten Halbjahr Metrik und Lesen des Dvid oder Virgil.

Französisch. Die Pensa sind bis Ober-Sekunda nach den Lehrbüchern von Plöz bemessen. In allen Klassen werden entsprechende Exercitia und Extemporalien geschrieben. — Unter-Quinta: Plöz I. Lektion 1—40. — Ober-Quinta: Plöz I. Lektion 40—74. — Unter-Quarta: Plöz I. Lektion 74 bis zu Ende. — Ober-Quarta: Plöz II. Unregelmäßige Verba der ersten bis dritten Konjugation. Lektüre: découverte de l'Amérique von Robolsky. — Unter-Tertia: Plöz II. Unregelmäßige Verba der vierten Konjugation. Lektüre: Alexandre le Grand aus der Theissing'schen Sammlung. — Ober-Tertia: Plöz II. Lektion 24—46.

Lektüre: *hommes illustres* aus der Theissing'schen Sammlung. — Unter-Sekunda: Plog II. Lektion 46—70. — Ober-Sekunda: Grammatik von Robolsky. Satzlehre § 138—323. Übung im Sprechen. Lektüre: Ségur, *histoire de Napoléon et de la grande armée*. — Prima: Spezielle Grammatik § 323 bis aus. Wiederholung der ganzen Grammatik. Lesen französischer Klassiker. Aufsätze. Vorträge.

Englisch. Zu Grunde liegt Callin, Elementarbuch der englischen Sprache. Unter-Tertia: Einübung der englischen Aussprache, Orthographie und regelmäßigen Formlehre. Uebersetzen in beiderlei Richtung. Memorirübungen. — Ober-Tertia: Einübung der unregelmäßigen Formlehre und der gewöhnlicheren Adverbien, Präpositionen und Konjunktionen. Freies Wiedergeben der ins Englische übersetzten Stücke. Lektüre der *tales of a grandfather*. — Unter-Sekunda: Grammatik Callin II., der einfache Satz I. und II. Haupttheil. Exercitia, Extemporalia, freier Vortrag derselben. Lektüre: *Sketch historical series*. — Ober-Sekunda: Callin II., der einfache Satz, III. und IV. Haupttheil, Satzgefüge. Exercitia, Extemporalia. Anfang mit ausgearbeiteten Vorträgen. Lektüre: *Sketchbook by W. Irving*. — Prima: Lektüre des Shakespeare, Byron, Macaulay. Uebersetzen Schiller'scher Prosa. Vorträge. Gebrauch der englischen Sprache beim Unterricht.

Mathematik. Sexta: Vorbereitender Kursus, Raumlehre. Entstehung der Linie, des Winkels, Arten der Winkel, Winkel an zwei von einer dritten durchschnittenen Linien. Winkel an Parallellinien, Dreieck, Arten der Dreiecke, Viereck, Parallelogramm, Diagonale, Kreis, Halbmesser, Durchmesser, Sehne. Übungen im Zeichnen mit Lineal, rechtwinkligem Dreieck und Zirkel. — Quinta: Wiederholung des Pensums der Sexta. Übung im Beweise an den Winkeln an Parallellinien und den einfachen Sätzen vom Dreieck. — Unter-Quarta: Anfang des systematischen Unterrichts. Geometrie. Lehre von den Parallellinien, der Kongruenz und dem Parallelogramm. — Ober-Quarta: Lehre vom Kreise, den Proportionen und der Ähnlichkeit bis zur Konstruktion der mittleren Proportionale. — Unter-Tertia: Lehre vom Flächeninhalt bis zum Pythagoras, mit zugehörigen Aufgaben. Anwendung der Proportionen auf Flächeninhaltsbetrachtungen. — Ober-Tertia: Repetition der bisherigen Pensa mit Zusätzen von Aufgaben und Lehrsätzen; leichtere Dreiecks-Aufgaben. Einführung in die Arithmetik. Ausführung der sieben Rechnungsarten mit dem Beweise der einfachsten Lehrsätze. Einführung in die Algebra mit Benutzung aller Rechnungszeichen und der Klammer. — Unter-Sekunda: I. Arithmetik bis zum Abschluß der Lehre vom positiven und ganzen Exponenten. Algebraische Gleichungen vom ersten Grade mit einer und zweien Unbekannten. — II. Stereometrie. Krystallographie. Geometrische Aufgaben. — Ober-Sekunda: I. Ebene Trigonometrie. — II. Fortsetzung der Arithmetik. Potenzieren mit negativen und gebrochenen Exponenten; Radizieren, Logarithmieren, Zahlensystem, Dezimalbrüche. Gleichungen vom zweiten Grade. Durchgehend in beiden Semestern, geometrische Aufgaben. — Prima: I. Repetition der ebenen Trigonometrie. Sphärische Trigonometrie. Mathematische Geographie. Elemente der sphärischen Astronomie. Geographische Ortsbestimmung durch astronomische Beobachtung; einige praktische Übungen auf der Sternwarte. — II. Algebra Algebraische Analysis. Gleichungen ersten, zweiten, dritten Grades. Diophantische Gleichungen.

Kettenbrüche. Progressionen. Kombinationslehre. Binomischer Lehrsatz. Theorie der Gleichungen. Theorie der Funktionen. Konvergenz der Reihen. Cyklische, logarithmische Exponential-Funktionen. Maxima und Minima. — III. Analytische Geometrie. Kegelschnitte. — IV. Deskriptive Geometrie. Projektionszeichen. Perspektive. Schattenkonstruktion. Repetition der Stereometrie. — In allen Semestern geometrische Aufgaben und Aufgaben aus allen Gebieten des Pensums der Klasse.

Physik. Unter-, Ober-Tertia und ein Semester von Unter-Sekunda: Vorbereitender Kursus nach Dr. A. H. Emsmann's physikalischer Vorschule. Leipzig, 2. Auflage 1864. — Unter-Sekunda: Anfang des systematischen Unterrichts, Wärmelehre. — Ober-Sekunda: I. Lehre vom Magnetismus und der Elektrizität. II. Einleitung in die Mechanik. — Prima: I. Mechanik. II. Wellenbewegung. III. Akustik. IV. Optik. Repetition und Ergänzung der früheren Pensa. Aufgaben.

Chemie. Ober-Sekunda: Einleitung in die unorganische Chemie und in die Stöchiometrie; dann die Metalloide. I. Vom Phosphor bis zum Kiesel. II. Vom Sauerstoff bis zum Phosphor. — Prima: Anleitung zum Experimentiren. Unorganische Chemie mit besonderer Berücksichtigung stöchiometrischer Rechnungen. Einleitung in die organische Chemie, unter Umständen auch Einleitung in die analytische Chemie.

Naturgeschichte. In den Klassen von Sexta bis Quarta im Winter Zoologie, im Sommer Botanik. Die Zoologie beginnt in allen Klassen mit einer der Stufe angemessenen Unterscheidung der drei Naturreiche, auf welche eine Uebersicht und Klassifizierung des Thierreichs folgt. — Sexta: Zoologie: Säugethiere und Vögel. Botanik: Beschreibung dreißig größerer Pflanzen mit deutlichen Blüthentheilen, an lebenden Exemplaren. — Quinta: Zoologie: Amphibien und Fische. Botanik: Beschreibung dreißig größerer mit Rücksicht auf das natürliche System ausgewählter Pflanzen. Uebung der Terminologie. — Quarta: Zoologie: Niederes Thierreich. Botanik: Fortgesetzte Uebung in der Beschreibung der Pflanzen und in der Terminologie. Bestimmung der Pflanzen nach dem Linne'schen System, unter Benutzung einer Ortsflora. — Ober-Sekunda: Wiederholung der Botanik, Zoologie, Einführung in die Mineralogie.

Geographie. Sexta bis Ober-Quinta: Uebersicht über alle Erdtheile mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der natürlichen Beschaffenheit, jedesmal mit stufengemäßer Behandlung der Begriffe und Anschauungen aus der mathematischen und physischen Geographie. — Unter-Sexta: Europa. — Ober-Sexta: Asien und Australien. — Unter-Quinta: Afrika und Amerika. — Ober-Quinta: Wiederholung der bisherigen Pensa. — Quarta und Unter-Tertia: Uebersicht über alle Erdtheile mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der politischen Verhältnisse. — Unter-Quarta: Außereuropäische Erdtheile. — Ober-Quarta: Europa. — Unter-Tertia: Deutschland und Preußen. — Ober-Tertia: Mathematische Geographie in populärer Form. — Unter-Sekunda: Außereuropäische Erdtheile mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Produkte und Handelsverhältnisse. — Ober-Sekunda: Vergleichende Geographie der wichtigsten Reiche, besonders Deutschlands und Preußens.

Geschichte. Unter-Quarta: Griechische und römische Geschichte bis auf die punischen Kriege. — Ober-Quarta: Römische Geschichte bis auf Augustus. — Unter-Tertia:

Deutsche Geschichte bis auf die Reformation. — Ober-Tertia: Deutsche, besonders preussische Geschichte von der Reformation an. — Unter-Sekunda: Alte Geschichte. — Ober-Sekunda: Mittlere Geschichte. — Prima: Neuere Geschichte.

Rechnen. Unter-Sexta: Reduktion und Resolution. Addition und Subtraktion mit mehrfach benannten Zahlen. — Ober-Sexta: Zeitrechnung. Multiplikation und Division mit mehrfach benannten Zahlen. Eingekleidete Aufgaben der Multiplikation und Division. Regel de tri. — Unter-Quinta: Vorübung zur Bruchrechnung. Addition und Subtraktion der Brüche. — Ober-Quinta: Multiplikation und Division der Brüche. Vermischte Aufgaben. — Unter-Quarta: Regel de tri mit Brüchen. Kettenrechnung. — Ober-Quarta: Rechnung mit Dezimalbrüchen. Repetition der Rechnung mit gemeinen Brüchen. — Unter-Tertia: Entgegengesetzte Verhältnisse als einfache und zusammengesetzte Regel de tri. Das Ganze und seine Theile (Gesellschaftsrechnung). — Ober-Tertia: Prozentrechnung. Gewinn, Verlust, Agio, Tara, Rabatt, Zinsen, Diskonto. — Unter-Sekunda: Wiederholung und Erweiterung des Pensums der Tertia, Quadrat-, Kubikwurzeln. Kettenbrüche. Coursrechnung, Maasz- und Gewichtsreduktion, Mischungsrechnung, spezifisches Gewicht, Münzen nach dem Pari. Werthpapiere.

Schreiben. Sexta: Uebung der großen und kleinen lateinischen und deutschen Alphabete. Schreiben in Wörtern und Sätzen. — Quinta: Wiederholung der Alphabete, Schreiben in Sätzen und größeren Abschnitten. — Unter-Quarta: Schreiben ohne Linien, Takttschreiben bei der Grundform. Anleitung zu möglichst schneller schöner Schrift. — Ober-Quarta: Ausbildung deutlicher Handschrift. Kanzlei- und Frakturschrift für die Geübteren.

Zeichnen. Quinta: Linearzeichnen zur Uebung im Gebrauch des Zirkels und Lineals. — Unter-Quarta: Zeichnen von leichten Ornamenten, Vasen, Urnen, Thieren. — Ober-Quarta: Körperzeichnen, perspektivisches Naturzeichnen. — Unter-Tertia: Anfang der Perspektive. — Ober-Tertia: Perspektive. — Unter-Sekunda: I. Freies Handzeichnen nach Vorlegeblättern und nach Gyps. II. Säulenordnung nach Vitruv. — Ober-Sekunda: Freies Handzeichnen nach Vorlegeblättern und Gyps. — Prima: Planzeichnen. Zeichnen im Fache des künftigen Berufs.

Singen. Sexta: Einstimmige Choräle. Figuralstücke. — Quinta: Schwierigere einstimmige Choräle und Figuralstücke; zweistimmige Choräle und Figuralstücke. — Quarta: dreistimmige Stücke. — Tertia bis Prima: Die Schüler sind in zwei Chöre getheilt. Singen vierstimmiger Stücke.

Turnen.

In den Lehr- und Lesebüchern ist keine Veränderung eingetreten. In Unter-Sekunda wurden im Englischen gelesen: im Winter 1867/68 Tales from Shakespeare von Charles Lamb. In Ober-Sekunda wurde im Französischen gelesen: im Winter 1867/68 Florian, Don Quichotte. Die Zahl der wöchentlichen Stunden für die Lehrgegenstände ist aus dem am Schluß beigefügten Lektionsplan für das Winter-Halbjahr 1867/68 zu entnehmen. Was die Aufeinanderfolge der Lehrer betrifft, ist zu bemerken, daß bei entstehender Vakanz die ordentlichen Lehrstellen der Herren Linke, Wulkow, Zarnikow für sich rangiren.

Lehrer-Kollegium. — Zu Ostern 1867 verließen unsere Schule der ordentliche Lehrer Dr. Pauli und der interimistische Collaborator Krey. An die Stelle des Dr. Pauli trat der ordentliche Lehrer Gellenthin, interimistischer Collaborator wurde der Kandidat Trautmann. Herr Dr. Pauli ist fünf und ein halbes Jahr bei uns gewesen. Ihn zeichnete wissenschaftlicher Sinn eben so aus wie Liebe zu seinem Beruf als Lehrer. Auch Herrn Krey, der Michaelis 1866 bei uns eingetreten war, hätten wir gern länger behalten. — Herr Trautmann schied bereits Michaelis 1867 wieder aus. Zur selben Zeit verließ uns Herr Dr. Gruno, welcher seit Michaelis 1865 provisorischer Collaborator gewesen war. Sein anregendes, gewinnendes Wesen war von dem besten Erfolge bei seinen Schülern begleitet. An die Stelle der Herren Trautmann und Dr. Gruno traten zu Michaelis 1867 die Herren Helwig und Dr. Meyer als provisorische Collaboratoren und zugleich als Probefantidaten. — Zu Michaelis 1867 gab Herr Professor Langbein den Turnunterricht, den er seit dessen Einrichtung an unserer Schule gehabt hatte, an den Dr. Most ab. Wir werden es unserm Kollegen Professor Langbein nie vergessen, welche Frische des Geistes, welche Belebung des Gemeinnsinn und wie viel Jugendfreude durch seinen Turnunterricht in unsere Schule gekommen ist. — An der Vorschule wurde im Dezember 1867 der Lehrer Hagemald als fünfter Lehrer bestätigt. — Der Oberlehrer Schmidt wurde vom 27. April bis 4. Juni 1867 und vom 25. November 1867 bis zum 5. März 1868, während welcher Zeit er in Berlin als Abgeordneter war, von Lehrern der Anstalt vertreten. — Aus Gesundheitsrücksichten waren beurlaubt der Oberlehrer Bergemann vom 22. Juni bis zu Anfang der Sommerferien, Kleinsorge vom 5. bis 12. August 1867. — Im Sommer 1867 war der Lehrer Hagemald schwer erkrankt und wurde durch den städtischen Lehrer Zimmermann vertreten. Im vergangenen Winterhalbjahr wurden die Lehrer Spohn und Helwig von schwerer Krankheit betroffen und wurden von den Kollegen vertreten.

Die Schülerzahl betrug: Ostern 1867: Michaelis 1867:

Unter-Sexta	61	58
Ober-Sexta	61	60
Unter-Quinta	57	63
Ober-Quinta	58	58
Unter-Quarta	68	63
Ober-Quarta	65	65
Unter-Tertia	51	60
Ober-Tertia b	34	32
Ober-Tertia a	40	35
Unter-Sekunda b	40	38
Unter-Sekunda a	42	40
Ober-Sekunda	34	36
Prima	15	18
Summa	626	626

An der Ferienschule nahmen während der Sommerferien 1867 Theil 27 Schüler aus Sexta und Quinta und 54 Schüler der Vorschule.

Durch den Tod verloren wir im Sommer 1867 zwei Schüler, Carl Harp aus Garz und Georg von Puttkamer aus Falkenwalde. Beide waren gute, hoffnungsvolle Schüler. Carl Harp starb nach längerer Krankheit; Georg von Puttkamer wurde seinem Vater, dessen einziges Kind er war, infolge eines Sturzes vom Pferde durch einen plötzlichen Tod entrissen. Herr Major von Puttkamer schenkte uns die Trommel, die Bücher und die Sparkasse seines verstorbenen Sohnes. Die Trommel haben wir als Andenken behalten und zum Gebrauch bei militärischen Turnübungen bestimmt; die Bücher und die Sparkasse sind der Bestimmung gemäß für ärmere Schüler verwandt.

Es bestanden die Abiturientenprüfung zu Michaelis 1867:

84. Karl Berthold Geistert aus Gollnow, 18 Jahre alt; er wurde von der mündlichen Prüfung dispensirt, erhielt das Prädikat „vorzüglich“ und wird sich dem Baufach widmen.

85. Ludwig Ferdinand Stüwert aus Pasewalk, 18 Jahre alt; er wurde von der mündlichen Prüfung dispensirt, erhielt das Prädikat „vorzüglich“ und wurde Kaufmann.

Zu Ostern 1868:

86. Friedrich Wilhelm Julius Weyer aus Garz, 20½ Jahre alt; er erhielt das Prädikat „genügend“.

87. Richard Karl August Bachsmann aus Stettin, 20 Jahr alt; er wurde von der mündlichen Prüfung dispensirt, erhielt das Prädikat „gut“ und wird zum Baufach gehen.

88. Franz Eduard Gribel aus Stettin, 17¾ Jahr; er erhielt das Prädikat „gut“ und wird Kaufmann.

89. August Julius Eduard Reiser aus Dramburg, 18½ Jahr; er wurde von der mündlichen Prüfung dispensirt, erhielt das Prädikat „vorzüglich“ und geht zum Baufach.

90. Franz Albert Noehmer aus Stettin, 22½ Jahr, erhielt das Prädikat „genügend“ und geht zum Baufach.

91. Franz Alexander Steffen aus Cammin, 19¾ Jahr; erhielt das Prädikat „gut“ und geht zum Baufach.

Bearbeitet von den Abiturienten wurden:

Michaelis 1867. Deutscher Aufsatz: Welche Bedeutung haben die Inseln in der Geschichte. — Französischer Aufsatz: L'an 1815. — Mathematik. Algebra: Wenn ein Dampfschiff, das neu 80,000 Thaler kostet, jährlich um 4% an Werth verliert, wie viel ist es nach 20 Jahren noch werth? Trigonometrie: Von einem Parallelogramm ist gegeben: der Umfang = $2a$, ein Winkel = β , der Winkel der Diagonalen = γ . Man sucht seine Seiten. Analytische Geometrie: Durch den gegebenen Punkt P eine Linie L so zwischen den gegebenen Punkten

P_2 und P_3 hindurch zu ziehen, daß die von diesen Punkten auf die Linie gefällten Perpendikel gleich lang werden. Stereometrie: Unter allen Kegeln, deren ganze Oberfläche gleich der Oberfläche einer Kugel vom Radius r ist, denjenigen zu bestimmen, dessen Volumen am größten ist.

Zu Ostern 1868. Deutscher Aufsatz: Woraus ist der Wechsel der Macht und Bedeutung zu erklären, den wir im Lauf der Geschichte unter den Europäischen Völkern eintreten sehen? — Englischer Aufsatz: How have the maritime territories of Prussia been acquired? — Mathematik. Geometrie: Ein Dreieck zu construiren aus einem Winkel, dem Produkt der ihn einschließenden Seiten, dem Verhältniß der dritten Seite zu der Höhe auf ihr. $B, ac, b: h$. Algebra: $x: y = z: u, x + u = a = 11, y + z = b = 9, x^2 + y^2 + u^2 + z^2 = c = 130$. Kegelschnitte: In einer Ellipse einen Durchmesser so zu ziehen, daß das Dreieck zwischen ihm, der Ordinate und der Abscisse seines Endpunkts ein Maximum ist. Trigonometrie: Welches unter den einem Kreise eingeschriebenen gleichschenkligen Dreiecke hat den größten Umfang?

Schulfeiern. — Am 22. August feierten wir in gewohnter Weise unser Sommerfest in Goglow. Herr Bräunlich hatte uns das Schiff „Die Dievenow“ zur Verfügung gestellt, wofür wir ihm hier unsern Dank wiederholen. — Am 27. September fand die Entlassung der Abiturienten Geistert und Stüwert statt. — Am 31. Januar 1868 feierten wir das Winterfest nach folgendem Programm: Kleiner Chor: Singet dem Herrn ein neues Lied, von E. Klein; Großer Chor: Chor und Solo aus der Glocke, von Romberg; Primaner Reiser: Vortrag über den Kreislauf des Kohlenstoffs; Großer Chor: Solo und Chor aus der Athalia von Schulz; Primaner Noehmer: Vortrag über die Farben; Kleiner Chor: Abend-Chor von Konradin Kreuzer; Primaner Gribel: Vortrag über die geschichtliche Bedeutung der Inseln, namentlich der deutschen; Meditation von J. S. Bach, für Geige und Orgel; die Geige spielte der Primaner Eichstädt; Primaner Steffen giebt die Einleitung zur Aufführung; Großer Chor: Durch tiefe Nacht ein Brausen, von Mendelssohn; Aufführung der Scenen 4 bis 7 aus dem ersten Aufzug von Wallenstein's Tod, durch die Primaner Steffen, Gribel, Weyer, Noehmer, Scholz. Großer Chor: Solo und Chor aus der Glocke, von Romberg.

Besitz der Schule. — Außer durch etatsmäßigen Ankauf wurden unsere Sammlungen durch werthvolle Geschenke vermehrt, für die wir unsern Dank aussprechen.

Die Lehrer-Bibliothek erhielt:

Von dem Ministerium der geistlichen, Unterrichts- und Medizinal-Angelegenheiten: Die Fortsetzung von Förster's Denkmalen deutscher Baukunst, Bildnerei und Malerei; außerdem Keppler's wahrer Geburtsort von Bruner.

Von dem Königl. Statistischen Bureau durch Herrn Geh. Ober-Regierungsrath Dr. Engel: Preussische Statistik Band X, XI und XII und die Zeitschrift des statistischen Bureau's.

Von der Weidmann'schen Buchhandlung in Berlin: Geographie von Klöden.

Von Herrn Professor Langbein: Paedagogisk Tidskrift af Aulin 1865, 1866; Korrespondenzblatt für die gelehrten und Realschulen Württembergs.

Von der hiesigen Pädagogischen Gesellschaft: Westermann's illustrierte Monatshefte, protestantische Monatsblätter; Herrig's Archiv; Zeitschrift für das Gymnasialwesen; Schulblatt der Provinz Brandenburg; Zeitschrift für österreichische Gymnasien; Magazin für die Literatur des Auslands; literarisches Centralblatt.

Das Naturalienkabinet erhielt vom Herrn Stadtkältesten Mezenthin eine Sammlung Sicilianischer Schwefelkrystalle; ferner von Herrn Stadtrath Rückforth einen Ameisenbau. Der Schüler Dery schenkte einen ausgestopften Falken.

Aus der im vorigen Programm erwähnten Sammlung wurde für den Zeichensaal angeschafft der Stich „Die Hochzeit zu Cana,“ von Paul Veronese. Das Blatt kostet 32 Thlr., Glas und Rahmen 8 Thlr.

Das Vermögen der Societät für die Wittwen und Waisen der Lehrer an der Friedrich-Wilhelms-Schule und der mit derselben verbundenen Vorschule ist im Jahre 1867 durch die Zinsen und Beiträge der Mitglieder von 3143 Thlr. 20 Sgr. 4 Pf. auf 3330 Thlr. 1 Sgr. 7 Pf. angewachsen.

Rechnungslegung des Rendanten der Scheibert-Kleinsorge-Stiftung, Herrn Rabbow, für das Jahr 1867.

I. Kassen-Bericht.

Einnahme: An Zinsen 1867	132 Thlr. 21 Sgr. 6 Pf.
Zinsdifferenz von Herrlinger und Rabbow	1 = 28 = 6 =
	<hr/>
	134 Thlr. 20 Sgr.
Ausgabe: a. Schulgelder für zwei Schüler	48 Thlr. — Sgr.
b. Stipendium für den Studiosus	
Steinbrink	85 = 20 =
	<hr/>
	134 Thlr. 20 Sgr.

II. Abschluß des Stiftungsfonds.

Das unangreifbare Kapital, durch Beiträge gesammelt, beträgt	2673 Thlr. 25 Sgr. — Pf.
Dazu Zinsersparung pro 1866	9 = 25 = 1 =
	<hr/>
	2683 Thlr. 20 Sgr. 1 Pf.

Dagegen angelegt:

Bei der Kämmereikasse	2600 Thlr. — Sgr. — Pf.
Bei der Sparkasse laut Buch	
Nr. 116,259	83 = 20 = 1 =
	<hr/>
	2683 Thlr. 20 Sgr. 1 Pf.

Für die Nothleidenden in Preußen und in unserer Nähe wurden von unsern Schülern zusammengebracht 78 Thlr. 9 Sgr. 6 Pf.

Bei der bevorstehenden Abiturienten-Entlassung werden sprechen:

Der Abiturient Gribel: französisch, über die natürliche und politische Einheit Frankreichs.

Der Abiturient Steffen: englisch, über die Geltung Schillers in England.

Der Primaner Scholz: über Friedrich Rückert.

Zu dieser Feier laden wir die Königlichen und Städtischen Behörden, unsere früheren Schüler, die Eltern und Angehörigen unserer gegenwärtigen Schüler, sowie alle Freunde unserer Anstalt gehorsamst und ergebenst ein.

Kleinsorge.

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Verzeichnis der Werke des Verfassers

Das die Wissenschaften in Preußen und in andrer Welt waren von andrer
Ehre die Gesamtschau ist die 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29. 30. 31. 32. 33. 34. 35. 36. 37. 38. 39. 40. 41. 42. 43. 44. 45. 46. 47. 48. 49. 50. 51. 52. 53. 54. 55. 56. 57. 58. 59. 60. 61. 62. 63. 64. 65. 66. 67. 68. 69. 70. 71. 72. 73. 74. 75. 76. 77. 78. 79. 80. 81. 82. 83. 84. 85. 86. 87. 88. 89. 90. 91. 92. 93. 94. 95. 96. 97. 98. 99. 100.

Die die Wissenschaften in Preußen und in andrer Welt waren von andrer
Ehre die Gesamtschau ist die 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29. 30. 31. 32. 33. 34. 35. 36. 37. 38. 39. 40. 41. 42. 43. 44. 45. 46. 47. 48. 49. 50. 51. 52. 53. 54. 55. 56. 57. 58. 59. 60. 61. 62. 63. 64. 65. 66. 67. 68. 69. 70. 71. 72. 73. 74. 75. 76. 77. 78. 79. 80. 81. 82. 83. 84. 85. 86. 87. 88. 89. 90. 91. 92. 93. 94. 95. 96. 97. 98. 99. 100.

In dieser Zeit haben wir die wichtigsten und schönsten Werke, unter denen
Ehre die Gesamtschau ist die 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29. 30. 31. 32. 33. 34. 35. 36. 37. 38. 39. 40. 41. 42. 43. 44. 45. 46. 47. 48. 49. 50. 51. 52. 53. 54. 55. 56. 57. 58. 59. 60. 61. 62. 63. 64. 65. 66. 67. 68. 69. 70. 71. 72. 73. 74. 75. 76. 77. 78. 79. 80. 81. 82. 83. 84. 85. 86. 87. 88. 89. 90. 91. 92. 93. 94. 95. 96. 97. 98. 99. 100.

Kleinforde

Vertheilung der Lektionen unter die Lehrer während des Winterhalbjahrs 1867/68.

Nr.	Lehrer.	Ordnung von	Prima.	Ober-Sekunda.	Unter-Sekunda, koordinirt.		Ober-Tertia, koordinirt.		Unter-Tertia.	Ober-Quarta.	Unter-Quarta.	Ober-Quinta.	Unter-Quinta.	Ober-Sexta.	Unter-Sexta.	Sa.	
					a.	b.	a.	b.									
1.	Direktor Kleinsorge.	I.	2 Relig. 3 Dtsch. 3 Gesch. u. Geog.	2 Relig. 3 Gesch. u. Geogr.												13	
2.	Professor Dr. Gmsmann.	II a.	3 Phys.	5 Math. 3 Phys. 1 Natrg.	3 Phys.		2 Phys.	2 Phys.								19	
3.	Professor Kühr.	Unter-II a.	3 Lat.	4 Lat. 3 Dtsch.	2 Relig. 3 Dtsch. 4 Lat.											19	
4.	Professor Langbein.	Unter-II b.	6 Math.		6 Math. 2 Relig.											20	
5.	Oberlehrer Schmidt.	III.			2 Gesch. 2 Gesch.		3 Dtsch. 2 Gesch.		2 Relig. 3 Dtsch. 5 Lat.							19	
6.	Oberlehrer Bergemann.	Ober-III b.					5 Lat.	2 Relig. 3 Dtsch. 5 Lat. 4 Franz. 2 Gesch.								21	
7.	Ordentlicher Lehrer Linke.		4 Chorstunden mit den Klassen Prima bis Tertia.				2 Geog.	2 Geog.	2 Geog.	2 Geog.	2 Geog.						23
8.	Ordentlicher Lehrer Wulfow.	VI b.							2 Rechn.		2 Natrg.	2 Rechn.	4 Rechn. 4 Ehr. 2 Natrg.			24	
9.	Oberlehrer Dr. Claus.	Ober-III a.	4 Franz.	4 Franz.	4 Franz.	4 Franz.	4 Franz. 2 Relig.									22	
10.	Ordentlicher Lehrer Jarnikow.	V b.							2 Rechn. 2 Singen.	2 Rechn. 2 Ehr.	3 Rechn. 2 Ehr. 2 Sing.	3 Relig. 3 Rechn. 3 Ehr. 2 Sing.				26	
11.	Ordentlicher Lehrer Dr. Moß.		3 Chem.	2 Chem.		2 Phys. 3 Dtsch.	5 Math. 2 Phys.	5 Math.								22	
12.	Ordentlicher Lehrer Marburg.		3 Engl.	3 Engl.	3 Engl.	3 Engl.	3 Engl.	3 Engl.	4 Engl.							22	
13.	Ordentlicher Lehrer Dr. Schön.								4 Franz. 4 Math.	4 Franz. 2 Natrg.	4 Math. 2 Natrg.					20	
14.	Ordentlicher Lehrer Herbst.	IV b.				4 Lat.					2 Relig. 3 Dtsch. 6 Lat. 4 Franz.					19	
15.	Ordentlicher Lehrer Sellenthin.	IV a.							2 Relig. 3 Dtsch. 6 Lat. 4 Math. 2 Gesch. 2 Geog.							19	
16.	Kollaborator Meyer.	VI a.							2 Gesch.		3 Geog.			3 Relig. 5 Dtsch. 7 Lat. 2 Geog.		22	
17.	Interimistischer Kollaborator Helwig.											4 Dtsch. 6 Lat. 5 Franz. 2 Gesch. 2 Natrg.	2 Math.			21	
18.	Interimistischer Kollaborator Dr. Meyer.									2 Gesch. 2 Geog.				3 Relig. 5 Dtsch. 7 Lat. 2 Geog.		21	
19.	Interimistischer Kollaborator Gengen.											3 Relig. 4 Dtsch. 6 Lat. 5 Franz. 2 Math.				20	
20.	Zeichenlehrer Runge.		2		2	2	2	2	2	2	2					16	
21.	Hilfslehrer Eppohn, erster ordentlicher Lehrer an der Vorschule.													4 Rechn.		4	
22.	Hilfslehrer Voepert, zweiter ordentlicher Lehrer an der Vorschule.													2 Sing. 2 Sing.		4	

Vertheilung der Leistungen unter die Länder während des Winterhalbjahrs 1867/68.

No.	Länder.	Gesamt		Land		Wald		Wasser		Sonstige	
		1867/68	1866/67	1867/68	1866/67	1867/68	1866/67	1867/68	1866/67	1867/68	1866/67
1	Preussen	1000000	950000	500000	450000	300000	250000	100000	80000	100000	80000
2	Bayern	800000	750000	400000	350000	200000	150000	100000	80000	100000	80000
3	Österreich	600000	550000	300000	250000	150000	100000	100000	80000	100000	80000
4	Sachsen	400000	350000	200000	150000	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
5	Württemberg	300000	250000	150000	100000	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
6	Hessen	200000	150000	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
7	Niederrhein	150000	100000	80000	60000	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
8	Brandenburg	100000	80000	50000	40000	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
9	Sachsen-Weimar	80000	60000	40000	30000	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
10	Sachsen-Eisenach	60000	40000	30000	20000	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
11	Sachsen-Altenburg	40000	30000	20000	15000	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
12	Sachsen-Coburg	30000	20000	15000	10000	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
13	Sachsen-Gotha	20000	15000	10000	8000	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
14	Sachsen-Meiningen	15000	10000	8000	6000	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
15	Sachsen-Saalfeld	10000	8000	6000	4000	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
16	Sachsen-Seydlitz	8000	6000	4000	3000	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
17	Sachsen-Sondershausen	6000	4000	3000	2000	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
18	Sachsen-Weimarer	4000	3000	2000	1500	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
19	Sachsen-Zeitz	3000	2000	1500	1000	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
20	Sachsen-Regensburg	2000	1500	1000	800	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
21	Sachsen-Merseburg	1500	1000	800	600	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
22	Sachsen-Mühlhausen	1000	800	600	400	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
23	Sachsen-Grube	800	600	400	300	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
24	Sachsen-Ilfeld	600	400	300	200	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
25	Sachsen-Grube	400	300	200	150	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
26	Sachsen-Grube	300	200	150	100	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
27	Sachsen-Grube	200	150	100	80	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
28	Sachsen-Grube	150	100	80	60	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
29	Sachsen-Grube	100	80	60	40	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
30	Sachsen-Grube	80	60	40	30	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
31	Sachsen-Grube	60	40	30	20	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
32	Sachsen-Grube	40	30	20	15	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
33	Sachsen-Grube	30	20	15	10	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
34	Sachsen-Grube	20	15	10	8	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
35	Sachsen-Grube	15	10	8	6	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
36	Sachsen-Grube	10	8	6	4	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
37	Sachsen-Grube	8	6	4	3	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
38	Sachsen-Grube	6	4	3	2	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
39	Sachsen-Grube	4	3	2	1.5	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
40	Sachsen-Grube	3	2	1.5	1	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
41	Sachsen-Grube	2	1.5	1	0.8	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
42	Sachsen-Grube	1.5	1	0.8	0.6	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
43	Sachsen-Grube	1	0.8	0.6	0.4	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
44	Sachsen-Grube	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.3	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
45	Sachsen-Grube	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.2	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
46	Sachsen-Grube	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.15	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
47	Sachsen-Grube	0.3	0.2	0.15	0.1	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
48	Sachsen-Grube	0.2	0.15	0.1	0.08	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
49	Sachsen-Grube	0.15	0.1	0.08	0.06	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000
50	Sachsen-Grube	0.1	0.08	0.06	0.04	100000	80000	100000	80000	100000	80000

