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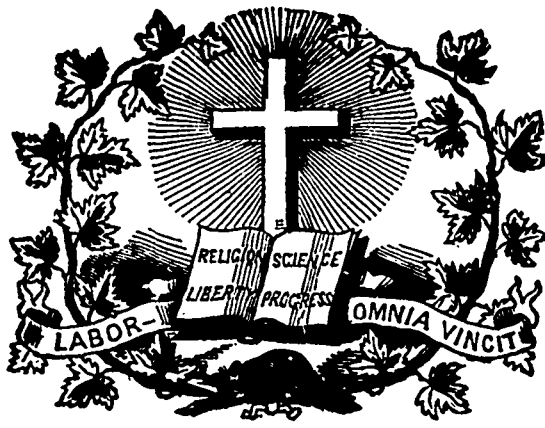
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SUMMARY.—**EDUCATION:** The moral discipline of children, *British Quarterly Review*.—On proper discipline in schools, translated from the French of J. J. Rapet by Mrs. LangueDoc. (continued).—Catechism on methods of teaching (continued).—**MONETARY CRISIS.**—**LITERATURE.**—Poetry: The captive girl, from the French of André Chénier by J. McGregor Allan.—**SCIENCE:** The electric telegraph.—The moon and its light. Manual of Science by Schubert.—**OFFICIAL NOTICES:** Erection of school municipalities.—Notice to Secretary-Treasurers.—Diplomas.—Catholic board of examiners, district of Montreal.—Catholic board of examiners for the district of Quebec.—Board of examiner for the district of Three-Rivers and Sherbrooke.—Donations to the library of the Department.—Situations as teachers wanted.—**EDITORIAL:** Superannuated teachers pension fund.—Report of the Chief Superintendent of Public Instruction for Lower Canada for 1856.—**MONTHLY SUMMARY:** Educational intelligence.—Scientific intelligence.—**OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS:** List of pensions granted to retired teachers from the superannuated teachers pension fund, for the year 1856.—Statement of monies paid by the Department.—**ADVERTISEMENTS:** Bishop's College, Lennoxville.—Agricultural and industrial exhibition for Lower Canada.

EDUCATION.

The Moral discipline of Children.

Commenting on the chaotic state of opinion and practice relative to family government, Richter writes:

"If the secret variances of a large class of ordinary fathers were brought to light, and laid down as a plan of studies, and reading catalogued for a moral education, they would run somewhat after this fashion: In the first hour 'pure morality must be read to the child, either by myself or the tutor;' in the second, 'mixed morality, or that which may be applied to one's own advantage;' in the third, 'do you not see that your father does so and so?' in the fourth, 'you are little, and this is only fit for grown-up people;' in the fifth, 'the chief matter is that you should succeed in the world, and become something in the state;' in the sixth, 'not the temporary, but the eternal, determines the worth of a man;' in the seventh, 'therefore rather suffer injustice, and be kind;' in the eighth, 'but defend yourself bravely if any one attack you;' in the ninth, 'do not make a noise, dear child;' in the tenth, 'a boy must not sit so quiet;' in the eleventh, 'you must obey your parents better;' in the twelfth, 'and educate yourself.' So by the hourly change of his principles, the father conceals their untenableness and onesidedness. As for his wife, she is neither like him, nor yet like that harlequin who came on to the stage with a bundle of papers under each arm, and answered to the inquiry, what he had under his right arm, 'orders' and to what he had under his left arm, 'counter-orders.' But the mother might be much better compared to a giant Briareus, who had a hundred arms, and a bundle of papers under each."

This state of things is not to be readily changed. Generations must pass before any great amelioration of it can be expected. Like political constitutions, educational systems are not made, but grow; and within brief periods growth is insensible. Slow, however, as must be any improvement, even that improvement implies the use of means; and among the means is discussion.

We are not among those who believe in Lord Palmerston's dogma, that "all children are born good." On the whole, the opposite dogma, untenable as it is, seems to us less whole of the

truth. Nor do we agree with those who think that, by skilful discipline, children may be made altogether what they should be. Contrariwise, we are satisfied that though imperfections of nature may be diminished by wise management, they can not be removed by it. The notion that an ideal humanity might be forthwith produced by a perfect system of education, is near akin to that shadowed forth in the poems of Shelley, that would mankind give up their old institutions, prejudices, and errors, all the evils in the world would at once disappear; neither notion being acceptable to such as have dispassionately studied human affairs.

Not that we are without sympathy with those who entertain these too sanguine hopes. Euthusiasm, pushed even to fanaticism, is a useful motive power—perhaps an indispensable one. It is clear that the ardent politician would never undergo the labors and make the sacrifices he does, did he not believe that the reform he fights for is the one thing needful. But for his conviction that drunkenness is the root of almost all social evils, the teetotaler would agitate far less energetically. In philanthropy as in other things, great advantages result from division of labor; and that there may be division of labor, each class of philanthropists must be more or less subordinated to its function—must have an exaggerated faith in its work. Hence, of those who regard education, intellectual or moral, as the panacea, we may say that their undue expectations are not without use; and that perhaps it is part of the beneficent order of things that their confidence can not be shaken.

Even were it true, however, that by some possible system of moral government children could be moulded into the desired form; and even could every parent be daily indoctrinated with this system; we should still be far from achieving the object in view. It is forgotten that the carrying out of any such system pre-supposes, on the part of adults, a degree of intelligence, of goodness, of self-control, possessed by no one. The great error made by those who discuss questions of juvenile discipline, is in ascribing all the faults and difficulties to the children and none to the parents. The current assumption respecting family government, as respecting national government, is, that the virtues are with the rulers and the vices with the ruled. Judging by educational theories, men and women are entirely transfigured in the domestic relation. The citizens we do business with, the people we meet in the world, we all know to be very imperfect creatures. In the daily scandals, in the quarrels of friends, in bankruptcy disclosures, in lawsuits, in police reports, we have constantly thrust before us the pervading selfishness, dishonesty, brutality. Yet when we criticise nursery management, and canvass the misbehavior of juveniles, we habitually take for granted that these culpable men and women are free from moral delinquency in the treatment of their offspring! So far is this from the truth, that we do not hesitate to say that to parental misconduct is traceable a great part of the domestic disorder commonly ascribed to the perversity of children. We do not assert this of the more sympathetic and self-restrained, among whom we hope most of our readers may be classed, but we assert it of the mass. What kind of moral discipline is to be expected from a mother who, time after time, angrily shakes her infant because it will not suckle her,

which we once saw a mother do? How much love of justice and generosity is likely to be instilled by a father who, on having his attention drawn by his child's scream to the fact that its finger is jammed between the window-sash and the sill, forthwith begins to beat the child instead of releasing it? Yet that there are such fathers is testified to us by an eye-witness. Or, to take a still stronger case, also vouched for by direct testimony—what are the educational prospects of the boy who, on being taken home with a dislocated thigh, is saluted with a castigation? It is true that these are extreme instances—instances exhibiting in human beings that blind instinct which impels brutes to destroy the weakly and injured of their own race. But extreme though they are, they typify feelings and conduct daily observable in many families. Who has not repeatedly seen a child slapped by nurse or parent for a fretfulness probably resulting from bodily derangement? Who, when watching a mother snatch up a fallen little one, has not often traced, both in the tough manner and in the sharply-uttered exclamation—"You stupid little thing!" an irascibility foretelling endless future squabbles? Is there not in the harsh tones in which a father bids his children be quiet, evidence of a deficient fellow-feeling with them? Are not the constant, and often quite needless, thwartings that the young experience—the injunctions to sit still, which an active child can not obey without suffering great nervous irritation, the commands not to look out of the window when traveling by railway, which on a child of any intelligence entails serious deprivation—are not these thwartings, we ask, signs of a terrible lack of sympathy? The truth is, that the difficulties of moral education are necessarily of dual origin—necessarily result from the combined faults of parents and children. If hereditary transmission is a law of nature, as every naturalist knows it to be, and as our daily remarks and current proverbs admit it to be; then, on the average of cases, the defects of children mirror the defects of their parents; on the average of cases, we say, because, complicated as the results are by the transmitted traits of remoter ancestors, the correspondence is not special but only general. And if, on the average of cases, this inheritance of defects exists, then the evil passions which parents have to check in their children imply like evil passions in themselves: hidden, it may be, from the public eye; or perhaps obscured by other feelings; but still there. Evidently, therefore, the general practice of any ideal system of discipline is hopeless: parents are not good enough.

Moreover, even were there methods by which the desired end could be at once effected, and even had fathers and mothers sufficient insight, sympathy, and self-command to employ these methods consistently, it might still be contended that it would be of no use to reform family discipline faster than other things are reformed. What is it that we aim to do? Is it not that education of whatever kind has for its proximate end to prepare a child for the business of life—to produce a citizen who, at the same time that he is well conducted, is also able to make his way in the world? And does not making his way in the world (by which we mean, not the acquirement of wealth, but of the means requisite for properly bringing up a family)—does not this imply a certain fitness for the world as it now is? And if by any system of culture an ideal human being could be produced, is it not doubtful whether he would be fit for the world as it now is? May we not, on the contrary, suspect that his too keen sense of rectitude, and too elevated standard of conduct, would make life alike intolerable and impossible? And however admirable the result might be, considered individually, would it not be self-defeating in so far as society and posterity are concerned? It may, we think, be argued, with much reason, that as in a nation so in a family, the kind of government is, on the whole, about as good as the general state of human nature permits it to be. It may be said that in the one case, as in the other, the average character of the people determines the quality of the control exercised. It may be inferred that in both cases amelioration of the average character leads to an amelioration of system; and further, that were it possible to ameliorate the system without the average character being first ameliorated, evil, rather than good, would follow. It may be urged that such degree of harshness as children now experience from their parents and teachers, is but a preparation for that greater harshness which they will meet with on entering the world; and that were it possible for parents and teachers to behave towards them with perfect equity and entire sympathy, it would but intensify the sufferings which the selfishness of men must, in after life, inflict on them.

"But does not this prove too much?" some one will ask. "If no system of moral culture can forthwith make children altogether what they should be; if, even were there a system that would do this, existing parents are too imperfect to carry it out; and if, even could such a system be successfully carried out, its results would

be disastrously incongruous with the present state of society; does it not follow that a reform in the system now in use is neither practicable nor desirable?" No. It merely follows that reform in domestic government must go on, *pari passu*, with other reforms. It merely follows that methods of discipline neither can be nor should be ameliorated, except by instalments. It merely follows that the dictates of abstract rectitude will, in practice, inevitably be subordinated by the present state of human nature—by the imperfections alike of children, of parents, and of society; and can only be better fulfilled as the general character becomes better.

"At any rate, then," may rejoine our critic, "it is clearly useless to set up any ideal standard of family discipline. There can be no advantage in elaborating and recommending methods that are in advance of the time." Again we must contend for the contrary. Just as in the case of political government, though pure rectitude may be at present impracticable, it is requisite to know where the right lies, so that the changes we make may be towards the right instead of away from it; so in the case of domestic government, an ideal must be upheld, that there may be gradual approximations to it. We need fear no evil consequences from the maintenance of such an ideal. On the average the constitutional conservatism of mankind is always strong enough to prevent a too rapid change. So admirable are the arrangements of things that until men have grown up to the level of a higher belief, they can not receive it: nominally, they may hold it, but not virtually. And even when the truth gets recognized, the obstacles to conformity with it are so persistent as to outlive the patience of philanthropists and even philosophers. We may be quite sure, therefore, that the many difficulties standing in the way of a normal government of children, will always put an adequate check upon the efforts to realize it.

With these preliminary explanations, let us go on to consider the true aims and methods of moral education—moral education, strictly so called; we mean; for we do not propose to enter upon the question of religious education as an aid to the education exclusively moral. This we omit as a topic better dealt with separately. After a few pages devoted to the settlement of general principles, during the perusal of which we bespeak the reader's patience, we shall aim by illustrations to make clear the right methods of parental behavior in the hourly occurring difficulties of family government.

When a child falls, or runs its head against the table, it suffers a pain, the remembrance of which tends to make it more careful for the future; and by an occasional repetition of like experiences, it is eventually disciplined into a proper guidance of its movements. If it lays hold of the fire-bars, thrusts its finger into the candle-flame, or spills boiling water on any parts of its skin, the resulting burn or scald is a lesson not easily forgotten. So deep an impression is produced by one or two such events, that afterwards no persuasion will induce it again to disregard the laws of its constitution in these ways.

Now in these and like cases, Nature illustrates to us in the simplest way, the true theory and practice which, however much they may seem to the superficial like those commonly received, we shall find on examination to differ from them very widely.

Observe, in the first place, that in bodily injuries and their penalties we have misconduct and its consequences reduced to their simplest forms. Though, according to their popular acceptations, *right* and *wrong* are words scarcely applicable to actions that have none but direct bodily effects; yet whoever considers the matter will see that such actions must be as much classifiable under these heads as any other actions. From whatever basis they start, all theories of morality agree in considering that conduct whose total results, immediate and remote, are beneficial, is good conduct; while conduct whose total results, immediate and remote, are injurious, is bad conduct. The happiness or misery caused by it are the *ultimate* standards by which all men judge of behavior. We consider drunkenness wrong because of the physical degeneracy and accompanying moral evils entailed on the transgressor and his dependents. Did theft uniformly give pleasure both to taker and looser, we should not find it in our catalogue of sins. Were it conceivable that benevolent actions multiplied human pains we should condemn them—should not consider them benevolent. It needs but to read the first newspaper leader, or listen to any conversation touching social affairs, to see that acts of parliament, political movements, philanthropic agitations, in common with the doings of individuals, are judged by their anticipated results in multiplying the pleasures or pains of men. And if on looking under all secondary superinduced ideas, we find these to be our ultimate tests of right and wrong, we can not refuse to class purely physical actions as right or wrong according to the beneficial or detrimental results they produce.

Note, in the second place, the character of the punishments by which these physical transgressions are prevented. Punishments, we call them, in the absence of a better word; for they are not punishments in the literal sense. They are not artificial and unnecessary inflictions of pain; but are simply the beneficent checks to actions that are essentially at variance with bodily welfare—checks in the absence of which life would quickly be destroyed by bodily injuries. It is the peculiarity of these penalties, if we must so call them, that they are nothing more than the *unavoidable consequences* of the deeds which they follow: they are nothing more than the *inevitable reactions* entailed by the child's actions.

Let it be further borne in mind that these painful reactions are proportionate to the degree in which the organic laws have been transgressed. A slight accident brings a slight pain, a more serious one, a greater pain. When a child tumbles over the door-step, it is not ordained that it shall suffer in excess of the amount necessary, with the view of making it still more cautious than the necessary suffering will make it. But from its daily experience it is left to learn the greater or less penalties of greater or less errors; and to behave accordingly.

And then mark, lastly, that these natural reactions which follow the child's wrong actions, are constant, direct, unhesitating, and not to be escaped. No threats: but a silent, rigorous performance. If a child runs a pin into its finger, pain follows. If it does it again, there is again the same result: and so on perpetually. In all its dealings with surrounding inorganic nature it finds this unswerving persistence, which listens to no excuse, and from which there is no appeal; and very soon recognizing this stern though beneficent discipline, it becomes extremely careful not to transgress.

Still more significant will these general truths appear, when we remember that they hold throughout adult life as well as throughout infantile life. It is by an experimentally-gained knowledge of the natural consequences, that men and women are checked when they go wrong. After home education has ceased, and when there are no longer parents and teachers to forbid this or that kind of conduct, there comes into play a discipline like that by which the young child is taught its first lessons in self-guidance. If the youth entering upon the business of life idles away his time and fulfills slowly or unskillfully the duties intrusted to him, there by and by follows the natural penalty: he is discharged, and left to suffer for a while the evils of relative poverty. On the unpunctual man, failing alike his appointments of business and pleasure, there continually fall the consequent inconveniences, losses, and deprivations. The avaricious tradesman who charges too high a rate of profit, loses his customers, and so is checked in his greediness. Diminishing practice teaches the inattentive doctor to bestow more trouble on his patients. The too credulous creditor and the over-sanguine speculator alike learn by the difficulties which rashness entails on them, the necessity of being more cautious in their engagements. And so throughout the life of every citizen. In the quotation so often made *apropos* of these cases—"The burnt child dreads the fire"—we see not only that the analogy between this social discipline and Nature's early discipline of infants is universally recognized; but we also see an implied conviction that this discipline is of the most efficient kind. Nay more, this conviction is not only implied, but distinctly stated. Every one has heard others confess that only by "dearly bought experience" had they been induced to give up some bad or foolish course of conduct formerly pursued. Every one has heard, in the criticisms passed on the doings of this spendthrift or the other speculator, the remark that advice was useless, and that nothing but "bitter experience" would produce any effect: nothing, that is, but suffering the unavoidable consequences. And if further proof be needed that the penalty of the natural reaction is not only the most efficient, but that no humanly-devised penalty can replace it, we have such further proof in the notorious ill-success of our various penal systems. Out of the many methods of criminal discipline that have been proposed and legally enforced, none have answered the expectations of their advocates. Not only have artificial punishments failed to produce reformation, but they have in many cases increased the criminality. The only successful reformatories are those privately-established ones which have approximated their *régime* to the method of Nature—which have done little more than administer the natural consequences of criminal conduct: the natural consequences being, that by imprisonment or other restraint, the criminal shall have his liberty of action diminished as much as is needful for the safety of society; and that he shall be made to maintain himself while living under this restraint. Thus we see not only that the discipline by which the young child is so successfully taught to regulate its movements is also the discipline by which the great mass of adults are kept in order, and more or less improved; but that the discipline humanly devised

for the worst adults, fails when it diverges from this divinely ordained discipline, and begins to succeed when it approximates to it.

Have we not here, then, the guiding principle of moral education? Must we not infer that the system so beneficent in its effects, alike during infancy and maturity, will be equally beneficent throughout youth? Can any one believe that the method which answers so well in the first and the last divisions of life will not answer in the intermediate division? Is it not manifest that as "ministers and interpreters of Nature" it is the function of parents to see that their children habitually experience the true consequences of the conduct—the natural reactions: neither warding them off, nor intensifying them, nor putting artificial consequences in place of them? No unprejudiced reader will hesitate in his assent.

Probably, however, not a few will contend that already most parents do this—that the punishments they inflict are, in the majority of cases, the true consequences of ill-conduct—that parental anger, venting itself in harsh words and deeds, is the result of a child's transgression—and that, in the suffering, physical or moral, which the child is subject to, it experiences the natural reaction of its misbehavior. Along with much error this assertion, doubtless, contains some truth. It is unquestionable that the displeasure of fathers and mothers is a true consequence of juvenile delinquency; and that the manifestation of it is a normal check upon such delinquency. It is unquestionable that the scoldings, and threats, and blows, which a passionate parent visits on offending little ones, are effects actually produced in such a parent by their offenses; and so are, in some sort, to be considered as among the natural reactions of their wrong actions. And we are by no means prepared to say that these modes of treatment are not relatively right—right, that is, in relation to uncontrollable children of ill-controlled adults; and right in relation to a state of society in which such ill-controlled adults make up the mass of the people. As already suggested, educational systems, like political and other institutions, are generally as good as the state of human nature permits. The barbarous children of barbarous parents are probably only to be restrained by the barbarous methods which such parents spontaneously employ; while submission to these barbarous methods is perhaps the best preparation such children can have for the barbarous society in which they are presently to play a part. Conversely, the civilized members of a civilized society will spontaneously manifest their displeasure in less violent ways—will spontaneously use milder measures: measures strong enough for their better-natured children. Thus it is doubtless true that, in so far as the expression of parental feeling is concerned, the principle of the natural reaction is always more or less followed. The system of domestic government ever gravitates towards its right form.

But now observe two important facts. In the first place, observe that, in states of rapid transition like ours, which witness a long-drawn battle between old and new theories and old and new practices, the educational methods in use are apt to be considerably out of harmony with the times. In deference to dogmas fit only for the ages that uttered them, many parents inflict punishments that do violence to their own feelings, and so visit on their children unnatural reactions; while other parents, enthusiastic in their hopes of immediate perfection, rush to the opposite extreme. And then observe, in the second place, that the discipline on which we are insisting is not so much the experience of parental approbation or disapprobation, which, in most cases, is only a secondary consequence of a child's conduct; but it is the experience of those results which would naturally flow from the conduct, in the absence of parental opinion or interference. The truly instructive and salutary consequences are not those inflicted by parents when they take upon themselves to be Nature's proxies; but they are those inflicted by Nature herself. We will endeavor to make this distinction clear by a few illustrations, which, while they show what we mean by natural reactions as contrasted with artificial ones, will afford some directly practical suggestions.

In every family where there are young children there almost daily occur cases of what mothers and servants call "making a litter." A child has had out its box of toys, and leaves them scattered about the floor. Or a handful of flowers, brought in from a morning walk, is presently seen dispersed over tables and chairs. Or a little girl making doll's clothes, disfigures the room with shreds. In most cases the trouble of rectifying this disorder falls anywhere but in the right place: if in the nursery, the nurse herself, with many grumbings about "tiresome little things," etc., undertakes the task; if below stairs, the task usually devolves either on one of the elder children or on the housemaid; the transgressor being visited with nothing more than a scolding. In this very simple case, however, there are many parents wise

enough to follow out, more or less consistently, the normal course—that of making the child itself collect the toys or shreds. The labor of putting things in order is the true consequence of having put them in disorder. Every trader in his office, every wife in her household, has daily experience of this fact. And if education be a preparation for the business of life, then every child should also, from the beginning, have daily experience of this fact. If the natural penalty be met by any refractory behavior, (which it may perhaps be where the general system of moral discipline previously pursued has been bad,) then the proper course is to let the child feel the ulterior reaction consequent on its disobedience. Having refused or neglected to pick up and put away the things it has scattered about, and having thereby entailed the trouble of doing this on some one else, the child should, on subsequent occasions, be denied the means of giving this trouble. When next it petitions for its toy-box, the reply of its mamma should be: "The last time you had your toys you left them lying on the floor, and Jane had to pick them up. Jane is too busy to pick up every day the things you leave about; and I can not do it myself. So that, as you will not put away your toys when you have done with them, I can not let you have them." This is obviously a natural consequence, neither increased nor lessened; and must be so recognized by a child. The penalty comes, too, at the moment when it is most keenly felt. A new-born desire is balked at the moment of anticipated gratification; and the strong impression so produced can scarcely fail to have an effect on the future conduct: an effect which, by consistent repetition, will do whatever can be done in curing the fault. Add to which, that by this method, a child is early taught the lesson which can not be learnt too soon, that in this world of ours pleasures are rightly to be obtained only by labor.

Take another case. Not long since we had frequently to listen to the reprimands visited on a little girl who was scarcely ever ready in time for the daily walk. Of eager disposition, and apt to become thoroughly absorbed in the occupation of the moment, Constance never thought of putting on her things until the rest were ready. The governess and the other children had almost invariably to wait; and from the mamma there almost invariably came the same scolding. Utterly as this system failed, it never occurred to the mamma to let Constance experience the natural penalty. Nor, indeed, would she try it when it was suggested to her. In the world the penalty of being behind time is the loss of some advantage that would else have been gained; the train is gone; or the steam-boat is just leaving its moorings; or the best things in the market are sold; or all the good seats in the concert-room are filled. And every one, in cases perpetually occurring, may see that it is the prospective deprivations entailed by being too late which prevent people from being too late. Is not the inference obvious? Should not these prospective deprivations control the child's conduct also? If Constance is not ready at the appointed time, the natural result is that of being left behind, and losing her walk. And no one can, we think, doubt that after having once or twice remained at home while the rest were enjoying themselves in the fields, and after having felt that this loss of a much-prized gratification was solely due to want of promptitude, some amendment would take place. At any rate, the measure would be more effective than that perpetual scolding which ends only in producing callousness.

Again, when children, with more than usual carelessness, break or lose the things given to them, the natural penalty—the penalty which makes grown-up persons more careful—is the consequent inconvenience. The want of the lost or damaged article, and the cost of supplying its place, are the experiences by which men and women are disciplined in these matters; and the experience of children should be as much as possible assimilated to theirs. We do not refer to that early period at which toys are pulled to pieces in the process of learning their physical properties, and at which the results of carelessness can not be understood; but to a later period, when the meaning and advantages of property are perceived. When a boy, old enough to possess a penknife, uses it so roughly as to snap the blade, or leaves it in the grass by some hedge-side, where he was cutting a stick, a thoughtless parent, or some indulgent relative, will commonly forthwith buy him another; not seeing that, by doing this, a valuable lesson is lost. In such a case, a father may properly explain that penknives cost money, and that to get money requires labor; that he can not afford to purchase new penknives for one who loses or breaks them; and that until he sees evidence of greater carefulness he must decline to make good the loss. A parallel discipline may be used as a means of checking extravagance.

These few familiar instances, here chosen because of the simplicity with which they illustrate our point, will make clear to every one the distinction between those natural penalties which we con-

tend are the truly efficient ones, and those artificial penalties which parents commonly substitute for them. Before going on to exhibit the higher and subtler applications of this principle, let us note its many and great superiorities over the principles, or rather the empirical practice, which prevails in most families.

In the first place, right conceptions of cause and effect are early formed; and by frequent and consistent experience are eventually rendered definite and complete. Proper conduct in life is much better guaranteed when the good and evil consequences of actions are rationally understood, than when they are merely believed on authority. A child who finds that disorderliness entails the subsequent trouble of putting things in order, or who misses a gratification from dilatoriness, or whose want of care is followed by the loss or breakage of some much-prized possession, not only experiences a keenly-felt consequence, but gains a knowledge of causation: both the one and the other being just like those which adult life will bring. Whereas a child who in such cases receives some reprimand or some factitious penalty, not only experiences a consequence for which it often cares very little, but lacks that instruction respecting the essential natures of goods and evil conduct, which it would else have gathered. It is a vice of the common system of artificial rewards and punishments, long since noticed by the clear-sighted, that by substituting for the natural results of misbehavior certain threatened tasks or castigations, it produces a radically wrong standard of moral guidance. Having throughout infancy and boyhood always regarded parental or tutorial displeasure as the result of a forbidden action, the youth has gained an established association of ideas between such action and such displeasure, as cause and effect; and consequently when parents and tutors have abdicated, and their displeasure is not to be feared, the restraint on a forbidden action is in great measure removed: the true restraints, the natural reactions, having yet to be learnt by sad experience. As writes one who has had personal knowledge of this short-sighted system: "Young men let loose from school, particularly those whose parents have neglected to exert their influence, plunge into every description of extravagance; they know no rule of action—they are ignorant of the reasons for moral conduct—they have no foundation to rest upon—and until they have been severely disciplined by the world, are extremely dangerous members of society."

Another great advantage of this natural system of discipline is, that it is a system of pure justice; and will be recognized by every child as such. Who suffers nothing more than the evil which obviously follows naturally from his own misbehavior, is much less likely to think himself wrongly treated than if he suffers an evil artificially inflicted on him; and this will be true of children as of men. Take the case of a boy who is habitually reckless of his clothes—scrambles through hedges without caution, or is utterly regardless of mud. If he is beaten, or sent to bed, he is apt to regard himself as ill-used; and his mind is more likely to be occupied by thinking over his injuries than repenting of his transgressions. But suppose he is required to rectify as far as he can the harm he has done—to clean off the mud with which he has covered himself, or to mend the tear as well as he can. Will he not feel that the evil is one of his own producing? Will he not while paying this penalty be continuously conscious of the connection between it and its cause? And will he not, spite his irritation, recognize more or less clearly the justice of the arrangement? If several lessons of this kind fail to produce amendment—if suits of clothes are prematurely spoiled—if pursuing this same system of discipline a father declines to spend money for new ones until the ordinary time has elapsed—and if meanwhile, there occur occasions on which, having no decent clothes to go in, the boy is debarred from joining the rest of the family on holiday excursions and *fête* days, it is manifest that while he will keenly feel the punishment, he can scarcely fail to trace the chain of causation, and to perceive that his own carelessness is the origin of it; and seeing this, he will not have that same sense of injustice as when there is no obvious connection between the transgression and its penalty.

Again, the tempers both of parents and children are much less liable to be ruffled under this system than under the ordinary system. Instead of letting children experience the painful results which naturally follow from wrong conduct, the usual course pursued by parents is to inflict themselves certain other painful results. A double mischief arises from this. Making, as they do, multiplied family laws; and identifying their own supremacy and dignity with the maintenance of these laws; it happens that every transgression comes to be regarded as an offense against themselves, and a cause of anger on their part. Add to which the further irritations which result from taking upon themselves, in the shape of extra labor or cost, those evil consequences which should have been

allowed to fall on the wrong-doers. Similarly with the children. Penalties which the necessary reaction of things brings round upon them—penalties which are inflicted by impersonal agency, produce an irritation that is comparatively slight and transient; whereas, penalties which are voluntarily inflicted by a parent, and are afterwards remembered as caused by him or her, produce an irritation both greater and more continued. Just consider how disastrous would be the result if this empirical method were pursued from the beginning. Suppose it were possible for parents to take upon themselves the physical sufferings entailed on their children by ignorance and awkwardness; and that while bearing these evil consequences they visited on their children certain other evil consequences, with the view of teaching them the impropriety of their conduct. Suppose that when a child, who had been forbidden to meddle with the kettle, spilt some boiling water on its foot, the mother vicariously assumed the scald and gave a blow in place of it; and similarly in all other cases. Would not the daily mishaps be sources of far more anger than now? Would there not be chronic ill-temper on both sides? Yet an exactly parallel policy is pursued in after years. A father who punishes his boy for carelessly or wilfully breaking a sister's toy, and then himself pays for a new toy, does substantially the same thing—inflicts an artificial penalty on the transgressor, and takes the natural penalty on himself: his own feelings and those of the transgressor being alike needlessly irritated. If he simply required restitution to be made, he would produce far less heart-burning. If he told the boy that a new toy must be bought at his, the boy's, cost, and that his supply of pocket-money must be withheld to the needful extent, there would be much less cause for ebullition of temper on either side; while in the deprivation afterwards felt, the boy would experience the equitable and salutary consequence. In brief, the system of discipline by natural reactions is less injurious to temper, alike because it is perceived on both sides to be nothing more than pure justice, and because it more or less substitutes the impersonal agency of nature for the personal agency of parents.

Whence also follows the manifest corollary that under this system the parental and filial relation will be a more friendly, and therefore a more influential one. Whether in parent or child, anger, however caused, and to whomsoever directed, is more or less detrimental. But anger in a parent towards a child, and in a child towards a parent, is especially detrimental; because it weakens that bond of sympathy which is essential to a beneficent control. In virtue of the general law of association of ideas, it inevitably results, both in young and old, that dislike is contracted towards things which in our experience are habitually connected with disagreeable feelings. Or where attachment originally existed, it is weakened, or destroyed, or turned into repugnance, according to the quantity of painful impressions received. Parental wrath, with its accompanying reprimands and castigations, can not fail, if often repeated, to produce filial alienation; while the resentment and sulkingness of children can not fail to weaken the affection felt for them, and may even end in destroying it. Hence the numerous cases in which parents (and especially fathers, who are commonly deputed to express the anger and inflict the punishment) are regarded with indifference if not with aversion; and hence the equally numerous cases in which children are looked upon as infatigable. Seeing, then, as all must do, that estrangement of this kind is fatal to a salutary moral culture, it follows that parents can not be too solicitous in avoiding occasions of direct antagonism with their children—occasions of personal resentment. And therefore they can not too anxiously avert themselves of this discipline of natural consequences—this system of letting the penalty be inflicted by the laws of things; which, by saving the parent from the function of a penal agent, prevents these mutual exasperations and estrangements.—*British Quarterly Review.*

(To be continued.)

PEDAGOGY.

ON THE TRUE FOUNDATION OF SCHOOL DISCIPLINE.

(Translated from the French of J. J. Rapet, by Mrs. Languedoc.)

III

OF PROPER DISCIPLINE IN SCHOOLS.

(Continued from No. 6, page 84.)

“Endeavor to call forth the affectionate regards of your scholars to get their love,” were the last words of our 2nd

chapter upon the subject discipline, and there is no doubt of your being afterwards able to inspire them with the next great essential, a fondness for school itself.

This fondness or attraction for school is one of the chief points towards attaining good discipline; in fact how can we possibly expect docility and deference to our wishes or commands from scholars who have neither regard nor esteem for us, who even have no desire of showing any, nor wish to render themselves agreeable to us: or why expect that children who feel unhappy in their classes and who come to them with distaste and repugnance, who view with disgust, the course of their daily lessons, should be orderly, attentive and zealous to fulfil their tasks? To expect as much, is expecting impossibilities, and to exact it, is looking for more than we would do from persons of mature mind and judgment.

Now, the number of children who feel an attraction towards school is very few, and who can wonder at it?

There are three principal reasons why children dislike their classes; they feel no taste or inclination to acquire what is taught them; they suffer from weariness, and many remain idle a greater part of the time. Let us investigate each one of these reasons separately.

That children have no taste for instruction is a cry that has become general, nevertheless it is not the less an unjust one under the circumstances. Children have, it is true, little inclination to study, but their objections are not towards instruction itself; on the contrary, they are ever desirous of learning, they delight in acquiring information. We need not go farther to prove this, than by an appeal to every one's personal experience of their natural curiosity, which, many of us may have found at one time or another particularly inconvenient, to say nothing of their constant questioning. They on the contrary love and take delight in acquiring information but not at the expense of study the sole point of their dislike.

Neither does this dislike arise from any natural dread of trouble or fatigue, no more than from any preconceived aversion to instruction. Let us but examine the ardor and perseverance with which children pursue any matter of pleasure or sport; this will suffice to convince us that trouble is their last consideration where there lies a disposition to obtain any object. Now as our plan of instruction falls short of this impression, children dislike the instruction which they are made to accept in a disagreeable form, therefore it is the method and form and nothing else which occasion their opposition.

For my part I cannot condemn them for it; let us take a child just as he appears at school for the first time which is generally about the age of seven or eight years, and the moment at which he is to be carefully initiated with a fondness and attraction for school. What are the first steps taken to win him on his first attendance?

Let us first consider his antecedents. Up to this moment he has lived a life of ease, liberty and independence, he has played his limbs in joyous freedom all unthinking of the hours as they danced along, but his young steps have now re-echoed in the school-room, and from that moment he is suddenly condemned to be the victim of its system. He will have to sit on a bench in strict rigidity of posture twice a day for the space each time of some two or three hours; and we complain if he express discomfort or if his uneasiness occasion him to disturb the order and regularity of the class. We on the contrary consider that children who would uncomplainingly yield strict obedience to such rules might be considered as requiring immediate medical care, for it would no doubt be the mark of a most unhealthy constitution. Under this immobility of position he is set down to studies the most unsuitable to his habits, and most inappropriate to his age and understanding. So far his experience has brought him in contact only with the exterior

world, with objects sensible to the feeling and to the sight. Henceforward he shall be made to handle abstract ideas and a variety of things which speak of nothing to his experience and judgement.

We begin by teaching him to read, and for a length of time keep him to the combination of letters and sounds, which bear no intelligence to him. Later we teach him how to trace isolated letters and words which no more than the first can satisfy his desire of knowledge. In the mean time we teach him the recital of prayers and answers from a catechism of which he understands but few words. Sometimes a few principles of numeration are added, that-is-to-say, that we make him commit to memory a series of figures and perhaps the multiplication table, which he repeats like a parrot, without knowing anything of its meaning, for he is not taught the relation of these numbers with the quantities expressed.

These are the occupations invariably given to a child during the first two years of his sojourn at school.

We ask what is there here likely to give him a taste for instruction, or to render that sojourn agreeable and attractive to him? We do not see any thing whatever. For whole months he is made to go over the same task every day. He gets tired of ever doing the same thing, the monotony of these exercises besides the weariness that they engender, occasion them to fill up an almost immeasurable space of time, for the reason that being performed with a distracted and mattentive mind but little progress is made, whereas with proper application they would have been mastered in a fourth of the same time. To the state of weariness engendered by the absence of all variety is to be added what may appear the uselessness of the things taught.

After the lessons already described they are under a mistaken idea, taught abstract multiplication to which is due their want of understanding their object, then follows a dry fastidious study of grammar, which, very much to the child's own dissatisfaction fills up a great portion of his time as he not even catches the shadow of a reason for it.

Now, a knowledge of these various branches of instruction is no doubt essential to children but how much more profitably applied would they prove were they addressed to their understanding, by more winning means. By following the latter method, they would prove a source of development to his bodily health as well as to his mind. Children do not foresee and calculate upon these results. Even the aged often overlook these advantages, therefore, why not children who do not even entertain any thought of the end and object of their studious labors and the reason is simple, it is because they are things pertaining to the future and which therefore do not touch the present.

Let us make abnegation of ourselves and cease to imagine as we are too often apt to do, that the children are objects expressly created for the school and for that master, whereas it is we, who are appointed there to serve them.

In this abnegation let us forget our own habits, tastes and acquirements to take the child's side of the question, and ask ourselves, in what point can children feel a liking or free inclination for their lessons?

We teach them reading, but for a very long time the lesson is to them but the sight of letters and hard syllables; when able to read with fluency and care, time is still continues a painful and laborious task, for the most part we teach them how to read without accompanying the lesson with the slightest explanation. We teach writing, but they have nothing to write about, for they have no ideas to express. We teach them grammar, while they see nothing but a numberless amount of strange terms, the most singular and the most useless, for they have no conception of their application to the uses of the world, where they have never heard of anything of the kind.

We stop here, as we do not wish to offer a repetition of

what we have already frequently advanced. Nevertheless we are most desirous to convince our readers how much this style of teaching is erroneous and how unfit to fix the interest of a child. Now since the subjects taught in schools are in themselves little likely to interest the young mind, do let us endeavor to render them more agreeable by our mode of teaching. If we have any desire of avoiding the continually running foul of a repugnance which constitutes so powerful an obstacle to the maintenance of good discipline.

To recapitulate, what is there in the form of instruction that can compensate for the aridity and dryness of the subject. What are the lessons given that can possibly amuse a child. We call their attention to abstract notions, fill their heads with principles, rules and state definitions; make them learn page upon page without familiarizing the subject by any kind of explanation; with these pages so committed to memory we make them participate in theories far above their years and which we leave, like every thing else, in the dark corner of their memories, that-is-to-say unexplained. We expose over and over again, rules, without ever teaching their application, and yet, of what use is the instruction taught in schools if left unapplied?

Our lessons which are always dogmatical, are arid and uninteresting, our style of language, dry as our books and equally barren of all interest. To lessons which are repeated daily and without any variety whatever to enliven them, we add duties of the same stamp whose monotony soon fills to satiety.

We ask pardon of School-masters for addressing them in this manner; we too fully understand all the difficulties that they have to contend with, and have too sincere a desire to see them diminished, indeed removed, to be suspected of any idle severity of language. Sincerity alone is our guide, while the interest of their scholars, the prosperity of their schools and their own interest, lead us on and force us to offer these remarks. We again repeat it, let masters reflect seriously and question their own hearts, let them above all take the child's place and confess how impossible it is for these poor beings to have any taste, inclination or attraction for their tasks, and therefore, whether it is possible for them to come gladly into class, and remain there with any degree of pleasure.

Now if children find nothing pleasant in following the class, if they feel no taste for the lesson given in it, how can they be kept there in an orderly, silent and attentive disposition? To manage this there would be but one method which is to keep them in constant dread of punishment. But we have already declared and proved the impotency of this alternative; besides, the admission of school-masters themselves confirms the opinion. They all complain of the uselessness of the disciplinary measures that have hitherto been used.

But one method is left, that of inspiring our pupils with a pleasing regard, and attraction for school. Let us make the attempt boldly and resolutely. Let us for the future shed over our teachings pleasing variety and let them be administered with amability of manner, let us redeem the aridity of the lesson by the pleasantness of form, let us with our pupils merge the master into the kind parent who seeks to smooth the obstructions lying in his path; let us put gaiety and playfulness even in the disposal of the lessons; let them be an uninterrupted succession of entertainments and familiar conversations rather than a course of lectures where each one repeats sentences by rote. Let our instructions become a sort of pleasant chat during which we shall provoke questions from the children and waken up ideas in their minds, or by frequent calls upon our little auditors become masters of their various modes of thinking and capacity of opinion; or taking their answers as a guide to the proposing of new questions, be enabled to make use of

their mistakes to govern their future errors and impose light into their minds.

In our lessons for reading let us explain the words and phrases, propose questions and omit all sorts of ideas upon the subject before us and while we infuse his mind with new ideas, let us also make him feel the necessity of reading.

In teaching grammar let us not be satisfied with the teaching of state definitions and words only, let us also give ideas, communicate the knowledge of things, how to reason upon objects, how to express correct opinions and to modify false ones. Let us not only speak of substantives or adjectives, genders masculine and feminine, or of numbers singular and plural; let us imbue them with a knowledge of the things themselves, how to make a distinction of them, how to discover their nature, property and use.

In arithmetic let us not remain satisfied with inculcating interminable operations upon any given numbers; let us constantly make usual and familiar applications of the same, let us calculate, weigh, measure every thing that stands present to our sight whether in the class, the yard, or the garden; one such lesson in the open air will prove sufficient to inspire the scholars with a week's ardor both before and after it is received.

Geography is the knowledge of the earth and we invariably teach it between four walls, let us give the first notions of it at all events in presence of the objects which form the subject of our discourse: to be understood by children, but particularly to interest them, let us begin by speaking to them of the geography of the school and of the village before we entertain them with that of Persia or Thibet.

Catechism on Methods of Teaching.

TRANSLATED FROM DIESTERWEG'S "ALMANAC," (*Jahrbuch*), FOR 1855 AND 1856,

BY DR. HERMANN WIMMER.

(Continued from our last.)

VIII. GEOGRAPHY. BY ADDENRODE.

12. *When has the synchronistical method its right place?*

Synchronism is not suitable for beginners. It requires an advanced standing, to view the contents of entire periods of the development of nations, and understandingly to pursue the gradual progress in it. To whoever is not able to survey that progress in its degrees, and, when arrived at a remarkably high point, to bring afterward the different conditions of other nations to view, interweaving them with the former picture, and thus to compose a totality of those intermixed developments, to him a synchronistical treatment of history remains sterile. Therefore, scarcely even the pupils of the first class, in our higher seminaries of learning, can be considered as sufficiently prepared for it.

13. *Who has recommended the biographical method?*

It may be said the entire modern school has unanimously recognized it as the best and most suitable for beginners. For this grade, nearly all modern methodic histories contain only such material as is fit for biographical instruction. In higher schools, a biographical course has been arranged in the lowest classes, and approved everywhere by the authorities.

14. *Who has recommended the regressive method?*

Dr. Kapp, in his general work, "Scientific school instruction as a whole," (*der wissenschaftliche Schulunterricht als ein Ganzes*), Hamm, 1834, is one of the first. Dr. Jacobi has recommended it, especially for the history of the native country, "Outlines of a new method, &c.," (*Grundzüge einer neuen methode, etc.*) Nurnberg, 1839.

15. *What is the origin of the chronological method?*

From time immemorial scarcely any other method has been used in Germany than this; now joining synchronism, now following the ethnographical principle. Until this hour it prevails in the majority of schools, of classical histories, and of text-books on history. It has been modified by many competent historians and teachers, for the

various purposes of elementary, burgher, and real schools, and gymnasia. Some introduce it by mythology, others by a biographical course. Some give the first place to ancient history, others to national history; others, again, attempt to suit the various wants, by a particular partition of the material, by all sorts of principles of treatment, by accommodation to the different stages of life, or by raising certain historical pictures, (*Charakterbilder*), above the general course of history.

16. *Who has tried to introduce the grouping method?*

Stiehl, (now privy-counsellor,) has proposed, in a little book, "Instruction in the history of our country in the elementary schools," (*Der vaterländische Geschichtsunterricht in unsern Elementarschulen*), Coblenz, 1842, to promote instruction in the history of the fatherland by a vivid transfer into the midst of national life, by historical facts grouped around a national calendar, with the exclusion of systematic chronology, and by presenting the coherent material well-wrought together in one mould; besides, making the whole more fruitful by communicating important patriotic documents and like best patriotic songs.

In a different way, Dr. Haupt, in the preface to his "History of the World, on Pestalozzi's principles," (*Weltgeschichte nach Pestalozzi's Grundsätzen, etc.*), Hildburghausen, 1841, recommends a grouping of the entire history after certain categories of the material, (home, society, state, nation, religion, science, and art), in each of which the suitable material of all time is comparatively placed beside each other.

17. *What are the most recent tendencies concerning historical instruction?*

On the one hand, it is recommended to interweave classical sentences and good historical poems, in order to vivify historical instruction by dramatizing it, and so impress better the chief epochs, especially of natural history, by story and song. On the other hand, for the sake of concentration, various combinations with geography, natural knowledge and religion, and even with the hymn book, are recommended. An endeavor has also been made, to simplify the material for common wants, by cutting off the less fertile portions, particularly of national history, and to compensate for this by entering deeper into some chief characters and events. This has fixed attention more and more on historical *Charakterbilder*, which are now in various works, at the teacher's command, to be used chiefly for a good Christian and national education. Particularly, it is endeavored to view more closely the civilization of nations, especially of one's own; to give more Christian and dogmatic matter; to introduce the youth rather more into the historical development of the social orders and classes than into the history of the world; and to find one's own account in the execution. For each of these tendencies, respectable voices have been heard.

18. *What is to be thought of these tendencies?*

It is a pedagogical mistake to do too many things at once. The teacher of history must abstain from teaching at the same time catechism and natural sciences; they do not belong to history. Further, the hymn book can not be considered as a suitable guide for instruction in national history, to say nothing of the obscure origin of many songs in it. To interweave many sayings of a celebrated man, even to make it sometimes the centre of the narration, may be quite suitable. It may be very effective to celebrate a great hero or event of history, besides elevating and improving description by a good song also. But, more important is it to simplify, and to enter deeply into the chief points, and therewith to nourish earnestly a patriotic and religious sense,—which may, no doubt, be much aided by good national "*Charakterbilder*." A prominent regard for the orders of society is not only difficult but even not without danger. To have better care than hitherto of the progress of civilization, and to avoid subjective tendencies, particularly in modern history, will be approved by all sensible persons.

19. *How far is geography to be cared for in teaching history?*

Up to the present time, all attempts to combine, after a definite plan, all historical with all geographical instruction, have nearly failed. The common way in which it is done now, is either to premise to the history of the various nations and states the related geographical matter, or occasionally to insert it in fragments. In this way, of course, geography has not its degree; because for many geographical objects there are no points of reference and connection. Further, it would be necessary to explain at every time only the corresponding geography of that period, so that a comparison with the geography of the present time would be needed,—a necessity that has always great difficulties for young people. The plan by which certain geographical sections alternate with historical ones, (the former analytically, the latter chronologically,) no one would consider as a praiseworthy combination. In whatever way it is done, it is indispensable to make the geographical

field of history as clear as possible. Instruction in history can neither be tied to a specific plan of teaching geography, nor can it aim at an appropriate and complete finishing of the latter. The same is true vice versa.

20. *What is the value of historical poetry in teaching history?*

So far as historical poetry keeps within the sanctuary of truth, its artistical glorification of characters and deeds is unquestionably of high value, and the appropriate use of it can not be too much recommended. But, as soon as it leaves truth, and idealizes, poetically, the historical persons and their exploits, it is no longer of importance for instruction, even if the poems be of great poetical value.

21. *Why are the historical dates so valuable?*

It may be asserted, without hesitation, that, without fixing the dates, instruction and a ready knowledge of history is impossible. As long as the pupil is not yet conscious of the distinction of time in its practical worth, the general outlines of the historical event may be sufficient; but, as soon as that consciousness is awake, the event and person must be connected with the date, in order that the former may be better remembered, better understood in its position of time, and better distinguished from related phenomena. The dates are the most simple monitors of memory, and can never be entirely omitted, though they ought to be limited for children, and sometimes to be made round numbers, for the sake of memory. They help to regulate the material in the easiest way, and join the natural development of events; nay, a sensible arrangement of them often aids the understanding of related events better than long expositions could do.

22. *What is the didactic value of good historical pictures, maps and tables?*

In teaching, very much depends on making history intuitive and lively. It is, therefore, desirable to aid the oral address by appropriate means. Such as historical pictures and tableaux, since they represent often the historical action more clearly in one moment than the most copious description by words. Of course, they must be true and of artistical worth. Historical maps aid best the perception of the geographical extent of a historical transaction, and often afford the most natural representation of its results upon the position of nations and states to one another on the globe. Tables facilitate both a short review of the chief events in chronological and synchronistical order, and a firmer impression on the memory, by bringing to view the rise, fusion, separation, and falling of nations, etc. Also they can best represent, in side columns, the different movements of development at the same time in state, church, science, and art.

23. *In what respects does private reading further historical knowledge?*

Since it is impossible to treat in school every thing desirable for youth, it is very important that appropriate reading in private should assist to complete the historical knowledge. It is indispensable for a more detailed familiarity with the chief characters and events of the world of the country. Fortunately, the desire to read history is as natural as it is common among youth; and, even to a more advanced age, there is no better occupation, in leisure time, than historical reading.

The Monetary Crisis.

The *English Journal of Education*, alluding to the present monetary crisis, suggests the following important consideration in connection therewith:—

“Is the present system of home-training calculated to prepare our young people for the real, practical life that lies before them? If children are not taught when young to dress, and wait upon themselves; to use the needle for useful purposes; to be neat and orderly, not only in their own little affairs, but in all that concerns the general comfort of the household, it will be no easy matter to form such habits afterwards. This difficulty is increased if daughters are sent early from home to be educated. The conscientious teacher knows that it is the intellectual and moral training of the young lady to which she is expected to attend; and that the progress made in important studies and elegant accomplishments, and in the formation of ladylike manners and an amiable disposition, will be carefully watched by the anxious parents. But the teacher knows full well, that in the majority of cases, it would give great offence both to parents and children, were she to attempt practically to instruct them in those lighter domestic duties, on the performance of which so much of the happiness and brightness of home depends. It is quite as much as she can venture upon to ask a young lady to group a few flowers—she must know well the character of her pupil

before she can request her to dust the vases in which they are to be arranged. But there are sensible mothers who are constantly striving to combat the natural tendency of young people to love ease and pleasure in preference to useful occupation, and an improving course of study. All honor be to them who thus labor, and may that labor be crowned with the Divine blessing.

LITERATURE.

POETRY.

THE CAPTIVE GIRL.

(From the French of André Chénier, by J. McGrigor Allan.)

“L'épi naissant mûrit, de la faux respecté.”

“The corn may grow until in ear,
The grape all summer without fear
Of wine-press drinks the dawn;
While I, in youth and beauty's bloom,
Though present days are full of gloom,
Would still extend my span.

“Let Stoics dry-eyed welcome death;
Weeping, I hope; to the rude breath
I bow, and it is past.
If life hath sorrows, it hath joys—
Where is the sweet that never cloy?
The sea not tempest-tossed?”

“My bosom, held in Fancy's chain,
Rude prison wall may frown in vain,
Hope lends to me her wing;
'Scap'd from the fowler's net away,
The nightingale to realms of day
More cheerfully doth spring.

“And shall I die?—who tranquil sleep—
Who no painful vigils keep—
To no remorse a prey;
Whose welcome makes my comrades glad,
Who can impart to faces sad
Of happiness a ray.

“Life's end is surely far away—
A pilgrim in my first essay,
Its earliest steps but traced;
And at the feast, an unpledged guest,
My eager lips have barely pressed
The cup I long to taste.

“'Tis but my spring—let autumn come—
In all my seasons let me bloom,
Ere like the sun I set;
The garden's pride, a brilliant flower,
I have but known my dawning hour.
I would my day complete.

“O, Death, delay—oh take thy flight
To heavy hearts which shame affright,
And pale despair devour;
For me some oses remain—
Love's kisses—music's sweet refrain—
Ere yet my dying hour.”

Thus sad and captive does my lyre
Awake the chords these griefs inspire—
The Captive Girl's sad prayer;
My own sad days seem not so long
While rendering in the words of song
The plaint of one so fair.

Go, then, sweet proofs, from prison go—
Wake in some breast a wish to know
Who was the beauteous maid,
Who, fair and eloquent, could tell
The throbs which captive bosoms swell—
Of early death—the dread.

The electric telegraph.

From the earliest times, men have known how to communicate with those living at a distance, especially in times of urgency, by means of the fire-signal. When, however, from hill to hill, over a whole landscape the beacon flames arose, these signals could communicate no very definite information. It could only be learned that some great event had occurred. Vastly more useful, therefore, were the telegraphs, which most of us may have seen, and which by varying the positions of their arms represented letters, syllables, and whole words, and so rendered a regular conversation possible between individuals separated by a hostile army, or other insurmountable obstruction. Still the language, which these telegraphs exchanged with one another from one tower, or steeple, to another, before the eyes of the enemy, or thousands of the curious, depended upon an agreement between those, who had to converse by these means; to them alone was it intelligible. Others, who lacked the key, could only guess at the meaning of the quickly changing positions of the machine.

These common telegraphs came first into use in Spain and France. The first telegraphic post was made (by M. Chappe,) from Paris to Lille, a distance of 30 miles, and consisted of 12 telegraphs. The erection of this line of telegraphs was soon followed by many others, in and out of France. The advantage which they afforded for the speedy transmission of intelligence was unquestionable. The conquest of Quesnay was by this means made known in an hour's time in Paris. By the present, greatly improved construction of the telegraph, only half that time would be required to convey intelligence over the same distance. At night telegraphic communications are made by illuminating the apparatus, or by a preconceived disposition of lights. It is apparent, however, how often the state of the weather must interrupt such operations, and how easily a blunder at one of the stations, might occasion mistake.

Of a quite different character are the telegraphs, of which we now propose to speak. By their means it is apparently impossible has been made easy. Two persons, living fifty, or indeed hundreds of miles apart, may now communicate their thoughts in words, not, as in the case of the ordinary telegraph, in the space of an hour, or a half hour, but instantly, as if they were seated at the same table. And could a connection by copper wire be established between St. Petersburg and Pekin, and the loss of power, which the electric fluid would sustain in such a space, be avoided, then might a person in the capital of China receive intelligence from Russia in 1½ sec., and even the man in the moon, if our electric fluid could be carried hither, would hear from the earth in the space of a second, for the transmission of thought by the method is swifter than light. The electric fluid travels in this way about 288,000 miles in a second, a ray of light only 192,000 miles. But in addition to this all-surpassing speed, such a mode of communication has quite other advantages over the ordinary telegraph. That which is communicated to a distant point, is not seen by thousands of eyes, but only at the destined place does it make itself known. The course which the word, thus expressed, takes in the invisible form of an electric discharge, is hidden under the earth, or inclosed in the metal of the wire, passing high over the roofs of cities. But when it reaches its goal it announces itself, not only to the eye by the common telegraphic sign, but also to the ear. He, with whom another communicates in the still, midnight hour, sits perhaps sunk in thought at his desk, or has fallen asleep—the sound of a little bell arouses him; he listens, the sounds now of a lower, then of a higher, toned bell are repeated, the number of bell strokes, and the difference of the sounds have meaning; first a deep sound, then quickly succeeding, a higher, and then again a low note, represent an A; a low note succeeded by two high notes and again a low note signifies B; a low note, followed by no high note, and a high note followed by no low note signify, the first E, the last J; three low notes, following one upon the other, stand for D. Thus, by the number and variety of sounds, every letter of the alphabet is expressed. Between the letters occurs a short pause, between the words the interval is longer. Thus rapidly, as an intelligent child may make out words by spelling, does it become possible by practice to understand the language of bells.

But suppose that the person to whom the distant intelligence comes, is not awakened by the first stroke of the bell, and has lost the first part, or the whole even, of what is thus communicated. Still the loss is not irreparable. He finds, upon approaching the table, at which his magical telegraph is arranged, that everything, which he had failed to hear, is set down there in visible characters. He finds a letter, written not indeed in ordinary characters, but in points, the peculiar position of which, (corresponding to the different notes of the bell,) and their combination represent alphabetical

signs, marked, like the sounds, with regularly occurring intervals between the letters and the words.

It is hardly necessary to remark that this mode of communication is in a much greater degree than the ordinary telegraph, independent of the state of the weather. There is indeed yet more in the power of the individual who thus communicates his thoughts. By different wires, connections may be formed with various points, of which one may be only 2 miles, another 5, a third 8 miles distant towards the east, and still others may lie towards the south, or the west. A communication may be made to one living 5 miles to the eastward, which concerns neither those at 2 or 8 miles distance, nor those at the south or west. It is only necessary to keep up the connection with the desired point, while the connection is suspended with all the other points, and the design is accomplished; just as an individual may personally visit another friend in his chamber, and hold with him there a confidential conversation, of which no one else, far or near, has any knowledge, so may he, who speaks through the electric current, direct his speech to an individual 5 miles off, and at all other points connected with the station not a bell shall sound, or a mark be made on the paper.

It will be asked, how and where such a many-sided contrivance has been arranged? It has been completely achieved by C. A. v. Steinheil, in Munich, whose ingenious telegraphic apparatus has commanded the admiration of friends and stranger. The means, by which the telegraph is set at work, and kept going, is very simple, but at the same time extraordinarily powerful. It is based entirely upon the diversion of a magnetic needle or rod from the direction which it takes from the magnetism of the earth, by being subjected to the influence of the electro-magnetic action of a coil of copper wire. The movement varies according to the direction in which the current passes, in the one case the motion is from left to right, in the other from right to left; and this motion is quicker and stronger, the more powerful the current. When the current from the point where its discharge terminates, has run through a longer or shorter space, it sets the ends of the little magnetic rod oscillating quickly and powerfully towards one or the other direction, and the ends of the magnet strike on little bells of glass or metal, and thus produce a perceptible sound, and motion is also given to a little vessel, filled with ink, and terminating in a little tube-shaped beak. Through the attraction of the sides of this little tube a small drop of the coloured fluid, or ink, presses continually toward the mouth of the tube. A strip of paper, ruled with lines to distinguish the higher and lower tones, is attached to the apparatus, and by means of clock work, in constant motion, rolled off one cylinder and on to another, the paper coming in contact with the motion of the little marking instrument, fastened at the end of the magnet rod, in such a way that the rod, whose moving end projects beyond the rim of the apparatus, makes a black mark upon the paper, according to the direction and place of the motion, now higher and now lower.

Upon the same principles in general are the telegraphs constructed which connect London with Windsor and Southampton, rendering instantaneous communication between those places possible. In order to send a current from one place to another, one wire only is necessary, if the wire be connected with the ground at its terminations. Along a line of railroad, the iron rails may be used instead of the ground. For the current, which passes along the wire, will return by the ground or iron rails, which are good conductors.

In such phenomena as the motion of the electric fluid and of light, which the mind of man has taken into his service and learned to use at will, we have a type of the difference between the action of the mind and the body. Electricity and Light, although possessing power to penetrate space to an extent almost immeasurable, are indeed both material agents, and yet, distance and time are almost annihilated by them; the connection they establish, although by the material means of a metallic conductor, is miraculously direct and intimate. But what must that uniting attraction of souls be, which requires no corporeal medium, but darts instantaneously through an all-uniting spiritual element from one disembodied spirit to another! Even now the director of an electric telegraph, although confined by the burthen of a body to a certain spot, is able at pleasure to converse with a distant friend, and be present with him in thought and will. What will not be possible when this confinement to the conditions of our planet shall fall away!—*Manual of Science, Schubert.*

The Moon and its Light.

The consideration of the warming property of the sun's light leads us to that of the non-warming quality of that luminary which, next to the sun, is the most important to our planet. Along with the apparent revolutions of the sun, the course and place of the moon

afford the inhabitants of the earth the means of dividing and determining time. The long enduring darkness of the polar zone, in winter, is, in some degree, alleviated by the steady shining of the moon; and with us also, and even in the most highly favoured climate of the warmer zones, the mild light of the moon gives to the night a special charm. In those lands, whose skies, almost always clear, are much more transparent than ours, the moonlight is so bright that we may read by it without difficulty. Yet it is calculated, and, by direct admeasurement of the strength of the light, ascertained, that the light of the moon is 800,000 times weaker than that of the sun. The light of the moon is only the reflection of the sun's light, which must certainly find upon the moon's surface a substance highly capable of reflection, for the moon's light is like the brightness of a snowy mountain-top, or glacier seen from a distance.

If the surface of the moon were of a whitish stone similar to our limestone, one would think that we here on the earth must feel something of the heat of the sun's reflected light. But the moonlight communicates no perceptible heat to the earth, and even a thermometer, placed in the focus of the most powerful burning glass or reflecting mirror, shows no measurable increase of heat. One might, indeed, almost be inclined to attach weight to certain, as yet indeed only isolated observations of Lichtenberg's, and consider the moon a cold-diffusing body. When this celebrated philosopher observed with special attention the average temperature of those days on which our earth in the path of its orbit occupied the exact place where the moon had been a few hours before, he found that once (in June) it was a time of unusual cold, and another time, in autumn, that the weather was very stormy. Nevertheless, since the use of such instruments for the measuring of heat as have been described in the chapter on the importance of heat to magnetism and electricity, it has been ascertained that the light of the moon is not wholly without the power of producing heat.

The light of the moon, as well as that of the sun, may be separated in a similar way into the colours of the rainbow, although the colours are a great deal weaker; the pale, scarcely distinguishable red and the violet of the lunar rainbow and of the spectrum, cast by the prism, are as little capable of chemical influence, as of producing heat.

The whole character of the moon, so far as the telescope brings us acquainted with it, gives us no great idea either of its heat or of its power to communicate the same. On our earth, water discharges the beneficent office of equalizing the extremes of temperature; the warmer currents flowing towards the northern hemisphere from the south and southwest, and at the north, from the north and northwest, carry a portion of their heat to regions remote from the equator; and at the same time the heat of the tropics is moderated by the currents of cool air from the colder zones. What a useful covering our atmosphere forms for our planet, so that it does not lose by radiation the heat received from the sun, is seen from the cold, prevailing at those heights where the air is rare, and by the cold of those nights in the winter and early spring when the sky is cloudless, and no warm air-current from the south prevents the temperature's falling. In enumerating the advantages which our fair earth has over the moon, if we wish to go any further, we may note the no inconsiderable fact, that, with the exception of the polar zones, in all climates, in the short space of 24 hours, the sun rises and sets once, once midnight alternates with midday, and the inhabitants of the temperate zones, the most numerous among the denizens of the earth, and the most vigorous in body and mind, experience every year the wholesome influence of the changes of the seasons.

What a quite different lot, in these respects, is appointed to the companion of our earth, the moon! There, there is neither sea nor wind, no morning nor evening red, but according to our measure of time, every month has a summer of 14 days, when the sun, mounting to the zenith of the equator, or descending to the lower position at the polar regions, neither rise nor sets once, and then follows just as long as a winter night. Were there upon the moon an ocean or a sea of the size of one of our inland seas, it would have been distinguished by the telescope, but though art has multiplied the power of our vision a thousand fold, nothing meets the eye in the moon but a mass of heights and depths, mountains rising high above the measure of our Alps and Cordilleras, and abyssal cavities, so broad and deep that a Mount Blanc or Chimborasso would hardly suffice to fill them. Not only is there no sea, not a drop of water exists on the moon. If a single stream flowed there, or if springs gushed from the declivities of mountains, as with us, then here and there those fearful caverns would have been filled; water, if it existed there, or even the snow, would have risen in vapour under the influence of the sun, and formed an atmosphere round the moon, which, although it originated on the other side of the moon, would

immediately, by the law of gravity, be diffused over all parts of the surface of the moon. Such an atmosphere would be visible to us through the telescope, not only by its changes arising from changes of temperature, but also by other consequences of the refraction of light; were there any kind of atmosphere, like ours, there would be at least a brief twilight; but the latest observations have discovered nothing of the kind. The idea of a very rare atmosphere around the moon, lacks confirmation. The poor moon, in a higher degree almost, than a mountain 8 or 9 miles high on the earth would be, is exposed without protection to the sun's rays during its long day, and to the escape of the heat during its equally long night.

The heavens as seen from the moon are of course clear enough, never overcast by cloud or mist, no storms rage there, but one day is like another—and what profound silence reigns there on that little neighbouring world!

Aye indeed, a stillness like that of the grave, the deep, unbroken stillness of nature. There no bird sings, no flute, nor organ nor Æolian harp sounds; air is wanting for music as for breathing. When in ascending a lofty mountain, or in mounting in a balloon, we reach a region, in which there is still air, but very much rarefied, the strongest tone of the human voice sounds like a faint, muffled noise; even the discharge of a musket is inaudible at the distance of a few hundred feet. But where there is no atmosphere whatever, the fall of a mountain could be perceived only by the shaking of the solid ground; the corpse, buried deep in the grave, would be more sensible of it than the erect, living man. And with the ear, the eye also, and all the senses, were they like ours, would suffer the consequences of the absence of air, for without air there would be no flame here on the earth, without oxygen gas and its access to the oxydisable metals, or to a combustible element, there would be no green of the plant or the emerald, no red on the cheek or of the ruby, no decorative colours of the blossoms or insects, indeed, with few exceptions, no coloured stone. If water and air were withdrawn, our earth would have neither animals nor plants, nor even a particle of mould, in which the seed might germinate and unfold; the mountains would not indeed crumble by the action of air or water, but naked or dry they would, like a bleached skeleton, reflect the sunlight.

But we may spare ourselves the vain endeavour of portraying the moon in the colours which our human understanding furnishes us with. These colours are like those which we let fall through a prism upon a heap of baker's flour. In the light of these colours the wholesome flour appears as a strange mass of red, yellow, blue and violet dust, whose conversion into bread would be beyond the scope of our imagination. We lay aside the prism and lo! the brightly coloured dust is nothing but a well known, useful meal. Our human judgment separates the light of knowledge that falls within the circle of its comprehension, into the coloured rays of its own sensuous experience; and those colours do as little belong to the real nature of the objects which we contemplate as the colouring thrown by the prism on the flour. Before the investigation of travellers had disclosed it, who could have surmised the existence of that unmeasurable fulness of animalcula rejoicing in life in the icy masses and the never-melting snow of the polar region? Although we can conjecture but little, and know with certainty still less of the moon, one thing we know that heavenly body, with all that is thereon and therein, is made the care of the same creative power which everywhere generates motion and vital activity, because it is itself life. That there on the white, field of death, as it appears of the moon's surface, transformations and vicissitudes of decay and birth are going on, seems to be the case even from some observations of science. But to what purposes and for whom those cavernous depths, so frightful to our eyes, are there, by which the surface of the moon is broken; upon what beings falls the blinding brilliancy of the sun, and the pale ash-gray light, that comes from the huge disk of the earth, standing immovable in one place in the moon's sky—these things, so long as we are bound to this terrestrial world, we can never know.—*Id.*

OFFICIAL NOTICES.



ERECTION OF SCHOOL MUNICIPALITIES.

His Excellency, the Governor General, has been pleased: 1o. To erect into a separate school municipality, the township of Messy, in the county of Chicoutimi, as comprised within its present boundaries.

20. To dismember from St. Norbert d'Arthabaska, school district No. 2 of that municipality, and to annex the same to district No. 4 of the school municipality of Stanfold in the same county, these two districts, forming the extremities of each of the two parishes of St. Norbert and Stanfold.

30. To separate the townships of Aston and Horton, in the county of Arthabaska and to erect them into two separate school municipalities, excluding however therefrom, that portion of the township of Aston forming part of the school municipality of St. Pierre Célestin; both retaining their respective limits, with the exception of the above mentioned portion of the said township of Aston.

40. To dismember from the school municipality of St. Jérôme No. 1, and to annex the same to the school municipality of St. Jérôme No. 4, the lands of Charles Gau, Thomas Gagnon, Jean Baptiste Lacasse, Joseph Lamoireux, Michel Forgette, Hyacinthe Charbonneau, Moïse Genette, Edouard Gougeon, Norbert Touchette, Lévi Paquette, Z. Joseph Lamoureux and François Desjardins.

50. To annex to the municipality of l'Ange-Gardien, in the county of Rouville, for school purposes, that portion of the Range Rosalie, in the parish of St. Casaire, and now annexed, for ecclesiastical purposes, to the said parish of l'Ange-Gardien, to wit: a certain tract of land, containing about twenty one arpents in front by two miles in depth, situated in the East part of the said Range Rosalie, bounded as follows, to wit: to the North, by the line separating the Range Rosalie from the Range Labarthe, to the East and to the South, by the said parish of l'Ange-Gardien, to the West partly by the line separating the property of Louis Dionne from that of Antoine Ménard, and partly by the line separating the property of David Ménard from that of Alexis Sansfaçon.

NOTICE TO SECRETARY-TREASURERS OF SCHOOL MUNICIPALITIES.

The attention of Secretary-Treasurers is particularly called to the census of children of from five to sixteen years of age in each school municipality, which should be made during the month of September, and must be transmitted to the Office of this Department on or before the tenth day of October next at the latest.

The irregular and defective manner in which the census was made in 1856 and 1857, caused great delay in the publication of the annual report of the Superintendent of Education. Secretary-Treasurers whose reports shall not have been transmitted within the specified time, or who shall have made their census negligently and in a manner evidently irregular and incomplete, are hereby notified that this Department will insist upon their immediate dismissal from office.

All children of parents residing within the municipality of from five to sixteen years of age, must be counted in the census, not only as children in the municipality, but also as children attending school; but after having been comprised in the total, they must be divided under the following separate heads: 10. Those belonging to the municipality attending institutions for Superior Education within the municipality, receiving Government aid. 20. Those attending independent schools within the municipality. 30. Those attending institutions for Superior Education, situated out of the municipality, receiving Government aid. 40. Those attending independent schools out of the municipality. Children whose parents reside without the limits of the municipality, but who attend school within the municipality, are in no wise to be included in the census.

For the purpose of obtaining this information, four columns have been added to the blank form of report. These blanks are now being distributed, and all Secretary-Treasurers who may not have received them within eight days from this date, should apply for them at this Office.

By order of the Superintendent,

LOUIS GIARD, Secretary.

Montreal, 1st September 1858.

CATHOLIC BOARD OF EXAMINERS FOR THE DISTRICT OF MONTREAL.

Messrs. Jérôme Isaac Derome and Olivier Dagenais, have obtained diplomas authorising them to teach in model schools.

Messrs. Edouard Lécuyer, Joseph Casgrain, Joseph Hubert Paquet, Charles J. B. Marcotte, Louis Hilaire Dupuis, Séverin Pepin, Joseph Beauchemin, Thomas Riendeau, Romuald Lévi Fortin, Cyrille Lefebvre, Joseph Lécuyer, Joseph Duquet; Misses Philomène Cadieux, Philomène Charbonneau, Henriette Marson, Philomène Vézina, Alphonsine Boire, Marie Mathilde Picard, Geneviève Gilbert dite Comtois; Mesdames Cyrille Proulx, Marcien Trottière, Eulalie Plarondon, Michel Martin, Jean Gervais; Misses Philomène Dairgny, Malvina Séguin, Delphine Tarte, Céline Leclere, Thersie Dalje, Marie Louise Arpin, Julie Arpin, Virginie Roy, Julienne Laporte, Marceline Paré, Adéline Meloche, Evelina Masse, Marie Mathilde Morelle, Victoire Limoges, Mathilde Mercier, Céline Limoges, Phélonise Lussier, Césaire Lefebvre, Céline Mathieu, Geneviève Pailin, Marie Lyle, Sophie Abraham Courville, Rose Edouard Hébert, Elizabeth Lemire dite Marzolois, Céline Tailleur, Marie Anne Lecault, Clémence Benoit, Philomène Christian, Adéline Beaudouin, Isilda Beaudry, Elizabeth Tellier, Emélie Tessier, Oksine Bissonnet, Nathalie Charlebois, Marie Fontaine, Messrs. John McAfee, Jérôme Robillard, Théophile Beaugard, Auguste Hébert and Miss Rosalie Leclere, have obtained diplomas authorising them to teach in elementary schools.

F. X. VALADE, Secretary.

CATHOLIC BOARD OF EXAMINERS FOR THE DISTRICT OF QUEBEC.

Mr. Louis Michel Amouron has obtained a diploma authorising him to teach in academical schools.

Misses Marie Adélaïde Bergeron, Rosalie Matte, Honoria Kenny, Henriette Bergeron, Judith Farley and Mrs. Adélaïde Paré, have obtained diplomas authorising them to teach in elementary schools.

C. DELAGRAVE, Secretary.

BOARD OF EXAMINERS FOR THE DISTRICT OF THREE-RIVERS.

Miss Marguerite Eutichiane Lavergne has obtained a diploma authorising her to teach in model schools.

Misses Jessie Carpenter, Emily Colette, Eleona Maria Leonard, Philomène Lessard, Léocadie Plante, Eulalie Vallée, Marie Caroline Agnes Bellefeuille and Agathe Rapin, have obtained diplomas authorising them to teach in elementary schools.

J. HEBERT, Secretary.

BOARD OF EXAMINERS FOR THE DISTRICT OF SHERBROOKE.

Miss Jane Amélie Dook and Mrs. Maria Alger Rodgers, have obtained diplomas authorising them to teach in model schools.

Misses Ellen C. Hurd, Candace C. Bailey, Malvina Hitchcock, Christine Stone, Helen S. Ryther, Jane L. E. Doherty, Louisa M. Cross, Emily M. Martin, Irene J. Pierce, Sylvia A. Glidden, Malvina Sawyer, Maria Sawyer, Margaret Carr, Susan M. Gilbert, Jane Wilford, Harriet O'Connor, Harriet Jane Ball, Catherine Gill, Ruth Alger, and Mr. George W. Pope, have obtained diplomas authorising them to teach in elementary schools.

S. A. HUND, Secretary.

DONATIONS TO THE LIBRARY OF THE DEPARTMENT.

The Superintendent acknowledges with thanks the receipt of the following donations to the library of the Department:

From the Minister of Public Instruction, &c., Paris, France: "Instructions sur l'Architecture Monastique," by Alb. Lenoir, 2 vols in 4to; "Négociations de la France dans le Levant," by M. Charrière, 3 vols in 4to; "Mémoires de Claude Haton," by Mr. Bourquelet, 2 vols in 4to; "Histoire du Tiers-Etat en France," by Mr. Aug. Thierry, 3 vols in 4to; "Privilèges accordés par le Saint-Siège à la Couronne de France," by Mr. Tardif, 1 vol in 4to; "l'Éclaircissement de la Langue Française de Maître Jehan Palustrac," by M. Génin, 1 vol in 4to; "Lettres et Papiers d'Etat du Cardinal de Richelieu," by Mr. Avenel, 2 vols in 4to; "Iconographie Chrétienne," par Mr. Didron, 1 vol in 4to; "Correspondance administrative sous Louis XIV," by G. B. Depping, 4 vols in 4to.

From Mr. J. B. Rolland, stationer, Montreal: "Le Drapeau de Carillon," words by M. Octave Crémazie, music by Mr. Chs. W. Sabatier; "L'Alouette," words and music by same authors; "Nouvelle Arithmétique," 1 vol in 180.

From Revd. Mr. Bois, Curé of Maskinongé: 1 Engraving representing the College of Nicolet.

From A. de Lusignan, Esq., of the Department of Education: "Le Roman de Brut, 1 vol in 80.

LIBRARY OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

All persons having books in their possession, belonging to this library, will please return them at as early a date as possible. It being intended to prepare a detailed and classified catalogue, the library will be closed until it is completed.

J. LENOIR,
Librarian.

SITUATIONS AS TEACHERS WANTED.

Mr. Charles James Powell, of Paris, France, holding the diploma of *Bachelier es-Lettres*, and several other certificates of aptitude, will undertake to teach French, English, Latin, drawing, landscape and linear drawing. Mr. Powell will obtain a diploma permitting him to teach in Lower Canada, at the next meeting of the Board of Examiners in September next.

Mr. John McManus, provided with a diploma for elementary schools, is desirous of obtaining a situation as teacher in a school of that class. Address: Mr. John McManus, teacher, Hemmingford.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

MONTREAL, (LOWER CANADA) AUGUST, 1858.

Superannuated Teachers Pension Fund.

The attention of school teachers is particularly directed to the notice published in our last number, relative to the pension fund, which we republish in this issue.

At the request of the Teachers' Association in connexion with the Laval Normal School, the Government has been pleased to prolong the delay granted for inscription in the Register of the pension fund, until the first day of January next, subject however to the condition of paying the premium for the two years, 1857 and 1858; as otherwise an act of great injustice would be done to those teachers who have strictly conformed to the regulations originally made and approved. It will still be optional for the teachers either to pay the premium for the other years previously passed in teaching, at the time of their inscription or of having the amount deducted from the first year's pension to become payable to them. We take this opportunity of correcting an error which seems to be gaining ground among teachers; this is, that, because pensions are paid to superannuated teachers who retired from teaching before the institution of the fund and the passing of the regulations, they can likewise retire from teaching and obtain a pension without having previously subscribed their names as contributors to the pension fund. Many applications of this kind have been made, and necessarily rejected; for it can easily be conceived, that if such demands were received, no person would subscribe to the fund. It is absolutely requisite that the premium should have been paid by the teachers previous to retirement; and the exception in favor of old and retired teachers was only made, because it was naturally impossible for them to subscribe to the fund previous to its existence.

All teachers whose names are inscribed on the Register and whose premium for the present year shall not have been paid before the first of January next, will be struck off the list and the amount of premium paid by them for 1857 will be confiscated. Teachers will do well to bear this in mind.

We publish in this number a statement of pensions granted for the year 1858. These do not reach the maximum originally intended, because the Government grant, the premiums subscribed and the interest, united, would not permit of the granting a larger sum than the one distributed.

Report of the Chief Superintendent of Public Instruction for Lower Canada for 1856.

(Continued from our last.)

Mr. Inspector Lanctot has been entrusted (and he is not the only one,) with the supervision of a district far too extensive to admit of his devoting as much of his time and attention to its superintendance, (as he himself states,) he considers desirable and necessary. His district of inspection comprises the counties of Laprairie, Napierville and Beauharnois, together with portions of those of St. Jean and Iberville. According to the last census (in 1851,) the population of this district counted 55780 souls, and the extent of conceded lands amounted to 470,523 acres. Mr. Lanctot points out several important changes that have taken place within his district, especially the improvement in the condition of the school teachers from the gradual rise of their salaries. We subjoin a few of his remarks on the subject:

Out of the 154 male and female teachers, within my district of inspection, there is not one male teacher who had not received,

previous to his engagement, a diploma, or certificate of capacity from a Board of Examiners, and the female teachers generally speaking, have passed their examination before me. None of these 154 teachers therefore can be considered incompetent, although in some localities a little indulgence was required. But this necessary indulgence will disappear as the pecuniary resources of the Commissioners will admit of it, and this cannot be far distant if the liberality of the Legislature be continued.

One fact I particularly wish to bring under your notice, inasmuch as it proves most incontestably, the progress of education in this district.

Out of the twenty municipalities of which I have the inspection, fifteen have this year model schools, and two, academies; thus making seventeen superior schools within these twenty municipalities. With respect to the three others, one, St. Stanislas, is yet a new settlement, and has only one elementary school, the two others will, I trust, next year open a superior primary school.

I must however remark that St. Rémi, one of the three parishes referred to, is very backward; St. Rémi, the most prosperous among all the neighbouring municipalities and conspicuous for the general intelligence of its professional and commercial community, the center of a thickly populous district, at a short distance from the American frontier, has, in its village but one very ordinary elementary school attended by more than one hundred and twenty children.

The following salaries are paid to the teachers in these schools. At Laprairie the teacher receives £115 besides £45 paid to an assistant; at St. Cyprien £150 there are two female assistant teachers; at Chateauguay £60; at St. Michel Archange £60; at St. Edouard £95; at St. Jacques le Mineur £100; at St. Isidore £55; a female teacher also receives £40; at St. Louis de Gonzague the teacher receives £100 and the Commissioners pay besides £35 to a female teacher; the teacher at Ste. Martine receives £100, and so with the others in the same proportion. These salaries it is true, are not sufficiently remunerative for the services rendered by the greater number of the teachers, but when we consider the low salaries given only a few years since, caused by prejudice and antipathy to the working of the school laws, we have most certainly every reason to congratulate ourselves on the happy change which has taken place and to hope that a full and complete success, in the cause of Education is not far distant.

With respect to the education given in model and superior schools, it is true, that generally speaking, it is not so developed as it ought to be, and which, without doubt, will shortly be the case. The cause of this is that the children do not remain at these schools a sufficient length of time; and that the parents who do not as yet appreciate the advantages of a superior education, will not deprive themselves of the services of their children. This I believe to be the greatest drawback, one which, must in the meantime be met with untiring perseverance. It must however be remarked that some of these institutions are well attended and exhibit a program of studies as complete as can reasonably be expected. At the head of these institutions I must place the school established in the village of Beauharnois. It is conducted by the Sisters of the order of "Jesus Marie" which, although of recent date has already rendered inestimable service to the cause of education. Nothing can exceed the order, neatness and the interior arrangements of this establishment.

Beauharnois, besides, supports an academy for the education of boys, and it is without any exception, the municipality which has, within my knowledge, contributed the most towards the furtherance of superior education.

St. Thimothee, its neighbour however nobly endeavours to rival Beauharnois. This parish has also two establishments for superior education; the same zeal is exhibited by the ladies of the convent, and the same sacrifices of time and trouble by the Rev. M. Archambault in establishing these two institutions, the buildings belonging to which, could not have cost less than £2000. The model school for boys is in good working order but the girls school suffers a little from its proximity to Beauharnois as also from the geographical position of the two villages.

After these establishments I must point out the academy at Laprairie conducted by two teachers, the able Mr. O'Regan being the principal. An excellent commercial education is required at this school; the French and English languages are taught, as also among other branches of study, mental arithmetic, book-keeping, the elements of mathematics and astronomy, linear drawing, and mapping, &c. In this school several pupils were educated who, thanks to the zeal and talents of Mr. O'Regan now occupy prominent positions, in commercial affairs and also in public offices. I should also include in this list, the Model School at St. Con-

tant. The progress made by the pupils during the past year, deserves this honorable mention.

A marked improvement is also very evident in the qualifications of the male and female teachers in elementary schools; the establishment of model schools in the different villages, has had the effect of greatly increasing the number of female teachers; but, for elementary schools, if there be any difference in the qualifications of male or female teachers, I think the latter have the advantage. A competent female teacher can always be engaged at a salary of from £30 to £35; whereas, it is difficult to obtain the services of a male teacher for the same rate.

Our schools are now provided with maps, and I particularly insist upon the teaching of geography in all of them.

To give you an exact idea of the progress made in this district of inspection during the last twelve months, I submit the following statement, to prove the correctness of my assertion.

Year.....	Model School.	Advantages.	Pupils in these Schools.	Total No. of Pupils in all the schools.	Number of pupils reading well.	Learning compass-punctuation.	Learning book-keeping.	Learning English grammar.	Learning French grammar.	Learning the art of Letter Writing.	History & Agriculture.	Arithmetic.	Linear Drawing.	Musie.	
1876	15	2	1791	8731	1915	1123	118	400	1388	258	19	36	20	47	328
1855	10		576	7795	1567	870	67	294	1317	111		22	12	18	128
Differ. in favor 1856	5	2	1215	916	348	253	51	101	71	147	19	14	8	29	200

Mr. Maurault's district of Inspection is in many respects, of a totally different character, from the one entrusted to Mr. Lanctot. He has charge of that portion of the district of Three-Rivers situated south of the St. Lawrence, with the exception of some of the new establishments confided to Mr. Bourgeois. It is one of those parts of the country where the assessment as established by Law, and in fact all legislation for the advancement of public instruction met with the most decided opposition. His remarks on the present change, and the rapid and continued progress in education, which is now operating within his district, confirmed by all the returns and reports transmitted to the department, will therefore prove doubly interesting to our readers. He says that:

All the different parishes of any importance, rival each other in their zeal for the establishment of superior schools, and for the improvement of their elementary schools; and I can assure you, that if there be no abatement in their zeal, and that the commissioners continue to exhibit the same ardour for the advancement of education, the progress in a very short time will be very apparent. Several municipalities have had much difficulty in providing teachers competent to teach in their elementary schools, so seldom are they to be met with; still none of them have hesitated to submit to some little sacrifice to obtain them.

The last amendments in the school act, have contributed not a little in giving that spirit of advancement to the rate payers, as well as zeal and devotion to the teachers, who now readily accept situations in a profession which heretofore held forth no inducements to enter into it.

The parish of St. Michel still forms an exception as you know, although three schools have been established during the year. I am in hopes however that the efforts of some of the friends of education in this parish who are working hard to change the present order of things will be crowned with success, and that a new Era will soon open for St. Michel d'Yamaska. The parish of Ste. Monique is not altogether exempt from this reproach. A certain number of schools, it is true are in tolerable good order, but they are kept up with difficulty, and this will be the case as long as legal assessment does not take the place of voluntary contributions. I am of opinion that the stubbornness of the people who will remain behind the progress which they see every where around them, would be checked, were they to be threatened with the forfeiture of their share in the grant for the future.

It is also very desirable that the Commissioners should purchase books and everything else required, for the instruction of the children. I have seen in several schools very intelligent children,

deprived, through the negligence of their parents, of books, paper and every other requisite. Another cause of the little advancement made by the pupils, and at the same time, one which materially effects their health, is the bad construction of the school houses, on account of which many of the children cannot attend the school in winter, and those who attend punctually are frequently attacked with serious illness. The inspector should, for the sake of the pupils as well as for the teachers, have the power of closing school houses which do not possess all the requirements for the health of the scholars, and which have not all the school furniture and appliances requisite for properly carrying on the school, or, on his report of the want of all these requirements, the municipality thus complained against, should be deprived of its share of the grant.

Several municipalities furnish fuel, which is taken in the place of monthly fees. This mode of contribution, besides being less in value than the minimum amount of the monthly fee as exacted by law, is the source of many quarrels and difficulties between the rate payers and the teachers, inasmuch as all kind of wood is taken to the school house, and very frequently this is of a bad quality. The school municipalities should not be permitted to commute the obligation of paying the monthly fees, in this manner.

Little difficulties sometimes arise in certain municipalities either among the rate payers themselves or between the rate payers and the commissioners, but yet they were never of so serious a nature as to create any fear with respect to the prosperous future of all the municipalities within my district. These difficulties, so much to be regretted, in consequence of the bad feeling which they arouse in the public mind, but which proves nevertheless that they think of the advancement of Education generally, originate either in the nomination of a school-master who does not suit everyone, or with reference to the situation of the school house, which every one wants to have at his own door. Generally speaking, I must say that the commissioners and the rate payers work well together, and they all appear animated with the same desire to advance the great reform which is preparing for them; I would also remark that the secretary-treasurers, generally, strictly perform the duties of their office, and far from being an object of general distrust as heretofore, (for at their door, all the odious clauses in the school law were laid,) have now gained the confidence of the public.

The law has wisely provided for an increase in the emoluments of secretary-treasurers, which were much too low considering the various arduous duties they have to perform.

The remarks, which I have to make relative to each of the different municipalities in my district will I trust fully meet your expectations.

Mr. Maurault then passes in review the several municipalities situated within his district of Inspection, and the details by him given generally confirm the remarks above made.

Mr. Inspector Dorval, whose zeal, intelligence and activity has more than once called forth, not only from ourselves but from the public, a well merited tribute of praise, has also very cleverly compiled a statement exhibiting the statistics of his district and the result of his inspection in each municipality. We regret that the want of space will not permit us to republish this excellent table and statement of the present state of Education in the counties of L'Assomption, Berthier, Joliette and Montcalm, and we must therefore confine ourselves to the following general remarks.

The want of education in the country parts of this province, added to a feeling of self interest, which however natural, may be carried too far, are the principal reasons, for which parents should be obliged to pay a direct tax for the education of their children. Education became absolutely necessary,—but how awaken them from their state of intellectual lethargy? How bring them to look favorably upon a measure against which they had always been most unfavorably prepossessed? Money which everywhere represents the circumstances and position of every one, was the key; by enforcing a direct tax, the people became directly interested in the disposal of their money, and indirectly in the welfare and advancement of their schools. To all the arguments used to induce them to encourage education, some opponent was always found ready with the general answer, which was frequently very embarrassing: "My father was very rich, he did not know how to read; he was a church-warden, captain of militia, and even more, president of the

school commissioners, and he could not tell A from B." But now that this headstrong opponent is obliged to pay his assessment and monthly fees, he sends his children to school, notwithstanding his recollection of his father's want of education, not perhaps for the sake of gaining instruction, but merely that he may not spend money in vain; and further that he may not pay for others. Whatever may be his motive, his children nevertheless are taught, and as I have already remarked, the present generation once educated, every thing will go well, and we may even anticipate much zeal, because this zeal will become a determined desire to acquire knowledge and a just appreciation of its necessity. I have, Sir, herein before stated, that it would be difficult to curtail the powers now vested in the commissioners, and which I, with many other Inspectors, my colleagues, consider as too extensive. If, as several of them have remarked, the law exacted the proof of a certain competency at least, a knowledge of reading and writing as a condition of qualification for election to the several rural public offices, such as Mayor, Councillor, even Captain of Militia, and why not for Church-warden? It would be an indirect and almost imperceptible, but sure means of correcting the anomaly which exists in our law, that of intrusting the direction of a system of education to those who have none themselves, it would in fact be a species of normal school for school commissioners: and the necessity of such a measure is most apparent. The inclination felt in the country to hold these honorary offices would prove another impediment to the advancement of education. Good municipal administration, of which we stand so much in need, would benefit materially, and our system of agriculture would soon cease to be, what I much fear it will remain for some time yet, without popular education and notwithstanding its progress, a routine.

With many of the Governments of Europe ignorance is considered as an offence: why should we not follow their example; are we not in a position to declare that every one who remains ignorant, is so, through his own fault, and is therefore voluntarily culpable?

It is much to be regretted that when the fund for the erection of school houses was distributed, there was no uniform plan recommended to serve as a guide for the commissioners, ... their construction and distribution, much good would have resulted, particularly as regards the salubrity and comfort of the schools, wanting (with few exceptions) in all our school houses. My district of inspection will soon be provided with a sufficient number of schools to meet the wants of the population. Besides, it must not be imagined that the number of schools is at all a sure indication of progress; it is very frequently but an additional proof of the statement, I made above of the interest resulting from the direct payment of assessment, &c. "I must pay for a school.—Well, I wish to have one near my own door, and next year I will vote for a Commissioner who will promise me one."—It is for this reason that many parishes have too many schools for the amount of salaries they can afford to pay to competent teachers, and this number of schools, with badly paid teachers, is the cause of their never being above mediocrity. We have a sufficient number of schools, what we require now is, to render them more effective, and for this purpose, there is wanting:

Firstly. Uniformity in the school books.

Secondly. A uniform method of practical teaching, economising time.

Thirdly. Good, moral, competent and assiduous teachers, whose diplomas will state the particular class for which it was granted so as to assist the Commissioners in their selection of school teachers which they frequently are unable to do alone.

Fourthly. Regulations for the internal government of the schools.

Fifthly. The establishment of a program of studies, so that inconvenience arising from the great variety of which so much parade is made, in many of our schools, and in consequence of which no material progress is made in any one branch, may be obviated. On this last point, every thing yet remains in doubt, every branch, even the study of the language, is attempted to be rendered more complicated. I am convinced, that in our purely French country schools, the study of the English language, is a complete loss of time. This study should be confined to our Institutions for Superior Education in the same manner as the study of the French is in Upper Canada confined to the Grammar Schools. The climate of Lower Canada renders our position very different from that of other countries. Our agricultural labor is continual, and one kind of work follows another without interruption during the four seasons of the year, and at each of these seasons the scholar is required to take part in them; he has less time than in most other countries to devote to study, his time must be economised therefore, that is, that he give himself up solely to the acquirement of what is necessary. Whatever may be the motives which induce some parents in the

country parts to insist on their children, learning English in the elementary schools, I much fear, that we shall pay very dearly for this study. The reason is that frequently, hands are required to assist in the farm labor, and the children who are at school are obliged to be taken to replace their elder brothers who have left for the United States.

"The situation of Secretary-Treasurer in the country, is one of more importance than is generally believed; he is the factotum and the confidential and legal adviser of the School Commissioners. In many instances the good or bad working of the Educational Law depends entirely upon him. Unfortunately the appointment to this office is not made with all the circumspection that is necessary, especially since it has become more lucrative under the provisions of the last law, for it has in some instances been the cause of intrigue and favoritism not altogether consistent with the interest of the municipalities. To my knowledge, Secretary-Treasurers whose conduct had been irreproachable, have been dismissed without the slightest cause, for the purpose of giving the situation, and particularly the increased salary, to uneducated persons, to whom the law could never have contemplated that they would be given. Unfortunately with respect to this as to many other points, the Superintendent is not vested with sufficient power; he cannot re-instate the dismissed Secretary-Treasurer, and the only punishment to which he can condemn the Commissioners, is the forfeiture of their share in the grant, a punishment affecting the innocent as well as the guilty.

I find the Secretary-Treasurers' books of receipts and disbursements generally speaking, very badly kept. I have much difficulty in persuading them to procure bound books, instead of those without either cover or binding, the flying sheets of which have already been the cause of two suits of considerable moment within my district of inspection.

I must here refer to a mode of payment much used in some of the municipalities within my district. This is, *bons* or drafts for goods on merchants, which the teacher is obliged to pay. I could cite two or three cases which would incontestably prove that the teacher generally loses by this system of payment, a quarter or an eighth of his salary, of which the merchant derives the sole benefit; I abstain however from doing so, lest the parties should be recognized. As the Commissioners should always, previous to engaging teachers, count upon paying their salaries, not out of the probable but out of the fixed revenues of the municipality, if they do not collect them, the fault is theirs, and the teacher should in no wise be the sufferer. I would wish that when Commissioners have undertaken to pay on a certain day, that each payment should be punctually made, and that in default of so doing they should pay double interest. I would prefer this means even to their being paid by the Superintendent, for I think it would induce the Commissioners to collect their arrears more promptly.

The sketch which I have made above of the actual state of school affairs within my district is certainly not very consoling. But, Sir, I have only given the dark side of the question, I have said nothing of all the good that has been effected within its boundaries. This good has been achieved by the school Commissioners, the Secretary-Treasurers and other persons sufficiently disinterested in the ranks of patriotism and charity to stand in no need of my praise to encourage them in their good work. The little time I have at my disposal will not allow me to proceed farther with my remarks on this subject of abuses requiring a speedy reform. I cannot avoid seeing, that much is yet to be done, but, thanks to an all-wise Providence a new impulse appears to be given to the minds of the people, a desire for education and for progress in general, that should induce us to predict favorably for the cause of education.

My statistical tables (which I collected and made up with the utmost care) fully proves the increase of zeal, on the part of the people for education. Following my remarks on the state of the schools in the several municipalities, I have given a comparative statement of the last half-year, and there are few branches of study which do not show considerable increase. If all the officers of our intellectual army do not possess all the capacity or the talents they could or should have, we must wait a little longer, the ranks are filled with young and intelligent recruits, and under the Chief now at our head, we cannot fail to conquer, if the Legislature will only, instead of diminishing, increase its generous efforts in our favor.

Following his general remarks on the present state of Education within his district of Inspection, Mr. Dorval gives a brief sketch of each municipality separately. We request that our readers and more especially the school Commissioners within this district will read attentively Mr. Dorval's

report as they will be amply repaid for its perusal, by the general information it contains, as well as by the suggestions it offers for the better government of school municipalities.

Mr. Tanguay, who was formerly a teacher, and whose articles on Education have been read with much interest, has the charge of a very extensive district, comprising the populous counties of Kamouraska, Temiscouata and Rimouski, situated on the south side of the St. Lawrence, below Quebec.

The progress made in this district, compared with other localities of much older date, is truly remarkable, and its present state of advancement is principally to be attributed to the zeal and unabated attention given by Mr. Tanguay to the arduous duties of his office.

This gentleman has also given a short account of the state of Education in each of the municipalities under his Inspection, and we regret that we have not space to give his report in full; we must therefore confine ourselves to his general remarks on the progress made within his district of Inspection.

In the district of Kamouraska I have observed a certain degree of progress, but one of a nature still so remote from what I would wish to see realized, that I am perhaps liable to underrate what has been gained so far. I must also remark the many painful considerations that obstruct our path. Grave obstacles to be removed, reforms to be effected, gross prejudices to be overcome. Then there are so few friends heartily devoted to the cause. Added to this, the slenderness of our pecuniary resources, and to crown everything the irresolution of those who, if but assuming a bold stand, might more effectually than all else, still prejudice and silence ignorance. A great number of our instructors of youth are young females well qualified of course, and no doubt possessed of the best intentions but, too weak to contend with those difficulties that will sometimes arise between the teacher; and obstreperous scholars, particularly when these are the children of parents who join prejudice to ignorance and are therefore supported by these against the teacher; many gains the whole school, who soon rebel, discipline entirely disappears and the poor teacher unsupported even by the rightful authorities, uses all energy and becomes totally discouraged and strange to say, the guilty parties are most often the first to complain of the disorder, they, themselves have created.

In the above brief recapitulation, lies the true history of the unsuccess and disappointment of many an able and skilful teacher.

Education progresses slowly even where these acts of insubordination have no existence but on the other hand the fault greatly lies in the irregularity with which the children are made to attend school particularly, at the very age in which they would most benefit by the lessons of a master.

With myself I have no doubt that you will be greatly disappointed to note in my review the great number of schools in each municipality which I have set down as unprovided with the necessary desks, books, black-boards, &c.

The smallness of the school-houses is in many cases a source of very great inconvenience not only as regards the classing of the pupils, thereby impeding their proper advancement, but also the impossibility of following out the monitorial system, one of the greatest advantages in a numerous school. Besides, how can 40 or 50 children crowded together in a room 15 to 18 feet square, breathe a healthy atmosphere?

Notwithstanding these objections, common to all the districts of Inspection, I am happy to observe a greater degree of good-will and zealous assistance on the part of the Commissioners towards furthering as much as in their power lies, the strenuous efforts made by Government and the Department of Education in favor of the inhabitants of these districts and of the country.

The school-rates are also paid with more readiness, though bearing a great increase upon former years. The commercial education which is at present found in colleges, academies, &c., is held in high esteem. As soon as the college of St. Anne opened these classes, the demand for admittance augmented to such a degree, that a third upon the original number of pupils were received in the course of the first year. The new Academy of Rimouski under the same plan received immediate and remarkable encouragement. I

may also mention the Academy at Kamouraska as another of our most flourishing Institutions and one which will soon be classed with the first of the kind under the direction of the popular order of the Congregation of Notre-Dame.

Many more houses for the purpose of Education will be opened in the course of next year, such as, the Female Academy at Kamouraska, that at Green Island, as also an Academy for boys at Trois Pistoles. These establishments are intended to be raised in such outward proportions as will not only prove advantageous in other respects, but will also make them ornaments to the parish in which they shall be erected.

At the end of his report, Mr. Tanguay gives what may be termed a balance sheet of the state of his district of Inspection.

To recapitulate, number of schools, 154, of which 18 are excellent, 51 good, 61 middling, and 24 in very bad order. Number of pupils in the whole district in attendance upon different styles of education, whether academical, collegiate, normal, or primary schools 6,917. School-rooms properly furnished with desks, benches, charts, &c., 62, wanting these, 92. Number of Municipalities in the district: 26, number of Municipalities in which the Educational Laws are strictly put in force, 15. Number of same in which the Laws is not strictly followed, 8. Proportion on the total of child population visiting schools 1 to 657, proportion on those of from 5 to 16 years, according to the report of the Superintendent for 1855, 52½ percent. Probable cost of instruction to each child attending school, comprising books, &c., 14s. 0½. Number of children who I believe receive an education fitted to their wants, and those of the country 4221, probable number who receive an insufficient education in these respects 2,696.

(To be continued.)

MONTHLY SUMMARY.

SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

The *English Journal of Education* states that the desire of the public to use the facilities offered by the State for the study of science and art, is greatly on the increase; and that the various Metropolitan Museums and Exhibitions in London, Dublin and Edinburgh have been visited by 553,853 persons, being an increase of as many as 186,915 over 1856. The visitors to the Botanical and Zoological Gardens in Dublin have been 168,098, showing an increase of 10,222 persons on 1856. The circulating art-museum has been sent to Stourbridge, Worcester, Liverpool, Glasgow, Paisley, and Dundee, and 36,024 persons have consulted it. The various Schools of Science and courses of public scientific lectures have been attended by 10,372 students. The total number of students connected with the Schools of Art, or under inspection, has been 43,212, being an increase of 25 per cent on the numbers returned in June, 1856; whilst the cost of the State assistance, from being an average of £3 2s. 4d. per student in 1851, before the reform of the Schools of Design, has been reduced to an average of 13s. 1½d. per student, the instruction at the same time having greatly improved, and the means for study largely increased.

The visitors to the Museum in less than ten months have amounted to 453,997 persons, being nearly five times the average numbers annually that attended Northborough House. (The numbers for twelve months have been 188,361.) The experiment of opening the Museum in the evening has shown that that is the time most convenient to the working classes to attend public museums. Comparing time with time, the numbers have been five times as great in the evening as in the morning. The provision of somewhat increased space has enabled the Department to be useful to all the local Schools of Art, in the circulation and lending of the articles in the Museum, and the books and prints in the Library. These are no longer metropolitan institutions, but are essentially national in their influence. The South Kensington Museum is the storehouse of the United Kingdom, and every School of Art is privileged to borrow from it any article that is safely portable.

We extract the following scientific facts from *The New-York Teacher*:—There are five pounds of pure sulphur in every 100 pounds of wool. Carrots consume 197 pounds of lime to the acre; turnips but 79 pounds. A cubic foot of common arable land will hold 49 pounds of water. It takes 5 pounds of corn to form one of bushel. There are a half pounds of corn meal will form one of pork. To add one per cent of lime to a soil that is destitute of it, requires 10 pounds of slacked lime, or 6 of caustic, to the acre. Clay will permanently improve any soil that is sandy or leachy. Lime and leached ashes will benefit leachy land.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

UNIVERSITY OF BISHOP'S COLLEGE.

MICHAELMAS TERM.—The commencement of the 14th year of this Institution begins on SATURDAY, September 4th. Candidates for admission are requested to give early notice to the Principal, the Revd. J. H. NICOLLS, D.D. Lennoxville, July 15, 1858.

JUNIOR DEPARTMENT

BISHOP'S COLLEGE AND GRAMMAR SCHOOL.

The junior department reopens on TUESDAY, August 31st under the charge of the Revd. J. W. Williams, M. A. Rector, assisted by Messrs. A. D. Capel and J. J. Procter. For information apply to the Rector, the Revd. J. W. Williams, Post Office, Québec. Lennoxville, July 15, 1858.

THE ANNUAL
PROVINCIAL AGRICULTURAL
AND
INDUSTRIAL EXHIBITION
OF LOWER CANADA,
TO BE HELD
IN THE CITY OF MONTREAL,

WILL BE OPENED TO THE PUBLIC
On the 30th. September and 1st. October.

All entries must be made on or before the 20th September. Animals and products for Exhibition must be on the ground on Wednesday, 29th September. The industrial department will be opened on Monday the 27th Sept. at 9 o'clock. Machinery or articles requiring motive power, must be on the ground that day; all other articles must be delivered at the building before 3 o'clock P. M. on Tuesday. For particulars see prize list or apply for the AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT to J. PERRAULT, Sec. Board of Agriculture. INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT, to A. STEVENSON, Mechanics Institute.

J. PERRAULT,
Sec. Board of Agriculture.

The terms of subscription to the "Journal de l'Instruction Publique," edited by the Superintendent of Education and M. Jos. Lenoir, will be FIVE SHILLINGS per annum and, to the "Lower Canada Journal of Education," edited by the Superintendent of Education and Mr. John Radiger, also FIVE SHILLINGS per annum. Teachers will receive for five shillings per annum the two Journals, or, if they choose, two copies of either the one or of the other. Subscriptions are invariably to be paid in advance. 4,000 copies of the "Journal de l'Instruction Publique" and 2,000 copies of the "Lower Canada Journal of Education" will be issued monthly. The former will appear about the middle, and the latter towards the end of each month. No advertisements will be published in either Journal except they have direct reference to education or to the arts and sciences. Price—one shilling per line for the first insertion, and six pence per line for every subsequent insertion, payable in advance. Subscriptions will be received at the Office of the Department Montreal, by Mr. Thomas Roy, agent, Québec; persons residing in the country will please apply to this office per mail, enclosing at the same time the amount of their subscription. They are requested to state clearly and legibly their names and address and also the post office to which they wish their Journals to be directed.

A ton of dry forest leaves produces only 500 pounds of mould; hence, 500 pounds of mould will produce a ton of plants. Clay applied to sandy land, is far better than sand to land. One hundred tons to the acre will give an inch in depth. Pure phosphorus is worth four thousand to five thousand dollars a ton; and as it comes from the earth, it shows how scarce it is.

—The Bogs of Ireland, it is stated, are being made to furnish candles of as pure paraffine as our American coal. There are no less than 3,000,000 acres of this peat land in Ireland, and the yield is as good as so much coal would be expected to give. The candles are burned now in this country, and are said to be as good as wax.

OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS.

List of pensions granted to retired teachers from the superannuated teachers pension fund, for the year 1858.

No. of Register.	NAMES OF TEACHERS.	RESIDENCE.	Number of years passed in teaching.	Amount granted deducting the \$4 per annum prem. as requir. by reg.
64	Joseph Bussières.	St Henri de Lauzon.	37	\$ 20 0
65	L. M. Bertrand.	St. Clément.	35	18 0
66	Pierre Bouchard.	St. Vallier.	36	20 0
67	F. X. Buteau.	St. François Riv. S.	22	14 0
68	Wm. Cunningham.	Eardley.	15	20 0
69	Marie Anne Courteau.	St. Roch de l'Achi.	29	6 0
70	Miss Denise Dégagné.	N.-D. du Grand Br.	20	14 0
71	James Duffy.	Rawdon.	13	6 0
72	Emilie Dorval.	Cap de la Magdel.	14	14 0
73	Mrs. veuve Decelles.	St. Laurent J. C.	26	14 0
74	H. C. Dozois.	St. Valentin.	13	20 0
75	J. B. Fortin.	L'Islet.	22	6 0
76	H. Guyon.	L'Assomption.	27	18 0
77	Mary Ann Greensil.	L'Île du Pads.	24	28 0
78	J. B. Goudrault.	St. Barnabé.	28	20 0
79	F. Journaux.	Beaumont.	30	24 0
80	F. Lebrun.	Cox.	28	10 0
81	C. Lortie.	Québec.	23	16 0
82	Lydia McElkins.	Patton.	9	14 0
83	John Martin.	Wakefield.	15	18 0
84	Frs. Maindelle.	St. François Riv. S.	31	12 0
85	Marie Anne Pinard.	Nicolet.	24	18 0
86	J. B. Phillinger.	St. Barthélémi.	40	18 0
87	Henriette Rhéaume.	Yamachiche.	6	12 0
88	Henriette Ste. Marie.	Longueuil.	8	12 0
89	Marie Louise Girouard.	Montréal.	18	20 0
90	Geneviève Dupont.	Rivière Ouelle.	26	6 0
91	F. X. Allard.	Ste. Julie (Som.)	23	20 0
				\$438 00

The sum of \$1773 70 has also been distributed among those teachers who were enrolled during 1857, at the rate of \$4 per annum, the revenue of the fund not allowing any larger amount to be granted for the present year.

Statement of monies paid by the Department of Education for Canada East, between the 1st January to 31st July, 1858.

Amount paid from 1st January to 31st May 1858 as per statement published in Journal No. 5, 1858	\$153,790:63
Paid from 1st April to 31st May 1858, viz:	
On account of grant to common schools	\$ 42,433:77
" " for Superior Education	453:73
" " Normal Schools	4,084:64
" " Journals of Education	738:00
" " Office contingencies	496:98
" " Pensions to superannuated teachers	2202:18
" " Books for library	138:37
" " Salaries of School Inspectors	3,660:41
" " Poor Municipalities	120:30