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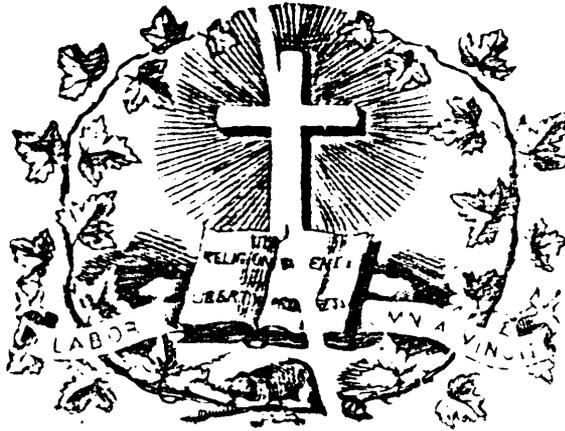
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**Of Greek and Latin Verse-Composition as a General Branch of Education.**

BY THE REV. F. W. FARRAR, M.A., F.R.S.

" . . . le triste rôle d'imitateurs, et celui non moins triste de créateurs de choses parfaitement inutiles."—NISARD, *Poètes de la Décadence*, i. 334.

The belief in a system of education exclusively classical is an "idol of the theatre," which will not easily be obliterated from the enchanted glass of the public judgment. Its defenders have been numerous and energetic; nor have they been slow to retaliate upon their opponents the language of criticism. For many years, they have spoken of educational reformers as "mechanical" and "utilitarian;"—in fact, as mere "Philistines," incapable of forming any high conception of the ends and aim of intellectual culture. All such compliments may be accepted at present with that good-humoured indifference which naturally results from the consciousness of a victorious cause. The roots of the fabled mandrake were said to shriek when it was pulled up from the ground, and the inveterate prejudices of many classical teachers will do the same. There are, however, some stock objections against all criticism of our existing system which will not be applicable to the present Essay. It has been asserted that the critics of "classical education" have generally been men without that experience which is deemed essential to a true insight into the nature of teaching; that they have been cautious enough to refrain from any attempt at reconstructing the edifice which they tried to destroy; and that their complaints

have been of so vague and general a nature as to deprive them of all practical importance. Now, although it will not be my present business to attempt any redistribution of those hours which I consider to be wasted—and often worse than wasted—in the ordinary course of a Public School education, the other objections, at any rate, must be laid aside in any attempt to refute what is here advanced. Although I cannot, indeed, pretend to re-echo the exultant cry of the mystæ, yet, I have been duly initiated into the mysteries. In other words, I speak of things which I know; I come forward with a precise object and a definitive proposition; that proposition is one of an eminently practical character; and it is one to which, in spite of powerful tradition and natural prejudice, I have been gradually driven by long years of laborious experience. I am so desirous to speak on this subject with perfect candour and unreserve that, at the risk of startling on the threshold those readers whom it is my earnest desire to convince, I will say at once that the reform which will here be advocated is the immediate and total abandonment of Greek and Latin verse-writing as a *necessary or general* element in a liberal education, and the large diminution of the extravagant estimation in which this accomplishment has hitherto been held.

It is, of course, an obvious corollary to my proposition that the hours now devoted to "composition" should be assigned to other studies of the highest value, which have hitherto been very partially recognised or very openly ignored. Among these studies are Comparative Philology, History, Modern languages, the Hebrew language, and the language and literature of our own country; but foremost in the weight of its claims is the study of Science—a study so invaluable as a means of intellectual training, and so infinitely important in the result at which it arrives, that the long neglect and strange suspicion with which it has hitherto been treated can only be regarded as a fatal error and a national misfortune.

It is not, however, my present purpose to add anything to the arguments which have been urged elsewhere, respecting the irrefragable claims of some of these studies to demand a place in our curriculum. The question of what ought to be introduced as an essential element in every liberal education is indeed closely connected with the question of what ought to be abandoned. But the labours and reasonings of the last few years have

not been fruitless, and it may now be definitely assumed that our course *must* henceforth be a broader one, and indeed so much broader that many teachers will assert that it must also, as a necessary consequence, be discursive and superficial. I do not here mean to refute this assertion, but I should be sorry even for a moment to seem to give it my assent. For if, without entering on argument, I may venture to assume that *some* value, however slight, will be attached to an opinion founded upon experience, I will beg leave to declare my profound and earnest conviction that, by the frank adoption of wiser and better methods than those which we now employ, we shall be able to teach much more in other subjects without teaching one whit less in those with which we have hitherto been exclusively occupied. At present we send forth a few fine scholars and a multitude of ignorant men: I am convinced we might send forth the same number of scholars, and a large number of men who, while they would know as much or *more* Latin and Greek than the paltry minimum to which they now attain, should not at the same time startle and shock the world by the unnatural profundity of their ignorance respecting all other subjects in heaven and earth. Such a result is neither "Utopian" nor "Quixotic," although, indeed, the first lesson which every reformer should learn is to feel perfectly invulnerable to the censure of those miserable words. But to produce such a result does not rest with schoolmasters alone; it demands the cordial cooperation of parents, and it demands a modification of our present methods and traditions, more sweeping and more unselfish than is immediately probable or perhaps even attainable. Assuming, however, that the hour is ripe for *some* economy of time and method in learning the two ancient languages, it is obvious that one very facile and important means of economy presents itself by the curtailment in some cases,—the total abandonment in a vastly greater number,—of the hours at present squandered over Greek and Latin verse.

The desirability then, nay the imperative necessity, of such a change, is the narrow limit of the question immediately before us; and it is a change which the most enthusiastic advocates of classical education may well dispassionately consider. For composition is a branch of "classics" in which many scholars, otherwise eminent, have but very partially succeeded; to which of all civilized nations England alone attaches any extraordinary importance; which, if it be a very showy, is also a very fallacious test of solid scholarship; which is capable of co-existing with a complete absence of all that makes classical training most valuable; and, lastly, which has tended more than any single cause, perhaps more than all other causes put together to create that profound public dissatisfaction which has brought our entire system into discredit and contempt. It is certain that classical education will soon wither away under the dislike, or be torn up root and branch by the zeal of its opponents, unless our Public School authorities are content to lop off with their own hands the diseased branches which only injure and disfigure a noble tree.

If prejudice were less tenacious, and habit less invincible,—if it were not a common experience that the members of a profession are always the last to welcome necessary innovations,—one would feel amazed that there are learned and able men who still cling to a system of verse-teaching which bears to so many minds the stamp of demonstrable absurdity. Verse-making has been adopted as the best method of teaching Greek and Latin, and has never been systematically applied to the teaching of any other language under the sun. Regarded as an end it is confessedly insignificant; regarded as a means it is notoriously unsuccessful. (1) It has been condemned alike by the learned and by the ignorant, by men of letters and by men of science, by poets and by dullards, by the grave decision of philosophers and by the general voice of the public. Names of the most splendid eminence over a space of two centuries can be quoted

in its condemnation; barely one single poor authority can be adduced in its favour. Cowley, Milton, Bacon, Locke, Coleridge, Wordsworth, Macaulay, Thirlwall, Ruskin, Mill, some of our most learned poets, some of our deepest metaphysicians, some of our most classical historians, some of our most brilliant scholars, are unanimous in speaking of it with indifference or with contempt. Few even of second-rate or mere professional eminence have ventured to uphold it. To this day many bewail the time they frittered away over it, while scarcely any one is found to express the faintest gratitude for any supposed benefit which he has acquired from its compulsory practice.

It is not, however, by the overwhelming force of *à priori* considerations, or external testimonies, that I have long been led to desire the annihilation of verse-composition as a general or necessary element in the teaching of our schools. The force of habit, the natural reluctance to be convinced of the futility of an accomplishment, to the acquisition of which so large a part of my own time had been sacrificed, long enabled me to fight against the weight of condemnatory evidence. It was simple experience, it was constant observation of the system in its actual working, backed by the astounding revelations of the Public School Commissioners, which first revolutionised my own feelings respecting it, and forced me to denounce it before the British Association as a huge gilt wooden idol for whose overthrow I longed. This fact will prove, I trust, that there is nothing rash or unreasonable in my present opposition, and will exonerate me from all appearance of wishing to throw blame or ridicule on those who still hold an opinion which for many years I held myself. If in any part of this Essay I appear to use strong language, let me frankly ask pardon for it beforehand, as having sprung from the pent-up bitterness of twelve years' experience. Those who know what leisure is, and who can afford to while it away in writing Latin Verse, are apt in the beauty of the exotic to forget its costliness. They forget that they are admiring the flowers—and after all they are but fruitless flowers!—of the one productive seed which has here and there survived its countless abortive brethren. The aspect of Latin Verse to the classical scholar who recurs to it as the light amusement of his manhood, is very different from that which it wears to the weary teacher, who has wasted so many of his own and his pupils' precious hours in the hopeless task of attempting to make poets of the many.

Let me premise that I have in view the case, not of the brilliant few, but of the mediocre multitude; and then I will proceed to describe the system as I have seen it actually worked by eminent masters, and as I know it to be still worked in a very large majority of English Public and Private Schools. The system which I choose for description is the one most commonly in use, but by far the larger part of what I have to say will apply equally well to any system whatever.

A parent, applying to enter his son at a Public School, is informed, with much *empressment*, that one of the chief and most important subjects of the entrance examination is LATIN VERSE, both ELEGIACS and LYRICS, and that some knowledge of at least the former is essential to the boy's attaining any but the very lowest position. The same information is duly reverberated on all the teachers of preparatory schools; and they, knowing the difficulty of the accomplishment—an accomplishment which in many cases they themselves have wholly failed to achieve—are driven by necessity to initiate their young recruits as early as possible into the mysteries of the dreadful drill. About the dreary iteration of those preliminary years, I only know by dim report,—by the groans of "grinders" during the period of their labour, and their exclamations of unfeigned delight when the era of their emancipation appeared to be approaching. But at the age of thirteen or fourteen the little victims, duly instructed in LATIN VERSE, make their appearance. The large majority of them—and with them at present it is my sole object to deal—know as well as we know, that they *have* not succeeded, and never, by any possibility, *can* succeed in acquiring the mysterious art. Without a conception of

1 Vide the Report of the Public School Commission.

rhythm, without a gleam of imagination, without a touch of fancy, they have been set down to write verses; and these verses are to be in an unknown tongue, in which they scarcely possess a germ of the scantiest vocabulary, or a mastery of the most simple construction; and, further, it is to be in strict imitation of poets, of whom at the best they have only read a few score of lines. English passages of varying difficulty, but to them for the most part hopeless, are then placed in their unresisting hands, accompanied by dictionaries mainly intended for use in *prose* composition, and by those extraordinary herbaria of cut and dried "poetical" phrases, known by the ironical title of *Gradus ad Parnassum*. The bricks are to be made, and such is the straw of which to make them. And since the construction of the verse often depends on the knowledge of phrases or constructions which a boy either never knew, or is unable to apply, what wonder that in the "Latin," which he endeavours to torture into rhythm, "changes of seasons" takes the form of "*condimentorum mutationes*," and "the sunbeams" are metamorphosed into "*Phœbi trabes*?" Over such materials the unfortunate lad will sit glowering in dim perplexity, if he be diligent, or vaguely trifling, if he be idle, ready with the indisputable defence of "I can't do the verse," when the *Deus ex machinâ* appears in the shape of some weary and worried tutor.

In the natural course of things, a boy, long before he has mastered these elementary difficulties, will be promoted into a higher form, and presented with a more difficult phase of work. This is very frequently embodied in verse books consisting of old prize-exercises, baldly re-translated into English, of which some portion is withheld in every line, until, towards the end of the book, a word or two stands for an entire period. In these narrow grooves the boy's imagination is forced to run. He is required, under all the inexorable exigencies of metre, to reproduce in artificial and phraseological Latin the highly elaborate thoughts of grown men, to piece their mutilated fancies, and reproduce their fragmentary conceits. In most cases the very possibility of doing so depends on his hitting upon a particular epithet, which presents the requisite combination of longs and shorts, or on his evolving some special and often recondite turn of thought or expression. Supposing, for instance (to take a very easy line, typical of many thousands of lines), he has to write as a pentameter—

"Where Acheron rolls waters,"

he will feel that his entire task is to write—

"Where *something* Acheron rolls *something* waters."

His one object is to get in the "something" which shall be of the right shape to screw into the line. The epithet may be ludicrous, it may be grotesque; but provided he can make his brick, he does not trouble himself about the quality of the straw, and it matters nothing to him if it be a brick such as could not by any possibility be used in any human building. It is a literal fact, that a boy very rarely reads through the English he is doing, or knows when it has been turned into Latin, what it is all about: hence, for the next year or two, his life resolves itself into a boundless hunt after epithets of the right shape to be screwed into the greatest number of places; a practice exactly analogous to the putting together of Chinese puzzles, (1) only producing a much less homogeneous and congruous result.

At the next stage of promotion, or often earlier, a boy is forced to begin a far more desolate and hunger-bitten search, for something, sarcastically denominated "ideas of his own," to clothe the skeleton, or the "vulgus," presented to him for his "copy of verses." Now, long and laborious as this course is, dreadful and unremitting as is the miserable drudgery which it entails upon

1 "The same instinct which guides the infant in putting his wooden bricks together, or a little girl in clothing her doll, lies at the bottom of verse-making." I take this sentence from a deliberate defence of the practice by one of the ablest of our modern classical scholars!

the tutor, yet it is so universally unsuccessful, that by the time such a boy is required to do "originals," or to turn English poetry into Latin, he either succumbs in hopeless desperation, or only with cruel sweat of the brain succeeds in achieving a result which both he and his tutor equally despise. What wonder that many bright and promising boys, whose abilities do not lie in this direction, are either crushed under this worse than Egyptian bondage, or require the entire fortitude of their best principles of honour to abstain from using such means of deliverance as lie most easily within their reach. Many do not do so. I have known some who left school in sheer weariness and disgust, or deliberately chose one of the unlearned professions: some, who losing all ambition, and all regard for intellectual culture, contented themselves with the baldest and meanest minimum which would save them from positive disgrace; and many, who with few or no twinges of conscience, availed themselves of old vulguses, borrowed lines, rough copies, corrected copies, and every form of illicit aid, direct or indirect, which could get them, without detection and punishment, through a labour which they believed to be useless, and knew to be impossible.

It may, however, be hinted that I have been unlucky in my experience; and, therefore, as I take no sort of credit to myself for the result, let me be allowed to say that I have, on the contrary, been very far from unfortunate in the number of brilliant composers whom I have had the good fortune to call my pupils; and yet, out of reams and reams of verses which it has been my lot during the last twelve years to correct, I do not believe that there have been half a dozen which I should think worth preserving for their intrinsic merit. I have heard teachers of long standing express the most perfect contentment while admitting that they have never produced a single good composer; but if any one thinks that a tutor may fairly plume himself on the development, here and there, of a Porson prizeman or Camden medallist, he little knows the mysteries of our system! In it alone are things taught with no hope of their being learnt, and with no expectation of their being subsequently practised. In it alone no tutor is held responsible for the vast multitude who fail—the failure is due to innate incapacity; in it alone no tutor gets any credit for the few who succeed—the success is the result of heaven-born talents which would have been developed equally well by *any* teacher under *any* system! In a word, everybody seems to be content, though the thing nominally taught is but very rarely learnt, and though the tutor's failure on the one hand involves no discredit, and his success on the other earns no praise.

(To be continued.)

## On Teaching English Grammar.

(By E. T. D. CHAMBERS, CHAMBLY.)

In a former paper on this subject, I endeavoured to point out to teachers, the great necessity which exists for the devotion of more time and attention on their part to the teaching of English Grammar.

From the Report of the Ontario Inspector of Grammar Schools, extracts from which were quoted in the "Journal of Education" for June, under the heading "Reform in the Schools of Ontario," it is evident that the majority of pupils attending school in the neighbouring province are likewise very deficient in a knowledge of our mother tongue.

But as it does not well become a teacher to dwell on the imperfections and short comings of his brethren of the scholastic profession I shall endeavour to exculpate myself from blame on this point, by stating that I consider the necessity which I have spoken of for greater attention to the study of grammar, necessary to justify me, in venturing to make further remarks on the manner of teaching it.

For the benefit of teachers then and others, who take an interest in finding out the simplest and best way of teaching the

young how to speak and write correctly, I now offer a few hints, as to what I have found by experience to be the *easiest* mode of continuing such a course of Grammar Lessons as I recommended and commenced in a paper published in the number of the "Journal" for last June.

In that paper, I proposed making the children acquainted with at least the nature of each part of speech, before trying to teach them the inflexion, syntax, &c., of either.

When this has been effected in the manner there described, the pupils may be required to write down the words of a sentence under each other, as in parsing, placing opposite each the name of the part of speech it belongs to.

It will now be necessary to go through each of the nine classes of words again with the children showing how each may be sub-divided. This too should be done for the most part orally, and if with the help of a text-book, the pupils must certainly not be left to study from that alone. Indeed I believe that in no other country is grammar professed to be taught, as I have seen it attempted in some of our elementary schools, where a text-book is given to the young learner, and he is required to commence the study of his language, by learning off by heart so many pages of his book, without a word of explanation from the teacher. Now how can this kind of study interest the pupil, or fix on his mind what he learns, like having the difference between the parts of speech pointed out to him orally by the teacher in an interesting way? or how can he understand the relation which the first parts of speech he studies, bear to those parts which he has hitherto heard nothing of?

Professor Sullivan, whose valuable text-book on grammar is now almost universally used in the schools of Great Britain and Ireland, in urging the necessity of teaching children the characteristics of the parts of speech before allowing them to learn from books their inflexion and the rules relating to them says,—“In fact the majority of the children in our schools are taught grammar only in this way; and not a few of them, it may be safely asserted, have a more practical knowledge of grammatical principles than many pupils at school of a higher class, who have committed to memory all the definitions, rules, and exceptions of the most approved grammars.”

Supposing the teacher in going through the parts of speech this time to commence with the noun, he will tell them that some nouns can only be used in reference to a particular place or person; these he tells the children are Proper Nouns, and he shows them how they differ from Common Nouns: he also explains which are Abstract, and which Participial Nouns. In Pronouns he tells them that such as are used instead of the names of persons are called Personal Pronouns, while some are called Relative and others Adjective Pronouns which last are sub-divided into Possessive, Demonstrative, Distributive and Indefinite. He then proceeds to show them that Adjectives may be divided into those of quality and those of quantity; verbs into Regular and Irregular, Transitive and Intransitive, Impersonal and Auxiliary; Adverbs into those of Time, Place, Quality, Quantity and Manner; so on with the other parts of speech. The children will now be able to enlarge their parsing exercise by stating to which sub-division of its class each word belongs. In this they should be often exercised, and at this stage, the use of an appropriate text-book will be found advantageous, to imprint firmly on their minds the divisions they have just been taught. One good effect of this method of teaching grammar will here I think be evident to every observer and that is, that at whatever stage the child may have arrived in his study of grammar, his knowledge of that science must always be complete as far as he has gone, which however would not be the case if before he could understand the whole scheme of the classification of words, he was to proceed to learn by rote the inflexion and rules of syntax relating to the part of speech he had just learnt to distinguish, as too many do.

After having thoroughly mastered the division and classification of words the learner may be allowed to study from his

book the division of letters; also of diphthongs and triphthongs, and the rules for using capital letters.

The children will now commence Etymology again, assisted this time by both teacher and text-book, and will endeavour now to perfect themselves in each part of speech they come to, by studying not only its inflexion as laid down in Etymology, but also at the same time those rules of *syntax* which relate to it. This must certainly be a better way of studying syntax, than leaving all its rules, examples, &c., to be committed to memory by the pupil like so many pages of spellings, with nothing to fix it on his mind, and with the idea that as far as he can see its applicability, he is only wasting time on an arduous and useless task; for as with every other study so it is with Grammar,—to insure success the learner must be interested, and be shown the beauty and usefulness of every part of the science to which he devotes his attention.

In teaching the inflexion of words the Noun will probably be the first part of speech to engage attention. The teacher will tell the children that the principal changes to which nouns are subjected are caused by number gender and case. Number is easily explained for the teacher has only to draw the attention of his pupils to the difference between the form of the singular and the plural words, between the words *apple* and *apples* for instance, and they will at once see that it consists in the addition of the letter *s*. To fix this fact in their minds let him call upon them to give the singular and plural of the names of the objects around them; for every child that is of an age to know anything knows the difference between the singular and the plural number. Having learnt the *general rule* for forming the plural of nouns, they will soon discover the exceptions to it. In fact, as they are, generally, employing words in common use they are already practically acquainted with most of them, and he will be a very young pupil indeed who will say *foots* for *feet*, or *sheeps* for *sheep*. &c.

Although but one of the three *cases* of English nouns is formed by *inflection*, yet the teacher will have some difficulty in making his pupils understand thoroughly the difference between them, unless he teach them at the same time the rules of *syntax* relating to them, and especially those which relate to the government of the Objective Case. They should also be made familiar with the formation of the Possessive Case, and the proper position of the Apostrophe.

Having shown the manner of teaching the inflection of nouns, the teacher will now I think be able to proceed on the same plan with the other parts of speech. After teaching again through all these, the pupils should have a fair knowledge of grammar, which however could now be considerably enlarged by frequent exercises in passing according to syntactical rules.

Occasional exercises in correcting false syntax will also be found beneficial; and if the pupil's stay at school will permit of it, he should be able to carry away with him a good knowledge of the Analysis of sentences.

### Education in the Nineteenth Century.

(From the London Times, Sept. 12.)

From an article in the London *Times* of the 12th ult., on the opening of a great middle Class School at Reading, England, on the day previous we extract the following:—During the sixteenth century, in the great majority of towns which had the least pretension to local importance, some merchant or prosperous tradesman left an endowment for a school in which poor boys were “to be bred up in the art and science of grammar and in honest courses.” The lapse of three centuries had left many of these foundations stranded, out of reach of the tide of modern life, and of no use to anybody except the officials who drew from them sinecure salaries. The strange consequence was that some thirty years ago we awoke to the fact that among all

classes of the population, except one, there was a general lack of education, and of the means of obtaining it. The poor were not educated at all; the lower middle classes were worse than uneducated—they were trained in pretentious ignorance by private "Academies;" the class above them found a limited number of openings into the great schools of the country, and thence into the Universities, but the education thus furnished was chiefly useful in helping boys out of their class, not in qualifying them for its duties. The whole education of the country had, in fact, settled down into one narrow groove, determined by the requirements of the Universities. With incalculable resources around us, with endowments scattered liberally throughout the land, we were yet, in the mass, an uneducated people.

We are even yet very far from having remedied this deficiency; but the thirty years just past will be memorable for the sustained and comprehensive efforts which have been made to render a "sufficient and efficient" education accessible to all. From the Universities to Ragged Schools, philanthropists, professors, and statesmen have been at work, until the outlines are at least indicated of a complete system of National Education. We began with the extension of education among the poor; we then reformed the Universities, we passed from them to the Public Schools, and, finally, took in hand the multitudinous mass of middle-class endowments. It has been, at the same time, the age of the school-master. His profession has risen to a new dignity, and has acquired an unprecedented authority. The result is that we have an intelligent and vigorous body of men labouring to solve the problem of providing for each class the special education it needs, while the Legislature has rendered all existing resources available to the utmost. We see accordingly on every side old foundations starting into new life, and new foundations springing up to fill the gaps still remaining. Whatever a parent's means or whatever his expectations for his son, he will have little difficulty in finding some school or other in which his demand may be supplied: and as the demand grows the supply increases in proportion. Considering that there is not any very great distance between the knowledge of the present day and that of a quarter of a century back, it is surprising to reflect what an immense advance has been made in the diffusion of that knowledge among all classes of the people. The day is not distant when not merely will a ladder have been planted with its feet in the gutter and its summit in the Universities, but when every boy, whatever his destination in life, will be able to acquire the utmost intellectual training compatible with his occupation. The latter provision is, perhaps, even more important than the former. It is neither desirable nor possible that every clever boy should become a Judge, a Bishop, or a General, but it is both possible and desirable that all the work done in the country should be done with the utmost intelligence practicable. Our people work very hard, but if their intelligence were equal to their industry they would far eclipse the present results of their exertions.

In this great "revival of learning," which will be not the least conspicuous mark of the present century, we have maintained in a singular degree our traditional English methods of reform. We have not like some people, cut down everything old, and thrown the remnants into one vast cauldron on the chance of something better emerging. We have made, on the contrary, as little change, either in local circumstances or in methods of teaching, as was compatible with inevitable requirements. Take, for instance, the ceremony of yesterday at Reading, which has suggested these reflections. It is the hope of the people of Reading and the neighboring country that they have set on foot a great Middle Class School which will equally meet the wants of the boy who is designed to be a thorough scholar and of the youth who is at an early age to enter on some practical career. But this new establishment arises from a simple re-arrangement of an old foundation, and the liberal subscribers who have given the Reading School so splendid a start are encouraged by the thought that they are building on the traditions of the past. As the Lord Chancellor stated, the history of the

Reading School dates back to the time of Henry VII., and has since then been associated with several famous scholars and men of the world. It is still to be a Grammar School, in the best sense of the word. Boys are to be taught before all things the art of writing, speaking, and thinking accurately, and when furnished with this indispensable instrument, they are to apply it to the special subjects they may select for the work of their lives. No reform in our ideas of education has inverted, or can invert, this order of training. We may improve the process, by dismissing the barren routine of mere parrot imitation in which so many valuable hours are still spent at our great schools, but it would be a fatal error to set the young mind to substantial study before it has learnt the elements of speech and thought. It is in this respect that the old study of Latin can never lose its value, though we cannot altogether follow the Lord Chancellor in his stanch adherence to all the time honoured practices of Winchester. It is a pity that a man is so rarely struck between the advocates of radical innovation in instruction and enthusiastic "old boys," who, however radical in public life, are conservative of every custom of their schoolboy days. The Lord Chancellor justly urges in favor of composition in Latin and Greek, that it is impossible thoroughly to know a language without practice in writing and speaking it. But what has this to do with the custom of verse making? Is no Englishman capable of writing and speaking his native tongue with correctness and vigour unless he can string rhymes together in feeble imitation of good poets? Prose composition is an invaluable exercise; but, except in the rare instances where a boy has a poetical turn, the time spent on verses, which, to the last, are little better than "nonsense verses," is simply wasted. We believe, with the Lord Chancellor, that the old system was substantially sound; but the great problem for the masters of the present day is to retain its substantial elements while discarding the exercises which arose in days when learning was valued more for ornament than for use. Our modern schools, in their system of teaching as well as in their material resources, must grow out of the old foundations, but must enlarge and adapt themselves to the altered demands of the times.

(Written for the *Journal of Education*.)

### Jacques Cartier's First Visit to Mount Royal.

(By MRS. LEPROHON.)

He stood on the wood-crowned summit  
Of our mountain's regal height,  
And gazed on the scene before him  
By October's golden light,  
And his dark eyes earnest,—thoughtful—  
Lit up with a softer ray,  
As they dwelt on the scene of beauty  
That outspread before him lay.

Like ocean of liquid silver,  
St Lawrence gleamed 'neath the sun,  
Reflecting the forest foliage  
And the Indian wigwams dun,  
Embracing the fairy islands  
That its swift tide loving laves,  
Reposing in tranquil beauty  
Amid its blue flashing waves.

In the last lone frowning mountains  
Rose in solemn grandeur still,  
The glittering sun light glinting  
On each steep and rugged hill;  
Whilst in the far off horizon,  
Past each leafy dell and haunt,  
Like a line of misty purple,  
Showed the dim hills of Vermont.

Then Jacques Cartier's rapt gaze wandered  
Where starred with wild flowers sweet,  
In its gorgeous autumn beauty,  
Lay the forest at his feet,  
Where with red and golden glory,  
All the foliage seemed ablaze,  
Yet with brightness strangely soften'd  
By October's amber haze.

And around him stretched the mountain  
Ever lovely—ever young—  
Graceful, softly undulating,  
By tall forest trees o'erhung;  
Then quick from his lips impulsive  
The words *Mont Royal* came,  
Giving thus to our fair mountain,  
Its regal and fitting name.

### Farewell to Summer.

(BY THOMAS L. HARRIS.)

THE chimes of the lyrical summer,  
The tones of the bird and the bee,  
That tunelessly met the new-comer  
With airs of an infantile glee,  
Dissolve on the lips of the sea.

What ships of the blessed are sailing,  
In light o'er the hyaline floor,  
Afar in the sunset unrolling,  
Remote from the vapoury shore,  
Soft visious, returning no more!

Young children with zephyr-like dances,  
They dimple the musical sands;  
The ocean, with queenly advances,  
Enfolds them with crystalline bands,  
White roses and pearls from her hands.

My heart, on the breast of the ocean,  
Reclines in a tremulous rest;  
It vibrates with musical motion;  
It chimes to the songs of the blest;  
It sings of the summer's possess.

Here all things that greet me are emblems  
Of life, in the newness begun;  
Yon ocean a radiant semblance,  
That rolls to the smile of the sun,  
Of peace that by loving is won.

Roll on, in thy beautiful being,  
Glad ocean, with music afar;  
Life bears me to meet the Allseeing,  
Where all the beatified are,  
With space at my feet like a star.

## OFFICIAL NOTICES.



### Ministry of Public Instruction.

#### APPOINTMENTS.

##### THREE-RIVERS BOARD OF EXAMINERS.

The Lieutenant-Governor, by an Order in Council, dated the 18th ult., was pleased to make the following appointments:—

The Revd Mr. John Bennett to be a member of the Three-Rivers Board of Examiners, in the room and stead of Richard Lanigan, Esq., resigned.

#### SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.

St. André, Co. of Argenteuil.—Mr. Andrew Todd, in the room and stead of Mr. Washington Johnstone.

St. Pierre de Broughton, Co. of Beauce.—MM. Damase Beaudoin and Jean Gagné, in the room and stead of MM. Joachim Delisle and Achilas Gravelle.

Township of Mailloux, Co. of Bellechasse.—MM. Félix Fournier, Célestin Fleury, Ferdinand Jolain, Louis Turgeon and Augustin Mateau.

Mission de St. Léon de Standon, Co. of Dorchester.—M. J. James Sheeny, François Gosselin, Antoine Praxède Genest, Joseph Jean Plante, and Lazare Bisson le Forgeron.

St. Michel des Saints, Co. of Berthier.—MM. Charles Bellarmin Brassard, Thadée Miville Deschênes, Charles Gougé, Louis Narcisse Ferland and Louis Ménard.

Ha'dimand, Co. of Gaspé.—The Revd. Mr. Matthew Kerr, in the room and stead of himself.

Côte des Neiges, Co. of Hochelaga.—M. Octave Prévost, in the room and stead of himself and Mr. Félix Prud'homme, in the room and stead of Léandre Chaput, Ecr.

St. Félix de Valois, Co. of Joliette.—MM. Joseph Masse and Joseph Guérard, in the room and stead of MM. Pierre Lépicié and Olivier Chenevert.

St. Sulpice, Co. of l'Assomption.—M. Ambroise Hétu, in the room and stead of M. Damase Perrault.

Wexford, Co. of Montcalm.—MM. James Mooney, Eustache Lévêque, Louis Beaudry, John Masson and James Brown.

St. Félicité, Co. of Rimouski.—M. Octave Lefrançois, in the room and stead of M. Alexandre Ross.

St. Angèle de Mérici, Co. of Rimouski.—The Revd. Damase Morisset, in the room and stead of M. Samuel Gagnon, and M. Guillaume Guimond in the room and stead of M. Michel Plante.

Mille Vaches, Co. of Saguenay.—MM. François Desbiens, Senior; Dositheé Gagnon, Donat Tremblay, Abel Girard and Léo Tremblay.

St. Etienne, Co. of St. Maurice.—M. Joseph Gélinas, in the room and stead of M. Euchariste Garceau.

Chester (East), Co. of Arthabaska.—M. Pierre Bouffard, in the room and stead of M. Louis Gonzague Lavoie.

#### SCHOOL TRUSTEES.

Percé, Co. of Gaspé.—M. Francis Lebrun, in the room and stead of M. Philp Hacquoit.

Hochelaga, Co. of Hochelaga.—Mr. James Lillie, in the room and stead of Mr. William Thompson.

St. Romuald, Co. of Lévis.—Mr. William Ritchie, in the room and stead of Mr. Edwin Marchmont.

Fraserville, Co. of Témiscouata.—Mr. John Turner, in the room and stead of Mr. John Melrose.

Acton Vale, Co. of Bagot.—Dr. Brock Carter, MM. Robert Leckie and George B. Wells.

#### BEDFORD (CATHOLIC) BOARD OF EXAMINERS.

The Lieutenant-Governor, by an Order in Council, dated the 12th inst., was pleased to appoint the following Gentlemen, Members of the aforesaid Board:—

The Revds MM. Zephirin Mondor and Joseph Jodoin, in the room and stead of the Revds MM. Henri Millette and Jean Marie Balthazar; M. Moise Lefebvre, in the room and stead of M. Joseph Lefebvre resigned; and M. Raphaël Tartre, in the room and stead of Mr. Patrick Hackett, deceased.

#### ERECTIIONS AND ANNEXATIONS OF SCHOOL MUNICIPALITIES

The Lieutenant-Governor, by an Order in Council, dated the 18th ult., was pleased,

1. To erect, into a School Municipality, to be known by the name of *St. Léon de Standon* in the County of Dorchester, the following tract of land, bounded on the North by the division line between lots 18 and 19, in the 8, 9, 10 and 12 Ranges as far as the Rivière Etchemin; thence by said Rivière Etchemin as far as the mearing between the property of Gilbert Henderson and that of John McLaughlin, by the division line between lots 38 and 39, in the 2 and 3 Ranges of Buckland; thence by the *trait carré* of said 3 Range to the stream l'Eau Chaude; thence by said stream to the 5 Range of Buckland, inclusive; on the East by the division line between the 5 and 6 Ranges of Standon as far as Rivière des Fleurs; on the South by the Parish of St. Germain du Lac Etchemin; on the West by the division line between lots 29 and 30, in the 3, 2, and 1 Ranges of Craubourne, and by the Parish of St. Edward de Frampton,

2. To erect, into a School Municipality, to be known by the name of *St. Michel des Saints*, the Mission of the same name in the Co. of Berthier, extending North-East as far as the line west of the District of Three-Rivers; to the South as far as Lake St. Joseph, on the Chemin Brassard; to the South-East as far as Lac de Truite; to the West as far as Portage Brûlé, on the Rivière Matawin, and to the North as far as the 2 Range;

3. To erect, into a School Municipality, the *Township of Mailloux*, in the County of Bellechasse, with the same limits as have been assigned to it for civil purposes;

4. To erect, into a School Municipality, to be known by the name of *Mille Vaches*, in the County of Signenay, the tract of land comprising the Seigniorship of Mille Vaches and the Township of d'Herville, bounded on the North-East by the Rivière Portneuf; on the South-West, by the Township des Escoumains; on the South by the River St. Lawrence, and on the North by the Government wild lands;

5. To annex, to the School Municipality of *Ste Jeanne de Neuville*, in the County of Portneuf, that part of the Municipality of *Ste. Catherine de Fossambault*, in the same county, designated as number 1, at present annexed, for religious purposes, to the Parish of *Ste. Jeanne de Neuville*, comprising the 1, 2, and 3 Ranges from lot No. 1 as far as lot No. 52, in each Range, inclusive;

6. To annex to the School Municipality of *St. François d'Assises*, in the County of Beauce, the tract of land, known by the name of *Concession Ste. Catherine North-West*, in the same County, from lot No. 21 inclusive to the 1 Range of St. Victor de Tring, and the Concession *Ste. Catherine South-East*, from lot No 5 inclusive to the 1 Range of St. Victor de Tring, said tract being about 20 arpents frontage by about 36 deep.

REPORT OF THE MINISTER OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, RELATIVE TO APPLIED SCIENCE AND ART CLASSES IN LAVAL UNIVERSITY, QUEBEC.

The undersigned has the honor to state,

That in virtue of different Orders in Council, there is at present (as per statement A) standing to his credit in the Banque Nationale, the sum of seven thousand and eight dollars and eighty-two cents \$7,008.82), to be employed as a subsidy to applied Science and Art Schools in Quebec and Montreal for Catholics, said sum accruing, first, from the grant made for that object out of the annual Grant for Superior Education to Catholic Institutions of the Province, and secondly, from the amounts directed by Orders in Council to be set aside for the aforesaid purpose the latter being considered as an equivalent for the Government *free* Scholarships in the Montreal and Quebec *High (Protestant) Schools*;

That in his last Report, as Minister of Public Instruction, he was then in communication with the University authorities of Laval relative to the establishment of a school of Applied Science and Art in Quebec, and that now, after having conferred with the Rector of the University, he is happy to be able to state that this Institution has consented to take charge of such school on the following conditions:—

1. Students (on payment annually of \$30 each) will be admitted to a special course of Science as applied to the Arts and to Industry, which will constitute, for the present, the applied Science and Art School for Quebec;

2. All the expenses of the course and salaries of the Professors will be borne by the University, who will give the use of their laboratory and apparatus, and furnish all materials necessary;

3. The University will give Diplomas or Certificates of proficiency, to those Students who shall have followed this special course, after having undergone an examination in conformity with the programme of studies laid down by the Council of the University;

4. The length of the course for the present shall be three years, and the programme of studies for each year as per Schedule B, annexed;

5. In consideration of the several supplementary courses that the University will be obliged to give, in order to complete this special course, the Government will pay an annual subsidy of twelve hundred (\$1200) dollars to the University, in lieu of salaries to the Professors, besides a further sum of fifty (\$50) dollars towards defraying the expense of additional apparatus. The first instalment of this annual subsidy, —to be taken from the share of the Grant for Superior Education, apportioned to Catholic Institutions shall be paid on or before the second day of May one thousand eight hundred and seventy-two, and so continued from year to year, until otherwise provided by the Legislature;

6. The Government shall pay the University a sum of two thousand (\$2,000) dollars, towards founding two Scholarships, which will give to the Students (of said special course) who may obtain them the right to a reduction of sixty (\$60) dollars on the hundred and twenty \$120, per annum, charged by the Boarding house attached to the establishment. These Scholarships will be assigned on the result of an examination, the conditions of which shall be laid down by the Council of the University, and no candidate will be admitted to said examination unless he shall have proved, by certificate or otherwise, to the satisfaction of the committee of examination which shall be composed of two members named by the Council of the University and one named by the Minister of Public Instruction,—his inability to defray the full cost of Board;

7. The sum of fifteen hundred and four dollars and forty-one cents (\$1504.41), the balance of the half of the sum now on hand, shall be paid to the University towards purchasing the proper apparatus for practical experiments, and defraying other incidental and necessary ex-

penses;—a statement of the disposition of this sum to be furnished to the Minister of Public Instruction by the University;

8. A report of the number of students who have followed this Special Course, as well as any other information required, shall be furnished annually to the Minister of Public Instruction, by the University.

The undersigned has the honor to recommend that the foregoing conditions be accepted and sanctioned, and that he be authorized to pay the above mentioned sums now in hand.

P. J. O. CHAUVEAU,  
Minister of Public Instruction.

(Approved by His Excellency the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, September 5, 1871.)

(A)

Statement of the sums deposited in La Banque Nationale, bearing interest at 5 per cent per annum, to the credit of the Minister of Public Instruction, as a Fund for founding Applied Science and Art Schools for the Province of Quebec:

1870, May 19.....	\$2500 00
"    July 12.....	1000 50
"    October 4.....	735 87
1871, May 3.....	2500 00
Interest accrued.....	272 45
	\$7008 82

(Schedule B)

LAVAL UNIVERSITY.

Programme of studies for the Special Course of Science as applied to the Arts and to Industry:—

FIRST YEAR.

- Arithmetic, Theoretical and Practical.
- Algebra, Elementary.
- Geometry, one, two, and three dimensions.
- Trigonometry, Rectilinear.
- Do Spherical.
- Drawing, Linear.
- Mensuration of Solids.

SECOND YEAR.

- Natural Philosophy, Elementary.
- Chemistry, Organic and Inorganic.
- Botany.
- Asronomy.
- Minerology.
- Geology.
- Tracing of Plans, Geographical Maps.
- Surveying.

THIRD YEAR.

- Chemistry, Practical and Analytical.
- Mechanics and Physics, applied.
- Geometry Descriptive.
- Roads and Bridges.

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

QUEBEC. (PROVINCE OF QUEBEC,) OCTOBER, 1871.

Applied Science and Art Schools.

Amongst the Official News, will be found a report of the Minister of Public Instruction, approved by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, relative to the establishment of a School of Science as applied to the Arts and to Industry, in connection with Laval University, Quebec.

It is to be hoped some Catholic Institution, in Montreal, will enter into an arrangement with the Government, similar to that just concluded with the Laval University. It is needless, at this hour, to dilate on the importance of Technical instruction, the question being conceded by all the leading Educationists of

the day. The advantages of it were long well understood on the continent of Europe and clearly recognized by the British at the Great London Exhibition of 1851. Our practical neighbours over the line, ever ready to adopt any scheme calculated to develop the great resources of their country, have founded many institutions of Technical Education, lists of which have appeared from time to time in our columns. From the Report of the Minister of Public Instruction, published in our last issue, may be seen the interest the Department takes in this branch of Education, in the further development of which, we doubt not, both the Government and Legislature, when the resources of the Province permit of it, will aid. McGill University has opened classes of a similar nature this term, announcement of which has already appeared in our pages.

### Thoughts on the Higher Education of Women.

*The Introductory Lecture to the First Session of the Clauses of the Ladies' Educational Association of Montreal, October, 1871, by Principal Dawson, LL.D., F.R.S.*

The ancient stoics, who derived much of their philosophy from Egypt and the East, believed in a series of great cosmical periods, at the end of which the world and all things therein were burned by fire, but only to re-appear in the succeeding age on so precisely the same plan that one of these philosophers is reported to have held that in each succeeding cycle there would be a new Xantippe to scold a new Socrates. I have sometimes thought that this illustration expressed not merely their idea of cosmical revolution, but also the irrepressible and ever recurring conflict of the rights and education of women. Notwithstanding all that may be said to the contrary, I believe that Xantippe was as good a wife as Socrates or any of his contemporary Greeks deserved. She no doubt kept his house in order, prepared his dinners, and attended to his collars and buttons if he used such things, and probably had a general love and respect for the good man. But she was quite incapable of seeing any sense or reason in his philosophy; and must have regarded it as a vexatious waste of time, and possibly as a chronic source of impertinency in family affairs. The educated Greek of her day had small respect for woman, and no idea of any other mission for her than that of being his domestic drudge. No one had ever taught Xantippe philosophy. Hence she despised it; and being a woman of character and energy, she made herself felt as a thorn in the flesh of her husband and his associates. In this way Xantippe derived from her husband's wisdom only a provocation of her bad temper, and he lost all the benefit of the loving sympathy of a kindred soul; and so the best and purest of heathen philosophers found no helpmeet for him. Xantippe thus becomes a specimen of the typical uneducated woman in her relation to the higher departments of learning and human progress. Thoughtless, passionate, a creature of impulses for good or evil, she may, according to circumstances, be

"Uncertain, coy and hard to please,"

or, after her fashion a "ministering angel," but she can never rise to the ideal of the

"Perfect woman nobly planned  
To warn, to comfort and command."

In ordinary circumstances she may be a useful household worker. If emancipated from this, she may spread her butterfly wings in thoughtless frivolity; but she treats the higher interests and efforts of humanity with stolid unconcern and insipid levity, or interferes in them with a capricious and clamorous tyranny. In what she does and in what she leaves undone she is equally a drag on the progress of what is good and noble, and the ally and promoter of what is empty, useless and wasteful. If the stoics anticipated a perpetual succession of such women they might well be hopeless of the destinies of mankind, unless they could find in their philosophy a remedy for the evil.

#### LIGHT OF CHRISTIANITY.

But the stoics wanted that higher light as to the position and destiny of woman which the Gospel has given to us; and it is a relief

to turn from their notions to the higher testimony of the Word of God. The Bible has some solution for all the difficult problems of human nature, and it has its own theory on the subject of woman's relations to man.

In the old record in Genesis, Adam, the earth born, finds no helpmeet for him among the creatures sprung, like himself, from the ground; but he is given that equal helper in the woman made from himself. In this new relation he assumes a new name. He is no longer *Adam* the earthy, but *Ish*, lord of creation, and his wife is *Isha*—he the king and she the queen of the world. Thus in Eden there was a perfect unity and equality of man and woman, as both Moses and our Saviour in commenting on this passage indicate, though Milton, usually so correct as an interpreter of Genesis, seems partially to overlook this. But a day came when *Isha*, in the exercise of her independent judgment, was tempted to sin, and tempted her husband in turn. Then comes a new dispensation of labour and sorrow and subjection, the fruit, not of God's original arrangements, but of man's sin. Here we see the Bible theory of the subjection of woman, and of that long series of wrong and suffering and self-abnegation which has fallen to her lot as the partner of man in the struggle for existence in a sin-cursed world. But even here there is a gleam of light. The Seed of the woman is to bruise the head of the serpent, and *Isha* receives a new name, *Eve*—the mother of life. For in her, in every generation, from that of Eve to that of Mary of Bethlehem, resided the glorious possibility of bringing forth the Deliverer from the evils of the fall. This great prophetic destiny formed the banner of woman's rights, bore aloft over all the generations of the faithful, and rescuing woman from the degradation of heathenism, in which, while mythical goddesses were worshipped, the real interests of living women were trampled under foot. The dream of the prophets was at length realized, and in Christianity for the first time since the gates of Eden closed on fallen man, woman obtained some restoration of her rights. Even here some subjection remains, because of present imperfection, but it is lost in the grand status of children of God, shared alike by man and woman; for according to St. Paul, with reference to this Divine adoption there is in Christ Jesus "neither male nor female." The Saviour himself had given to the same truth a still higher place, when in answer to the quibble of the Sadducees, he uttered the remarkable words,—“They who shall be accounted worthy to obtain that world, neither marry nor are given in marriage, for they are equal to the angels.” If both men and women had a higher appreciation of the dignity of children of God, if they would more fully realize “that world” which was so shadowy to philosophic Sadducee and ritualistic Pharisee, though so real to the mind of Christ, we should have very little disputation about the relative rights here of men or women, and should be more ready to promote every effort, however humble, which may tend to elevate and dignify both. Nor need we fear that we shall ever, by any efforts we can make, approach too near to that likeness to the angels which embraces all that is excellent in intellectual and moral strength and exemption from physical evil.

#### PRINCIPLES AND MISCONCEPTIONS.

But what bearing has all this on our present object. Much in many ways; but mainly in this, that while it removes the question of the higher training of women altogether from the sphere of the silly and flippant nonsense so often indulged in on the subject, it shows the heaven-born equality of man and woman as alike in the image and likeness of God, the evil origin of the subjection and degradation inflicted on the weaker sex, the restored position of woman as a child of God under the Gospel, and as an aspirant for an equal standing, not with man only, but with those heavenly hosts which excel in strength. In this light of the Book of books, let us proceed to consider some points bearing on our present duty in reference to this great subject. There are some of us who, in younger days, may have met with specimens of those absurd pedants, now happily extinct, who, misled by old views handed down from times of greater barbarism, used to prate of the inferiority of woman and her incapacity for the higher learning. No one now holds such views, though all admit that there is a certain difference of intellectual and æsthetic temperament in the sexes, requiring to be regarded in their education,

“For woman is not undeveloped man, but diverse.”

There are, however, still some who, in a limited and partial way, retain some scepticism as to the capacity of women for the severer studies, and as to the utility in her case of that deep and systematic culture which is considered necessary in the case of educated men. There are also certain confusions of ideas as to the proper range and extent of the education of women, with other and vastly different

questions as to the right of the softer sex to enter upon certain kinds of professional training. Let us endeavour to get rid of some of these misconceptions. In the first place, no one denies the right to an equality of the sexes in all the elementary education given in ordinary schools. This is admitted to be an essential preparation in the case of all persons of both sexes and of all grades of social position for the ordinary work of life. But when we leave the threshold of the common school, a divergence of opinion and practice at once manifests itself.

#### EXTENT AND AIMS OF THE HIGHER EDUCATION.

Only a certain limited proportion either of men or women can go on to a higher education, and those who are thus selected are either those who by wealth and social position are enabled or obliged to do so, or those who intend to enter into professions which are believed to demand a larger amount of learning. The question of the higher education of women in any country depends very much on the relative numbers of these classes among men and women, and the views which may be generally held as to the importance of education for ordinary life, as contrasted with professional life. Now in this country, the number of young men who receive a higher education merely to fit them for occupying a high social position is very small. The greater number of the young men who pass through our colleges, do so under the compulsion of a necessity to fit themselves for certain professions. On the other hand, with the exception of those young women who receive an education for the profession of teaching, the great majority of those who obtain what is regarded as higher culture, do so merely as a means of general improvement and to fit themselves better to take their proper places in society. Certain curious and important consequences flow from this. An education obtained for practical professional purposes is likely to partake of this character in its nature, and to run in the direction rather of hard utility than of ornament. An education obtained as a means of rendering its possessor agreeable, is likely to be aesthetical in its character rather than practical or useful. An education pursued as a means of bread-winning is likely to be sought by the active and ambitious of very various social grades. An education which is thought merely to fit for a certain social position, is likely to be sought almost exclusively by those who move in that position. An education intended for recognised practical uses, is likely to find public support, and at the utmost to bear a fair market price. An education supposed to have a merely conventional value as a branch of refined culture, is likely to be at a fancy price. Hence it happens that the young men who receive a higher education and by means of this attain to positions of respectability and eminence, are largely drawn from the humbler strata of society, while the young women of those social levels rarely aspire to similar advantages. On the other hand, while numbers of young men of wealthy families are sent into business with a merely commercial education at a very early age, their sisters are occupied with the pursuit of accomplishments of which their more practical brothers never dream. When to all this is added the frequency and rapidity in this country of changes in social standing, it is easy to see that an educational chaos must result, most amusing to any one who can philosophically contemplate it as an outsider, but most bewildering to all who have any practical concern with it; and more especially, I should suppose, to careful and thoughtful mothers, whose minds are occupied with the connections which their daughters may form, and the positions which they may fill in society. The educational problem which these facts present admits, I believe, of but two general solutions. If we could involve women in the same necessities for independent exertion and professional work with men, I have no doubt that in the struggle for existence they would secure to themselves an equal, perhaps greater share of the more solid kinds of the higher education. Some strong-minded women and chivalrous men in our day favour this solution, which has, it must be confessed, more show of reason in older countries where, from unhealthy social conditions, great numbers of unmarried women have to contend for their own subsistence. But it is opposed by all the healthier instincts of our humanity; and in countries like this where very few women remain unmarried, it would be simply impracticable. A better solution would be to separate in the case of both sexes professional from general education, and to secure a large amount of the former of a solid and practical character for both sexes, for its own sake, and because of its beneficial results in the promotion of our well-being, considered as individuals, as well as in our family, social and professional relations. This solution also has its difficulties, and it can, I fear, never be fully worked out, until either a higher intellectual and moral tone be reached in society, or until nations visit with proper penalties the failure, on the part of those who have the means, to give to their children the highest at-

tainable education, and with this also provide the means for educating all those who, in the lower schools, prove themselves to be possessed of eminent abilities. It may be long before such laws can be instituted, even in the more educated communities; and in the meantime in aid of that higher appreciation of the benefits of education which may supply a better if necessarily less effectual stimulus. I desire to direct your attention to a few considerations which shew that young women, viewed not as future lawyers, physicians, politicians, or even teachers, but as future wives and mothers, should enjoy a high and liberal culture, and which may help us to understand the nature and means of such culture.

#### WOMAN AS THE HELP-MEET OF MAN.

The first thought that here arises on this branch of the subject is that woman was intended as the help-meet of man. And here I need not speak of that kind and loving ministry of women, which renders life sweet and mitigates its pains and sorrows, and which is to be found not solely among the educated and refined, but among the simplest and least cultured,—a true instinct of goodness, needing direction, but native to the heart of woman, in all climes and all states of civilization. Yet it is sad to think how much of this holy instinct is lost and wasted through want of knowledge and thought. How often labour and self-sacrifice become worse than useless, because not guided by intelligence, how often an influence that would be omnipotent for good becomes vitiated and debased into a power that enervates and enfeebles the better resolutions of men, and involves them and their purposes in its own insanity and frivolity. No influence is so powerful for good over young men as that of educated female society. Nothing is so strong to uphold the energies or to guide the decisions of the greatest and most useful men as the sympathy and advice of her who can look at affairs without from the quiet sanctuary of home, and can bring to bear on them the quick tact and ready resources of a cultivated woman's mind. In this, the loftier sphere of domestic duty, in her companionship and true co-partnership with man, woman requires high culture quite as much as if she had alone and unshielded to fight the battle of life. It may be said that, after all, the intelligence of the average woman is quite equal to that of the average man, and that highly educated women would not be appreciated by the half educated men who perform most of the work of the world. Granting this, it by no means follows that the necessity for the education of women is diminished. Every Xantippe cannot have a Socrates; but every wise and learned woman can find scope for her energies and abilities. If need be, she may make something even of a very commonplace man. She can greatly improve even a fool, and can vastly enhance the happiness and usefulness of a good man, should she be so fortunate as to find one.

#### THE MATERNAL RELATIONS.

But it is in the maternal relation that the importance of the education of woman appears most clearly. It requires no very extensive study of biography to learn that it is of less consequence to any one what sort of father he may have had than what sort of mother. It is indeed a popular impression that the children of clever fathers are likely to exhibit the opposite quality. This I do not believe, except in so far as it results from the fact that men in public positions or immersed in business are apt to neglect the oversight of their children. But it is a note-worthy fact that eminent qualities in men may almost always be traced to similar qualities in their mothers. Knowledge, it is true, is not hereditary, but training and culture and high mental qualities are so, and I believe that the transmission is chiefly through the mother's side. Farther, it is often to the girls rather than to the boys, and it frequently happens that if a selection were to be made as to the members of a family most deserving of an elaborate and costly education, the young women would be chosen rather than the young men. But leaving this physiological view, let us look at the purely educational. Imagine an educated mother, training and moulding the powers of her children, giving to them in the years of infancy those gentle yet permanent tendencies which are of more account in the formation of character than any subsequent educational influences, selecting for them the best instructors, encouraging and aiding them in their difficulties, sympathising with them in their successes, able to take an intelligent interest in their progress in literature and science. How ennobling such an influence, how fruitful of good results, how certain to secure the warm and lasting gratitude of those who have received its benefits, when they look back in future life on the paths of wisdom along which they have been led. What a contrast to this is the position of an untaught mother—finding her few superficial accomplishments of no account in the work of life, unable wisely to guide the rapidly developing mental life of her children, bringing them up to repeat her own

failures and errors, or perhaps to despise her as ignorant of what they must learn. Truly the art and profession of a mother is the noblest and most far-reaching of all, and she who would worthily discharge its duties must be content with no mean preparation. It is perhaps worth while also to say here that these duties and responsibilities in the future are not to be measured altogether by those of the past. The young ladies of to-day will have greater demands made on their knowledge than those which were made on their predecessors. I saw this amusingly illustrated lately in a collection of nursery rhymes of the future, which, if my memory serves me, ran in this wise:—

“ Twinkle twinkle solar star,  
Now we've found out what you are,  
When unto the noon-day sky,  
We the spectroscope apply,”

and so on. Or again.

Little Jack Horner, of Latin no scorer,  
In the second declension did spy,  
How of nouns there are some  
That ending in “ um.”  
Do not form the plural in “ i.”

Under these little bits of nonsense lies the grave truth that the boys and girls of the future will know more and learn more, and for that very reason will require more wise and enlightened management than their predecessors.

#### OTHER USES OF EDUCATION.

But the question has still other aspects. A woman may be destined to dwell apart—to see the guides and friends of youth disappearing one by one, or entering on new relations that separate them from her, and with this isolation may come the hard necessity to earn bread. How many thus situated must sink into an unhappy and unloved dependence? How much better to be able to take some useful place in the world, and to gain an honourable subsistence. But to do so, there must be a foundation of early culture, and this of a sound and serviceable kind. Or take another picture. Imagine a woman possessing abundance of this world's goods, and free from engrossing cares. If idle and ignorant, she must either retire into an unworthy insignificance or must expose herself to be the derision of the shrewd and clever, and the companion of fools. Perhaps, worse than this, she may be a mere leader in thoughtless gaiety, a snare and trap to the unwary, a leader of unsuspecting youth into the ways of dissipation. On the other hand, she may aspire to be a wise steward of the goods bestowed on her, a centre of influence, aid and counsel in every good work, a shelter and support to the falling and despairing, a helper and encourager of the useful and active; and she may be all this and more in a manner which no man, however able or gifted, can fully or effectually imitate. But to secure such fruits as these, she must have sown abundantly the good seed of mental and moral discipline in the sunny spring time of youth. Lastly, with reference to this branch of the subject, it may be maintained that liberal culture will fit a woman better even for the ordinary toils and responsibilities of household life. Even a domestic servant is of more value to her employer if sufficiently intelligent to understand the use and meaning of her work, to observe and reason about the best modes of arranging and managing it, to be thoughtful and careful with reference to the things committed to her charge. How much more does this apply to the head of the house, who in the daily provisioning and clothing of her little household army, the care of their health, comfort, occupations and amusements, the due and orderly subordination of the duties and interests of servants, children and friends, and the arrangement of the thousand difficulties and interferences that occur in these relations, has surely much need of system, tact, information and clearness of thought. We realize the demands of her position only when we consider that she has to deal with all interests from the commonest to the highest, with all classes of minds, from the youngest and most untutored to the most cultivated; and that she may be required at a moment's notice to divert her thoughts from the gravest and most serious concerns to the most trifling details, or to emerge from the practical performance of the most commonplace duties into the atmosphere of refined and cultivated society. But it would be altogether unfair to omit the consideration of still another aspect of this matter. Woman has surely the right to be happy as well as to be useful, and should have fully opened to her that exalted pleasure which arises from the development of the mind, from the exploration of new regions of thought, and from an enlarged acquaintance with the works and ways of God. The man who has enjoyed the gratification of exercising

his mental powers in the fields of Scientific investigation or literary study—of gathering their flowers and gems, and of breathing their pure and bracing atmosphere, would surely not close the avenues to such high enjoyment against woman. The desire to do so would be an evidence of sheer pedantry or moral obliquity of which any man should be ashamed. On the contrary every educated man and woman should in this respect be an educational missionary, most desirous that others should enjoy these pleasures and privileges, both as a means of happiness and as a most effectual preventive of low and pernicious tastes and pursuits.

#### OBJECTIONS AND EXPLANATIONS.

But, objects Paterfamilias, I have attended to all this. I have sent my daughters to the best schools I can find, and have paid for many masters besides; and just as I take their brothers from school and put them to the desk, I take my daughters also from school with their education finished, and hand them over to their mamma to be “brought out.” What can I do more for them? The answer to this question opens the whole subject of the higher education, and as there is just as much misunderstanding in the case of boys as in the case of girls, I am not sorry to ask your attention to it for a few moments. What is our idea of a college as distinguished from a school? Many think that it is merely a higher kind of school adding a few more years to the schoolboys's drudgery. Some think it a place of social improvement, where a man by idling a few years in a literary atmosphere may absorb a sort of aroma of learning, as his garments would absorb that of tobacco in a smoking-room. Some think it a place to prepare young men for certain learned professions. All are wrong or only partly right. The college differs essentially from the school, inasmuch as the schoolboy becomes a student, that is, he is to take an active and not merely a passive part in his own education. He must begin to put away childish things, and become a man of independent effort, while still submitting himself to the guidance of more mature minds. He must now learn habits of self-reliance, study, and thought, must have the caterpillar growth of the school-room exchanged for the winged intellectual life which is to lead him forth into the world. The college further differs from the school in the fact that it uses the school elements on a basis whereon to build a superstructure of literature and science, attainable only by the more matured mind of the student. The school boy has certain foundation walls laid; but his education is roofed in and finished only by the farther discipline of the College, and without this it is likely to become a ruin without ever being inhabited. The College further differs from the school in that it attracts to itself for teachers, specialists in many departments of useful knowledge—men who have devoted themselves to these special branches, and have perhaps been original workers therein; and thus it brings the school boy within reach of a new educational experience, and introduces him into those workshops of literature and science where the products exhibited to him in the school-room have actually been made. In short, the school-boy who leaves school directly for the business of life, is usually permanently fixed in an immature mental condition. He remains intellectually what he would be physically if we could arrest his growth at the age of fifteen or sixteen, and never allow him to attain any further development. This fate unhappily befalls a large proportion of young men, even of those in whose case this arrest of development is not excused by the want of means to do better. It is almost universal in women, in whose case also there is not that hardening of the stunted mental constitution which even uneducated men acquire in the business of life; and so the prevalent tone of the feminine mind has come to be proverbially feeble. Men smile at women's logic, and think it quite out of place to discuss any of the graver or deeper questions of practical science or business in her presence, and a woman of any power and culture is pointed at as a strong-minded woman, or a blue-stocking, even by the poor fools who feel their own inferiority or who cannot appreciate the value of pursuits which they do not understand. It is time that such false notions were at an end, and the effort which is now being inaugurated will, I hope, tend directly to this so far as Montreal is concerned.

#### OUR POSITION AND PROSPECTS.

We cannot as yet boast of a Ladies' College; but our classes for the present session will provide for substantial instruction on the structure and literature of the two most important languages in this country, and for an introduction to that great department of science which relates to inorganic nature. I think we have reason to congratulate ourselves on the nature of the course and to be hopeful of the results. It is further to be noticed in this connection that the efforts of the committee and especially of the Honorary Secretary have been most zealous and untiring, and have been conducted with

an amount of judicious care and foresight which should inspire the utmost confidence in the future management of the undertaking, and should entitle them to the warmest thanks of every friend of education. Several features of the present movement afford, I think, especial reasons for congratulation. One is that this is an Association of Ladies for educational purposes—originating with ladies, carried on by them, supported by their contributions. Another is, that the movement is thus self-supporting, and not sustained by any extraneous aid. It will, I hope, attract to itself endowments which may give it a stronger and higher character, but its present position of independence is the best guarantee for this, as well as for all other kinds of success. Another is that the Association embraces nearly all that is elevated in social and educational standing in our city, and has thus the broadest and highest basis that can be attained among us for any effort whatever. Still another is that we are not alone, nor are we indeed in the van of this great work. I need not speak of the United States, where the magnificent Vassar College, with which the name of one of our excellent and learned women was connected so usefully, and the admission of ladies to Cornell University, the University of Michigan and others, have marked strongly the popular sentiment as to the education of women. In Canada itself, Toronto, and even Quebec and Kingston, have preceded us, though I think in the magnitude of our success we may hope to excel them all. In the Mother Country, the Edinburgh Association has afforded us the model for our own; and the North of England Educational Council, the Bedford College in London, the Hitchin College, the Cambridge Lectures for Ladies, the Alexandra College in Dublin, the admission of ladies to the middle-class examinations of the universities, are all indications of the intensity and direction of the current. On the continent of Europe Sweden has a state college for women. The Victoria Lyceum at Berlin has the patronage of the Princess Royal; and the University of Paris has established classes for ladies, and St. Petersburg has its university for women. All these movements have originated not only in our own time but within a few years, and they are evidently the dawn of a new educational era which, in my judgment, will see as great an advance in the education of our race as that which was inaugurated by the revival of learning and the establishment of universities for men in a previous age. It implies not only the higher education of women, but the elevation, extension, and refinement of the higher education of men. Colleges for women will, as new institutions, be free from many evil traditions which cling about the old seats of learning. They will start with all the advantages of our modern civilization. They will be animated by the greater refinement and tact and taste of woman. They will impress many of these features upon our older colleges with which, I have no doubt, they will become connected under the same university organization. They will also greatly increase the demand for a higher education among young men. An Edinburgh professor is reported to have said to some students who asked ignorant questions—"Ask your sisters at home; they can tell you." A retort which, I imagine, few young men would lightly endure; and so soon as young men find that they must attain to higher culture before they can cut a respectable figure in the society of ladies, we shall find them respecting science and literature almost as much as money, and attaching to the services of the college professor as much importance as to those of their hair-dresser or tailor.

#### CONDITIONS OF SUCCESS.

In order, however, to secure these results, I cannot too strongly urge upon the young ladies who may attend these lectures, that they must be actual students, applying their minds vigorously to the work of the class-room, performing such exercises as may be prescribed and preparing themselves by continuous and hard study for the examinations. I would also urge that perseverance is essential to success, and that not only should the students be prepared to follow out the lectures to their close, but those who have aided in the effort thus far should be prepared for the necessity of equal efforts to sustain it in succeeding sessions.

And now, ladies, if I have dwelt on grave themes, it is because I have felt that I am in the presence of those who have a serious work in hand, and who, being alive to its importance and responsibility, will not be unwilling to hear the views of one who has long looked on this matter with interest, though from a somewhat different point of view. I can assure you that I shall always regard it as no small honour to have been called on to deliver the opening lecture of the first session of this Association; and I trust that, with God's blessing, we shall have cause to look back on this day as one marked by an event fraught with the most important and beneficial consequences to this community. That it may be so requires that we shall appreciate the full responsibility of the step we have taken, and pursue our course with vigour and energy. With reference to these points I cannot

better close than with an extract from the introductory lecture of my friend, Dr. Wilson, of Toronto, delivered two years ago, at the opening of the classes for ladies which have proved so successful in our sister city, and in which he brings up two of the most important topics to which I have directed your attention:—

"It is not therefore, unmeet that I should aim by every argument to enforce the idea that, as high culture and profound scholarship interfere in no degree with man's fitness for the roughest and most prosaic duties; but rather that the cultivated intellect quickens into renewed vigour every inferior power: so is it with woman also. The development of highest faculties, her powers of reasoning, her range of observation, and compass of knowledge, will only make mind and hand work together the more promptly, in obedience to every tender impulse, and every voice of duty.

"Once satisfied of this, I doubt not your hearty co-operation may be relied upon: without which all efforts on our part for the higher education of woman must be vain. Yet I feel assured that, in spite of every impediment, such a scheme lies among the inevitable purposes of the future. It may be rejected now; it may be delayed and frowned on still by the prejudices inherited from a dead past; but it cannot be prevented. It is one of the grand promises which make thoughtful men almost envious of those who are now entering on the life, for some of us so nearly an accomplished thing.

'Its triumph will be sung,  
By some yet un moulded tongue,  
Far on in summers that we shall not see.'

The thoughts of men are widening; and we stand in special need of this as an element which will accelerate the world's progress onward and upward to noblest ends. Whether or no this generation shall, in our own province at least, share in any degree in the effort, or partake of its rewards, rests mainly with yourselves."—*Montreal Gazette*.

## MISCELLANY.

### Education.

—*The Lowest Tender*.—The notions entertained by some rural school commissioners with regard to the fitness of teachers may be gathered from the general tone of their advertisements for the fulfilment of a vacancy. The whole burden of their quest consists of an invitation to the pedagogic community to state the salary which would satisfy them. When a certain number of replies have been received, no doubt, they make a bargain with the presenter of the lowest tender. Cheapness, not moral or intellectual fitness, is what they want in the person to whom they entrust the education of their children. And yet, if their children do not succeed in acquiring a certain respectable amount of scholarship from the starveling who accepts their pittance, they complain loudly of the whole scholastic system and send the "lowest tender" man untenderly adrift. So teacher succeeds teacher till the "rising generation" has risen to take the place of its predecessors and to pursue, in turn, the ancestral system. Is it any wonder that good teachers are badly paid, and that very often the best of the profession give it up in disgust. The only remedy would be to have a legal minimum for the salaries of all teachers, which should be a *sine qua non* in every municipality to the possession of school privileges.—*Montreal Gazette*.

—*Teachers' Associations*.—"It has been very satisfactory to me to notice the steady progress in numbers and usefulness of the Teachers' Association in this district. Seven years ago I was invited to become its president, and I have always felt it a privilege to be present at its periodical meetings. One of the more experienced teachers generally reads a paper on some practical topic, and this is followed up by intelligent and animated discussion. My estimate of the value of these meetings increases every time I attend one. There is no profession whose members are so isolated in their ordinary duty, as that of teachers. There is none in which they can make better use of each other's experience, and of opportunities for frank comparison of methods and results. It has often happened to me to find, after a meeting, that some new process or useful device had been adopted in a school, or that its work had become pervaded with a loftier purpose, directly attributable to the discussion and intercourse of the association.—*From Report of J. G. Fitch, Esq., H. M. Inspector of Schools, England, for 1869-70.*

— *National School Teachers.*—The *English Mechanic* contains an article representing that the National School appointments are latterly filled by a more hard-working and more gentlemanly set of men than ever; that for the wants of these gentlemen very scanty means of comfort in every respect is provided by the authorities. The *Mechanic* throws out many hints as to how the appointments as National school teacher may become a more favourable calling for men who pass hard examinations and hard lives in so good a cause. Amongst other improvements, the *Mechanic* suggests an improvement on the suggested plans. If the salaries are to remain as set forth, let a house, coal, and gas be added—not a hut, but a residence—not a school-barrack, but a detached house, with eke a little strip of garden-ground, where our schoolmaster may make the beds look trim and gay with simple flowers in their season. The post would then be worth competition, provided always the salary rose a trifle quicker, and the maximum of £250 to be reached in something less than forty years.

— *Schoolmasters in France.*—The ex-Emperor of the French took decisive steps towards the amelioration of the state of schoolmasters in France. Their annual income, which formerly was at minimum 600 francs, has, from the commencement of the year 1870, been raised to 700. The schoolmistresses, 4,755 in number, who have hitherto received 400 francs annually, are to have 500 francs for the future. Nor are delays and irregularities, such as they have hitherto not unfrequently complained of, to be suffered any longer. The head-masters in the primary schools will have their salaries increased from 2,000 and 3,000 francs to 2,400 to 3,600 francs respectively; the ushers from 1,000 and 1,800 to 1,200 to 2,000 francs. The school in the rural communities is henceforth to be, together with the parsonage, the “model-house of the village” with respect to architecture, neatness, cleanliness, and airiness. *Whenever a new teacher is installed, the communities are to pay 300 francs, to which the State will add an equal sum, in order to procure decent furniture for his house. In case of need the public chest of the department is further to aid the communities.* The State would thus encourage and supplement local efforts. An imperial decree, dated September 4th, 1863, confirmed these proposals of the Minister of Instruction. 100,000 francs have been granted, and the head-masters of “Normal Schools” receive henceforth from 2,400 to 3,600 francs; the first-class ushers 1,800 to 2,000 francs; those of the second, 1,500 to 1,900 francs; and those of the third, 1,200 to 1,400 francs.—*Leisure Hour.*

— *Results of the Abolition of University Tests.*—There is one thing which is by no means doubtful—that the abolition of tests is an important step towards the disestablishment of the Church of England. Up to the present time the Church of England has pretty nearly monopolised the cultivation and trained intellect of the country, and has succeeded in maintaining her aristocratic and exclusive character by shutting out all except her own members from the highest education of England. The Non-conformist ministers have consequently been forced into a position of intellectual and social inferiority, and their comparative poverty and necessary dependence on their flocks for their daily bread have helped to keep them down. But now that they will have every opportunity of taking their places as educated gentlemen by the side of Anglican clergymen, it is impossible to believe that the latter will long be able to keep inviolate the social status which results to some degree from the connection of Church and State, or to retain unchallenged those revenues which must, like the funds of the Universities, be soon claimed as national.—*Athenæum.*

— *Writing and Reading.*—The great leading distinction between writing and speaking is that more time is allowed for one than the other; hence different faculties are required for, and different objects obtained by, each. He is properly the best speaker who can collect together the greatest number of opposite ideas at a moment's warning; he is properly the best writer who can give utterance to the greatest quantity of valuable knowledge in the course of his life.

— *Irish Catholic Education.*—A deputation, headed by the Lord Mayor of Dublin, and representing the Corporations of Dublin, Waterford, Kilkenny, Dungarvan, Clonmel, and other places, waited on Mr. Gladstone to present memorials respecting the right of Catholics to equality in the matter of education. The deputation was accompanied by a large number of Irish members, both Catholic and Protestant, and was introduced by Sir Dominic Corrigan. In reply to the memorials, Mr. Gladstone, after apologizing for the absence of Lord Hartington, who was in attendance on the Queen, stated that, in respect to higher education, the Catholics of Ireland,

and also the members of other communities, had a substantial grievance. He said that Government would redeem its pledges, which it maintained to the full extent, but reminded the deputation that other questions, especially Scotch ones, had suffered a good deal lately from the prominence given to Irish questions. He could not fix a time, but Government would give the question its best and earliest attention, and would certainly not be parties to any settlement of it other than that to which they stood pledged. Altogether, Mr. Gladstone's assurances were rather too vague to inspire a confidence that his measure will be commensurate with the wants of Ireland, but, as far as they went, they were satisfactory. The next day the Lord Mayor appeared at the bar of the House of Commons, and presented a petition in the same sense.

— *Average Salary of Teachers.*—The following table represents the average monthly salary of school teachers throughout the United States for the year 1870:

	Men.	Women.
Arkansas.....	\$80 00	\$60 00
California.....	81 33	62 81
Connecticut.....	58 74	29 16
Illinois.....	42 40	32 80
Indiana.....	37 00	28 40
Iowa.....	36 96	27 16
Kansas.....	37 07	28 98
Louisiana.....	112 00	76 00
Maine.....	32 00	14 00
Maryland.....	43 00	43 00
Massachusetts.....	77 44	30 92
Michigan.....	47 61	24 35
Minnesota.....	33 91	22 45
Missouri.....	38 60	29 81
Nebraska.....	34 32	33 60
Nevada (in coin).....	118 75	92 16
New Hampshire.....	36 50	21 62

It will be observed that an average of these rates would give to men teachers, for precisely the same work, from 30 to 50 per cent. more than to women. It will also be noticed that the Western States are more advanced in their ideas of justice than the Eastern; and that Nevada pays four times as much as New Hampshire. The average of salaries paid to teachers of both sexes in the State of New York is about \$63, while in the city of New York it is a little higher.

(*St. Louis Journal of Education.*)

— *The Bishop of Liverpool on the Use of the Rod.*—Many children were spoiled and ruined by having their own way. When a child was told to do a thing, it should do it without asking the reason why, the only reason should be a birch rod. There was not a nicer ornament, or a more homely, useful article in a house than a birch rod. He liked to see one hanging up in the house. It was far more useful than the old-fashioned warming pan, or perhaps the copper kettle they often saw hanging up in the house. Alluding to juvenile depravity, he said a lad of fifteen or sixteen with a pipe stuck in his mouth might be seen entering a public house and calling for his gill or his quart of ale, and he thought it manly. Why, if such a one had his deserts his father would take a good stout hazel or ash plant and lay it on his back with a will. A birch rod for the younger ones and an ash plant for the elder ones.

He did not advise them to beat children savagely or cruelly; but it was most important that corporal punishment should be inflicted when necessary and in a proper manner. The grace of God was very useful in checking bad habits, but next to that with a certain clasp there was nothing like a good ash plant or a birch rod. That might not be very pleasant doctrine for the children, but it was very useful.

(*Warrington Guardian.*)

— *Misspent Evenings.*—The boy who spends an hour of each evening loitering on street corners, wastes, in the course of a year, three hundred and sixty-five precious hours, which, if applied to study, would familiarize sciences. If in addition to wasting an hour each evening he spent ten cents for a cigar, which is usually the case, the amount thus worse than wasted would pay for ten of the leading periodicals of the country. Boys, think of these things. Think how much precious time and good money you are wasting, and for what? The gratification afforded by the lounge on the corner, or by the cigar, is not only temporary, but positively hurtful. You cannot indulge in these practices without seriously injuring yourselves. You acquire idle and wasteful habits, which will cling to you through life; and grow upon you with each succeeding year.

You may, in after life, shake them off, but the probabilities are that the idle habits thus formed in early life will remain with you till your dying day. Be warned then in time, and resolve that as the hour spent in idleness is gone forever, you will improve each passing one, and thereby fit yourselves for usefulness and happiness.

— *London School Board.* — A memorandum issued by the School Board for London states that in the middle of July an inspection was made of the numbers and occupations of children under thirteen years old observed in the streets from the Royal Exchange, by Temple-Bar and Regent St., to Oxford-Circus, also from Farringdon-Circus, along Holborn, to the Marble Arch. The following is a summary of the result: — Board-sweepers, 14 boys; Crossing-sweepers, 0; licensed shoeblocks, 27 boys; other shoeblocks, 6 boys; sellers of matches, 45 boys and 11 girls; sellers of newspapers, 42 boys and 5 girls; sellers of other articles, 3 boys and 4 girls; number of boys, 137; number of girls 20; total, 157. Besides these children there were of persons in the same street, over thirteen years old, at the same employments, 180 men and 64 women—total 250; of whom 8 were crossing-sweepers, and in addition there were 77 persons with advertising boards between Temple-Bar and Oxford-Circus. Thus in about five miles of the most frequented thoroughfares there were 157 children street-workers.

### Literature and Science.

— *Origin of Financial Abbreviations.* — The *New York Journal of Commerce* thus answers a query as to the origin of the dollar mark:

"The dollar sign (\$) was in use long before there was any Federal coinage to be represented. All these old characters grew into use so gradually that their exact origin is often disputed, and frequently lost even beyond the reach of long-armed tradition. The origin of the dollar-mark is disputed. Most old writers say the \$ came from the old Spanish pillar dollar, which bore on its reverse the two "Pillars of Hercules," the ancient name of the opposite promontories at the Straits of Gibraltar. The parallel lines in it, thus ||, stand, according to this explanation, for the two pillars, and they are bound together, thus \$, with a scroll. More modern writers claim that as the Spanish dollar was a piece of 8 reals, "8 R" being once stamped on it, and it was then called "a piece of eight," that the figure 8 with a line drawn through it, as characters were generally formed, produced the sign of the dollar. It was not called a dollar, but "a piece of eight." The name itself was borne in Germany, and from the fact that the first piece of this character was coined in the Valley of St. Joachim, in Bohemia, in the year 1518, it was called Joachim's Thaler, the last half of the word being pronounced (and often written) *daller*. The character £ is the first letter of the Latin word *Libræ*, with a line across for the pound sterling, and the letters lb, with a line across it represents the same word as applied to a pound weight.

— *The Birth-Place of Pickwick.* — This little monastic enclosure is Furnival's Inn, once the mansion of the Furnival family, "A valiant family," says Mr. Jesse, "from Girard de Furnival, who fought by the side of Richard Cœur de Lion, on the plains of Palestine, to Thomas de Furnival, the companion of the Black Prince, on the field of Cressy." Alas!

"The knights are dust,  
Their good swords are rust,  
And their souls are with the saints, we trust."

No more helm and sabre, lance and trumpets, round the house of Furnival; but lawyers' deeds, blue bags and red tape. In 1383 the gallant, hard-fighting Furnivals became extinct, and the Inn fell by marriage to the Earls of Shrewsbury. In the reign of Edward VI., however, an Earl of Shrewsbury sold it to Lincoln's Inn. The Inn was rebuilt in the reign of James I.; but a part of it having been destroyed by fire and the rest growing ruinous, it was pulled down in 1817, and rebuilt by Mr. Peto, whose complacent statue now figures in the centre.

In the old building there was a chapel, near which stood a mulberry tree, a relic, perhaps, of James I., when loyal persons planted mulberry trees by the king's wish, to furnish food for the silk-worms, which were then being bred by the English silk manufacturers. But the chief memory that consecrates the inn is neither of the mulberry tree, nor of the knights of Cressy, it is a later and more immortal memory. At No. 15, high up at the top on the right hand

side as you face the door-way, are the humble chambers where Mr. Dickens was living when he wrote "Pickwick." He was newly married then, and writing zealously for the newspapers. Here his quick fancy devised that most delightful crowd of oddities, genial old "Pickwick," romantic "Snodgrass," daring "Winkle, and gallant "Tupman," the swift but vivacious "Jingle," "Sam Weller," the incomparable; here, with those vagrant pigeons from Guildhall, strutting and fluttering at the window, Dickens must have sat roaring at his own fun, and the creations of a humor only transcended by him who created "Falstaff." Yes, there has been laughing in the Inn before now; for here at No. 3, down to the left as you enter the archway, that gay, light-hearted "Mercutio," Mr. Charles Mathews, set up as an architect, and many a bright castle he built. "I went out one day, says Mr. Mathews, "left a card pinned up, 'back in an hour,' and did not come back in five years."

— *Bonds of Nations.* — The operation of dangerous and delusive first principles obliges us to have recourse to the true ones. In the intercourse between nations, we are apt to rely too much on the instrumental part. We lay too much weight upon the formality of treaties and compacts. We do not act much more wisely when we trust to the interests of men as guarantees of their engagements. The interests frequently tear to pieces the engagements; and the passions trample upon both. Entirely to trust to either, is to disregard our own safety, or not to know mankind. Men are not tied to one another by papers and seals. They are led to associate by resemblances, by conformities, by sympathies. It is with nations as with individuals. Nothing is so strong a tie of amity between nation and nation as correspondence in laws, customs, manners, and habits of life. They have more than the force of treaties in themselves. They are obligations written in the heart. They approximate men to men without their knowledge, and sometimes against their intentions. The secret, unseen, but irrefragable bond of habitual intercourse holds them together, even when their perverse and litigious nature sets them to equivocate, scuffle, and fight about the terms of their written obligations.

— *Books.*—Nothing ought to be more weighed than the nature of books recommended by public authority. So recommended, they soon form the character of the age. Uncertain indeed is the efficacy, limited indeed is the extent, of a virtuous institution. But if education takes in *vice* as any part of its system, there is no doubt but that it will operate with abundant energy, and to an extent indefinite. The magistrate, who, in favour of freedom, thinks himself obliged to suffer all sorts of publications, is under a stricter duty than any other, well to consider what sort of writers he shall authorize, and shall recommend, by the strongest of all sanctions, that is, by public honours and rewards. He ought to be cautious how he recommends authors of mixed or ambiguous morality. He ought to be fearful of putting into the hands of youth writers indulgent to the peculiarities of their own complexion, lest they should teach the humours of the professor, rather than the principles of the science. He ought, above all, to be cautious in recommending any writer, who has carried marks of a deranged understanding; for where there is no sound reason, there can be no real virtue; and madness is ever vicious and malignant.

— *Characters of Men.* — It is in the relaxation of security, it is in the expansion of prosperity, it is in the hour of dilatation of the heart, and of its softening into festivity and pleasure, that the real character of men is discerned. If there is any good in them, it appears then or never. Even wolves and tigers, when gorged with their prey, are safe and gentle. It is at such times that noble minds give all the reins to their good nature. They indulge their genius even to intemperance, in kindness to the afflicted, in generosity to the conquered; forbearing insults, forgiving injuries, overpaying benefits. Full of dignity themselves, they respect dignity in all, but they feel it sacred in the unhappy. But it is then, and basking in the sunshine of unmerited fortune, that low, sordid, ungenerous, and reptile souls swell with their hoarded poisons; it is then that they display their odious splendour, and shine out in the full lustre of their native villany and baseness. It is in that season that no man of sense or honour can be mistaken for one of them.

BURKE.

— *Mexico in 1569.* — The especial attributes of the most beautiful cities in the world were here conjoined; and that which was the sole boast of many a world-renowned name, formed but one of the charms of this enchantress among cities. Well might the rude Spanish soldier find no parallel but in the imaginations of his favourite

romance. Like Granada, encircled, but not frowned upon, by mountains; fondled and adorned by water, like Venice; as grand in its buildings as Babylon of old; and rich with gardens, like Damascus;—the great city of Mexico was at that time the fairest in the world, and has never since been equalled. Like some rare woman, of choicest parentage, the descendant of two royal houses far apart, who joins the soft, subtle, graceful beauty of the south, to the fair, blue-eyed, blushing beauty of the north, and sits enthroned in the hearts of all beholders—so sat Mexico upon the waters, with a diadem of gleaming towers, a fair expanse of flowery meadows on her breast, a circle of mountains as her zone; and, not unwoman-like, rejoicing in the reflection of her beautiful self from the innumerable mirrors which were framed by her streets, her courts, her palaces, and her temples. Neither was hers a beauty, like that of many cities, which gratifies the eye at a distance; but which diminishes at each advancing step of the beholder, until it absolutely degenerates into equality. She was beautiful when seen from afar; she still maintained her beauty, when narrowly examined by the impartial and scrupulous traveller. She was the city not only of a great king, but of an industrious and thriving people. If we descend into details, we shall see that the above description is not fanciful nor exaggerated. Mexico was situated in a great salt lake, communicating with a fresh-water lake. It was approached by three principal causeways of great breadth, constructed of solid masonry, which to use the picturesque language of the Spaniards, were two lances, in breadth. The length of one of these causeways was two leagues, and that of another a league and-a-half; and these two ample causeways united in the middle of the city, where stood the great temple. At the ends of these causeways were wooden draw-bridges, so that communication could be cut off between the causeways and the town, which would thus become a citadel. There was also an aqueduct which communicated with the main land, consisting of two separate lines of work in masonry, in order that if one should need repair, the supply of water for the city might not be interrupted. The streets were the most various in construction that have ever been seen in any city in the world. Some were of dry land, others wholly of water; and others, again, had pathways of pavement, while in the centre there was room for boats. The foot-passengers could talk with those in the boats. It may be noticed that a city so constructed requires a circumspect and polite population. . . . There was a market-place twice as large as that of the city of Salamanca, surrounded with porticos in which there was room for fifty thousand people to buy and sell. The great temple of the city maintained its due proportion of magnificence. In the plan of the city of Mexico, which is to be found in a very early edition of the Letters of Cortes, published at Nuremberg, and which is supposed to be the one that Cortes sent to Charles the Fifth, I observe that the space allotted to the temple is twenty times as great as that allotted to the market-place. Indeed, the sacred enclosure was in itself a town; and Cortes, who seldom stops in his terrible narrative to indulge in praise or in needless description, says that no human tongue could explain the grandeur and the peculiarities of this temple. Cortes uses the word "temple," but it might rather be called a sacred city, as it contained many temples, and the abodes of all the priests and virgins who ministered at them, also a university and an arsenal. It was enclosed by lofty stone walls, and entered by four portals, surrounded by bastions. No less than twenty truncated pyramids of solid masonry, faced with a polished surface of white cement that shone like silver in the sun, rose up from within that enclosure. High over them all towered the great temple dedicated to the god of war. This, like the rest, was a truncated pyramid, with ledges round it, and with two small towers upon the summit, in which were placed the images of the great god of war (Huituidopochth) and of the principal deity of all (Tezcatlipuk,) Mexican Jupiter. — *The Life of Fernando Cortes, by Arthur Helps, Author of "The Spanish Conquest in America."*

—*How History is Written.*—Some of the papers here (writes a *Daily News* Paris correspondent) are debating the question whether Delescluze be dead or not. It is pleasant to see the Parisian press in doubt as to its facts—the sight is so rare. And if the Parisian journalists could know how completely they have been and are in error as to the fate of most of the Communal leaders, they would in future be very chary of committing themselves on any subject by hasty assertions. Perhaps it is the discovery of some journalists that most of the stories afloat as to what has become of the leading spirits of the Commune, are mere fictions which have led to the suggestion that Delescluze is not dead. I may assure these sceptical Thomases of the Parisian press that they may dismiss their doubts. Delescluze is really dead. He was shot near the Chateau d'Eau. I will state another fact which I believe I am the first to announce. His suc-

cessor in office was Varlin. It is announced most positively in the record of the Paris newspapers, that Varlin was taken in the neighborhood of Rue de la Fayette, on Saturday, the 25th of May. I do not know about this. I should doubt it very much. Late in the afternoon of this Saturday, the last day but one of the Commune, he was directing operations at Belville, and it would be strange if he could be captured at the same time, in the west of Paris, and taken to Montmartre to be shot. There is an order of his in existence couched in the following terms:—"May 27, 1871, 2.30 of the afternoon. Order to beat the rappel, and the generals to collect the battalions. The Civil Delegate for War, Varlin." This document is by no means decisive as to the question of his being shot or not on that Saturday afternoon. It is chiefly interesting as evidence of Varlin's succession to Delescluze. Observe that it is now six weeks since the death of Delescluze—and yet, as I believe now for the first time, it is announced he had a successor in the War Office, and that his successor was Varlin. It is one of many illustrations which might be produced of the difficulty of getting at facts relating to the Commune. Facts! Why to listen to the men of the Commune themselves you would imagine that nothing on earth was capable of demonstration. No fact is supposed to be more certain than this—that the Commune burnt a great part of Paris. During the last six weeks I have seen the misguided men of the Commune both in London and Paris. In the face of day upon the boulevards, I have talked to notoriety of the Commune. I have said to them, "Well, you have crowned your iniquities by the destruction of Paris. Why did you attempt this wickedness? Why did you turn your political opinion into a criminal one?" Nearly the invariable answer I have received is, "What proof have you? How do you know that it was the Commune which burnt Paris? It was the army of Versailles." It was easy to reply—"You announced your intention of destroying Paris rather than give it up to the Monarchists, as you called them; the orders of the Communal authorities are in existence commanding the burning of various quarters of Paris, and your people were caught also in the act." I have been told vociferously that all this is calumny; that the written orders are forgeries prepared by the enemies of the Commune, and that if some individuals connected with the Commune, may in a moment of madness, have been so lost as to destroy any building in Paris, it ought not to be laid to the account of the rest. Of course, I do not give you these details as worth a straw; but still they have a sort of interest as showing how self-delusions arise, and how history may be falsified. I have no doubt that some of my interlocutors at least—I do not say all—were perfectly sincere when they denied most strenuously that the Commune had set fire to Paris, and that this was the act of the Versailles troops.

—*American Newspapers.*—Colonel John W. Forney said, not long ago, at a dinner given in his honor: "I have given you a few details of the condition and number of newspapers in the United States in 1775 and in 1810. But in 1870 we count fifty-five hundred news periodicals of all degrees, with a probable annual circulation of not less than seven hundred and twenty-five millions. Of these, four hundred and seventy-five are dailies, circulating nearly two millions of copies every twenty-four hours: one hundred and sixty are agricultural journals, circulating over half a million; and about three hundred religious periodicals, circulating over two and a half millions of copies of each edition—an aggregate, without counting our monthly literature, larger than that of the rest of the civilized world. In fifty years, when our population shall have attained, on the present ratio of increase, to one hundred and fifty millions, the boy of seventeen to-day will have a far different story to tell."

—*French Constitutions.*—During the eighty years which have elapsed between 1791 and 1870, France has been governed by fifteen Constitutions, averaging in duration five years and four months, although some lasted much longer. As it may be a matter of historical interest, we give these Constitutions. First, the Constitution of September 3d, 1791, lasting fifteen months. Second, the Constitution of June 24th, 1793, which lasted fifteen months and ended in the fall of Robespierre. Third, the Constitution of the Nineteenth Vendemiaire, of the second year of the French Republic, which lasted three months. Fourth, the Constitution of the Fourteenth Frimaire of the second year of the French Republic, which lasted fifteen months. Fifth, the Constitution of the fourth Fructidor of the third year of the Republic, which created the "Directory," and lasted four and a half years. Sixth, the Constitution of the twenty-second Frimaire of the seventh year of the Republic, which established the first Consulate and lasted for two years. Seventh, the Constitution of Thermidor of the tenth year of the Republic, which established the second Consulate, and lasted

two years. Eighth, the Constitution of the twenty-third Floreal of the twelfth year of the Republic, which established the first Empire under Napoleon I., and lasted ten years. Ninth, the Constitution of April, 1814, which lasted three months. Tenth, the Constitution of June 4th, 1814, known as "La Charta," which lasted nine months. Eleventh, the Constitution of March 22d, 1815, granted by Napoleon I., after his return from Elba, which lasted during his reign of "one hundred days," or three months. Twelfth, the Constitution of July 7th, 1805, granted by Louis XVII., and continued under Charles X., which lasted for fifteen years. Thirteenth, the Constitution of August 6th, 1830, under which Louis Philippe reigned for eighteen years. Fourteenth, the Constitution of Nov. 12th, 1848, or that of the second Republic, which lasted for two years. Fifteenth, the Constitution of January 14th, 1852, or that of the second Empire, which lasted nineteen years. Sundry governments also arose in France during this period which never reached that state of maturity symbolized by a written Constitution, and the changes introduced in the last Imperial Constitution are not mentioned. The experiment now in process of trial by the Assembly in session at Versailles, forms the sixteenth government.

— *The Chicago Fire.* — On the 7th inst., a conflagration, such as has no parallel in modern history, unless in those kindled by war. Even the great fire of London though relatively more destructive, did not equal it in absolute extent. The London of that day was little more than two-thirds the size of the Chicago of to-day, having then less than 25,000 inhabitants, and if as reported two-thirds of Chicago is in ruins, the desolated territory is far greater than the five-sixths of London, said to have being laid waste in 1666. The entire business part of the city, including some ten square miles is gone. About 150,000 people were suddenly thrown without food or shelter, and thousands had hardly clothes sufficient to cover themselves. No accurate estimate of the loss of lives has been arrived at, but all agree in saying it is something extraordinary, probably over \$200,000,000. Insurance offices are going to pay well, at least those outside the city.

The cities of the Union and the Dominion are doing their duty nobly in the way of contributions of money, clothing and food.

— *The Wealth and Population of Chicago.* — The growth of Chicago has been one of the marvels of modern civilization. A barren wilderness only thirty odd years ago, it has increased in population and wealth so rapidly that the official statistics have been doubted, and its claims to consideration have challenged the criticism of its rivals. Its preeminence as the great grain, lumber and cattle market of this country, however, is unquestioned, while its wonderful prosperity and the gigantic scale which marked every enterprise which it has touched, have filled every visitor with surprise and admiration. Its elevators, its stock yards, the lumber depots, the tunnels beneath the lake, marked a spirit of progress which awoke the respect of the whole nation. It is but a few years since it raised the grade of hundreds of acres thickly settled and densely populated, and it turned the natural course of a great river, reversing the flow of its waters. The elegance of its public buildings, the richness of its private residences, denoted the taste of the people and the solidity of their wealth; while the sagacity of its leading men in making Chicago the central point for the great railroad enterprises of the West, clutching as it were from Eastern cities the control even of the commodities which come from China and Japan, by sheer force of will and indomitable pluck, has astonished the business world and stimulated every city in the country to be up and doing. The increase of its population and valuation may be seen at a glance from the following table, which gives the total of its valuation, real and personal, at different periods :

	Population	Valuation
1850.....	29,640	\$
1860.....	111,214	37,053,512
1870.....	298,977	275,986,550

The increase of its population from 1850 to 1860 was 264.65 per cent, and from 1860 to 1870, 219.15, while it ranks in population as the fifth city of the United States.—*Boston Journal.*

— *Carbolic Acid and its Uses.* — The following, from the *Scientific American*, is worthy of perusal :

The details of the manufacture of carbolic acid may be consulted in works of chemistry, but its properties and uses may well occupy our attention for a few paragraphs. Concentrated solutions act powerfully on the skin, turning it white and afterwards red, and the spots afterward peel off. It is a dangerous poison; a few drops will kill a dog, and plants are at once destroyed by a weak aqueous solution.

Runge recommended carbolic acid for embalming bodies, and as a disinfectant, and tried to show its value for this purpose; but little attention was bestowed upon his assertions, and it is only recently that the substance has obtained proper recognition from medical and other authorities.

Extensive use is now made of carbolic acid to destroy the odor of stables, a carbolate of lime being prepared and sold for that purpose. As an insect exterminator, few agents can be compared with carbolic acid, and it is naturally applied by physicians for such cutaneous diseases as are caused by insect life. Several cases of death have been reported in consequence of an incautious use for this purpose. Three who bathed themselves with a sponge saturated with carbolic acid, to cure the itch, were immediately attacked with dizziness, and soon became unconscious. Two of them subsequently died, and the life of the other was saved with difficulty. When used as a wash for man and the lower animals, it must be taken very weak, and in small quantities at a time. Dogs have been sadly tortured by it, in the vain hope of killing fleas.

The odor of carbolic acid is sometimes disguised by mixing it with camphor, when it is required to keep moths out of furs and clothing. No doubt the preservative property of coal tar is largely due to the presence of this powerful agent.

All manner of soaps, ointments, and even troches are made with carbolic acid, which must be used with caution, as the poisonous character of the acid suggests at once that it ought not to be tampered with.

Art.

— *Influence of the Age upon Music and the Drama.* — Mr. Henry O'Neil, A. R. A., in his third lecture before the Royal Institution, began by expressing his fear that at the present time music and the drama are merely regarded as a means to afford amusement, adding that, if that alone were their mission, men gifted with genius would not have spent their lives for so poor a purpose. If other arts merely minister to acquired tastes, music satisfies a mental want coeval with our existence. They have been created by the perceptive faculties of man; but music was born with him, and is the link which connects him with another world. The power of sound pervades creation from the very elements to the meanest object in animal life; and there is music in very silence. Of all the arts music is the most spiritual in its nature, and also the most ancient, its influence having preceded that of the most useful. Its progress has been slow, since it is a language which requires extraneous aid to make it intelligible; for the human voice, though the most perfect organ for expression, is too limited to give full utterance to its varied effects. But science has now supplied all that was wanting, and there is even a danger of its abusing its privilege, by aiming at the production of quantity of sound rather than quality. The number of truly great musicians is small when compared with that of other artists; yet this is not due to the want of intellectual power in music; since there cannot be a poem or picture illustrative of nature more perfect in the expression of emotions than the "Pastoral Symphony" of Beethoven, or more expressive of the fitful moods of love than his Sonata in C sharp minor, so improperly called the Moonlight Sonata. Mendelssohn's Italian symphony is simply the expression of the impression produced on a sensitive mind by the beauty and the fallen greatness of the country and the the undying vivacity of its inhabitants. Other examples, of musical expression are abundantly found in the chousures and songs of Handel, Mozart and Glück. The degradation of the public taste in the present time is shown in the success of nigger minstrels and music-hall vocalists, and in the efforts to produce crude novelties and spasmodic effects in the so-called music of the future. Adverting to the Drama, Mr. O'Neil characterised it as giving the clearest insight into the moral and intellectual state of a people, and as depending upon its degree of unison with the temper of the moment, and therefore change and novelty are less pernicious to its progress than they are to other arts. Though Shakspeare finds in these days no appreciative audience, yet he will live for ever; but attempts at revivalism, like those of Charles Kean's, who clothed him in gorgeous array, by the help of scenery and costume, are very questionable on the score of taste; and what kind of pleasure can be derived from our retrospection of viewing correct interiors of prisons, real pumps and water, or a real handsome cab, or locomotive? It is fitter for the stage to die, if it can only live by such miserable expedients. There is no help for the absence of original genius, or even for the want of appreciation of high and earnest work. The temper of the age is not of a character to call forth the one, and so it ignores the other. Tragedy and comedy we have not; but we have

in their place a mongrel production termed a "drama" a compound of sensation and buffoonery; and vulgarity does not produce disgust, or indecency arouse indignation, in either the highest or lowest resorts for amusement. The public press, indeed, asserts its great power; but fashion or public opinion is vastly its superior in influence on all matters relating to art.

—*Antiquarian.*—The Montreal Numismatic and Antiquarian Society held its first meeting of the season at the Natural History Society rooms, on Wednesday evening (27th. ult.) when there was a fair attendance of members. A number of antiquities, coins and books were received from kindred societies in the United States, as well as from individual members. Some of the members also exhibited a number of choice gold and silver coins. Messrs. Sandham and Mott laid before the meeting a scheme proposed by them for the publication of a monthly journal, to be devoted to Canadian Archæology and numismatics. The opinion of the meeting seemed to favor the publication of such a work under the direction of the Society as preferable to that of being a private enterprise. The matter was held over for discussion at a future meeting. Mr. Mott presented specimens of the Hudson's Bay Co., paper money forwarded to him by Dr. Schultz. Dr. S. A. Green, Rev. E. F. Shafter and Dr. Francis Parkman, of Boston, with J. M. Lemoine, Esq., of Quebec, were elected corresponding members. We are informed that arrangements have been made to meet regularly, in the Natural History Society rooms, and also to place the cabinet in the Museum. The Society being regularly incorporated by the Quebec Legislature, bids fair to become a permanent institution, and all who may possess articles of curiosity, or coins of interest, would do well to remember these facts, and make additions to the cabinet, that the public may share the pleasure of inspecting the same.—*Gazette.*

**Statistics.**

—*European Armies.*—A series of tables showing the strength of the various armies of Europe has just been published at Vienna. The *Eastern Budget* extracts from these tables the following particulars, which show the actual force that each country has at its disposal in time of war:—

Russia—47 divisions of infantry and 10 of cavalry, 8 brigades of rifles and reserve, 149 regiments of Cossacks, 219 batteries of artillery, and 150 of mitrailleuses, making altogether 862,000 men, 181,000 horses, and 2084 guns. (This includes the troops in the Caucasus, Siberia, and Turkestan.)

Germany—18 corps, including 37 divisions of infantry and 10 of cavalry, and 337 batteries of artillery. This force numbers 824,900 men, 95,724 horses, 2022 guns.

Austria—13 corps, including 40 divisions of infantry and 5 of cavalry, and 205 batteries of artillery and mitrailleuses. The total force is 723,926 men and 85,125 horses, with 1600 guns and 190 mitrailleuses.

England—Army in process of reorganization. Turkey—6 corps of Nizam (regulars), 12 corps of Redifs (reserves), and 132 battries—making 253,289 men, 34,845 horses, 732 guns.

Italy—4 corps, with 40 infantry and 6 cavalry brigades, and 90 batteries. Total force—415,200 men, 12,868 horses, 720 guns.

France 10 corps with 32 infantry and 12 cavalry divisions, and 140 batteries. Total force—456,740 men, 47,995 horses, and 984 guns, including mitrailleuses.

Belgium—145,000 men, 7,000 horses, and 152 guns.

Switzerland—160,000 men, 2,700 horses, and 278 guns.

Roumania—106,000 men, 15,675 horses, and 96 guns.

Servia—107,000 men, 4,000 horses, and 194 guns.

Greece—125,000 men, 1,000 horses, and 48 guns.

Sweden (including Norway)—61,604 men, 8,500 horses, and 222 guns.

Denmark—31,916 men, 2,120 horses; and 96 guns.

Spain—144,938 men, 30,252 horses, and 456 guns.

Portugal—64,393 men, 6 320 horses, and 95 guns.

From the above data, it appears that the total of the forces available for war purposes in Europe, taking the English disposable force at 470,775 men and 336 guns, is 5,164,200 men, 512,294 horses, 10,224 guns, and about 5000 mitrailleuses.

**Meteorology.**

—From the Records of the Montreal Observatory, Lat. 45° 31' North; Long. 4h. 54m. 11 sec. West of Greenwich; Height above the level of

the sea, 182 feet; For the month of Sept., 1871,—By CHARLES SMALL wood, M.D., LL.D., D.C.L.

DAYS.	Barometer at 32°			Temperature of the Air.			Direction of Wind.			Miles in 24 hours.
	7 a.m.	2 p.m.	9 p.m.	7 a.m.	2 p.m.	9 p.m.	7 a.m.	2 p.m.	9 p.m.	
1	30.273	30.274	30.310	56.1	81.0	66.0	W	W	W	97.24
2	.298	.245	.206	55.3	85.1	67.0	W	N by W	W	81.14
3	.221	.203	.249	63.7	85.1	72.0	W	W	W	107.11
4	.211	.071	.052	66.4	89.0	74.1	S	S	SW	68.24
5	.006	.004	29.972	68.0	90.1	75.0	S	SW	W	101.11
6	29.981	29.974	.764	68.8	91.0	68.7	SW	SW	W	214.16
7	.871	.980	30.161	58.5	79.7	57.0	W	W by N	W	197.24
8	30.350	30.347	.300	50.1	73.6	58.2	N	N	S	202.14
9	.274	.180	.111	53.1	81.2	65.0	SW	S	S	64.21
01	.281	.249	.226	54.1	72.7	58.7	NE	NE	NE	90.16
11	.321	.314	.320	52.2	76.4	61.0	W	W	W	50.21
12	.346	.311	.200	54.2	78.1	63.1	W	W	W	64.10
13	.065	.120	.287	58.5	70.6	49.2	W	W by N	N	164.21
14	.386	.332	.348	41.2	70.6	.05	NW	W	S	146.24
15	.351	.326	.150	45.6	55.0	53.1	W	S	S	68.11
16	29.900	29.864	29.900	50.2	53.1	53.5	S	NE	NE	94.00
17	.800	.886	30.121	52.7	70.1	48.1	W	W	NW	62.18
18	30.236	30.116	.103	40.2	64.1	52.1	NW	W	W	71.11
19	29.725	29.712	29.782	48.5	64.1	51.0	S	W	W	80.22
20	.761	.897	30.104	45.5	56.2	46.3	W	W	W	92.14
21	30.272	30.300	.376	39.1	57.2	44.2	NW	W	W	118.14
22	.375	.166	.027	40.2	65.2	51.0	W	W	S	72.13
23	29.851	29.617	29.625	49.3	61.0	62.3	S	S	W	91.12
24	.621	.600	.751	60.1	79.1	69.4	W	W S W	W	184.12
25	.942	.876	.876	55.0	66.6	60.7	W	W	W	79.24
26	.779	.768	.700	57.0	56.6	53.3	E	S	S	57.12
27	.721	.673	.649	50.1	59.0	52.2	W	SW	SW	84.21
28	.500	.676	.801	50.1	54.1	49.1	W	W	W	79.20
29	30.000	30.052	30.060	45.1	52.0	45.7	W	W	W	151.10
30	.300	.231	.262	40.2	68.7	49.2	NW	W	W	86.12

**REMARKS.**

The highest reading of the Barometer was on the 14th day, and was 30.386 inches; the lowest reading was on the 28th day, and was 29.500 inches, giving a monthly range of 0.886 inches.

—Observations taken at Halifax, Nova Scotia, during the month of July, 1871; Lat 44°39' North; Long, 63°36' West; height above the Sea 175 feet; by Sergt. John Thurling, A. H. Corps, Halifax.

Barometer, highest reading was on the 9th.....	30.368 inches.
" lowest " " 28th.....	29.534
" range of pressure.....	0.834
" mean for month (reduced to 32°).....	29.849 degrees
Thermometer, highest in shade was on 3rd.....	81.0
" lowest " " 23rd.....	32.7
" range in month.....	48.3
" mean of all highest.....	67.1
" mean of all lowest.....	45.0
" mean daily range.....	22.1
" mean for month.....	56.0
" maximum reading in sun's rays.....	128.0
" minimum reading on grass.....	31.0
Hygrometer, mean of dry bulb.....	59.2
" " wet bulb.....	54.6
" " dew point.....	50.6
" elastic force of vapour.....	369
" weight of vapour in a cubic foot of air... ..	4.2 grains.
" " required to saturate do.....	1.4
" the figure of humidity (Sat 100).....	73
" average weight of a cubic foot of air.....	532.1 grains.
Cloud, mean amount of, (0-10).....	5.7
Ozone, " " (0-10).....	2.5
Wind, mean direction of North.....	8.25 days.
" " East.....	2.00
" " South.....	5.50
" " West.....	14.25
" daily horizontal movement.....	316.7 miles.
" daily force.....	2.3
Rain. No. of days it fell.....	10 days.
Amount collected on ground.....	5.78 inches.
Fig. No. of days it prevailed.....	1 days.
Aurora Borealis. No. of nights.....	7