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SUMMARY.—**LITERATURE.**—Poetry: Flowers and stars, by Mrs. Leprohon.—Angry words.—**EDUCATION.** School days of eminent men in Great Britain, by John Times, F. S. A., (continued from our last).—Suggestive hints towards improved secular instruction, by R. Dawes, 4th article, Geography.—The power of expression.—Oral instruction.—Landscape in the selection of a site for a school.—Are young teachers successful?—Success attributable to love of occupation.—Humility a sign of greatness.—Routine and guessing in school.—**OFFICIAL NOTICES.** Appointment of a member of the Protestant Board of Examiners, Montreal.—Appointment of School Commissioners.—Erection of a School Municipality.—**EDITORIAL:** To our subscribers.—An example.—The new postage law and the educational department.—Education in Upper Canada in 1857.—Agricultural education.—Chronicle of the war.—**MONTHLY SUMMARY:** Educational intelligence.—Literary intelligence.

LITERATURE.

POETRY.

FLOWERS AND STARS.

BY MRS. J. L. LEPROHON, MONTREAL.

"Beloved! thou'rt gazing with thoughtful look
On those flowers of brilliant hue,
Blushing in spring-tide freshness and bloom,
Glittering with diamond dew:
What dost thou read in each chalice fair—
And what does each blossom say?
Do they not tell thee, my peerless one,
Thou'rt lovelier far than they?"

"Not so—not so, but they whisper low
That quickly will fade their bloom:
Soon will they withered lie on the sod,
Ravished of all perfume;
They tell that youth and beauty below
Are doomed, alas! to decay,
And like them in the flower of life
I may pass from earth away."

"Too sad thy thoughts—look up towards yon stars,
Gleaming in sapphire skies:
Not clearer their radiance, Best Beloved,
Than light of thine own dark eyes!
With no thoughts of death or sad decay,
Can they thy young spirit fill;
Through ages they've shone with changeless light,
And yet they are shining still!"

"Ah! they call up before my spirit's gaze
Dreams of that Home so blessed,
Where those who have served the Master well,
At length from their labors rest,
And do not chide, if despite all ties
Of close-clinging earthly love,
There are times I turn a wishful glance
To that distant Home above."

—Boston Pilot.

ANGRY WORDS.

Angry words are lightly spoken,
In a rash and thoughtless hour,
Brightest links of life are broken,
By their deep, insidious power.
Hearts inspired by warmest feeling,
Ne'er before by anger stirred,
Oft are rent past human healing,
By a single angry word.

Poison drops of care and sorrow,
Bitter poison drops are they—
Weaving for the coming morrow
Saddest memories of to-day.
Angry words! oh, let them never
From the tongue unbridled slip,
May the heart's best impulse ever
Check them ere they soil the lip.

Love is much too pure and holy,
Friendship is too sacred far,
For a moment's reckless folly
Thus to desolate and mar.
Angry words are lightly spoken;
Bitterest thoughts are rashly stirr'd:
Brightest links of life are broken
By a single angry word.

EDUCATION.

School days of Eminent Men in Great-Britain.

By JOHN TIMES, F. S. A.

(Continued from our last.)

LXIII.

LORD HERBERT OF CHERBURY, IN SHROPSHIRE.

The celebrated Lord Herbert of Chisbury, born 1581, in his Autobiography, thus describes his early tuition:—
He adds that under Mr. Newton, at Diddlebury, in Shropshire, he attained to the knowledge of the Greek Tongue and Logic, in so much that at twelve years old his parents sent him to Oxford to University College, where he disputed at his first coming in Logic, and made in Greek the exercises required in that College, oftener than in Latin. He was a patron of Ben Jonson, who, in a complimentary epigram, addresses him as "all virtuous Herbert." His *Life of Henry VIII.* is a masterpiece of historic biography, worthy to rank with Bacon's *Life of Henry VII.*

LXIV.

ADMIRAL BLAKE AT BRIDGEWATER.

Robert Blake, "Admiral and General at Sea," was born in 1598, at Bridgewater, in a house of the Tudor age, which remains to this day; adjoining is the secluded garden, in which "the ruddy-faced and curly-haired boy, Robert Blake, played and pondered, as was his habit, until the age of sixteen." He was sent early to the Bridgewater Grammar School, which had been founded some five-and-forty years before, and endowed by Queen Elizabeth; and was then considered one of the best foundations of its kind in England. "At the Grammar School he made some progress in his Greek and Latin; something of navigation, shipbuilding, and the routine of sea duties he probably learned from his father, or from his father's factors and servants. His own taste, however, the habit of his mind, and the bent of his ambition, led to literature. He was the first of the race who had shown any vocation to letters and learning, and his father, proud of his talents and his studies, resolved that he should have some chance of rising to eminence. Nor was this early culture thrown away. At sixteen he was already prepared for the university, and at his earnest desire was sent to Oxford, where he matriculated as a member of St. Alban's Hall, in 1615." He removed to Wadham College, and there remained several years, took the usual honours, and completed his education; and in the great dining-hall of Wadham a portrait of the Admiral is shown with pride as that of its most illustrious scholar. Blake, in good time, took his degree of Master of Arts at Oxford; he had read the best authors in Greek and Latin, and wrote the latter language sufficiently well for verse and epigram. Even in the busiest days of his public life, it was his pride not to forget his old studies.

LXV.

WALLER'S DULNESS.

Edmund Waller, the poet, one of the best examples of poetic style and diction, was born at Coleshill, in Berkshire, in 1605, and was sent early to the Grammar School or Market Wickham, where he was said to be "dull and slow in his task." Mr. Thomas Bigge, of Wickham, who had been Waller's schoolfellow, and of the same form, told Aubrey, that "he little thought that Waller would have made so rare a poet; for he was wont to make his exercise for him." He was removed at an unusually early age to King's College, Cambridge, where his scholastic attainments are said to have led to his being elected member of parliament for the borough of Aymouthesham at the age of 16; though this is, with greater probability, attributed to Waller's name and local influence.

This account of Waller's dulness at school is probable; for says Mr. Bell, "it indicates the character of Waller's genius, which demanded time and labour in the accomplishment of the smallest results."

Aubrey describes Waller's writing as "a lamentable hand, as bad as the scratching of a hen;" but this is an exaggeration, and disproved by his autograph, which is, however, very rare.

Waller took his seat in the House of Commons before he was the age of 17. He became (as Bishop Burnet expresses it) "the delight of the House," and, when old, "said the liveliest things of any among them." Being present once, when the Duke of Buckingham was paying his court to the King, by arguing against Revelation, Mr. Waller said; "My Lord, I am a great deal older than your Grace; and have, I believe, heard more arguments for atheism than ever your Grace did; but I have lived long enough to see there is nothing in them: and so, I hope, your Grace will." Waller died in 1682, in his 33rd year.

LXVI.

DR. BUSBY, HEAD MASTER OF WESTMINSTER SCHOOL.

This most eminent schoolmaster of his time, who is said, in the *Genus Alumnorum*, "to have educated the greatest number of learned scholars that ever adorned at one time any age or nation," was born at Luton, in Northamptonshire, in 1606. Having passed through Westminster School, he was elected student of Christ Church, Oxford; but he was so poor that he received the sum of 5*l.* of the parish of St. Margaret, to enable him to proceed bachelor; and 26*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* to proceed master of arts: as entered in the Churchwarden's accounts. Of this timely aid he made a noble acknowledgment by making a bequest of 50*l.* to poor housekeepers, an estate worth 52*l.*, and in personal property nearly 5000*l.*, to St. Margaret's parish.

Busby achieved a great reputation at Oxford, as an "exact Latinist and Grecian," and likewise for his power of oratory. While still a resident in the university, he acted the part of Cratander, in

Cartwright's *Royal Slave*, before the King and Queen at Christchurch, when being more applauded than his fellow-students, his success excited in him so violent a passion for the stage, that he had well nigh engaged himself as an actor.

In 1640 he was appointed master of Westminster School. During the Civil War, though he was ejected from his church appointments, but was allowed to retain his studentship of Christchurch, and the chief mastership of the school, a tribute to his pre-eminent qualities as an instructor. He laboured in his masorahip during more than half a century; and by his diligence, learning and assiduity, has become the proverbial representative of his class.

Dr. Busby is said to have been not only witty, learned, and highly accomplished, but also modest and unassuming: his piety was unaffected, and his liberality unbounded. He died in 1695, and was interred in Westminster Abbey. His works were principally for the use of his school, and either consist of expurgated editions of certain classics which he wished his boys to read in a harmless form, or grammatical treatises, mostly metrical. There is a tradition that some of these were the compositions of his scholars, superintended and corrected by himself. Several of his publications, more or less altered, were used in Westminster School until a few years since.

The severity of Busby's discipline is traditional, but we do not find that it was so; and strange as it may appear, no records are preserved of him in the school over which he so long presided. The charitable intentions of his will are carried into effect by old Westminsters, who meet in the Jerusalem Chamber. The picture by Biley of Dr. Busby with one of his scholars, said to be Philip Henry, is in the Hall at Christchurch; there are also other portraits of him, and a bust of him by Rysbrack; all from a cast in plaster taken after death, for during his life he never would sit for his portrait. Bagshaw states that he never spoilt the rod by sparing the child: according to Dr. Johnson, he used to call the rod his "sieve," and to say "whoever did not pass through it was no boy for him." Pope thus commemorates one of the class:—

"Lo! a spectre rose, whose index-hand
Held forth the virtues of the dreadful wand.
His beaver'd brow a birchen garland wears,
Drooping with infants' blood and mothers' tears.
O'er every vein a shudd'ring horror runs,—
Eton and Winton shake through all their sons.
All flesh is humbled; Westminster's bold race
Shriek and confess the genius of the place:
The pale boy senator yet tingling stands,
And holds his garments close with quiv'ring hands."

Nevertheless, Busby was much beloved by his scholars, as may be seen by letters from Cowley, Dryden, and others. He is said to have taken especial pains in preparing his scholars for the reception of the Eucharist.

Wood describes him as "eminent and exemplary for piety and justice, an encourager of virtuous and forward youth, of great learning and hospitality, and the chief person that educated more youths that were afterwards eminent in the Church and State than any master of his time."

LXVII.

LORD CLARENDON.

Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, one of the illustrious men whose talents were called into action by the Civil Wars, was born in 1633, at Dinton, near Salisbury, where his father enjoyed a competent fortune. He was first instructed at home by the clergyman of the parish, who was also a schoolmaster; but his principal improvement arose from the care and conversation of his father, who had travelled much in his youth. Edward, being a younger son, was destined for the church; and with this view was sent to Magdalen College, Oxford, in his fourteenth year. But on the death of his eldest brother, which soon after took place, his destination was altered; and he was now designed for the profession of the law. He quitted the University with the reputation rather of talents than of industry; and from some dangerous habits in which he had been initiated, he afterwards looked on this early removal as not the least fortunate incident of his life.

He commenced his professional studies in the Middle Temple, under the direction of his uncle, Sir Nicholas Hyde, then treasurer of that Society. His early legal studies were impeded by his health. Nor was his application considerable after his recovery; he lost another year amidst the pleasures of dissipation; and when his dangerous companions had disappeared, he still felt little inclination to immerse himself amidst the records of the law. He was fond of polite literature, and particularly attached to the Latin classics; he therefore bestowed only so much attention on his les-

agreeable professional studies as was sufficient to save his credit with his uncle.

Nevertheless, Hyde, on his appearance at the bar, greatly surpassed the expectations of his contemporaries: he had been punctual in the performance of all those public exercises to which he was bound by the rules of his profession. Meanwhile, he had been careful to form high connexions; for he had laid it down as a rule to be always found in the best company; and to attain, by every honourable means, an intimate friendship with the most considerable persons in the kingdom. While only a student-at-law, he enjoyed the society of Ben Jonson, the most celebrated wit of that age; of Selden, the most skilful of all English lawyers in the ancient constitution and history of his country; and of May, a distinguished scholar, and afterwards the historian of the parliament. Among his other friends, he could recount some of the most learned and celebrated divines—Sheldon, Morley, Earles, Hales of Eton, and above all, Chillingworth, whose amiable qualities rendered him as beloved by his friends, as his controversial talents caused him to be feared by his antagonists; Edmund Waller, who was not less admired by his contemporaries as an orator, than by posterity as a poet, was among Clarendon's intimate associates; but the friend whom he regarded with the most tender attachment, and the most unqualified admiration, was Sir Lucius Carey, afterwards Lord Falkland, whom he delights to describe as the most accomplished gentleman, scholar, and statesman of his age. From the conversation of these and other distinguished individuals, (the characters of some of whom he has admirably sketched in his works,) Clarendon considered himself to have derived a great portion of his knowledge; and he declares that "he never was so proud, or thought himself so good a man, as when he was the worst man in the company."

LXVIII.

SIR ANTHONY COOK AND HIS FOUR LEARNED DAUGHTERS.

In the reign of Elizabeth, ladies generally understood Italian French, the lute, often some Latin and sometimes the use of the globes, and astronomy. The plan of the education of females which the example of Sir Thomas More had rendered popular, continued to be pursued among the superior classes of the community. The learned languages, which, in the earlier part of Elizabeth's reign, contained everything elegant in literature, still formed a requisite of fashionable education; and many young ladies could not only translate the authors of Greece and Rome, but compose in their languages with considerable elegance.

Sir Anthony Cook, whom we have already mentioned as tutor to Edward VI., bestowed the most careful education on his four daughters; and they severally rewarded his exertions, by becoming not only proficient in literature, but distinguished for their excellent conduct as mothers of families. Their classical acquirements made them conspicuous even among the women of fashion of that age. Katherine, who became Lady Killebrew, wrote Latin Hexameters and Pentameters, which would appear with credit in the *Muse Etonenses*. Mildred, the wife of Lord Burleigh, is described by Roger Ascham as the best Greek scholar among the young women of England, Lady Jane Grey always excepted. Anne, the mother of Francis Bacon was distinguished both as a linguist and as a theologian. She corresponded in Greek with Bishop Jewell, and translated his *Apologia* from the Latin so correctly that neither he nor Archbishop Parker could suggest a single alteration. She also translated a series of sermons on fate and free-will, from the Tuscan.

Yet, Lord Macaulay considers the highly-educated ladies of this period, and their pursuits, to have been unfairly extolled at the expense of the women of our time, through one very obvious and very important circumstance being overlooked. "In the time of our Henry VIII. and Edward VI.," says our historian, "a person who did not read Greek and Latin could read nothing, or next to nothing. The Italian was the only modern language which presented anything that could be called a literature. All the valuable books extant in all the vernacular dialects of Europe would hardly have filled a single shelf. England did not yet possess Shakspeare's Plays and the Fairy Queen, nor France Montaigne's Essays, nor Spain Don Quixote. In looking round a well-furnished library, how many English or French books can we find which were extant when Lady Jane Grey and Queen Elizabeth received their education? Chaucer, Gower, Froissart, Rabelais, nearly complete the list. It was, therefore, absolutely necessary that a woman should be uneducated or classically educated. Latin was then the language of courts, as well as of the schools; of diplomacy, and of theological and political controversy. This is no longer the case: ancient tongues are supplanted by the modern languages of Europe, with which English women are at least as well acquainted as English men. When, therefore,

we compare the acquirements of Lady Jane Grey with those of an accomplished young woman of our own time, we have no hesitation in awarding the superiority to the latter."

LXVIX.

A TRUANT PUNISHED IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

Sir Peter Carew, born of a distinguished family in Devonshire, in 1514, after a turbulent youth, took an active part in the Continental wars of that period. He was at the battle of Pavia, subsequently became a favourite of Henry VIII., and lived through a part of the reign of Queen Elizabeth. His life was written by a contemporary, (John Towell, alias Hooker, of Exeter) and describes Peter, "in his prime days, as very pert and forward, wherefore his father

brought him, being about the age of twelve years, to Exeter, to school, and lodged him with one Thomas Hunt, a draper and alderman of that city, and did put him to school to one Freers, then master of the Grammar School there; and whether it were that he was in fear of the said Freers, for he was counted to be a very hard and cruel master, or whether it were for that he had no affection to his learning, true it is he would never keep his school, but was a daily truant, and always ranging; whereof the schoolmaster misliking did oftentimes complain unto the foresaid Thomas Hunt, his host: upon which complaint, so made, the said Thomas would go, and send abroad to seek out the said Peter. And, among many times thus seeking him, it happened that he found him about the walls of the said city, and, he running to take him, the boy climbed up upon the top of one of the highest garrets of a turret of the said wall, and would not, for any request, come down, saying moreover to his host that, if he did press too fast upon him, he would surely cast himself down headlong over the wall; and then, said he, 'I shall break my neck, and thou shalt be hanged, because thou makest me to leap down.' His host, being afraid of the boy, departed, and left some to watch him, and so to take him, as soon as he came down. But forthwith he sent to Sir William Carew, and did advertise him of this, and of sundry other shrewd parts of his son Peter, who, at his next coming then to Exeter, called his son before him, tied him in a line, and delivered him to one of the servants to be carried about the town, as one of his hounds, and they led him home to Mohun's ottery, like a dog. And after that, he being come to Mohun's ottery, he coupled him to one of his hounds, and so continued him for a time."

The discipline at Oxford was about this time very rigid; for we read that Samuel Parker, the Puritan, who was educated at Wadham College, "did," says Anthony Wood, "according to his former breeding, lead a strict and religious life, fasted, prayed, with other students, weekly together, and for their refection, feeding on thin broth, made of oatmeal and water only, they were commonly called *gruellers*."

(To be continued.)

Suggestive Hints towards Improved Secular Instruction.

BY THE REV. RICHARD DAWES, A. M.

(Continued from our last.)

IV.

GEOGRAPHY.

Having well fixed on their minds the cardinal points, and having made them acquainted with the different bearings of particular objects of a local kind—of the towns and villages in the neighbourhood—how the parish is bounded, etc., and having well fixed on their minds the cardinal points, children very soon form tolerably correct ideas as to the nature of a map; and it is always better at first, if convenient, to have a map on the north wall of a school, as the four sides then correspond with the cardinal points where the observer is standing. This helps towards forming correct ideas; and as they generally become familiar with the map of England before any other, it is to draw their attention at first to those counties on the extreme east or west—extreme north or south—showing them how they lie between particular meridians, or between particular parallels of latitude—to show them between what extremes of latitude and longitude the whole country is, of which the map is a representation; in this way, they get a knowledge of the use of these fixed lines: until they do which a map is not properly understood; and it becomes therefore of consequence to show them their use, and the particular points from which we reckon—to show them that, having the latitude north or south, and the longitude east or west, the intersection of the two lines necessarily fixes the place wanted. They should then, for

instance, pay attention to all the countries on the coasts, noting the river mouths, etc.; and thus by degrees fill up the whole, so as to have a correct representation of it in their minds, and know at once the bearing and position of every county on the map.

Every school should be provided with a compass, the teacher pointing out that the needle does not rest due north and south; but drawing a line parallel to it when at rest, and knowing the number of degrees which the north point of the needle is from the true north, he will very easily manage to teach them to draw a line nearly due north and south. By placing it on the floor, and having explained its directive power—that in this latitude the north point is now about $22^{\circ} 30'$ to the west of north—then describing a circle and drawing a diameter parallel to the needle, it will be easy to set off an arc of about 22° towards the east of the north end and towards the west of the end nearest the south, and diameter drawn through these points will be the true meridian. The teacher of course will by degrees call their attention to the difference of counties in physical character—in mineral wealth—whether agricultural or manufacturing—why the seats of our manufacturing industry should be in those counties where coal and iron are found—how the agriculture or commerce of a country is likely to be affected by geological character—how this bears upon the character of its inhabitants.

A globe, however small, is extremely useful, and from which, among other things, not to be learned from maps, children may be made to understand how the sun comes upon the meridian of different places at different times, or perhaps speaking more correctly, how the meridians of different places come in succession under the sun—that the time of a place to the east of them is before, and to the west after the time of the place where they are—that all the meridians pass in succession under the sun in twenty-four hours; and this being understood, it may at once be explained how a degree in longitude corresponds to four minutes in time, etc.; the arithmetic of it they must of course be made to work out.

In the school here there are several mechanical contrivances for giving them a correct idea of the two motions of the earth, on its axis, and in its orbit, and its different positions at the different seasons of the year; also to illustrate what is meant by the hemisphere on which the rays of light fall, and that only one half of a sphere can be illuminated at the same time—this is shown by pieces of thread supposed to represent rays of light, fastened to a globe of wood (the sun), and then being stretched over a smaller globe (the earth), it is made visible to the eye what part of the earth will be in the light, and what in the dark; and that if made to fall upon a plane surface, the sun would shine throughout its whole extent at the same time.

It is not sufficient merely to tell the children to look at a map and point out any particular place upon it; this does not make geography an exercise of the mind, which everything they learn ought to be. They ought to be made to understand that a map is constructed on a particular plan and scale: that if one country is larger than another it will occupy a larger space in proportion upon the map—to give them ocular proof of this by showing them the different sizes of the counties on a map of England—that if two places one hundred miles apart are one inch from each other on the map, two places four hundred miles apart would be four inches, and so on—to show them how to find the distance between places, if on the same meridian, by taking the sum or difference of latitude, and turning the degrees into miles; if on the same parallel of latitude, by finding the difference of longitude, and multiplying the length of a degree of longitude in that latitude by it—or by applying a thread to the map, and measuring the distance between the two places—to apply this to the degrees of latitude, and point out why we cannot apply it to degrees of longitude.

If a school is provided with a variety of maps, then attention should be drawn to the different scales on which they are made, and why a map, perhaps of Europe or of England, is much larger than one of the world; asking them such questions as, why is not the equator found on the map of Europe? Why does not a map of England extend from the equator to the pole? Simple questions of this kind puzzle them very much, while at the same time they instruct them, and I have known children, after having been learning geography for some time, look at a map of Syria, for instance, or the Holy Land, some minutes for the equator or the pole, and and wonder why they could not find it. In looking at a map on the wall of the school, of any country not reaching to the equator or poles, they are generally made to apply a carpenter's rule to the side of the map, and make out the scale upon which it is made; and then mark, below or above, as the case may be, on the wall where the equator would be, and in like manner to show the pole to which all the meridians ought to converge.

The being able to make out the difference of time from the

difference of longitude, give rise to a set of questions instructive in arithmetic, as well as in geography. The schoolmaster looking at the clock, observes, perhaps it is eleven; what is it in London (Greenwich)—what at Yarmouth in Norfolk? What is the difference in time between the extreme east and west of any country the map of which they may be looking at. They will then be directed to look at the map, and work out the results themselves.

Short lessons of a conversational kind should occasionally be given, pointing out the mountain chains—their relative heights in the different parts of the world, and the directions in which they run—the course and length of the principal rivers, comparing them with our own—their directions, the seas into which they empty themselves—the commercial advantages which one country has over another, either from its position, its rivers being navigable far inland, projecting arms from the sea running far into it—showing them the advantages of England, Scotland, Ireland, Holland, etc., in this respect—tidal rivers, such as the Thames and the Scheldt; and hence such towns as London and Antwerp; pointing out the coal and iron districts in England, and how they have in consequence become the manufacturing districts—that settlers in new countries invariably fix themselves on the banks of large rivers, or in parts of the country where branches of the sea run up far inland, instancing America, etc.; the reasons why they do this. Also such things as the quantity of water discharged by them compared, for instance, with the Thames, taking this as unity, that by the Danube is 65, the Volga 80, the Nile 250, the Amazon 1300, etc.; then the kind of reasoning which such facts suggest to the mind.

Again, explain the two motions of the earth—one of rotation on its axis—the other of progress in its orbit; what would be the effect, as regards day and night, if the rotation on its axis were stopped at any given time—for a day—for a week—for a year, etc.—how it would affect the vegetable world—the stability of bodies on the earth, etc. What would be the effect on the seasons if the progress in its orbit were to cease for a time—for a continuance; all this would suggest a multitude of questions.

Such lessons as these, a teacher ought to be able to give, as they not only interest and exercise their minds, but are highly useful to them.

But in order that children may get an accurate knowledge of geography, it must not only be taught as a formal lesson, but as occasion may call it forth in the reading lessons. For instance, the inhabitants of America or Asia are mentioned—that will lead the teacher to ask, what country do *you* inhabit? Some will answer, Europe; yes; but what part of it? England, an island in the west. But what part of England? The south. Yes: but merely saying the south of England does not point out with sufficient accuracy where you live. Oh! in Hampshire. Well, but the English counties are subdivided (what is meant by subdivided? division of a division) into parishes; what parish are you in? and in this way working them down to the very spot.

Again, in their reading perhaps something occurs about France and Spain. The teacher: How are the two countries situated with respect to each other? in what part of Europe?—separated by what chain of mountains? Are the Pyrenees the highest mountains in Europe? What is their height compared with the highest mountains in England? Between what two seas do they run, and in what direction? How do you get out of the Atlantic into the Mediterranean? Passing through the Straits of Gibraltar, what country is on your right hand? what on your left? Do you pass Cadiz before you get at the strait or after? Then give them some account of the rock. Supposing a ship was sailing from Gibraltar to Constantinople, through what remarkable straits would it pass? What country is on the east and what on the west of the Dardanelles? On what sea is Constantinople?—built by whom? Are all the states of Europe Christian?—any other exception besides Turkey? What do we get from Smyrna, Constantinople, etc? and show how the commerce of the world is facilitated by the Mediterranean running between the Continents of Europe and Africa, and up to Asia.

Or if anything about St. Petersburg or Stockholm occurs, make them point out the course of a ship from London to either of these places—what it would be likely to take out and bring back? By whom was St. Petersburg founded? How long since Peter the Great lived? What is the ancient capital of Russia?—then to tell them about Moscow being burnt in 1812—to point out the course of the Volga, Vistula, the Don, and into what seas they empty themselves. How is Europe separated from Asia? observe the course of the rivers in the north of Asia, and their emptying themselves into the North Sea, consequently the mouths of them frozen up during great part of the year.

The following may be taken as an example of questioning the

children when teaching a lesson such as that on America (*Book of Lessons No. 3*).

America, or the New World, is separated into two subdivisions by the gulph of Mexico and the Carribbean Sea. Soon after it was discovered, this vast continent was seized upon by several of the nations of Europe, and each nation appears to have obtained that portion of it which was most adapted to its previous habits. The United States, the greater part of which was peopled by English settlers, while they possess the finest inland communication in the world, are admirably placed for intercourse with the West India islands, and with Europe, etc.

In what direction from Europe is America? By whom discovered, and about what time? In the service of what nation was Columbus, and what were the names of its sovereigns?—the teacher telling them his difficulties, and interesting them with the story.—Who was king of England at the time? (explain the word *contemporary*.) Was the passage round the Cape of Good Hope to India known then? No, sir: discovered a few years later. In the service of what nation was Vasco de Gama?—and then point out to them how this discovery affected the line of commerce with the East—its course through the Mediterranean; previously—the attempts made at discovery by England about the same time—Newfoundland—Sebastian Cabot—the variation in the polarity of the needle.*

The lesson says "Soon after it was discovered, each nation appears to have obtained that portion of it which was most adapted to its previous habits." What does this mean?—look at the map.—What is there that would lead you to fix upon the parts taken possession of by the English?—anything in the names of places—the names of rivers—of divisions of the country—pointing out Jamestown, New England, and New Hampshire. Where would the early settlers be likely to fix themselves? Why upon rivers? Why particularly navigable rivers? What would guide you in your choice if your were going to an unsettled country?—the teacher to point out such things as attract an agricultural people. What is the most remarkable mountain chain in the two Americas—its direction, and how it runs into the Pacific, and on the other into the Atlantic—those into the Pacific a short course, and probably rapid, and not navigable—those into the Atlantic, as the Amazon, of great length, lazy, sleepy, running through a flat country, and therefore likely to divide into many branches—slow, navigable—the character and employments of a people how affected by this? Do you recollect any passage in your book about a river being *lazy*? Yes, sir:

Remote, unfriended, melancholy, slow,
Or by the lazy Scheldt or wandering Po.

Reading at other times on this subject, the teacher would draw their attention to the Gulf of Mexico—the rivers that run into it—the course of the equatorial current, splitting into two on the coast of the Brazils; one branch going to the south, the other into the Gulf of Mexico, and called the gulf stream—most rapid between the coast of Florida and the Bahamas, striking against the coast of Newfoundland and meeting the polar current, is again sent back across the Atlantic to the Azores, and so into itself again;—in the time of Columbus, remains of trees, also two dead bodies, were found at the Azores, washed over by this streams—how and why this encouraged him in his views.

The connection of North America with this country, when declared independent, etc., and in like manner, how other divisions of this large continent were, at an earlier period, connected with other European nations—Canada with France—the Brazils, etc., with Portugal—Mexico, etc., with Spain.

It is not meant that all this is to be taught to children at one lesson, but in the course of their reading the lessons on the subject of America, introduced into their schoolbook; this is the sort of information given by the teachers in the school here.

After a first lesson, they would be made to sit down and write on

* The teacher placing the compass before them, should show what is meant by the directive powers of the needle—what by its variation, dip, etc. "The variation was unknown until the time of Columbus, who observed on his first voyage that the needle declined from the meridian as he advanced across the Atlantic. The dip of the magnetic needle was first observed by Norman in 1576. The line of no variation passed through London in 1658, since that it has moved slowly to the westward, and is now near New York in America. The needle is also subject to a diurnal variation, which in our latitude moves slowly westward in the forenoon, and returns to its mean position about ten in the evening; it then deviates to the eastward, and again returns to its mean position about ten in the morning."

their slates the meaning conveyed to their minds by such a sentence as the one quoted above, which occurs at the beginning of their lessons: "Soon after it was discovered, each nation," etc.;—at another to sit down before the map and make an outline of the coast bordering on the Gulf of Mexico, noting the river mouths, towns, etc., or to put down on their slates the longitude of the extreme east and west points of South America, and then to work out the difference in time.

The first class of boys are reading Sullivan's "Geography Generalized," one of the most useful books on this subject for the purposes of teaching I have ever seen.

By most of them questions of the following kind would be answered with a good deal of intelligence: what is the difference between a great and a small circle on the same sphere? What sort of a circle is the parallel of latitude on which we live? What parallels of latitude are great circles? Is the sun ever vertical to the inhabitants of Europe? In what direction is he seen, when on the meridian, by an observer north of the northern tropic? Always south. To an observer between the tropics? Explain why he would appear north or south of him at noon, according to the time of year? To an observer in a higher southern latitude than 23½, where would he appear at noon? Always north.

Explain how and why the rising and the setting points of the sun shift on the horizon every day during the course of a year.

What arc of a circle would measure the angle between the point of the horizon on which he rises on the 21st of June, and that on which he sets on the 21st of December?

To the question, if the sun rises at five or at seven o'clock in the morning, what time will he set? In nine schools out of ten you will get in answer. At five and seven in the evening: explaining that there are as many hours from sun-rise to noon as from noon to sun-set, at once opens their eyes on the subject.

Two men walking out of the school, the one direct east, the other west, and always keeping equally distant from the equator and pole, on what line would they walk supposing the earth a sphere? Is it a straight line? How would their reckoning of time vary? Supposing each to walk a degree a day, how would their respective noons differ from the noon of the place where they started from and each other?—at the end of one, two, three, etc., days—at the end of 360 days? When would they meet a first, second, third, etc., time? When they come to the place from which they set out, how many times will the one walking east have seen the sun-rise? How many the one walking west? What is the circumference of the circle on which they walk, supposing them to start from a place in latitude 51°?

Two men starting from the same point in the name meridian, latitude 51°; point out their course, supposing one to go due north, the other due south, and always to walk on the same meridian. Will they have described a greater space when they meet than the two walking on the same parallel of latitude? How much longer? How will their reckoning of time differ? How long will it continue to be noon to both at the same time?

The sun is said never to set on the Queen's dominions—how is this? would he set on a belt of land running from pole to pole?—on a belt on each side of the equator, and running round the earth?—5/6ths of the equator is in seas—1/6th in land—show this on the map, reckoning the exact number of degrees through which sea and land run.

Point out the advantage of knowing the figure of the earth, in answering the above.

Supposing a ship to sail from the Sea along the east coast of Africa, round the Cape of Good Hope, and so to Europe, would the men always see the sun south of them at noon? Answer: No, sir. Point out, then, where they would begin to see north according to the time of year—how this direction would vary in different latitudes up to the Cape of Good Hope. That to a people ignorant of the figure of the earth, and of its motions, and never having been beyond the Tropic of Capricorn, seeing the sun to the north of them at noon would appear as something supernatural.

Now, we find a book written before the time of our Saviour, that in the time of Pharaoh Necho, king of Egypt, some Egyptians had made their way in a boat setting out from the Red Sea, along the east coast of Africa, turned round what is now called the Cape of Good Hope, in passing which they would have, with their faces to the west, the sun on their right hand and towards the north of them, their left hand to the south, and of course their backs to the east. They then coasted along the west coast of Africa, found their way into the Straits of Gibraltar, which perhaps were known to them, and so sailed up the Mediterranean until they came to Egypt again, having thus coasted along the entire sea-coast of the continent of Africa. They took three years to do this in, and when

they came back told people that they had seen wool growing on trees, and the sun at noon, when their faces were to the west, on their right hand. At the time there were reasons for not believing the account; but with us who know more of the figure of the earth than people did then, and something about cotton, they confirm the truth of the story.

On the subject of *Physical Geography*, which is one of great interest, many things suggest themselves—such as the varying altitude of the snow-line in different latitudes—why it should be higher near the tropics than at the equator—and why the line of the same temperature should recede further from the equator in the old continent than in the new—the limits of the different vegetable productions, and why on high mountains, even within the tropics, those of all climates, from the equator to the pole, may be found, etc., showing the effect which elevation above the level of the sea has upon climate—illustrating the explanation by instances of the vegetation of mountainous districts in low latitudes, and of low levels in high latitudes, and how it is that the temperature of the air decreases as the height above the earth's surface increases—state facts in proof of this. If the lands in the equatorial seas were increased, an increased temperature of climate would arise—if those of the polar regions, the temperature of the climate would be diminished.

The following extract from an Educational Tour in Germany by Horace Mann, Esq., Secretary to the Board of Education, Mass., U.S., are given for the purpose of recommending linear drawing to school-teachers; a thing not much practised in our schools, but of the usefulness of which there can be no doubt.

Speaking of one of the first schools he entered, he says; "The teachers first drew a house on the black board, and here the value of the art of drawing—a power universally possessed by Prussian teachers—became manifest.

"The excellence of their writing must be referred, in a great degree, to the universal practice of learning to draw contemporaneously with learning to write. I believe a child will learn both to draw and to write sooner, and with more ease, than he will learn writing alone. I came to the conclusion that, with no other guide than a mere inspection of the copybooks, I could tell whether drawing were taught in the school or not—so uniformly superior was the hand-writing in those schools where drawing was taught in connection with it.

"I never saw a teacher in a German school make use of a ruler, or any other mechanical aid, in drawing the most nice or complicated figures. I recollect no instance in which he was obliged to efface a part of a line because it was too long, or to extend it because it was too short. If squares or triangles were to be formed, they came out squares or triangles without any overlapping or deficiency. Here was not only much time gained or saved, but the pupils had constantly before their eyes these examples of celerity and perfectness, as models for imitation. No one can doubt how much more correctly, as well as more rapidly, a child's mind will grow in view of such models of ease and accuracy, than if only slow, awkward, and clumsy movements, are the patterns constantly before it."

The following passage on the subject of teaching geography, as taught in the Prussian schools, is well worthy of the teacher's attention: "Here the skill of the teacher and pupils in drawing does admirable service. I will describe, as exactly as I am able, a lesson which I heard given to a class a little advanced beyond the element, remarking that, though I heard many lessons on the same plan, none of them were signalized by the rapidity and effect of the one I am about to describe.

"The teacher stood by the black board with the chalk in his hand. After casting his eye over the class, to see that all were ready, he struck at the middle of the board: with a rapidity of hand which my eye could hardly follow, he made a series of those short divergent lines, or shadings, employed by map engravers to represent a chain of mountains. He had scarcely turned an angle, or shot off a span, when the scholars began to cry out 'Carpathian Mountains, Hungary; Black Forest Mountains, Wurtemberg; Giants' Mountains (Riesen-gebirge), Silesia; Central Mountains (Mittel-gebirge), Bohemia,' etc.

"In less than a minute the ridge of that grand central elevation, which separates the waters that flow north-west into the German Ocean from those that flow north into the Baltic, and south-east into the Black Sea, was presented to view—executed almost as beautifully as an engraving. A dozen wrinkled strokes, made in the twinkling of an eye, represented the head waters of the great rivers which flow in different directions from that mountainous range; while the children, almost as eager and excited as though they had actually seen the torrents dashing down the moun-

tain-sides, cried out, 'Danube, Elbe, Vistula, Oder;' etc. The next moment I heard a succession of small strokes, or taps, so rapid as to be almost indistinguishable, and hardly had my eye time to discern a large number of dots made along the margins of the rivers, when the shout of 'Linz Vienna, Pragu, Dresden, Berlin,' etc., struck my ear. With a few more flourishes, the rivers flowed onwards towards their several terminations, and, by another succession of dots, new cities sprang up on their banks. Within ten minutes from the commencement of the lesson there stood upon the black board a beautiful map of Germany, with its mountains, principal rivers, and cities, the coast of the German Ocean, of the Baltic, and the Black seas, and all so accurately proportioned, that I think only slight errors would have been found, had it been subjected to the test of a scale of miles. A part of this time was taken up in correcting a few mistakes of the pupils, for the teacher's mind seemed to be in his ear as well as in his hand; and, notwithstanding the astonishing celerity of his movements, he detected erroneous answers, and turned round to correct them. Compare the effect of such a lesson as this, both as to the amount of the knowledge communicated, and the vividness, and of course the permanence of the ideas obtained, with a lesson where the scholars look out a few names of places on a lifeless atlas, but never send their imaginations abroad over the earth: and where the teacher sits listlessly down before them to interrogate them from a book in which all the questions are pointed at full length, to supersede, on his part, all necessity of knowledge."—MANN'S *Educational Tour in Germany*.

The following from an article in the "Quarterly Review," on *Physical Geography*, affords an instructive hint.

"Of the thirty eight millions of square miles, forming in round numbers the total area of land, nearly twenty-eight millions lie to the north of the equator; and if we divide the globe longitudinally by the meridian of Teneriffe, the land on the eastern side of this line will be seen greatly to exceed the western; another manner of division into two hemispheres, according to the maximum extent of land and water in each, affords the curious result of designating England as the centre of the former or terrene half—an antipodal point near New Zealand as the centre of the aqueous hemisphere. The exact position in England is not far from the Land's End; so that if an observer were there raised to such height as to discern at once one half of the globe, he would see the greatest possible extent of land; if similarly elevated in New Zealand, the greatest possible surface of water.

"An increase of land above the sea between the tropics raises the mean temperature, in higher latitudes depresses it; and every such vicissitude must be attended with some corresponding change in the nature and conditions of organic life."

The Power of Expression.

I am fully convinced, Mr. Editor, that teachers, as a class, give too little attention to the power of expression. Pupils attend school term after term, and still are unable to converse upon the most common branch they have been studying. Repeat to them the facts of any subject, and they will nod or shake the head, mumble "yes" or "no"—perhaps in the right place—perhaps not. Some time since, I visited a seminary (one of those institutions in which everything is supposed to be conducted upon the strictest principles of philosophy, principles which applied to the young and plastic minds, mold them into models of symmetry and elegance), entering a recitation room, I found a class reciting, or pretending to recite, in Natural Philosophy. The subject of the recitation was Hydraulics. During three-quarters of an hour, the time for the recitation, I heard one girl of the class utter very faintly "I don't know, sir," the rest of the girls in the class gave evidence of their clear understanding of the subject by a "nod or shake of the head." Most profound expression. The boys reciting with them, followed the same plan, save one, who had some knowledge of water-wheels, though he could not make it known without many blunders in the choice and combination of his language. I studied for the effect that such efforts would have upon the mind, and the picture formed was anything but promising or grateful to behold. There appeared no pencil of light indicating the early illumination of the minds of that class. They were forming habits of inattention and indifference which would ever after obscure their intellectual vision. I came to my own school-room, but to find my pupils wanting in the same power of expression. I attempted the conversational and lecture style, but became almost discouraged with their first efforts. Their

talk upon simple subjects, which I had supposed they thoroughly understood, was interspersed with many long pauses. I am sure they could have counted more than four at commas, and that, too, contrary to rules of punctuation, after the word "and." The particular favor constantly sought, was "ask me questions, then I can answer, but can not tell all I know about it." I had given them food and drink, without their having either hunger or thirst. The timid feared, and their understandings were confused; that which they had seen clearly, became obscured by misty clouds; the lazy, those whose brains have never been aroused to activity, could not afford to do their own head work, for it requires real brain work for a pupil to talk about a subject understandingly. I found, as the greatest difficulty, to overcome the habit of the pupils to memorize, to repeat the words of the book; they hesitated to go beyond the "ipse dixit," of the author and examine a principle, thus to gain that real knowledge for which books are made. Apt questions and full reviews only can break up the habit. If we force knowledge into the minds of the students, without teaching them how to arrange it for use, their minds must ever be confused, and the power of expressing their reflections upon any subject, discouraging to themselves, and indifferent to others. The teacher may talk very profoundly, but unless the pupil be awake to the truths uttered, it will do him no good. If the enthusiasm of the pupil be aroused, by partaking through the law of sympathy, with the earnest thought and clear knowledge of the teacher, then the knowledge will be stored in his brain. But let it be borne in mind that the work of the teacher is not accomplished, that knowledge must be arranged for use, and used by the pupil until he can make it of value to all with whom he may be associated, until he can tell what he knows, without hesitation, and in clear, explicit language. Two things, it may be well for the teacher to set down in his philosophy as true; first, that no one can talk upon any subject of which he has not clear conception, a positive knowledge; second, that without practice in talking, the attempt to do so, confuses the operations of the mind, and for the time it ceases to know. If this be true, should it not be an important part of the pupil's duty, to express before their teacher and others, in full, what they have learned. Action alone determines worth. A person may possess great knowledge, may have studied self thoroughly, brooded over every emotion of his mind, and still be a useless citizen. If, however, the deep earnest struggles of his brain have been expressed in language portraying his emotions, other minds thereby become enriched, other hearts are stirred from their profoundest depths, with potency to will, and thus are multiplied the noble deeds which give to human progress its charm.—*New York Teacher.*

Oral Instruction.

It is becoming a settled conviction among intelligent persons, that any system of instruction which tends to release the pupil from laborious study is radically defective, and can never secure independent thinking and good scholarship. On the other hand, the system which would throw the entire burden upon the pupil, which would exact the letter of the text, in a given subject, which would dispense with instruction, explanation, illustration, and application of principles, is considered no less defective.

The great desideratum is a skillful union of the efforts of the student, with such aid from the teacher as may be necessary to a perfect understanding of the subject under consideration. In no sense should the teacher do the work of the pupil. He must be taught to be independent in thought and action and that he can not, under any circumstances, throw his burdens upon the shoulders of his teacher, or any one else. But at the same time, he may and ought to feel that he can apply to his teacher, when an insurmountable difficulty meets him in his course, and that the teacher's duty is to give such instruction, explanation, or illustration, as may be required to meet the difficulties of the case, and present the subject in its true light to the mind of the learner. By oral instruction is not meant the indiscriminate small talk of those who are ever talking, and say little; but quite the opposite. It is the only natural mode of instruction, and has the sanction of the wisest and best men of ancient and modern times, and the most successful teachers of all ages. Moses and Solomon among the Old Testament worthies, Aristotle, Plato and Socrates among the ancients: but more illustrious still, He who spake as never man spake, the Great Teacher himself, thus taught. Yet, some speak of oral instruction as a modern innovation, and look upon it with distrust. Such persons either forget, or else never knew that it is the *only* method by which we can teach children the elements of their education.

What can the child do in his first efforts, with simply a lifeless book in his hand? To him all is a "dead letter." The subject needs the living voice, the sparkling eye, and warm heart, which speaks through the "human countenance divine," to the child and gives inspiration to the learner. Thoughts and feelings thus invoked find a way to the heart and secure a response in the mind of the child. A common feeling inspires both the teacher and the taught, and the teacher sees his own image reflected from the mirror of the child's soul. Here is nothing superficial, nothing unnatural, but the reverse. It goes into the depths of the heart, secures the best affections of the soul, and thus lays a sure foundation upon which the character is to be built. It unites the inductive in the process of mental development and instruction, in the examination of principles, and the synthetical in the results sought. This method is the opposite of the mechanical, which in reading, for instance, merely calls words by their names, without an expression of the thought represented by the language. When, after the true method, a child is taught the meaning of the words in a sentence by the teacher, as he goes on in his lessons, and when the child gets the idea represented, he then, in his reading, gives the true expression; he reads well. Now, this is not the result of studying a set of rules, by the child; no, they would have impeded his progress, and induced a mechanical mannerism, which is quite the opposite of nature. In oral instruction nothing is taken for granted. "Understandest thou?" is the grand idea of the teacher, in every department of study. If you understand, then demonstrate the fact. In the opposite course, there is no systematic instruction. The book is all, to both pupil and teacher. If in reference to the one the lesson is so learned that it is recited *verbatim*, the pupil is marked perfect, and he smiles complacently; the teacher also flatters himself that his duty has been faithfully done, and when the report is made to the doting parents, of the "perfect" boy, they felicitate themselves as most fortunate in having such a scholarly son, and laud his teacher to the skies. But let us pause a moment, and examine this case. The boy has learned his lesson well so far as memory is concerned. This is proper, nay, indispensable; but may not this be true, and yet we have not the most remote idea of the meaning of the same, or of its use or application. A volume may be memorized and literally recited without an understanding of its truth. A sentence may be parsed, and the rules for the same properly applied, and yet it may be purely a mechanical process. An arithmetical problem may be solved, and the answer obtained, without the power to analyze the same, or give a demonstration of the principles involved in the solution. I have seen a class, that had been through with their arithmetic, and could recite their rules perfectly, unable to solve a common problem in Fractions. When I expressed my surprise at this and inquired for the difficulty in the case, the reply was, "we don't know the rule by which to work. If you will tell us the rule to which it belongs, we can do it for we know all the rules of the book by heart!" Of how much value is *such* knowledge?

While books are indispensable, and rules in some cases may be useful, it is clear to my mind that we can not depend upon these alone. In the early stages of an education, the instruction should be mostly oral. The little one should find in the teacher his book. In the more advanced stages it is not so much required, especially if the pupil has been perfectly initiated and thoroughly taught in the rudiments. If the teacher keeps these considerations in view, and is careful to remember that it is not his proper business to communicate a vast amount of information, and make the head of his pupil a mere "walking encyclopedia," but to teach so that he shall learn how to acquire and how to apply his knowledge in the practical details of every day's life, then he has taught to good purpose. A teacher of this class is a benefactor of his race, and is deserving of the regard and love of mankind.—*Sup't Buckley's (4th) Annual Report.*

Landscape in the Location of a School.

At this time, when public sentiment in our midst seems rapidly assuming a more healthy tone, care is requisite lest reforms be pressed to extremes, and thus the desired end be thwarted. We are happy to accord to Teachers' Institutes and Associations their full share of credit in producing this better state of feeling. They are doing a noble and much-needed work; but, laboring as they do to inspire teachers with a love for their profession, and to arouse in parents a deep, heartfelt interest in the education of their children, from their efforts, new questions will arise, of moment to the cause of education, but more properly discussed in a public journal.

—(And, Mr. Editor, permit me here to insert a parenthesis. It

seems to me that the "spheres" of the *Institute* and the *Journal* are distinct, while, the *cause* is common; that the former has to do with the *heart*, the *soul* of education, while the latter should address itself more to the intellect, the calm judgment, and provide for its *material* wants. The *Institute* should be the pioneer, and by actual contact with the teachers, warm the heart, and arouse the energies, thus creating a demand for further information, and then a *fa "Bonheur,"* inform the people that "the remaining chapters of this story will be found in" (*The Journal of Education*).

Of the results of this growing interest none are more evident than the number of new school-houses going up in every section of the State; and it would not seem amiss to present some thoughts in reference to the proper location of such a building.

That a site may be well adapted to the purposes of a school-building, it should possess these three essential qualifications:—1. Ease of access; 2. Perfect salubrity; and, 3. Beauty of landscape. Of these, the first two address themselves so directly to the senses, and seem so eminently practical, that they need no advocate. In fact, so prominent do they appear, that the danger lies in their being regarded as the only requisites. But because the third is not so apparent, it is *rone the less real*.

We build school-houses for the purpose of educating our children. They are the theatres where we hope to develop their minds symmetrically, and, at the most impressive period of their lives, to give them characters such as shall make them, not only useful, but *happy*. Most thoughtful parents have concluded that something more than a knowledge of arithmetic is necessary. They see the defects in their own education, and would gladly supply them in the training of their children. We think we may safely say, One of the greatest defects in our national education is a *neglect to cherish a love of the beautiful*.

The contented and happy Germans look on our careworn brows, they read our books—even our poems—and deprecatingly say, "You are so *practical*." Our own countrymen return from their travels in Europe to deplore the lack of those little evidences of *taste*, to be seen around the dwellings of the poorest in many parts of the Old World. And why this lack? Ask the practical question, "Will it not *pay*" to *adorn*, as well as to *acquire*?

It can not be that our people do not appreciate beauty. No people on earth admire more a beautiful dwelling and grounds. The great mistake is that they are taught to regard them as belonging to the wealthy alone—too expensive luxuries for poor people to indulge in. And thus this gift, intended to produce only happiness, furnishes another inducement to work for gain. It only increases the thirst for wealth, which is already consuming the finer portions of the soul.

That this is an evil, to be eradicated at once by setting the school-house in the right spot, we would not be so foolish as to contend; but that we can do *much*, by a proper attention to landscape and ornament, will not admit of a reasonable doubt. The very fact that the school-house—in which every family has an interest—stands in a fine grove, surrounded by shrubbery and flowers, will, of itself, have an influence. But to have the *child*, the greater portion of each day, surrounded by such scenes—to have his hours of labor cheered by the singing of birds and the music of the wind in the tree-tops; to have his hours of recreation devoted to beautifying the spot, under the kindly directions of a cultivated female; to let the students prove that they can, by their own exertions, make the place beautiful—these and similar influences must have great weight in forming the character of the future man or woman. Emulation will take a new and lovely form. Practices begun at school will be continued at home, and soon the yards in the vicinity will vie with each other for beauty. With those students, the memory of school-days will remain in after life. They will seek for happiness in beauty around them, and their own hands will furnish the means of gratification. A love of home will be the natural consequence; and thus will be raised at once a safeguard against vice, and a check to that roving disposition so characteristic of our people.

Do not then, in selecting a site for the new school-building, neglect to provide for the education of the sensibilities. Better is it by far that your children walk a little farther, than that they stop on that barren sand-knoll, or on the dusty street-corner, or by the side of that unsightly marsh. Better that you pay well for that beautiful lot, with the grove, and leave your pay well for wealth of a happy hear.—(*Michigan Journal of Education*.)

Are Young Teachers Successful?

By O. HOSFORD, A. M.

There are many things to be considered in the discussion of this

question. The teacher's work is of such a nature that, at first thought, we very naturally conclude, that the young teacher must, from necessity, fail to do any thing worthy of the name of a success.

Of all the arts requiring experience, none can be more *im-rative* in its demands than the art of teaching. If, however, a thorough examination should be made of reliable school statistics, kept for a series of years, it will ever be found true that those who have become noted teachers, were, in the earliest years of their labor, successful instructors. Thus we find facts to contradict our first impressions, and we are led to inquire into the reason of our false conclusions.

There surely was no mistake made in supposing that experience was requisite to perfect one as a teacher. But the assumption that one must have experience as a teacher, before he becomes qualified to instruct with any degree of success, was a great mistake. That teacher is successful who thoroughly accomplishes the work assigned him. He may not have done the work in the best way; he may not have been able to practice the most thorough economy, but the work has been done, and well done. The results of any enterprise determined whether it has been a failure or not. It is always interesting to know that a given work has been performed in the best and most economical way, yet it does not so much concern us to know the manner in which a given edifice is erected, as the fact that it is built and well built.

It is not pretended that the young teacher is as successful as he will be after he has had years of experience—that he will do his work as economically; but facts show that he does a noble work, and does it well. In the development of every mind, *facts* first attract attention. Theories to account for these facts, and their true philosophy, come afterwards.

These facts may be successfully communicated by those who are ignorant of that method which experience may reveal to the best. The mere child is eager to communicate the new fact it has just learned, and it does so tell its story that all understand the truth; so, many young teachers successfully instruct those under their charge, in those branches which they themselves understand.

It is by no means true that the pupils of those who are teaching their first schools are compelled to submit themselves to be practised upon by a novice, and no one to reap a benefit save the unskilled teacher. They are not to be turned off as the imperfect work of an apprentice.

Young teachers are not now compelled to enter upon their work, entirely ignorant of its nature or requirements. Each one who now commences his career of a teacher has the benefit of the suggestions of many who have devoted their lives to the business of teaching—who have had a large and varied experience, and who have given the results of it to the world. Teachers may, to a considerable extent, make this experience their own, and from it they may not only take hints and suggestions, but may take it, at first, as a guide in laying their plans, and in forming their own methods.

It is true, this experience is theirs only as truth communicated, not what they themselves have wrought out, yet it is a knowledge which will enable them to make any thing but a failure in their first efforts at instructing.

Then, again, what one has learned, he has had experience in learning: he knows *how* he learned it; he understands the difficult points, and how they were explained to his mind; and he knows how to explain them to others. He has grasped the clue and safely followed its leadings through the mazy labyrinth, and he is now able to place the same clue into the hands of others, and bid them follow its leadings.

In thus speaking of young teachers, it will of course be understood, that none are meant but those who have thoroughly mastered the various subjects they propose to teach. It is often said that such and such persons are very acceptable teachers, who have but a mere smattering of what they try to teach; that they have retained their places term after term. Yet nothing can be more pernicious than to render important that fact, by calling it a success. These take on the airs—I had almost said, of those who *know*; but that should not be said, for those who know need not the airs, but they take on airs as *if* they knew, and so long as they are able to keep up the show of knowledge, they seem to move on the topmost wave-crest; but the bubble must at length burst, and reveal the fact that the pupils have made no real progress. Their heads are filled with a medley of false ideas, and it will cost the true teacher no little labor to clear away the rubbish and make ready for a true work.

But in addition to a thorough familiarity with the branches taught, an earnest desire to succeed must be felt. That teacher, whether

he be young or old, must of necessity fail, in whom this desire is wanting. The circumstances in which the young teacher finds himself placed must, of necessity, be a strong stimulus to exertion. The fact he has had no experience tends strongly to urge him to earnest labor. The daily routine of duties will be pursued with the utmost diligence. No careless work will be done. From morning until night the eye and ear will be open and the mind all alive. There will be felt none of that careless indifference which familiarity with labor is apt to produce.

There is another fact to be taken into the account. The young teacher comes fresh from his books, with his mind all awake to the new truths he has been learning; laws which he has never before dreamed of, have just been revealed to him. How can it be otherwise than that he will enter upon the work of instructing others in those same facts which so much interest him, with an enthusiasm such as those do not feel who have long been familiar with these truths. Possessing this enthusiasm so fully himself, he can not fail to infuse it into his pupils.

There must also be a deep sympathy between the teacher and the taught. It is vain to talk of success where no such sympathy exists. This is the reason that many of limited education will teach a better school than others who are far their superior in knowledge. A single case will illustrate the point: A young lady presented herself to the township board, for examination. In reading and orthography she sustained a medium examination, but aside from this there was a complete failure. The Amazon was described as rising in the Alps, flowing west, and emptying into the Pacific. The Strait of Magellan she could not locate exactly, but she knew perfectly well, "for them was the Straits that Napoleon Bonaparte crossed when he went to fight the Indians." Of course no certificate could be granted, yet great complaint was made, both by the one examined and by the school officers, for she had taught an excellent school in an adjoining town, giving universal satisfaction. They had never had a person who so interested the school; the parents could not keep the children at home. She possessed, in an eminent degree, those rare natural qualities which enabled her fully to enter into sympathy with her pupils. Without this sympathy there can be but limited success.

Young persons enter into the sympathies of the young more naturally and readily than older persons. In this particular, they most assuredly have the advantage over the older. It can not be denied that they must experience many disadvantages, such as result from a want of those qualifications which experience alone can give. Yet these are by no means of such consequence that the young teacher need despair of doing his work well. He may look forward with a fond hope, and a full expectation, of complete success.

The teacher who is ever truly successful, possesses largely those natural gifts which make him "apt to teach." These are Nature's endowment. However much they may be cultivated and improved by exercise, they can never be acquired. Nor can any attainment be made which can compensate for the want of these desirable qualities. One destitute of these peculiar gifts can never make a truly successful teacher, however liberal his acquisitions may be or profound his knowledge.—*Mich. Jour. of Ed.*

Olivet, 1859.

Success attributable to love of occupation.

The great difference which we perceive in the success of people, depends almost entirely upon the earnestness with which they pursue their industrial callings. And that earnestness depends again upon the love for and engrossment by the pursuit in which they are engaged. It is a bad sign when a man is ever lamenting the difficulties of his avocation and wishing he were in any other business than that which, for the time being, demands his attention.

Those who expect to find any pursuit which is free from difficulties, are grossly mistaken. Every occupation, prosecuted to success, involves the overcoming of many obstacles, and the surmounting of many impediments. When we fancy that one particular business possesses all the disadvantages, and that the avocations of others are all pleasant and easy, we only exhibit the narrowness of our minds and the feebleness of our observation.

We observe a mechanic working with great ease in his department of handicraft, and rapidly producing the most beautiful forms from the rudest material. His work looks easy. But who does not know that year after year of severe application and practice were requisite to prepare for such speedy and beautiful execution. The lawyer addresses a jury upon a vast collection of facts, and

with surpassing eloquence strips the sophistries away which have been artfully woven by the opposite counsel. Everybody admires the skill with which this is done, and those who have not made the attempt think it easy to imitate it. But let them try, and they would discover that years of close study and much logical culture were necessary in order that the effect might be produced.

So it is in every occupation. Ease, skill, and grace in labor come only from repeated struggles, and after many failures. We feel the difficulties in our own pursuits, but in the pursuits of others we only witness the dexterity which the operator manifests. Hence we misjudge and magnify the vexations and difficulties of our own avocations. But whenever we get into this state of mind, they may be sure that we are leaving the path which leads to the goal of success. It shows that we do not love our occupation; that we are not sufficiently engrossed by it to deserve or command success.

To the young, a love of the pursuit in which they are engaged, is invaluable. The moment they possess this every obstacle diminishes in magnitude and power, until it becomes a pleasure to attack and overcome them. But when young men go through their daily tasks simply because they feel they must execute them, their avocation becomes dull and tedious, and they do not properly perform their tasks. A boy in a store who does just as much as he is told to do, and not even that when he can shirk part of it, will never make a good business man. He never satisfies his employers, never gets half the wages that he might, and by his dilatory and shiftless method of doing his work, makes his task twice as arduous as it would otherwise be.

So it is with the man who is prosecuting business on his own account. If he defers it to his pleasures or recreations, his business becomes annoying and tiresome. He loses customers and grows careless. As his business decreases he becomes more and more disaffected, and finally retires a bankrupt and in disgust with his avocation. There is no remedy for this state of things but the cultivation of a taste amounting to a passion, for the occupation which we pursue for a livelihood. And parents should be extremely careful, when selecting pursuits for their sons, to see that those pursuits are in accordance with the natural affinities of those sons. Otherwise they may squander away their time through a languid minority, and on attaining full age they find themselves incapable of any effective exertion.

The men who succeed in the world are those who are engrossed in their business from the love which they bear to it. Labor to them is not distasteful. It is pleasurable, and constitutes their business a sort of relaxation. They need no recreation, because their business is in harmony with their inclinations. What were difficulties once are now so easily and rapidly surmounted that they forget their avocation ever presented any unpleasant obstacles. And such people do not have half the hard work in the world which is the lot of those who are restive in their occupations. The latter have not only physical difficulties, but mental aversions to overcome, and these last fatigue and depress to a much greater extent than mere physical labor.—*Hunt's Merchants' Magazine.*

Humility a Sign of Greatness.

I believe the first test of a truly great man is humility. I do not mean by humility doubt of his own power, or hesitation in speaking his opinion; but a right understanding of the relations between what he can do and say, and the rest of the world's sayings and doings. All great men not only know their business, but know usually that they know it; and are not only right in their main opinions, but they usually know that they are right in them; only they do not think much of themselves on that account. Arnolfo knows that he can build a good dome at Florence; Albert Durer writes calmly to one who had found fault with his work, "It cannot be better done;" Sir Isaac Newton knows that he has worked out a problem or two that would have puzzled any one else: only they do not expect their fellow-men, therefore, to fall down and worship them; they have a curious undersense of powerlessness, feeling that the greatness is not in them, but through them; that they could not do or be anything else than God made them. And they see something divine and God made in every other man they meet, and are endlessly foolish, incredibly merciful. The slightest manifestation of jealousy or self-complacency is enough to mark a second rate character of the intellect.

RUSKIN.

Routine and Guessing in School.

Almost every profession has its peculiar perils to the moral and intellectual nature of the man, and that of the teacher is by no means

exempt from them. Besides the danger of growing arbitrary and dogmatic, which he ought to remember in his daily prayer, he is particularly liable to become a *routinist*. As he obtains experience in his calling, which is as valuable to him as to the physician or the lawyer, he may sink into that state of indifference wherein his words and his acts are lifeless; wherein he becomes a machine, and discharges his duties as a grist-mill grinds corn. In this condition, he is no longer a teacher, for he does not teach; he literally only "hears lessons." He puts questions, and, by a sort of mechanical skill, determines whether the answers are right or wrong. He scolds and frets from the force of habit, rather than because he is irritated by the stupidity and carelessness of the scholar.

The calling of the teacher has been elevated to the dignity of a profession, by the high character and qualifications of those who are engaged in it. Eighteen dollars a month and "boarding round," are obsolete who think the teachers is a kind of drone, growing fat and lazy on light work and leisure time. Laboring, on an average, only five hours a day, and having six or eight weeks' vacation in a year, it is believed that he has an easy time, and gets double the pay he ought to receive. This class of persons apprehend the school-master to be a man who is paid one or two thousand dollars a year for sitting five hours a day in the school-room, and there putting questions and hearing answers; who to vary the monotony of his life occasionally flogs an unruly urchin, if he is not too lazy to exert himself to this extent; and who is never called upon to make any great exertion who is not Dombey enough to make an effort."

The teacher may be grateful that this is not the popular opinion of him and his duties. That such a view prevails to some extent, is not surprising, for there have been, and are still, many school-masters corresponding to that description—a class of teachers whom we have chosen to call *routinists*; and we expect to find the word in the new Worcester's Quarto, when it is published.

The *routinist* is an old stager. He has put out all the words in the spelling book hundreds of times. He has travelled through the reading book, the geography, the grammar the history, and the arithmetic, till he knows them by heart. He has said about the same words to class after class, for ten, twenty, and even thirty years. He has beaten out a path; and always walks in it, and never wanders from it. His mind is circumscribed by the narrow limits he has assigned for himself. He never generates an idea, and neither borrows nor steals one.

Human nature craves variety; and the teacher who has not the skill to diversify his daily path, must become a *routinist*, and be a very dull, stupid person. If he is not interested in his work himself, he cannot kindle any enthusiasm in the minds of the pupils. Many teachers believe that, when they have put the questions in the text books, and received correct answers to them, they have done their whole work. They are conscientious in the discharge of their duties, and labor faithfully, in season and out of season, to accomplish their object, which is simply to have the lessons recited with mechanical correctness. Of course, this result, though obtained only by great exertion and by the exercise of much skilful management, is only a small part of the teacher's work. The mind of the pupil is to be developed, as well as stored with facts and methods; and this is only partially done by mechanical recitations. This machine work is not only a waste of much valuable time, but it leaves the pupil's reasoning powers entirely uncultivated, and encourages a kind of systematic guessing, which throws a cloud of uncertainty around the simplest principles and processes. The scholar never knows anything but words, and his intellectual training is only the cultivation of the memory.

In many schools guessing is practised as an art. Years of experience renders scholars marvellously expert in the art; and it is surprising to observe how correctly a child can answer, and yet have scarcely any real knowledge of the subject to which the questions relate. Of course the teacher must tolerate and encourage the practice of guessing, or it could not prevail. Permitting scholars to "try" two or three times in oral spelling, or upon questions that admit of but two or three possible answers, is calculated to foster the habit. In hundreds of words in the English language, scholars above the primary school know that one of two or three methods of spelling must be right. The teacher gives out *endeavor*. The scholar spells it, e-n-d-e-a-v-e-r. The teacher says "wrong;" then the scholar guesses the final syllable is o-r, and guesses right. The next time the word occurs, the pupil is no wiser than before, and has to go through the same guessing process. In respect to all words in *or* and *er*, the same difficulty is presented, and similar difficulties in other classes of words. Between *y* and *i*, *ph* and *f*, *s* and *o*, *ur* and *er*, *l* and *ll*, and many other combinations, there are only two choices, and a second trial renders the scholar infallible, and the art of spelling becomes the art of guessing.

But spelling is a mechanical art; at least, it is generally taught as such, and therefore the practice of guessing cannot be so injurious in this as in many other branches. In those studies wherein the answers to questions should be the result of a process of reasoning, the habit should not be tolerated. Let us illustrate with a grammar lesson.

Teacher. Children study their lessons. Parse children, Peter.

Peter. Children is a proper noun,—

Teacher. Wrong.

Peter. Children is a common noun; first person,—

Teacher. Wrong.

Peter. Second person; sing—

Teacher. It is not second person.

Peter. I mean third person; singular number,—

Teacher. Wrong.

Peter. Plural number; neuter gender,—

Teacher. No.

Peter. Common gender; nominative case to study. Rule: Propositions govern the objective case.

Teacher. Wrong rule. The subject—

Peter. The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative.

Of course, Peter understands the matter, gets a merit, and is a very nice boy generally. Peter is a prodigy in grammar. In stating the person, he had one chance in three of guessing right the first time, one in two the second time, and was "dead sure" the third time. The number, gender, and case, were subject to similar chances.

Guessing is a bad habit, and none but a *routinist* will permit it. The teacher should seldom say right or wrong, yes or no, or indicate by looks or motions that the answer is correct or incorrect. The question should either be passed to the next, or the pupil be compelled to reason out the answer. These things encourage the practice of guessing. They are very convenient for the *routinist*, and render school-teaching a comparatively indolent occupation; but the business of the true teacher is to teach, and he has something better to do than practising his pupils in firing, chance shots.

In conclusion, we report an authentic case, in which the scholar was disposed to guess, and the teacher was not disposed to permit it. In the course of the recitation in geography, the pupils said that continents were islands.

Teacher. Are both continents islands?

Susan. They are.

Teacher. Is every island a continent?

Susan. Yes, sir.

Teacher. Did you ever see an island?

Susan. Yes, sir.

Teacher. What island?

Susan. East Boston.

Teacher. Is East Boston a continent?

Susan. Yes, sir.

Teacher. Which continent is East Boston?

Susan. The Eastern Continent.

This answer was enough to upset the throne of discipline, and it "brought down the house." Perhaps the scholar felt aggrieved, and disposed to complain that there were no such questions in the book as those proposed. W. T. A.—*Mass. Teacher.*

OFFICIAL NOTICES.



PROTESTANT BOARD OF EXAMINERS OF MONTREAL.

His Excellency the Governor General in Council, was pleased, on the 27th instant, to appoint the Reverend George Cornish Member of the Protestant Board of Examiners of Montreal..

SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.

His Excellency the Governor General in Council was pleased, on the 27th instant, to make the following appointments of School Commissioners:

County of Yamaska.—St. Zéphirin. Mr. Damase Parent.

County of Montmorency.—St. Pierre. MM. François Fournier and Louis Lachaine.

County of Quebec.—St. Dunstan : The Revd. G. J. McGill and Messrs. Edward Gosnold, John Gosnold, George Smith Samuel Taylor.

County of Kamouraska.—Ste. Anne Lapocatière : Messrs. Joseph Dionne and Joseph Deslauriers.

County of Lévis.—St. Joseph :—Mr. Pierre Bourget.

City of Quebec.—Catholic :—The Reverend Joseph Auclair and Messrs. Jacques Crémazie and Eusébe Lemieux.

County of Rimouski.—St. Anaclet : Messrs. Jean Corriveau, Senior, Germain Lepage, Antoine Michaud, Norbert Blanchet and Zéphirin Pineau.

County of Arthabaska.—Chester West : Messrs. Ludger Labrèche, Olivier Bessette. [Commission of 23rd March, 1859, revoked.]

County of Beauce.—St. François : Messrs. J. B. Létourneau and Pierre Bolduc.

ERECTION OF A SCHOOL MUNICIPALITY.

His Excellency the Governor General in Council was pleased, on the 22th August last—

1. To erect the townships of Charlevoix, Roberval and Ouïatchouan, county of Chicoutimi, into a separate Scholastic Municipality under the name of the Scholastic Municipality of Ouïatchouan.

2. To erect into a separate Scholastic Municipality, under the name of the Scholastic Municipality of St. Epiphany, that part of the township of Viger, county of Temiscouata, which runs from Isle Verte along the west line of the Indian ground, and the by-road (route) separating lot 36 from lot 37, in all the ranges of the said township situate in rear of the said ground, and the first four lots in all the ranges of the said township forming part of the parish of St. Modeste.

SITUATION AS TEACHER WANTED.

Miss Couch, provided with a diploma for elementary school, (McGill Normal School,) is desirous of a situation. Apply to this office.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

MONTREAL, (LOWER CANADA) AUGUST, 1859.

To Our Subscribers.

We think it necessary to remind the subscribers, who have not as yet paid us, that the subscription to this journal is payable in advance. In giving this notice we would also remind them that the Editors of this sheet have no pecuniary interests in its publication.

At the suggestion of several friends of Education, we sent the first numbers of the third volume to several persons, requesting them to return the first number if they did not wish to subscribe. Nearly all have continued to receive our journal and most of them have paid their subscriptions. A few, however, after having received the six first numbers, returned the paper. We are obliged to consider them as subscribers for the current year.

An Example.

The law which protects, so far as lies in its power, the teachers from the caprices of certain commissioners, maintains, when necessary, the authority of the latter. When a teacher is unjustly dismissed, or when his engagement is not renewed on the same terms, without the previous three months' notice, he has a right to be indemnified either by the Educational Department, which retains the amount of indemnity from the grant to the municipality, or by the decision of the legal tribunals. With these resources against injustice, he is inexcusable when he takes the law into his own hands. This is often the case, and the Department is determined not to tolerate it. The teacher when summoned to surrender possession of the school house should do

so without delay. It is the property of the municipality, governed by the commissioners, and it is absurd to try to keep possession of a tenement against the will of the landlord. All the rights of a teacher, unjustly dismissed, are resolvable into a demand for indemnity.

Lately a teacher, in the municipality of Masham, openly opposed the commissioners while exercising their lawful powers; his friends joined him, a disturbance took place and violent measures were even resorted to, to retain possession of the school house. Mr. McCord, school Inspector, repaired to the locality and in the capacity of Justice of the Peace *ex officio*, held an inquest and imprisoned the teacher. We hope that this example shall have the desired effect. Besides the civil or the criminal proceedings to which the teacher exposes himself, he may also be deprived of his diploma for such misconduct.

The New Postage Law and the Educational Department.

As but few parties in correspondence with the Educational Department comply with the new postage law in the pre-payment of their letters, (thereby increasing the postage charge by nearly fifty per cent.,) the effect has been to swell unduly this item of the contingencies of the Department. It may be that this omission arises from the impression that the official correspondence of the Educational branch of the public service like those of the Cabinet Executive Departments, go free. But this is an entire mistake; as the Educational Department forms an exception, and its contingent expenses are proportionably increased by a charge from which the other Public Departments of a similar character are exempt. We would suggest, therefore, in future, that all correspondence with the Department be pre-paid, (as it is on letters, &c., going from the Department,) and that thinner paper be used in all cases. Several letters occupying but one page have been lately received written on large, thick paper, and embracing four pages. Foolscap paper should be used when practicable; and only such portions of it sent as may be written on. All other portions have to be cut off when the letter is filed in the Department.

POSTAGE REDUCED ON TRUSTEES RETURNS.

The Hon. the Postmaster General has recently issued the following circular notice to Postmasters in Lower Canada: "The Half-Yearly School Returns made by School Commissioners or Trustees to the Superintendent of Schools, may, though the printed form be partly filled up with the names of the pupils and the days of attendance, in writing, be transmitted by Post, in Canada, as printed papers, at one cent each, to be prepaid by Stamps." These returns, when sent through the Post, should be in wrappers open at both ends.

SYNOPSIS OF THE NEW POSTAGE LAW.

(Extracts from a Circular of the Postmaster-General addressed to Post-Masters.)

All Post Office rates and charges are, from the first of July next, to be made and collected in decimal currency, substituting cents for pence.

All letters posted in Canada, *unpaid*, for any place within the Province, shall be charged seven cents per half oz; but if *prepaid*, they will pass at five cents, that being the decimal equivalent of the present 3d.

Letters for Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward's Island, 5 cents per half oz, with optional prepayment.

Letters for the United Kingdom prepaid 12½ cents (7½d), per half oz, by Canadian Steamers, 12 cents (10d), by Cunard Steamers; if not prepaid, a fine of 6d. sterling will be charged on their arrival in England.

Letters for the United States, (except California and Oregon,) 10 cents (6) per half oz; to California and Oregon, 15 cents (9d). (Prepayment, we suppose, optional; the circular does not say.)

Letters to all foreign countries, the same rate as at present, changing it into cents.

The charge for registering a letter to any place in British North America will be 2 cents, instead of 1d; to the United Kingdom, 12½ cents instead of 7½d; to the United States, 5 cents instead of 3d. To

all other places, the equivalent of the present rate in cents. In all cases, except to B. N. America, letters when registered must have both postage and registration fee prepaid.

Drop or Box letters, and all minor rates of a like character, to be charged 1 cent for every 4d. now charged.

On Newspapers, published in Canada, and sent from the office of publication to regular subscribers, the rate will be, *if paid quarterly in advance*, as follows:—

	Per Quarter.
On a daily paper	2s. or 40 cents.
“ tri-weekly	1s. “ 20 “
“ semi-weekly	8d. “ 13 “
“ weekly	4d. “ 6½ “

These charges can be paid either by the publisher, at the mailing office, or by the subscriber, at the delivering office. When the above rates are not paid in advance, a charge of 1 cent each number, or 3d for 5, will be made.

Transient newspapers must be prepaid by a 1 cent stamp or they will not be forwarded.

Newspapers from England by the Canadian steamers to pass free; those by the Cunard line, to be charged 2 cents each on delivery, that being the American transit charge.

Newspapers from the United States are to be charged 1 cent each on delivery.

Exchanges are to go free.

Periodical publications, not exceeding 3 oz. in weight, 1 cent each; over 3 oz, 4 cents. If prepaid by stamp, periodicals published in Canada, weighing over 3 oz., 2 cents.

Periodicals devoted exclusively to *Education*, Agriculture, Temperance, or any branch of science, to be sent from the office of publication free.

Printed Circulars, Books, &c., sent from a Canadian office to any place in Canada, B. N. America, or the United States, 1 cent each; over 1 ounce in weight, 1 cent per oz. But these rates must be paid in *ADVANCE* in Postage Stamps.

Parcels sent by Parcel Post to any place in Canada, 25 cents per lb.; 5 cents additional if registered.

Postage stamps of the respective values of 1, 5, 15, 12½, and 17 cents, have been provided, and will be allowed to pass for a time after the first of July.

The Act declares that any of the following offences shall be considered a misdemeanor:—

To delay, damage, or destroy any parcel sent by the Parcel Post; to enclose a letter or letters, or writing to serve the purpose of a letter, in a parcel sent by Parcel Post; to send a letter or letters, or writing to serve the purpose of a letter in a newspaper, except in the case of accounts and receipts sent by newspaper publishers to their subscribers, which are allowed to be folded in the papers.

Education in Upper Canada in 1857.

We learn from the report of the Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada that the total receipts of Common Schools moneys in 1857 amounted to £323,104 1s. 7d., being an increase of £34,681 19s. on the receipts of the year 1856.

The amount of Legislative School Grant apportioned to the Municipalities in aid of Common Schools in 1857, was £32,951 13s. 4d. The law required an equal sum to be raised by Municipal assessment to entitle the Municipalities to this aid. The sum actually provided by Municipal assessments was £61,954 1s.—£29,002 7s. 8d. more than the law required, and an increase of £7,427 5s. 3d. on the Municipal assessment of the year 1856. The Municipalities, therefore, voluntarily assessed themselves in 1857 nearly twice the amount required by law in order to entitle them to the Legislative Grant.

The school section free school rates in 1857 were £146,285 13s. 3d., being an increase on those of 1856 of £10,930 19s. 4d.

The rate-bills on children attending the schools in 1857 amounted to £33,621 13s., being an increase on those of 1856 of £2,658 8s. 11d. Even under the disadvantageous circumstances under which Free Schools are established and maintained—namely by an annual vote at each school section meeting—the public opinion of Upper Canada in 1857 in favor of free, over rate-bill Schools was in the proportion of £146,285 13s. 3d. to £37,621 12s. Were this small sum of £37,621 raised by a rate on property, instead of on children attending Schools, all the Common Schools of Upper Canada would be free. It is true that less than one-half of the Schools are actually free; but in a very large proportion of those in which a rate-bill on children is imposed, it is very small—almost nominal.

The amount paid to teachers in 1857 was £215,057 16s., being an increase of £20,136 16s. 3d. on that of the preceding year.

The amount paid for maps and other school apparatus in 1857 was £4,349, being an increase of £1,909 0s. 2d.

The amount raised and expended for school sites and in the building of school houses in 1857, was £51,972 6s. 5d., being an increase on that expended the preceding year of £9,164 17s. 4d. No aid is given for these purposes by the Legislature. The whole is done by voluntary assessments of Municipalities and school sections.

The amount raised and expended for rents and repairs of school houses in 1857 was £9,401 13s. 4d., being a decrease of £795 3s. 3d. This and the preceding item taken together show that fewer school houses were rented, and more built and secured in 1857 and than in 1856.

The amount raised and expended for text-books and stationery (that is by Trustees) fuel and other incidental expenses in 1857, was £22,258 9s. 5d., being an increase of £3,096 6s. 6d. For these purposes no aid is granted by the Legislature.

The balances of school moneys in hand the 31st December, 1857, amounted to £30,564 10s. 4d., being an increase of £1169 18s. 11d. on those in hand at the end of the preceding year.

The total expenditure for Common School purposes during the year 1857 was £303 10s. 10d., being an increase of £33,512 0s. 1d. on the total expenditure of the preceding year.

As the whole of the £303,039 10s. 10d. expended in 1857 for the support of Common Schools, with the exception of between thirty and forty thousand pounds, was provided by local voluntary assessment or rates, it indicates not only the universally powerful working of this branch of the school system, but the progress of the public mind in a primary element of educational advancement—provision for its support. And when the financial condition of the country is considered during the last half of the year 1857—the part of the year during which the greater part of the school rates are levied, and nearly all of them collected—the fact that the receipts and expenditures of the year are more than one hundred thousand dollars in advance of any one of the preceding prosperous years, presents a remarkable phenomenon in the educational history of Upper Canada, and an extraordinary contrast to its receipts in every other branch of revenue and industry.

COMMON SCHOOL POPULATION.

The number of pupils between 5 and 16 years of age attending the schools in 1856, was 227,992; in 1857, 247,434—increase, 19,442. The number of pupils attending school between the ages of 16 and 21 years, in 1856, was 23,153; in 1857, 25,203—increase, 2,050. The total number of pupils attending the schools, in 1856, was 251,145; in 1857, 272,637—increase, 21,492.

The number of boys attending the schools in 1857 was 150,029—increase, 12,609. The number of girls was 122,608—increase, 8,883. A much larger number of girls than boys attended private schools, as the law makes no provision for a higher class of girls' schools.

The number returned as indigent children attending the schools in 1857 was 4,820—increase, 725. This distribution does not, of course, obtain where the schools are free, as all children then attend them by right, and none as paupers.

TEACHERS, NUMBER, SEX, DENOMINATION, RANK, SALARIES.

The whole number of teachers employed in the course of the year 1857 was 4,083 (in 4,083 sections)—increase, 394. The whole number of legally qualified teachers reported was 3933—increase, 478.

Of the teachers employed, 2787 were males—increase, 165; 1296 were females—increase, 229; 742 were members of the Church of England—increase, 58; 438 were Roman Catholics—increase, 21; 1201 were Presbyterians (including all classes)—increase, 296; 1165 were Methodists (including all classes)—increase, 63; 211 were Baptists—decrease, 13; 57 were Congregationalists—decrease, 35; 21 Lutherans—increase, 10; 35 Quakers—increase, 26; 85 reported as Protestant—increase, 39; a few are returned as belonging to the minor denominations.

The whole number of teachers holding legal certificates of qualification was 3933—increase, 478; 640 held first class certificates—increase, 83; 2064 held second class certificates—increase, 318. 962 held third class certificates—decrease, 53. This is so far encouraging. It is to be hoped that third class teachers will soon disappear altogether. The number of uncertified teachers reported was 150—decrease, 84.

The highest salary paid in any County was £160; in a City, £350; in a Town, £200; in a Town Municipality, £137 in an

incorporated village, £200. The lowest salary in a County was £24; in a City £48; in a Town, 35; in a Town Municipality, £50; in an incorporated village, £75. The average salaries of male teachers in Counties, with board, were £54—increase, £11 19s.; without board, £96 12s.; in cities, £129 17s.; in Towns, £118; in Town Municipalities, \$114; in incorporated villages, £116. The average salaries of female teachers in Counties, with board, were £37 2s. The average salaries of female teachers in Counties, without board, were £51 18s.; in Cities, £55 15s.; in Towns, £70 7s.; in Town Municipalities, £61 14s.; in incorporated villages, £79 2s. The average salaries of male teachers in Counties, Cities, &c., were £115 5s.—increase on those of the preceding year, £24 19s. The average salaries of female teachers in Counties, Cities, &c., were £63 10s.—increase on those of the preceding year, £10 5s.

Number of Schools, School Houses, Titles of School Property, School Houses Built, School Visits, Lectures, Time Schools are kept open.

The number of school sections in 1857 was 4017—increase, 383. The number of schools reported, 3731—increase, 259. The number of Schools open and not reported, 286. These, of course, did not share in the School Fund.

The number of free schools was 1707—increase, 444; the largest increase for any one year for several years. The number of schools partly free was 1559—decrease, 8. The number of schools with one and three pence rate-bill per month for each pupil, 1354—increase, 205. The number of schools with less than one and three pence rate-bill per month for each pupil, was 444—decrease, 99. From these figures it appears that the highest rate-bill by law was adopted in less than one-third of the schools; 3266, or about seven-eighths of the schools are partly; that 1707 schools are entirely free—being an unprecedented increase of 444.

The returns of school houses appear very imperfect, 87 not having been reported at all, there having been reported 39 stone school houses and 110 brick school houses less in 1857 than in 1856. The one or the other of these returns must be incorrect. The aggregate number of stone school houses reported was 278; of brick school houses, 240; of frame school houses, 1425; of log school houses, 1542.

As to the title of school premises, the number of houses held as freehold, was 2738—increase, 301; held by lease, 444—decrease, 25; number rented, 147—decrease, 178; not reported, 243.

Of the school houses built during the year, 21 were of brick—increase, 7; 26 were of stone—increase, 20; 55 were frame—increase, 3; 27 were log—decrease, 47; not reported, 72; total built during the year, 201—increase, 8.

The whole number of school visits in 1857, was 49,196—increase, 5,090. The number of school visits by Local Superintendents, (many of whom are clergymen,) was 7323—decrease, 252; by magistrates, 4,025—increase, 608; by Municipal Councillors, 1704—decrease, 44; by Magistrates, 1634—increase, 138; by Judges and Members of Parliament, 366—increase, 14; by Trustees, 17750—increase, 1460; by other persons, 16,325—increase, 3136.

The whole number of educational lectures delivered in 1857, was 2540—increase, 117; lectures by Local Superintendents, 2245—increase, 250; by others, 295—decrease, 133.

The average time during which 3458 of the schools were kept open in 1857, has been reported, and is ten months and 6 days—increase, 4 days; an average of two months longer than the schools are kept open in either the State of New-York or the State of Massachusetts.

SEPARATE SCHOOLS.

The establishment of the most of these schools is of recent date—since the vehement agitation of the question—the greater part of those established in former years having been discontinued.

The number of Roman Catholic Separate Schools in 1857 was 100—increase, 10.

The amount apportioned from the Legislative School Grant to those schools was £2,123 15s. 10d.—increase, £738 2s. 9d.

The amount raised by local tax on the supporters of Separate Schools was £2,599 10s. 7d.—increase, £562 19s.

The amount raised by rate-bill on the children attending the Separate Schools was £1,177 14s.—increase, £479 14s. 1d.

The amount subscribed by the supporters of Separate Schools was £2,186 1s. 3d.—increase, £901 4s. 6d.

Total amount received for the support of Separate Schools was £3,092 2s. 8d.—increase, £2,974 0s. 6d., or nearly one-third. This large increase is highly creditable to the supporters of Separate Schools.

As to the expenditure of these moneys, the amount paid to teachers was £4,185 17s. 6d.—increase, £1,600 14s. 6d. The amount paid for other purposes was £3,406 4s. 8d.—increase, £1,373 6s. 0d.

The whole number of pupils in the Separate Schools was 9,964—increase, 2,754, or more than one-third. — *Canadian Merchant's Magazine.*

Agricultural Education.

[We transfer with great pleasure to our columns the following article, from one of our most valuable exchanges although it may appear to reflect on the Educational Departments. We shall state at the same time that lectures on agriculture are given in two of our Normal Schools and will soon, we hope, be introduced in the other, and that in the preparation of a series of French readers for Lower Canada, due attention will be paid to this all important subject. The series of the Irish National readings in use in both sections of the Province contains also useful informations on subjects connected with agriculture. There is in the Museum of the Upper Canada Department a fine collection of models of agricultural implements, and in the depository of books, many works on agriculture, and agricultural chemistry. In Lower Canada several works of the same nature are distributed to teachers and to their pupils as rewards. The college of St. Ann is opening a school of agriculture, one of the professors of which, Mr. Dumais, has studied at the model farm of Mr. Perault, at Varennes. We admit this is very little in comparison to all that remains to be done and we are glad that the subject should be agitated which we hope will tend to procure to the Educational Departments the ways and means of doing more.]

Canada, and particularly Western Canada, is pre-eminently an agricultural country. Her broad lands now furnish employment for seventy per cent. of her population, while even those engaged in other pursuits are mainly dependent upon the success of the farmer for their means of support. The success of this branch of industry cannot then be a matter of indifference to any class in the community, and we hail the increasing interest that is being manifested on this subject as one of the most encouraging signs of the times. Agricultural associations and agricultural journals now occupy a prominent position, and have already conferred, and must continue to confer immense benefits upon those engaged in the cultivation of the soil. It is, however, matter for surprise and regret, that while much has been done to stimulate the efforts of the agriculturists to greater proficiency in their honourable calling, little or nothing has been effected to aid them by a sound practical education, to master the details of a science, of which, from circumstances beyond their control, nine-tenths of them are deplorably ignorant.

In the principal agricultural countries of Europe, as well as in many States of the American Union, agricultural schools and colleges have been established, and the beneficial results of such institutions are already universally acknowledged. In Canada, however, with all her liberality to agricultural institutions, and all her contributions to provincial exhibitions, nothing has been done to lay the foundation of agricultural success, by imparting to her young men a knowledge of the simplest rudiments of the science.

"Is it not to be deplored," says Inspector Crepault, in his Report to the Chief Superintendent of Schools for Lower Canada, "that amongst our School books there is not a single page on the subject of agriculture; and thus for children who are nearly all destined to become farmers?" And is it not still more strange, we may well enquire, that in Upper Canada itself there is neither an agricultural text-book nor an agricultural college in the whole country. Considering the class of settlers which compose the great bulk of our rural population, this is indeed matter for surprise. Trained to other branches of industry in their native country, they have emigrated to Canada with little knowledge of rural pursuits, and once buried in the back woods of Canada, their means of increasing that knowledge is limited indeed. Associated with neighbours only one step in advance of themselves, their whole-life becomes a continued struggle, the hardships of which are vastly increased by the absence of a practical knowledge of agricultural pursuits. To this absence of a thorough acquaintance with the principles of agricultural science may be ascribed no. only many of the difficulties of the early settlers, but the disastrous results of over-cropping, which are now so painfully visible in many parts of the province.

Such being the position of Canada at the present time, the importance of agricultural education cannot be too strongly impressed upon the public mind. Our system of national education, however highly applauded, is sadly deficient in this respect. Our young men are trained in every other branch of knowledge but that which

is to them of the highest importance. Nay, their whole course of study is rather calculated to wean them from, than attach them to agricultural pursuits, and just in proportion to their educational acquisitions, are they considered unfit to engage in them. It is surely time that an effort was made to bring about a state of things more in accordance with the requirements of the country. A sound practical education is no less necessary to the success of the farmer than it is to that of the merchant or professional man, and until this truth is acknowledged and acted upon, we must despair of seeing the cultivation of the soil occupy that high position to which it is fairly entitled.

The European traveller in Canada, while he recognizes the fertility of the soil, does not fail to observe the almost total absence of that high state of cultivation which imparts to an English farm its more attractive aspect. In the latter country, the improved system of agriculture now pursued has rendered the cultivation of the soil so attractive and remunerating, that notwithstanding the exorbitant rents and taxes with which it is burdened, there is a keen competition for every vacant farm. In Canada it is otherwise. Many farms are at this moment unoccupied, while our cities are full of intelligent young men from the country, either in want of employment, or wasting their time behind a counter, scarcely earning sufficient to meet their present wants, and utterly hopeless as to the future.

We are not insensible to the difficulties with which our Canadian farmers have to contend. The high rate of wages, the distance from markets, the ravages of the fly, and many other circumstances combine to increase their risks and lessen their profits. But these things so far from arguing against the success of improved methods of agriculture, are the strongest arguments in their favour, and the clearest proof of their absolute necessity.

The means to be employed to accomplish the object we have in view will readily suggest themselves to reflecting minds. We require an intelligent treatise on agriculture as a text-book in our common schools, and the establishment of one or more agricultural colleges, where a practical as well as a theoretical knowledge of the most approved system of agriculture could be obtained on easy terms. On this subject the *Springfield Republican*, (U. S.) remarks in a recent article:—

"A few years ago, a newspaper exclusively agricultural, was considered a wonder. Now almost every public journal has a column or more devoted to this object. Academies and Colleges whose professed object is to teach the young those things which they will be called to practice when men, never thought they had anything to do with agriculture. Now farm schools and agricultural departments in institutions of learning are demanded and created. Westfield Academy has such a department, with a ten thousand dollar endowment, and an agricultural library containing almost every work in English published on this subject. We hope to see this old institution and its new edifice filled by the sons of farmers and others who desire thorough agricultural instruction."

And the *Buffalo Express* in recommending the establishment of an agricultural school in that city thus writes:

"A school connected with an experimental farm—and with the means perhaps for conducting the operations of other healthy scientific pursuits of practical life,—would not only be immensely beneficial as a much needed institution of practical education, but would be superior to all others in point of mere theoretical efficiency. The abstract studies of the school room would gain doubly in their result from the invigorating exercises with which they were alternated. The strength of muscle gained in the field, and elsewhere, would be transposed into new powers of mind. The health of body ensured by such exercise would reproduce itself in the mental faculties. And more than all, the practical application of theoretical knowledge, even limitedly, would tend to give a solidity, and substantial worth and meaning to all the acquisitions of the scholar, which nothing else could effect. It would make his education real, sound, doubly profitable. It would serve to create a true sense of the life objects of study in the mind of the student. It would give that living and active realization of the purposes of education, without which the scholar is an automaton, and his education a mere mechanical process. It would also, besides its comprehensive influence upon the mind, work a great benefit to every distinct faculty. Applied facts take a strong hold upon the mind, and the application of truths and facts, taught in the school room, could not but invigorate the memory. Thought too must be induced by the demand for practical effort, and the forcible suggestions of practical results; and the great—almost sole secret of successful education, is the excitement of the mind to an active absorption and digestion

of the mental food bestowed upon it,—or to think for itself, and analyse and examine what is presented to it.

"But it is not necessary to discuss the benefits and advantages of a system of education which combines theory with practice, and study with rational exercise. It must be admitted by all, that an institution upon such a plan would be far superior to any school for mere abstract instruction, even without taking into account its value to those whose after calling in life would be directly referred to, in the practical training and instruction given. The only question which needs discussion, is, whether the suggestion which we have repeated cannot and ought not to be acted upon. Whether the city of Buffalo might not lay claim to a proud honour, by setting the example of founding such an institution upon the broad basis of municipal support, and making it the crowning glory of her common school system. Is it beyond her means, or are the advantages to accrue beneath her attention and effort? A few acres of land in some well chosen locality in the adjacent country, would cost but little more than the few feet necessary for a city school building. The edifice required for the purpose need not—until the institution has become an object of pride—be one of more than moderate pretension and cost; and the whole scheme might be so gradually developed—in proportion to the awakening of public interest and favour,—that it would be scarcely felt by the community, as a burden of expense. We can readily see how such an institution might be built up for our city, and become its chief boast and greatest blessing; and we can see that sensible men of wealth would recognize its substantial advantages, and prefer for many of their sons, such a solid education as it would furnish, rather than the classical cramming of a college, which makes more conceited fools than trained intellects, by half."

If such institutions are considered necessary in the neighbouring States, and even in those where the cultivation of the soil engages but a small part of the population, surely they are still more so in Canada, dependent as she is to so great an extent on the success of her agriculture.

It should never be forgotten in referring to this subject, that hitherto the rich products of our soil have been almost entirely the result of its natural fertility. Cultivation has done nothing toward improving the land, but on the contrary, has, to a large extent, destroyed its fertility. A continuance of this system is more to be feared than all the scourges to which our crops are liable, and we trust, for the interest of Canada, that a better system of agriculture will be speedily introduced.—*Canadian Merchant's Magazine*.

Chronicle of the War.

The Italian war having come happily to an end, after having altered in a few weeks the map of Europe, we think it right to put on record a chronicle of the leading events, as matter of reference and general interest:—

PRELIMINARY EVENTS.

- April 19, 1859.—First body of French troops leaves Toulon; Austrian ultimatum dispatched from Vienna to Turin.
- April 23.—It is received at Turin.
- April 26.—The limit fixed by the ultimatum (of three days) expires; Count Cavour declines the Austrian conditions; statement of the war question addressed to the Corps Legislatif by Count Walewski; French troops first cross Mont Cenis.
- April 27.—Revolution in Tuscany; the Grand Duke retires: address of Victor Emmanuel to his army.
- THE FIRST WEEK OF THE WAR.—THE AUSTRIANS ENTER SARDINIA.
- April 29.—The Austrian declaration of war posted in Vienna; the Austrians, under Count Gyulai, pass the Ticino; Marshal Canrobert and General Niel reach Turin and assume command of their respective corps d'armée; General McMahon arrives at Genoa; death of General Bouat; appeal of Victor Emmanuel to the Italian people.
- April 30.—The Austrians occupy Novara; the French ambassador quits Vienna; revolt of Massa and Carrara.
- May 1.—King Victor Emmanuel leaves Turin to take command of his army; the Austrians occupy Moriara; their steamers seize the Sardinian ports on Lake Maggiore; three Austrian vessels repulsed on the lake; the Duchess of Parma withdraws from the Duchy.

May 3.—Manifesto of Napoleon III., addressed to the Corps Legislatif; the Austrians pass the Po at Cambio; they are repulsed in an attempted crossing at Frassinetto; they burn the bridge over the Senvia at Piacenza; the Austrian vanguard reaches Tronzano.

May 4.—The conflict at Frassinetto continues; the Austrians, passing the Po at Vacarizza, advance to Sale; a cannonade at Valenza.

THE SECOND WEEK OF THE WAR.—THE FRENCH EMPEROR PROCEEDS TO THE SEAT OF WAR.

May 5.—The Duchess of Parma returns to her capital.

May 6.—General Cialdini, issuing from Casale, seizes a convoy of the enemy.

May 7.—The Austrians repass the Po at Gerola.

May 9.—Imperial decree establishing the Regency in France.

May 10.—The Emperor Napoleon III. and the Prince Napoleon Jerome leave Paris for the seat of war; the Austrians complete a retrograde movement to the left of the Sesia.

May 11.—The Emperor embarks at Marseilles; the Austrians pause at Vercelli, and return reconnoitering parties to the right bank of the river; they occupy Rivergaro.

May 12.—The Emperor lands at Genoa; issues an order of the day to the army.

May 13.—The English declaration of neutrality published.

THE THIRD WEEK OF THE WAR.—THE AUSTRIAN RETREAT.

May 14.—The Austrians occupy Bobbio, and push their advanced posts to Casteggio.

May 15.—The French Emperor arrives at Alessandria.

May 16.—The French squadron of Admiral Jurieu-Graviere anchors before Venice; the Emperor visits the outposts at Valenza.

May 17.—The Austrians threaten the bridge at Stella; the Emperor visits the head-quarters of the King at Occimiano; the Austrians vainly attempt to take the bridge at Valenza.

May 19.—The head-quarters of Count Gyulai transferred in retreat to Gariasco.

THE FOURTH WEEK OF THE WAR.—THE BATTLES OF MONTEBELLO AND VERCELLI.

May 20.—Speech of M. Kossuth on the war, delivered at London Tavern; battle of Montebello; the Allies, numbering 6,300, under General Forey, defeat 25,000 Austrians under General Count Stadion; the Emperor visits Casale.

May 21.—The Piedmontese, under General Cialdini, force the passage of the Sesia at Vercelli, routing the Austrians; Garibaldi with his corps, leaves Biella, and marches for Northwestern Lombardy; the blockade of Venice established.

May 22.—Death of the King of Naples.

May 23.—Garibaldi, passing the Ticino at Sesto Calende, defeats the enemy and captures Varese.

May 25.—Garibaldi, attacked by the Austrians, beats them; Colonel Christoforis, with a portion of Garibaldi's force, beats the Austrians near Sesto Calende; the Emperor at Voghera.

May 26.—The Emperor arrives at Vercelli; Garibaldi again beats the Austrians at Matmate.

THE FIFTH WEEK OF THE WAR.—THE BATTLE OF PALESTRO.

May 27.—Garibaldi marches upon Como; rapid movement of the French army from the south to the north of the Po; Montebello and Casteggio, evacuated by them, occupied by the Austrians.

May 28.—Garibaldi, beating the Austrians at San Fermo, occupies Como, Camerlata, and Lecco; Austrian vessels bombard Canobbio, on Lake Maggiore; the Valtelline rises in insurrection.

May 31.—Battle of Palestro; the Allies, commanded by Victor Emmanuel, attack the Austrians; the Emperor of Austria, attended by Field-Marshal Baron Hess, arrive at Verona.

June 1.—The Allies defeat the Austrians at Palestro; General Niel occupies Novara; proclamation of the Emperor Francis Joseph to the Tyrolese.

June 2.—Garibaldi retiring before a powerful body of the enemy, attacks Laveno unsuccessfully; the Austrians attack the allied outposts at Robbio but speedily retreat; the advance of the allies, under McMahon, enters Lombardy by the bridge of Turbigo.

THE SIXTH WEEK OF THE WAR.—THE BATTLES OF MACENFA AND MALEGNANO.

June 3.—The Austrians hastily evacuate Sardinia; severe action at Buffalora; Garibaldi again marches upon Varese, beats the Austrians, and re-occupies it.

June 4.—The conflict at Buffalora concludes in a splendid victory of the Allies at Magenta.

June 6.—Milan rises upon the Austrians; the garrison retires; Victor Emmanuel proclaimed king; Lombardy annexed to Sardinia; Grand *Te Deum* at Paris for the victory at Magenta.

June 7.—The Emperor and King enter Milan; the Austrians custom-houses on Lake Maggiore seized by Garibaldi's corps.

June 8.—Garibaldi pursues the Austrians, who retreat towards Monza; proclamation of Napoleon III. to the Italians.

June 9.—Marshal Baraguay d'Hilliers attacks the Austrians at Malegnano, and after a severe contest carries that post; on the same day the Austrian Count d'Urban is beaten by Marshal Canrober at Canonica; the Austrians evacuate Laveno on Lago Maggiore.

THE SEVENTH WEEK OF THE WAR.—THE RETREAT OF THE AUSTRIANS.

June 10.—Garibaldi enters Bergamo; the Austrians evacuate Pavia and Piacenza; the Duchess of Parma arrives at Verona.

June 11.—The Austrians evacuate Lodi; they also evacuate Bologna and Ancona; resignation of the Derby Ministry in England; Lord Palmerston invited to form a cabinet; head-quarters of the French advanced to Gorgonzola.

June 12.—The vanguard of the French army passes the Adda at Cassano; the Sardinian army passes the Adda at Vaprio; the Austrians complete the evacuation of the Papal territory, and also withdraw from Modena; death of Prince Metternich.

June 13.—The Austrians abandon Pizzighetone; Garibaldi at Brescia; Cremona and Brescia declare for the King of Sardinia; the Allied army passes the Sesia; General d'Urban retires from Coccaglia.

June 14.—The Duke of Modena arrives at Mantua; D'Urban occupies Cavriana, but evacuates it the same night; revolt at Venice.

June 15.—Garibaldi repulsed by an overwhelming force of the Austrians at Castenedolo; he retreats towards Lonato.

June 16.—General Count Schlick takes command of the second Austrian army, replacing Gyulai; the head-quarters of Napoleon III. removed to Covo; the Austrian Emperor at Travigliato.

THE EIGHTH WEEK OF THE WAR.—PREPARATIONS FOR THE FINAL AND DECISIVE BATTLE.

June 17.—The Austrians occupy Montechiaro and Castiglione; Kossuth leaves London for Italy.

June 18.—The Emperor and King enter Brescia; the Austrians occupy the pass of the Stelvio; the Emperor Francis Joseph reviews a portion of his army at Lonato; he assumes supreme command of the army.

June 19.—The third division of the Adriatic fleet sails from Toulon.

June 20.—The Austrians abandon Montechiaro, Castiglione, and Lonato.

June 21.—The Emperor and King leave Brescia for the camp; the Austrians reoccupy Montechiaro and Castiglione; Francis Joseph fixes his head-quarters at Villafianca.

June 22.—The French pass the Chiave at Montechiaro, and push a reconnaissance as far as Gono; the head-quarters of Francis Joseph at Valleggio; Kossuth arrives at Genoa.

June 23.—The French Emperor and the King urge a reconnaissance as far as Desenzano; the Austrians in full force repass the Mincio, and occupy Pozzolengo, Soiferino and Cavriana.

THE NINTH WEEK OF THE WAR.—THE BATTLE OF SOLFERINO.—THE ALLIES PASS THE MINCIO.

- June 24.—Great battle of Solferino: 250,000 Austrians defeated by the Allies, numbering 150,000, the Austrians repass the Mincio, the allied head-quarters at Cavriana.
- June 25.—Prussia proposes in the Diet the mobilization of the Federal army; retreat of the French troops at Brescia.
- June 26.—Kossuth arrives at Parma, and after conferring with Prince Napoleon, proceeds to the Imperial head-quarters.
- June 27.—A portion of Garibaldi's troops, under Major Medici, occupy the pass of Tonal, between Val Canonica and the Tyrol.
- June 28.—The allies, crossing the Mincio, enter the Venetian States.
- June 29.—The vanguard of the Allies advances to Villafranca.
- June 30.—The Imperial head-quarters removed to Voita, the corps of Prince Napoleon joins the main body of the allied army at Vallegio; the Sardinians commence the siege of Peschiera; the new British ministry declares in Parliament its determination to maintain an inviolable neutrality.

THE TENTH WEEK OF THE WAR.—REPOSE AFTER THE BATTLE.

- July 3.—The Emperor removes his head-quarters from Volca, and, crossing the Mincio, fixes them at Vallegio.
- July 4.—Ten thousand French troops landed at Lussan-Piccolo, in the Adriatic; Grand Te Deum for the victory of Solferino at Notre-Dame.
- July 5.—The Austrians retire from Bolmio, after a sharp action, in which they are defeated by Garibaldi.

THE ELEVENTH WEEK OF THE WAR.—THE ARMISTICE AND THE PEACE.

- July 8.—Armistice concluded between the two emperors at Villafranca; Zara bombarded by the French frigate *Impetueuse*.
- July 11.—Interview between Napoleon III. and Francis Joseph; the war terminated by the peace of Villafranca.

MONTHLY SUMMARY.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

—The last legislature of Wisconsin, by a vote of nineteen to thirteen in the Senate, and fifty-one to ten in the Assembly, has enacted a *School Library Law*, with four prominent provisions. 1. It provides a permanent Town School Library Fund, by setting apart for this purpose ten per cent. of the School Fund income, subject to apportionment in 1860, and annually thereafter, together with the proceeds of a special State tax, to be levied each year, of one tenth of one mill on the dollar valuation of taxable property. 2. It provides that this fund shall be set apart specifically for establishing and replenishing Town School Libraries. 3. It provides that the books for these libraries shall be purchased by public authority, and not by the local School Boards as heretofore. 4. It provides that an extra number of the State Laws, Journals, and Documents, sufficient to supply each town and city school library in the State with a set, shall be printed by the State Printer, and delivered to the State Superintendent, and that these shall be substantially bound, under the direction of the State Superintendent, with the approval of the Governor, at a cost not exceeding thirty cents per volume, to be paid out of the School Library Fund.—*Mass. Teacher*.

—The last legislature of Indiana, by altering four sections of the General School Law, has made the schools *town institutions*, and the trustee for each township is now also the trustee, treasurer, and clerk for school purposes. Each school of a town shall be kept an equal length of time, without regard to the diversity in the number of pupils at the several schools.

The Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, To the General Assembly, appeared nearly a month and a half after the adjournment of the assembly. The number of children in the State is upwards of 450,000; school districts 1,675, schools 6,835, male teachers 4,700, female teachers, 1,114, 600 new school houses have been erected last year, valued at \$275,805.—*Ibid*

—Oregon has given the sixteenth and thirty-sixth section of all lands in her territory for educational purposes. A university has been opened not far from Portland, in Washington county, but the building is small

and the means of procuring books and good teachers are very limited. Rev. S. H. Marsh, its president, is now in the Eastern States with the hope of obtaining some pecuniary aid for that institution.

—It appears from the tables annexed to the Report of the Rev. Dr. Forrester, Chief Superintendent of Education, for Nova Scotia, that there are in the province 1,123 schools which receive provincial aid, and which educate 34,053 pupils, at an average cost to the province of 4s., and to the people of 9s. 8½d. per pupil. The average salary of each teacher is £38 26s. 11d., and the average duration of schools 9½ months. There are 51 Grammar Schools in the province. £600 have as usual, been expended in the purchase of school books, which are now almost entirely uniform.

—From the 24th Report of the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland we learn, that at the end of 1857 there were 5,337 schools in operation, with an average attendance of 268,187 children, and an average number in the rolls of 514,445. There were 13 district model schools, and 106 national agricultural schools. The total receipts of the commissioners amounted to £302,224, and their expenditure £289,425.

—Quite a progressive step has been taken by the Sultan. He has ordered a re-organisation of the Turkish schools, and that provision be made for the education of girls. The Minister of Public Instruction, some time back, presented to the Sultan a complete system of education for males, in which were introduced a number of ameliorations adopted from European establishments. Turkish girls will not only learn all the works executed with the needle, but reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, and history. In each of the thirteen sections of the Turkish capital, six primary schools are to be established at once, and at a later period, one superior establishment in each section, to complete the education of the inferior schools.—(*New-York Teacher*).

—The Hon. Horace Mann, who has been for many years superintendent of public instruction in the State of Massachusetts and who was foremost in the establishment of the system of common schools in that state, departed this life, at Yellow-springs, Ohio, on the 2nd August, aged 63 years, Mr. Mann had been for some time president of the college of Antioch in the State of Ohio. He will be deeply mourned by all who take an interest in the spread of popular education.

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

—By a return to an address from the Legislative Assembly to the Governor General, of books published and copyrighted in Canada, under the Act 4th and 5th Victoria, cap. 60 (1841), showing the number registered in each year, names of authors and proprietors, by whom registered and where printed, &c., we learn that from 1841, to April, 1859, the number copyrighted amounted to 165. Of these, 57 were published at Montreal, 47 at Toronto, 35 at Quebec, and the residue in other parts of the Province. The greatest number in any one year were published in 1855. In 1841, two were copyrighted; and there were 18 published in 1858, against seven in 1848.—*Upper Canada J. of Ed.*

—A new french translation of the complete works of Shakspeare has appeared in Paris. It is by Mr. François Victor Hugo, the eldest son of the great poet Victor Hugo. Already his father had done a great deal towards extending to French literature the influence of the dramas of Shakspeare, he is parent of the romantic school of literature in France, and a great many of his poetical creations bear a strong resemblance notwithstanding their originality to those of Shakspeare. Imitations of Shakspeare's plays had been given formerly by Ducis, and recently by Alfred de Vigny. Both were in verse, and besides the great difficulties inherent to a metrical translation, the two authors had thought it necessary to modify, in a great measure, those parts which to French taste would have appeared wild and indecorous. The translation of M. Hugo is in prose and he has overcome a great many difficulties and has made it as literal as possible, retaining at the same time as much of the beauty of the original as could be expected.

—Mme Desbordes-Valmore died in the course of July last. She is with Mdes Emile de Girardin, Louise Collet, Amable Tastu, and Anais Ségalas, one of the female authors who in this century have shed the greatest lustre on French poetry and have contributed in giving it a more homely and more religious turn. She was born at Douai in 1786, and was consequently 73 years of age. Her last work was published in 1856 and obtained a prize from the French Academy. It is a volume of tales for children, under the title of *Jeunes têtes et jeunes cœurs*. Mme Valmore excelled in this kind of composition, and several specimens of her talent may be found in our French *Journal de l'Instruction Publique*. Her first volume of poetry was published in 1830.

—Mr. Thiers has just published the 11th volume of his *Histoire du Consulat et de l'Empire*, and Mr. Guizot, his 3rd volume of *Mémoires de son temps*. Both are turning to a good account the leisure which the government of the Emperor has provided for them, although they may not say as the Roman poet. *Deus nobis hæc otia fecit.*