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JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

Volume II. **Montreal, (Lower-Canada) October, 1858.** **No. 10.**

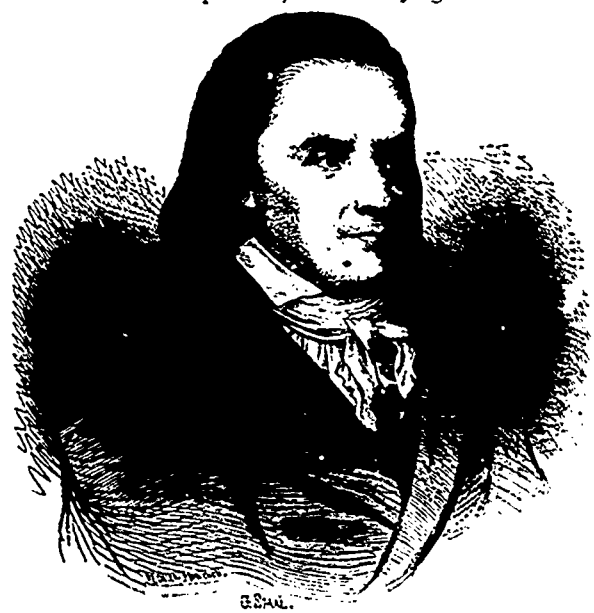
EDUCATION.

Pestalozzi and the Schools of Germany.

(Continued from our last.)

III. Influence of Pestalozzi's Life and Labors on the Schools of Europe.

As Pestalozzi grew up, he studied to become a minister, but finally decided to study law. In this pro[fession] he found no pleasure, although he completed his studies in it; his attention being involuntarily drawn aside to the unhappy condition of society around him. In the high places of his native city, prodigality, luxury, and contempt of the lower classes, were rife; while the poor on the other hand, regarded their superiors with hatred, but were prostrate in misery, want, ignorance, and immorality. The contemplation of these immeasurable evils of the age filled Pestalozzi's heart with grief and pain, and these feelings directed his thoughts to a search for some remedy. The result of a year's reflection upon the means of assisting his unfortunate fellow-men was, that it could only be done by training; by a better education of youth, especially of the children of the poor and the lower classes generally. Like a flash, the idea came into his mind, "I will be a schoolmaster;" a teacher and educator of poor children. He consulted within himself upon this changed design and seemed to hear a voice replying, "you shall;" and again, "you can." So he answered, "I will." How well he fulfilled the promise! He now became the schoolmaster of a world.



Intention, Power, and Resolve; wherever these three operate together, there result not only promising words, but efficient actors.

He was filled with a sublime conception, which remained with him until after his eightieth year. His ideal was, the ennobling of mankind by education and culture. To this he devoted his whole life. He could pursue nothing else; he neglected every thing else; he thought of himself last of all. Ordinary men called him a fanatic, and cast nicknames at him and his enterprise.

He continued his special affection and love for the children of the poor. He was very early convinced that their education could not be successfully conducted within the close-shut, artificially organized public orphanhouses. He considered that they could only develop properly, in body and mind alike, in the country; that they ought at an early age to commence at some country occupation; especially at some useful and practical kind of labor; and that by that means their minds would develop in a simple and natural manner.

[Here follows a sketch of his labors at Neuhof.]

Every child who was capable of it was set at some out door work, and suitable labor was also provided in the house; during which last time he instructed them. He was surprised to see how little use they made of their faculties; how blind and deaf they seemed to the most striking phenomena, and how incorrectly they spoke. Accordingly he concluded even then that the development of the faculties, learning to see and hear aright, and speak correctly, were worth more than facility in reading and writing. The enterprise was too large for his means, and too complicated for his practical ability.

[The experiment failed, but out of his painful experience and observation he wrote "Leonard and Gertrude," which was published by Decker of Berlin, in 1781.]

Amongst the nobles, princes, citizens, and philanthropists, both of Germany and Switzerland, there had been since 1770 a growing desire for social improvements. The conviction was all the time spreading, that there was a necessity for bestowing a better educa-

tion upon the lower classes; of opposing the spread of superstition, and of diffusing more light and knowledge. In educational directions, Basedow and the Canon von Rochow had already distinguished themselves: and thousands had enlisted in aiding their enterprises. A book like Leonard and Gertrude, full of nature and truth, must necessarily be received with enthusiasm. The author, hitherto unappreciated even in his own neighborhood, immediately came into repute and honor. Encouraged by this success, he made in 1782 a tour through Germany, in search of model schools, studying the experience and operations of others, and gaining an acquaintance with the first men in Germany; Klopstock, Wieland, Goethe, Herder, Jacobi, &c. On his return he delighted the world with other useful writings. But still he did not succeed in finding any place where he could *pursue undisturbed the object of his life.*

Meanwhile—for we must hasten—the French Revolution broke out, and proceeded onward to the most horrible excesses. Switzerland was attacked, and in 1798 was invaded and overrun. The usual consequences of war, impoverishment, demoralization and barbarism did not fail to follow. Such news made the patriotic heart of Pestalozzi beat higher. At the information that troops of destitute children were wandering helplessly about, particularly in the vicinity of the Catholic town of Stanz, he proceeded thither, obtained from the authorities the gift of an empty house, and gathered into it eighty mendicant children. He says in relation to this occurence, "The unfortunate and ruined condition of Stanz, and the relations into which I came with a great crowd of entirely destitute, partly wild, but powerful children of nature and of the mountains, gave me an excellent basis of operations, and though in the midst of manifold hindrances, an opportunity for a decisive experiment upon the scope and grade of the faculties which exist universally in children, as a base for education; and likewise to determine whether and to what extent the requisites are possible and practicable, which the necessities of the case demands, for the education of the common people." He became their father, educator and teacher. Day and night he was with them, the earliest in the morning, and the last at night; he ate, slept and played with them. In a single month, they had learned so much of the profit and pleasure of his instructions, that often in the evening when he requested them to go to bed, they begged that he would stay a little longer and teach them. Content and happiness, the blessing of God, rested upon the house. When in 1799 the village of Altdorf was burnt, Pestalozzi asked his children, "How is it? Can we receive about twenty of these houseless children amongst us? If we do we must divide our food with them," "Yes, yes," they all cried out, shouting for joy.

But this pleasure lasted not long. In that same year the French entered the neighborhood, took possession of the building for a hospital, and Father Pestalozzi was forced to disperse his children. His health was broken down with care, sorrow and over-exertion; and he was obliged once more to seek the means of support. He therefore went to Burgdorf, and established himself near the town as *an assistant teacher without wages. His new modes of instruction* displeased the country people. He did not let the children study the Heidelberg Catechism enough; and his instruction in thinking and speaking seemed to them entirely superfluous. But after eight months, the superintending authority, presenting themselves at the school, were much astonished at what he had accomplished. Unfortunately, his strength was exhausted in his oral labors; at the end of a year he had to resign his situation for the sake of his health. During all his experiments thus far, his purpose of founding a self-supporting educational institution remained unaltered. He ceased operations at Burgdorf in 1801; was afterward established at München-Buchsee in Berne, near Hofwyl, where Fellenberg was laboring, and finally at Yverdun (Iferten,) where he entirely broke down in 1825. *The last establishment was named the Pestalozzian Institute*; and as such it became famous in all Europe, and even beyond the ocean, in America, &c. Neither before nor since has any similar institution ever attained so great fame.

The work done in that institution became the foundation of the common schools of Germany; and changed the ancient mechanical schools into institutions for real human training.

The fundamental maxims upon which the instruction there proceeded, were as follows:

The basis of education is not to be constructed, but to be sought; it exists in the nature of man.

The nature of man contains an inborn and active instinct of development; is an organized nature; and man is an organized being.

True education will find that its chief hindrances are, passive obstructions in the way of development; its work is more negative than positive.

Its positive work consists in stimulation; the science of education is a theory of stimulation, or the right application of the best motives.

The development of man commences with natural perceptions through the senses; its highest attainment is, intellectually, the exercise of reason; practically, independence.

The means of independence and self-maintenance is, spontaneous activity.

Practical capacity depends much more upon the possession of intellectual and corporeal power, than upon the amount of knowledge. The chief aim of all education, (instruction included,) is therefore the development of these powers.

The religious character depends much less upon learning the *Scriptures and the catechism, than upon the intercourse of the child* with a God-fearing mother and an energetic father. Religious education, like all other, must begin with the birth of the child; and it is principally in the hands of the mother.

The chief departments for the development of power, are form, number and speech. The idea of elementary training is, the notion of laying, within the nature of the child, by means of domestic education, (the influence of father, mother, brothers and sisters,) the foundations of faith, love, of the powers of seeing, speaking and reflecting, and by the use of all the means of education, according to the laws and methods of development included within nature itself.

Such is the actual substance of Pestalozzi's principles of education. The consequences follow of themselves. They are these:

The family circle is the best place for education; the mother's book the best school-book.

All instruction must be based upon training the intuitive faculty. The first instruction is altogether instruction in seeing: the first instruction on any subject must be the same, in order to obtain a fruitful, active and real comprehension of it. The opposite of this is the empty and vain mode of mere verbal instruction First, the thing itself should be taught, and afterward, as far as possible, the form, the representation, and the name.

The first portion of instruction consists in naming things and causing the names to be repeated, in describing them and causing them to be described. After this, it should be the teacher's prime object to develop spontaneous activity, and for that purpose to use the forementioned progressive and inventive method of teaching.

Nothing should be learnt by rote without being understood; the practice of learning by rote should be confined to mere matters of form. In the method of oral communication with the scholars is to be found an adequate measure for estimating the clearness and activity of the scholar's power of seeing, and his knowledge.

The chief inducements to the right and the good are not fear and punishment, but kindness and love.

These conclusions flow naturally from Pestalozzi's fundamental principles. If I were to give a brief statement of his method for intellectual training, I should call it "Education to spontaneous *activity, by means of knowledge acquired* by the perceptions."

This system has changed the whole condition of schools. It has not, it is true, yet penetrated all the schools, or all the teachers; but this is not the fault of the founder. To change a system established for centuries, is the work of centuries; not of a year, nor ten years. In the development of a nation, and in like manner of a school system, there are epochs, stationary periods, crises and reactions.

While the best men in Prussia, after 1808, were laboring to effect a regeneration of their unfortunate country, King Frederic William the Third summoned C. A. Zeller the pupil of Pestalozzi, to Konigsberg, with the commission of awakening the intellectual faculties of the people, as the only dependence for the rescue of the country. *The great Fichte had already drawn attention to Pestalozzi, in his* lectures and publications at Berlin. Afterward, the eminent minister, Von Altenstein, sent some young men to Yverdun to be trained. By these means, and by means of the numerous publications of Pestalozzi and his followers, with some help from the pressure of circumstances, the Prussian, or rather the Prussian-Pestalozzian school-system, was established. For he is entitled to at least half the fame of the German common schools. Whatever of excellence or eminence they have, they really owe to no one but him. Wherever his principles have been deviated from, there has followed a decline. Whatever of progress yet remains visible, is a development of his principles. Whatever in our system is based on human nature, is taken from him. His experiments have secured their world-wide fame to the German schools From France, England, Italy, Spain, Russia, Poland, Norway, Sweden, Holland, Denmark, America, whoever desires to study the best schools, resorts to Germany. Whatever fame they have, they owe to Pestalozzi. Wise

people have made use of his creations for organizing improved institutions for training teachers. But the first impulse was given to the movement by the noble Swiss. As the waters flow from that land in every direction, in like manner have fruitful principles of instruction been diffused from it into every country where improvement can be detected."

The foregoing sketch of Pestalozzi's labors, and of their influence on the popular schools of Germany, abridged from the Centennial Discourses of two of his avowed disciples, Dr. Biochmann, of Dresden, and Dr. Diesterweg, of Berlin, represent the extreme views entertained by the admirers of the great Swiss educator. There is a large number of educators and teachers, at the head of whom is Karl von Raumer, at one time a resident at Yverdun, for the purpose of studying the system and methods of the Pestalozzian Institution, who, while they acknowledge the value of Pestalozzi's services to the instruction and industrial training of the poor, and to the true theory of education, maintain that his principles and methods as developed and applied by himself, are in some respects unsound and incomplete The following is by W. C. Woodbridge.

"As the result of his investigations, Pestalozzi assumed as a fundamental principal, that education, in order to fit men for his destination, must proceed according to the laws of nature. To adopt the language of his followers—that it must not act as an arbitrary mediator between the child and nature, between man and God, pursuing its own artificial arrangements, instead of the indications of Providence—that it should assist the course of natural development, instead of doing it violence—that it should watch, and follow its progress, instead of attempting to mark out a path agreeably to a preconceived system.

"I. In view of this principle, he did not choose, like Basedow, to cultivate the mind in a material way, merely by inculcating and engrafting every thing relating to external objects, and giving mechanical skill. He sought, on the contrary, to develope, and exercise, and strengthen the faculties of the child by a steady course of excitement to self-activity, with a limited degree of assistance to his efforts.

"II. In opposition to the haste, and blind groping of many teachers without system, he endeavour to find the proper point for commencing, and to proceed in a slow and gradual, but uninterrupted course, from one point to another—always waiting until the first should have a certain degree of distinctness in the mind of the child, before entering upon the exhibition of the second. To pursue any other course would only give superficial knowledge, which would neither afford pleasure to the child, nor promote its real progress.

"III. He opposed the undue cultivation of the memory and understanding as hostile to true education. He placed the essence of education in the harmonious and uniform development of every faculty, so that the body should not be in advance of the mind, and that in the development of the mind, neither the physical powers, nor the affections, should be neglected; and that skill in action should be acquired at the same time with knowledge. When this point is secured, we may know that education has really begun, and that it is not merely superficial.

"IV. He required close attention and constant reference to the peculiarities of every child, and of each sex, as well as to the characteristics of the people among whom he lived, in order that he might acquire the development and qualifications necessary for the situation to which the Creator destined him, when he gave him these active faculties, and be prepared to labor successfully for those among whom he was placed by his birth.

"V. While Basedow introduced a multitude of subjects of instruction into the schools, without special regard to the development of the intellectual powers. Pestalozzi considered this plan as superficial. He limited the elementary subjects of instruction to Form, Number and Language, as the essential condition of definite and distinct knowledge; and believed that these elements should be taught with the utmost possible simplicity, comprehensiveness and mutual connection.

"VI. Pestalozzi, as well as Basedow, desired that instruction should commence with the intuition or simple perception of external objects and their relations. He was not, however, satisfied with this alone, but wished that the *art of observing* should also be acquired. He thought the things perceived of less consequence than the cultivation of the perceptive powers, which should enable the child to observe completely,—to exhaust the subjects which should be brought before his mind.

"VII. While the Philanthropinists attached great importance to special exercises of reflection, Pestalozzi would not make this a subject of separate study. He maintained that every subject of instruction should be properly treated, and thus become an exercice of thought; and believed, that lessons on Number, and Proportion and Size, would give the best occasion for it.

"VIII. Pestalozzi, as well as Basedow, attached great importance to Arithmetic, particularly to Mental Arithmetic. He valued it, however, not merely in the limited view of its practical usefulness, but as an excellent means of strengthening the mind. He also introduced Geometry into the elementary schools, and the art connected with it, of modeling and drawing beautiful objects. He wished, in this way, to train the eye, the hand, and the touch, for that more advanced species of drawing which had not been thought of before. Proceeding from the simple and intuitive, to the more complicated and difficult forms, he arranged a series of exercises so gradual and complete, that the method of teaching this subject was soon brought to a good degree of perfection.

"IX. The Philanthropinists introduced the instruction of language into the common schools, but limited it chiefly to the writing of letters and preparation of essays. But Pestalozzi was not satisfied with a lifeless repetition of the rules of grammar, nor yet with mere exercices for common life. He aimed at a development of the laws of language from within—an introduction into its internal nature and construction and peculiar spirit—which would not only cultivate the intellect, but also improve the affections. It is impossible to do justice to his method of instruction on this subject, in a brief sketch like the present—but those who have witnessed its progress and results, are fully aware of its practical character and value.

"X. Like Basedow, Rochow and others, Pestalozzi introduced vocal music into the circle of school studies, on account of its powerful influence on the heart. But he was not satisfied that the children should learn to sing a few melodies by note or by ear. He wished them to know the rules of melody and rhythm, and dynamics—to pursue a regular course of instruction, descending to its very elements, and rendering the musical notes as familiar as the sounds of the letters. The extensive work of Nageli and Pfeiffer has contributed very much to give this branch of instruction a better form.

"XI. He opposed the abuse which was made of the Socratic method in many of the Philanthropinic and other schools, by attempting to draw something out of children before they had received any knowledge. He recommends, on the contrary, in the early periods of instruction, the established method of dictation by the teacher and repetition by the scholar, with a proper regard to rhythm, and at a later period, especially in the mathematical and other subjects which involve reasoning, the modern method, in which the teacher merely gives out the problems in a proper order, and leaves them to be solved by the pupils, by the exertion of their own powers.

"XII. Pestalozzi opposes strenuously the opinion that religious instruction should be addressed exclusively to the understanding; and shows that religion lies deep in the hearts of men, and that it should not be enstamped from without, but developed from within: that the basis of religious feeling is to be found in the childish disposition to love, to thankfulness, to veneration, obedience and confidence toward its parents; that these should be cultivated and strengthened and directed toward God; and that religion should be formally treated of at a later period in connection with the feelings thus excited. As he requires the mother to direct the first development of all the faculties of her child, he assigns to her especially the task of first cultivating the religious feelings.

"XIII. Pestalozzi agreed with Basedow, that mutual affection ought to reign between the educator and the pupil, both in the house and in the school, in order to render education effectual and useful. He was, therefore, as little disposed as Basedow, to sustain school despotism; but he did not rely on artificial excitements, such as those addressed to emulation. He preferred that the children should find their best reward in the consciousness of increased intellectual vigor; and expected the teacher to render the instruction so attractive, that the delightful feeling of progress should be the strongest excitement to industry and to morality.

"XIV. Pestalozzi attached as much importance to the cultivation of the bodily powers, and the exercice of the senses, as the Philanthropinists, and in his publications, pointed out a graduated course for this purpose. But as Gutsmuths, Vieth, Jahn, and Clias treated this subject very fully, nothing further was written concerning it by his immediate followers.

"Such are the great principles which entitle Pestalozzi to the high praise of having given a more natural, a more comprehensive and deeper foundation for education and instruction, and of having called into being a method which is far superior to any that preceded it.

"But with all the excellencies of the system of education adopted by Pestalozzi, truth requires us to state it also involves serious defects.

"1. In his zeal for the improvement of the mind itself, and for those modes of instruction which were calculated to develop and invigorate its faculties, Pestalozzi forgot too much the necessity of general positive knowledge, as the material for thought and for practical use in future life. The pupils of his establishment, instructed on his plan, were too often dismissed with intellectual powers which were vigorous and acute, but without the stores of knowledge important for immediate use—well qualified for mathematical and abstract reasoning, but not prepared to apply it to the business of common life.

"2. He commenced with intuitive, mathematical studies too early, attached too much importance to them, and devoted a portion of time to them, which did not allow a reasonable attention to other studies, and which prevented the regular and harmonious cultivation of other powers.

"3. The *method* of instruction was also defective in one important point. Simplification was carried too far, and continued too long. The mind became so accustomed to receive knowledge divided into its most simple elements and smallest portions, that it was not prepared to embrace complicated ideas, or to make those rapid strides in investigation and conclusion which is one of the most important results of a sound education, and which indicates the most valuable kind of mental vigor both for scientific purposes and for practical life.

"4. He attached too little importance to testimony as one of the sources of our knowledge, and devoted too little attention to historical truth. He was accustomed to observe that history was but a 'tissue of lies;' and forgot that it was necessary to occupy the pupil with man, and with moral events, as well as with nature and matter, if we wish to cultivate properly his moral powers, and elevate him above the material world.

"5. But above all, it is to be regretted, that in reference to religious education, he fell into an important error of his predecessors. His too exclusive attention to mathematical and scientific subjects, tended, like the system of Basedow, to give his pupils the habit of undervaluing historical evidence and of demanding rational demonstration for every truth, or of requiring the evidence of their senses, or something analogous to it, to which they were constantly called to appeal in their studies of Natural History.

"It is precisely in this way, that many men of profound scientific attainments have been led to reject the evidence of revelation, and some, even, strange as it may seem, to deny the existence of Him, whose works and laws they study. In some of the early Pestalozzian schools, feelings of this nature were particularly cherished by the habit of asserting a falsehood in the lessons on Mathematics or Natural history, and calling upon the pupils to contradict it or disprove it if they did not admit its truth. No improvement of the intellectual powers, can, in our view, compensate for the injury to the moral sense and the diminished respect for truth, which will naturally result from such a course.

"6. While Pestalozzi disapproved of the attempts of the Philanthropinists to draw forth from the minds of children, before they had stores of knowledge, he seemed to forget the application of his principle to moral subjects, or to imagine that this most elevated species of knowledge was innate. He attempted too much to draw from the minds of his pupils those great truths of religion and the spiritual world which can only be acquired from revelation; and thus led them to imagine they were competent to judge on this subject without external aid. It is obvious that such a course would fall in most unhappily with the tendencies produced by other parts of the plan, and that we could not hope to educate in such a mode, a truly Christian community.

"The personal character of Pestalozzi also influenced his views and methods of education on religious subjects. He was remarkably the creature of powerful impulses, which were usually of the most mild and benevolent kind; and he preserved a child-like character in this respect even to old age. It was probably this temperament, which led him to estimate at a low rate the importance of positive religious truth in the education of children, and to maintain that the mere habit of faith and love, if cultivated toward earthly friends and benefactors, would, of course, be transferred to our Heavenly Father, whenever his character should be exhibited to the mind of the child. The fundamental error of this view was established by the unhappy experience of his own institution. His own example afforded the most striking evidence that the noblest impulses, not directed by established principles, may lead to imprudence and ruin, and thus defeat their own ends. As an illustration of this, it may be mentioned that, on one of those occasions, frequently occurring, on which he was reduced to extremity for want of the means of supplying his large family, he borrowed four hundred dollars from a friend for the purpose. In going home, he met a peasant, wringing his hands in despair for the loss of his cow. Pestalozzi put the entire bag of money into his hands, and ran off to escape his thanks. These circumstances, combined with the want of tact in reference to the affairs of common life, materially impaired his powers of usefulness as a practical instructor of youth. The rapid progress of his ideas rarely allowed him to execute his own plans; and, in accordance with his own system, too much time was employed in the profound development of principles, to admit of much attention to their practical application.

"But, as one of his admirers observed, it was his province to educate ideas and not children. He combated, with unshrinking boldness and untiring perseverance, through a long life, the prejudices and abuses of the age in reference to education, both by his example and by his numerous publications. He attacked with great vigor and no small degree of success, that favorite maxim of bigotry and tyranny, that obedience and devotion are the legitimate offspring of ignorance. He denounced that degrading system, which considers it enough to enable man to procure a subsistence for himself and his offspring—and in this manner, merely to place him on a level with the beast of the forest; and which deems every thing lost whose value can not be estimated in money. He urged upon the consciences of parents and rulers, with an energy approaching that of the ancient prophets, the solemn duties which Divine Providence had imposed upon them, in committing to their charge the present and future destinies of their fellow-beings. In this way, he produced an impulse, which pervaded the continent of Europe, and which, by means of his popular and theoretical works, reached the cottages of the poor and the palaces of the great. His institution at Yverdun was crowded with men of every nation; not merely those who were led by the same impulse which inspired him, but by the agents of kings and noblemen, and public institutions, who came to make themselves acquainted with his principles, in order to become h fellow-laborers in other countries."—*Barnard's American Journal of Education.*

PEDAGOGY.

ON THE TRUE FOUNDATION OF SCHOOL DISCIPLINE.

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

(*Continued from our August issue.*)

III

ON TASTE FOR INSTRUCTION AND ATTRACTION FOR SCHOOL.

Drawing is pleasing to children; they like to hold a pencil, to draw lines, or to trace figures; if deprived of a pencil, they will as readily use a piece of chalk or charcoal, with which they besmear the walls. This inclination of theirs, is even a source of disorder, consequently one also of discomfort, reproach and punishment. Instead of closing our eyes upon this propensity, let us, on the contrary, convert it to use by bringing it under direction; it will prove of great aid to us, and a resource to our pupils in almost every situation of life. We will also, thereby, have a new source of occupation for the children, and an agreeable variety of the usual exercises of the school. Those who will have held a pencil and have drawn in class, will no longer care to scratch upon the walls.

Let us not, in this matter, speak of the expense, drawing is not costly; the beginnings are made upon a slate, and the slate which every pupil is already possessed of lasts a long time. Let us not say either that we do not know how to draw, that we have never studied the art. But let study be made of it, linear drawing can be, and is acquired without the lessons of a master. Let us be our own teachers, good will is all that is required; in eight days we shall have learned enough of it, to be able to guide our pupils and to teach them how to trace the first lines. If they be not very straight or very correct, they will, at all events, be more so than those of the scholar, and we will be able to improve theirs. By degrees, as they learn, we will progress with them, our better understanding and earnest intentions will always enable us to outstrip their improvement.

Finally, to the practical study of arithmetic, geography and drawing, and to those exercises on survey, weight, measure, all of them of interest to children, for with their study they not only learn to value the necessity of instruction, but view them with pleasure, for their practise requires not only activity of mind, but of body also, which their age imperiously demands; let us also add notions upon every thing within reach of their understanding, lessons upon things obvious, the advantages of which we have already endeavored to demonstrate, and which we will continue to develop by means of new examples.

The pupil does not like our method of instruction because it is too abstract; he is absent, inattentive whilst we speak, because he cannot easily fix his thoughts upon our words. Instead of scolding, calling out, or punishing him, let us rather concentrate his attention upon such objects as he can see or touch. The nearest thing present as we have already said, may be made the subject of a lesson full of interest, in which all the faculties of the child can be brought into play by teaching him to observe, to judge, to compare, to find out the cause, to try its effects, and to discover how they should be applied. By means of the most trifling object we may give him an infinite number of useful notions, without science or any dressing on our part, but with merely the most ordinary knowledge, but nevertheless, still new to the child. At the same time that we make him see what a very imperfect idea was his, respecting that object which he thought he knew quite well from the habit he had of seeing it, we also further convince him of the usefulness of instruction.

These lessons on objects sensible to the sight, as well as upon all others, have from our point of view, very important results, of which we will speak in our next article, in the conclusion of this subject.

We will before closing here, call attention to the attraction that must necessarily be shed over the teaching of the school where on the one hand, the lessons are studiously stripped of all their usual dryness, and which, on the other, furnishes to the scholar's own mind an argued knowledge respecting surrounding objects; one, moreover, that enables him to show, at home, the degree of instruction that every day brings forth.

We all know that the most difficult point in the task of instruction is first, to initiate a child with a taste for some one lesson in particular. Once that a child shows an inclination for some one branch of study, he soon gets to acquire a taste for others. Let us therefore pleasantly vary our lessons, it will be the surest means of drawing out his taste for that one thing, which is sure to lead his inclination towards study in general.

When the greater number of our pupils give proof of such a disposition, we may consider that an immense step has been made in favor of discipline, nevertheless, there remains more behind, which is, to give them occupation.

IV

CONSTANT OCCUPATION FOR PUPILS.

In the advice and suggestions that we have given so far, we have made no allusion whatever to the means by the aid of which discipline in schools is generally founded, or maintained, neither have we added any properly called, disciplinary measures to those already in use, for this reason, that we consider them quite ineffectual, though there are some who would like to see the same increased.

These perhaps feel disposed to complain. They expected us no doubt to mention some very tempting reward, surpassing those already bestowed upon scholars, some very dreadful punishment in addition to all those already inflicted, new spurs to emulation more efficacious than those already employed.

We would ask for nothing better and would have busied ourselves with these views of the subject, had we considered the question amenable to such a consideration. But, those who attach such importance to these means as sources of discipline, in our opinion, lie under error. They stop at accessories and forget principals, they occupy themselves with the details of the edifice before they have even laid the foundations. We have other intentions. We do not say that we despise detail, far from it, we even consider it as all important, in the subject of education, so much so that it is our intention to enter upon the same at a later moment, with all possible care and attention. But after all, detail is only detail. Before occupying ourselves with the means of maintaining or exercising discipline in schools either by reproval, or prevention of the causes of disaffection, let us first see that discipline be established and that it exists. This it is that we have endeavored to effect to the best of our understanding, and which we propose to bring to a conclusion at the present time.

But others may accuse us of having directed our remarks altogether upon the teacher and said nothing as regards the pupil; that what we have required is fresh care and endeavors on the master's part, a greater degree of solicitude, a new kind of lessons with a more varied and more agreeable system of teaching. That we have sought to modify and make easy the pupils condition, at the expense of the master.

Most true; but, we confess that we acknowledge no other means. We have ourselves practised the art of instruction and have pondered the question of education for many years. We have also studied a great many works upon the subject and never have seen, either in practise, or thought, or in our lectures, found or alluded to any true means of education that can be considered valuable, or even serviceable if deprived of the master's hearty concurrence.

Conviction has come to us that in that career as in every other, self-sacrifice is above all things the first great point to be attained.

Let us not either, in vexation at the absence of all those expedients by which we have hoped to alleviate the burden, by casting it upon the children, imagine, that in these efforts towards the foundation of discipline, all the labor is on our side, and all the advantage on that of the pupils.

What at present is the master's greatest hardship? What is the cause of his great weariness, almost his despair? Is it not the noise, the trouble and disorder that reigns in the classes? Is it not the insubordination of the scholars; the necessity that exists, of constant reproof, scolding and chastisement, the difficulty of instilling instruction in their minds, in consequence of their inattention and dissipation, and their distaste towards all labor or occupation?

Well, then, if by the means of a few preparatory lessons, if by little attentions of a nature no more important, but more intelligent, we succeed in shedding agreeable interest over education, and thus initiate them into a taste for study; if we increase the qualities of application and assiduity in our pupils, and obtain more of their attention during the lessons, more ardor and consequently, greater and more rapid progress with less noise in class, more order and silence, shall we not have purchased at a very small preliminary price, a great degree of satisfaction and comfort. Will not these advantages accrue to our profit as well as to theirs.

Let us note, however, the great step that is due to the children in the attainment of these results. If we have prepared the way, they followed. If we have less cause for chastisement and punishment of all kinds, if we are no longer forced to dwell an interminable time upon the same lesson, if we are less exposed to the necessity of repeating explanations and advices, such as have been bestowed

already hundreds of times, it is due to the fact of our pupils having become less talkative, less turbulent; that they are more attentive, more industrious, more persevering; that they have put themselves under constraint to conquer those faults and inclinations, so natural to their age. If we have practised efforts, so have they, and after all, theirs should be considered before ours, for, on our side, we were assisted both by judgment and reason.

We do not in the slightest degree, pretend to deteriorate from the merit of those teachers who continue to support discipline in their classes, by increased application and labor. Still less should we remain blind to the trouble that they must have in obtaining such a result. That trouble must be immense in the majority of schools, we do not hesitate to speak the word for it truly expresses the case. And here we are led to treat of the last point in this article, though only in a general view, for it is one of so important a character, that we intend very soon to give it our attention in a chapter by itself.

The greatest obstacle towards the maintenance of discipline in schools is owing to the absence of employment with the chief number of scholars. It is an immense obstacle and whatever we have advised, so far, we freely admit falls short of the difficulty.

To fully comprehend the magnitude of this obstacle, it were necessary to be a teacher and have conducted schools; to have seen the masters laboring under the difficulties of their task. To see, in at least four fifths of the primary schools, the master surrounded by some fifty or sixty scholars, from the child who can scarcely speak, not having yet received any culture whatever and who, for the first time, leaves his father's roof and his mother's care and caresses, up to the youth who is just terminating his course of instruction, and is about to select a calling, therefore who demands steadier and more careful tuition; to see him alone, teach all those children differing in age, character, disposition, intellect and even of different sexes; obliged to pass continually from one division to another, from one kind of lesson to another of a different kind, to treat the same subject in several different degrees and ways, according to the age and capacity of his hearers, forced to humble himself with the little, and a few moments later to elevate the same instruction up to a par with the intelligence of the most advanced, torturing his mind to become all to all so as to be within reach of each one even in the same division; constantly pre-occupied not only with what he is saying to those who are listening, but also with what he must next say to those who are in waiting; preparing as it were the second lesson during the delivery of the first: attentive to bring every thing within time's proper limit, and whilst teaching obliged to keep his eye fastened from time to time upon the hands of the clock, because five minutes too many to one lesson are five minutes stolen from the one that must follow, and are so much of weariness to one and of indolence to the other division; then whilst his mind is upon the stretch to explain, to demonstrate, to rebellious understandings, or to follow up the tasks and seize the answers of a group of children so as to check and correct their mistakes, obliged to steal his look around, to lend his ears to the slightest disturbance, to watch over every scholar to the remotest corner of the class, to reprove this one, urge forward another, to answers at his elbow, send that other to his place, to see himself interrupted some twenty times in the space of a quarter of an hour, it were indeed necessary as we have said, to have personal experience of these things or at least have weighed them well to understand them to their full extent.

We repeat that these difficulties are immense, and we should consider ourselves grateful to those who, by dint of intelligence, zeal and devotion to the cause, contrive to overcome them. But let us not be surprized if the number who do so succeed and in a very imperfect manner be but small, whilst there are many who fail completely.

The great obstacle to the maintenance of discipline lies in the diversity of ages, intellects and degrees of instruction required, because it is almost impossible for one man alone to give occupation at one and the same time to so many scholars, the greater number of whom, are still beginners and therefore incapable of going through any exercise unaided. With this number, lies the great cause of disorder in almost every school, and a most pernicious influence is created over every other member of the class-room.

But how shall we occupy young children who do not know how to read, who are even ignorant of their letters and consider their alphabet-book only as an object for the amusement of their fingers, to twist and tear by bits! When the master has given to these children their hour or half-hour's lesson their share for the day, the question is how to occupy their attention, whilst he attends to the other divisions. We have seen nothing provided to meet this exigency in any of our schools. What is the consequence? Those scholars fall into the deepest weariness and hold school in aversion, and notwithstanding the master's most earnest endeavors and solicitude to the contrary, it will continue to be so considered.

How can a school be expected to progress favorably under such a condition of things. In spite of even the best disposition on the part of the children, their state of idleness, the greater portion of the day will inevitably betray them into the little weaknesses of their age and temperament, they will begin to talk, become restless, tease and annoy each other, stretch themselves on their benches, tables or upon the floor. The master's attention is thereby re-called from another quarter, he stops in his duty to re-establish order here; he scolds, shouts, threatens and chastises; he is obliged to leave his place to come and separate some who are fighting, and to quiet the quarrelsome, or to order others into punishment.

During these moments of excessive noise and turbulence among the younger, the senior ones avail themselves of the confusion to interrupt order in their turn, under the belief that they will escape discovery. Besides, these older ones are seldom or ever occupied as they should be, the first division generally gets enough occupation, but the others are very often without it, or else it is neither sufficiently varied or interesting to fix their attention. Therefore, the slightest interruption to the master is a signal for dissipation among these. Whilst he is busy giving the lesson, he is continually obliged to turn and chide the smaller ones, the others, in the mean time, wait and stand idle, and avail themselves of the opportunity to talk and interrupt order in their turn. Chit-chat and waywardness soon become the practise of the school, and the difficulty and trouble required to reclaim it from this habit is inconceivable.

But what remedy can there be, against inconveniences that are due to the greater portion of the school being left idle and inactive.

One alone, and this is occupation! a due and proper employment of every hour of the time. The system of education should be so organized in our schools, the lessons and exercises so appointed, the scholars so classed, an intelligent selection and division of the duties with such a due and fit attention to time that not a scholar in the class be left one moment unemployed. Setting aside fear, there is no other method known for maintaining discipline in schools and that we know from experience to be quite inadequate, a palliative to the case rather than any thing else.

But how or in what manner shall this constant employment of time be organized, will be asked by the greater number of teachers? They will perhaps add that they have

tried it very often, but always without any satisfactory result.

It is indeed most difficult to organize the employment of every hour's time in primary schools, particularly in those that are under the direction of but one master which is the case with the greater number. Estimating as we do the full importance of the question on behalf of the master as well as of the pupil, we will proceed to examine the means that lead to a good employment of time and to a regular organization of education in schools.

We trust that in this we will be of service to teachers, and will be able to prove to them all the interest we bear them in the execution of their arduous functions, by reducing as much as we possibly can the difficulties of their task. If according to our own experience we succeed in generalizing the employment of time in the schools, we will esteem ourselves as having added another step towards the attainment of discipline.

If we have studied the subject of discipline such as should exist in the class, it is because it holds, greater importance there than elsewhere, for the children are present in primary schools only during the class hours, and what remains, is to be regarded rather as a question of good breeding than of discipline. Besides, when discipline is attained in class, a great step has been gained and when we shall have succeeded in making of our scholars, children desirous of application, silent, orderly, industrious and obedient, it will be only when we shall have embraced those measures for instilling them with a taste for occupation and for school, by rendering it an agreeable sojourn to them, it will be when we shall have endeavored to inspire them with that affection which makes them lend a glad and willing ear to our words and counsels, when finally we shall have brought them under the influence and exercise of that spirit of good feeling, which is in itself an earnest of our own towards them and one also full of promise for the future. We may entertain every hope of children under such subjection and such guidance; we have led their steps and taken up ours at the entrance of the right path, and all that now remains is to continue in it.

We said, with truth, at the commencement of this article, that discipline in schools was principally one of education and method.

In conclusion to the above, we may add the remark that the foundation of discipline is moreover almost entirely beyond the reach of those ways and means generally practised heretofore, but, on the contrary, resides in what has been considered as foreign to it.

We sought to inspire fear, while we should love and be loved. The school was the centre of weariness, of repulsion while it should be made one of attraction and love to the scholar.

Its little inmates are required to be peaceable, quiet, docile to the strict observance of silence, so that the classes may proceed without interruption in their several duties and the greater number of whom so much is expected, are left in idleness throughout the greater part of the day, consequently abandoned to a sense of distressing weariness and, at the same time, are denied the action of body or limb, one of the most vital demands of their growing years.

If we wish for success in any of the foregoing points we must observe an opposite direction to that already followed.

If, therefore, we would recapitulate the best means of founding discipline in a school, we would do so in the following few words: love the children, interest and occupy them.

Middle-Class Education.

Much has lately been said and written on the subject of what is called Middle-class Education, its errors and its deficiencies. The discussion has arisen in consequence of the recent examinations, by authority of the University of Oxford, of the pupils of sundry commercial and proprietary schools who voluntarily submitted themselves to the ordeal. The test was a severe one; and the advantages to be derived from success reflected from the pupil to the school in which he had studied, and were perhaps of more value to the schoolmaster than to the student. The University of Oxford had so often been reproached with lagging behind the age, that the result of these examinations, showing, as it did, the woeful ignorance of the youth of a class who had oftenest accused the University of its deficiencies, was hailed in Oxford, and in the great endowed schools which feed it, with a feeling of complacency, if not of more positive satisfaction. The late Rev. Sydney Smith, in correcting a printer's erratum in a letter to Sir Robert Peel, took the blame of the error upon his own handwriting, for which he in turn blamed the University of Oxford, which had taught him much Latin and Greek to very little purpose, but which had neglected to teach him how to work the simplest sums in elementary arithmetic, how to write legibly, and how to spell the English language. Long before and after the time at which the reverend humorist levelled his playful but not harmless satire against Oxford, it was a common complaint that University education did not fit the youth of England for the work that England had to do. "Who is that remarkably stupid man?" said Jones to Smith at a dinner party, looking significantly to an awkward and taciturn person at the other end of the table. "That?" replied Smith; "oh, that is the celebrated Mr. A. He was Senior Wrangler at Cambridge this year." "Ah, that accounts for it," said Jones. Such was the kind of Joke that circulated at the expense of the Universities; and ultimately the impression became as strong as it was general, that both Oxford and Cambridge were in arrear with the intelligence of the time; that they had fallen asleep in the middle ages, and had never since been thoroughly awakened to their own duties and responsibilities, or to the wants of the world.

Oxford and Cambridge have outlived alike the jest and the imputation, and Oxford may take credit to herself for having to a great extent turned the tables upon her detractors. Yet, after all, what is Oxford or the country likely to gain by the result of the recent examinations? Are we to believe that the education of the middle classes is inferior and insufficient, because so many young men from the proprietary and other schools have proved themselves unable to answer the simplest elementary questions, or even to spell? The middle classes is a wide phrase. If those classes did not to a very large extent support Oxford and Cambridge, those Universities would be deprived of more than one-half, or two-thirds, of their students. The barrister, the physician, or the merchant, receiving £2000 or £3000 per annum, ranks among the middle classes, and so does the shopkeeper or the tradesman clearing his £200 or £250 per annum; yet the education of the sons of these persons may be, and is, very different. The merchant, the physician, or the barrister sends his son to the University, while the tradesman is compelled by his poverty to send his son to the nearest "academy" or grammar school. To say, therefore, that middle-class education is defective in this country is to say that it is defective in Oxford and Cambridge quite as much as in the commoner schools; and those who argue upon such suppositions argue about words and phrases of which they have not previously defined the meaning. Even the word "education" itself needs to be defined. No man can be truly educated at Oxford or Cambridge, or at any university or school in the world. Education begins at the moment of birth, and ends only with our lives. He who at any time thinks or says that his education is complete is a fool. When a man ceases to learn he ceases to be of any use to himself or his fellows, and speedily becomes either a bigot or an idiot. What is commonly called education and school education should more properly be called teaching. Reading, writing, and arithmetic, which are taught in all our schools (the Sunday school excepted), are but the implements given to our youth by which they may educate themselves. And this is what the best of our youths do after they have left school and college; and no one who has attained eminence and distinction, and who has made himself illustrious by his learning or his genius, owes half so much to his teacher as he owes to himself. Many of the senior wranglers at Cambridge have taken no more brilliant share in the business of the world than that which falls to the lot of drowsy country parsons, or barristers without briefs. Many who have carried away the highest honours at Oxford have become drones or pedants if they were slow, and foxhunters if they were fast; and many of the boys

from the commercial schools who but the other day received the coveted degree of A.A. from Oxford may hereafter, for want of knowing how to educate themselves in the great battle and conflict of life, turn out inferior to their schoolfellows who were ignominiously plucked by the Examiners of the University. We do not undervalue teaching; on the contrary, we think it of the very highest importance; but we think it a mistake that leads to many evil consequences when teachers consider teaching to be sufficient, and when parents and scholars refuse to recognise the fact that the most valuable education commonly begins where teaching ends, and that both schools and colleges are but initiatory establishments. They may be the plough and the harrow, but they are neither the seed nor the harvest. The seed is scattered over the whole lifetime of the individual, and the harvest must depend on the blessing of heaven and his skilful use of the tools which the first teachers provided.

But if the schools of what are called the middle classes by which we suppose are meant the lower and poorer stratum of the middle classes—be so inferior as the examiners of the University of Oxford assert, some more valuable and tangible results might be made to flow from the fact than the mere vindication of the superiority of the Universities. We are doubtless a very free people; and we have a very proper and natural dislike of interference with private enterprise. But we may well ask ourselves the question whether schools of every kind ought to be considered in the light of private enterprises? Whether the schoolmaster and the schoolmistress be not public functionaries who owe some duty to the State as well as to their own pockets? And whether some regulation of their business on the part of the State would be any real encroachment upon the liberty which we all so highly prize? A druggis must not dispense drugs until he have undergone an examination to prove his competency for the duty. A man may not become a physician, or a barrister, until he have proved to the satisfaction of a properly-constituted tribunal of experts that he is fit to perform the duties of those professions. But, when a man or a woman chooses to set up a school, he or she is called upon for no proof of moral fitness or intellectual competency any more than if they were setting up as cheesemongers. A disconsolate widow who is above dressmaking or serving behind a counter will not be above keeping a seminary for young ladies; and a broken-down shoemaker or bankrupt tallow-melter will often, when all other resources fail him, establish a commercial academy. And no one would object to their doing so if, as a necessary preliminary, they had to procure a licence and a diploma as a proof both of their moral and scholastic fitness for the performance of functions that, in a properly-constituted society, rank next in importance to the teachings of the fireside and the pulpit. If the "middle-class examinations" prove anything, they prove that a reform is needed in this particular, in the interest alike of the able and conscientious teacher, of the pupil, of the parent, and of the State. The souls of our children are surely as well worthy of our care as their bodies? And, if we subject the druggist, the surgeon, and the physician to control and examination, why should the schoolmaster and the schoolmistress escape without either?—*Illustrated London News.*

School days of Eminent Men in Great-Britain.

By John Timbs, F. S. A.

(*Continued from our last.*)

IV.

THE SAXON LANGUAGE.—FORMATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

The primitive character of the population of Britain having been effaced by its Roman occupation, its great masters were eventually overrun and conquered by the Teutons, whose three distinct tribes of the Low Germans,—the Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes—made themselves masters of our island. They naturally brought with them a change of language: the Teutonic superseded the Latin, one cause of which was that the population of Britain had been continually and largely increased by the immigration of German settlers, so that the German spirit was far more powerful than the Roman. The three different branches of Low Germans could understand one another with not much more difficulty than at the present day a Lancashire peasant would discourse with a Yorkshireman. There was, doubtless, a strong difference of dialect between the languages spoken by the Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes, and these divisions were the foundations of the great classes of the modern dialects of England.

The Jutes, represented chiefly by the people of Kent, were the least numerous, and exercised no permanent literary influence upon the great Anglo-Saxon confederacy. It was the Angles, numerically by far the most powerful of the Teutonic settlers, who first took the lead in intelligence and in literature. To them chiefly belong the earliest literary productions of the Anglo-Saxons, and the oldest Anglo-Saxon traditions known; and their influence over the rest was so great, that not only did they accept from them the general title of *English*, but even the nations of the Continent who had generally preserved the Roman language, generally agreed in giving to the Teutonic population of Britain the name of *Angli*. Thus we derive from this one branch of the triple composition of our race, the national name of which we are proud, that of Englishmen, and it is from them that our language is called *English*.

Nevertheless, the Anglian division of the race fell in the course of the eighth century under the superior influence of the Saxons, and Wessex, or the kingdom of the West Saxons, not only gave us finally our line of Kings, but furnished us with the model of our language and literature. The written English of the present day is founded upon that dialect in which King Alfred wrote: and with this change in the predominance of race, the term *Saxon* came into more frequent use to designate the Teutonic population of this island; and as there continued to be Saxons on the Continent as well as in England, it has become the practice to call our own ancestors, by way of distinction and not as indicating an amalgamation of race, the Anglo-Saxons, that is, the Saxons of England. Still, it must be borne in mind that our knowledge of the Anglo-Saxon language is, after all, imperfect; for our nomenclature is made up from written documents of a partial description, and there no doubt existed a great number of words in the Anglo-Saxon language which are now entirely lost. No doubt, many words now found in the English language, and especially in the provincial dialects, of which the origin is unknown, had their equivalent in pure Anglo-Saxon. This language was not influenced by the Danes; and that which our forefathers spoke in the middle of the eleventh century was the same Low German dialect which they had brought with them into the island, with certain changes of time and circumstances. At this period, the Norman Conquest brought a new language, French, as it was then talked and written in Normandy; and the resulting dialect, Anglo-Norman, continued during two centuries to be exclusively the language of the aristocracy of England. Meanwhile, the Anglo-Saxon, or as we must henceforward call it, the English tongue, was not abandoned or disused; for the Anglo-Saxon grammar of the Latin language by Alfric continued to be used in the English schools till late in the twelfth century. To the first half of this century is ascribed a manuscript of Alfric's grammar, with an interlinear gloss of some of the Saxon words in Anglo-Norman. Hicks, the Anglo-Saxon scholar, had in his possession the above manuscript; and Sir Thomas Phillips found among the archives of Worcester cathedral some leaves of a copy of Alfric's grammar, written in the degraded form of the Anglo-Saxon language which prevailed in the middle and latter half of the twelfth century. From various literary remains it is evident that the use of the English language, during the twelfth century, and the first half of the thirteenth, was by no means confined to the lower classes of society, but it prevailed generally among the middle and educated classes, among the clergy and in the monastic houses, at least in those devoted to females.

The English language consist of about 38,000 words. This includes, of course, not only radical words, but all derivatives, except the preterites and participles of verbs; to which must be added some few terms, which, though set down in the dictionaries, are either obsolete, or have never ceased to be considered foreign. Of these, about 23,000, or nearly five-eighths, are of Anglo-Saxon origin. The majority of the rest, in what proportions we cannot say, are Latin and Greek: Latin, however, has the larger share.

V.

EDUCATION OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

In the curious old town of Falaise, in Normandy, is shown a small housefront which exhibits a bust of William the conqueror, whose name the house bears. But "the cradle of the Conqueror" is a small chamber in the thickness of the wall of the Norman ducal palace or castle at Falaise. "It was in this narrow room," says Miss Costello, "once said to have been adorned with gold and vermilion, and other gay hues, that a child was born in secresy and mystery, and that by the imperfect light his beautiful mother looked upon the features of the future hero of Normandy." That good fortune which never deserted William in after life, shone upon his infancy. He soon became a favourite with his father, and was care-

fully nurtured and brought up in the castle, where princely attendance was lavished upon him, and up to his ninth year his father bestowed the utmost care upon his education. He was early inured to military exercise: at the age of five he is said to have commanded a battalion of children, at the head of which he went through the usual evolutions. At the age of nine he could already read and explain Cæsar's Commentaries: he was removed by his father to the French court, where his education was carefully completed with the aid of the first masters. At Paris, he was brought up with the young French princes, where he received instruction in the military schools; and he was surpassed by none of his youthful comrades in the varied accomplishments of feudal nobility, or in extensive reading and sound study of the military art. The intervals between his studies he spent either in field sports, especially hawking and hunting, or in evolutions with the troops, of which he was remarkably fond. Sometimes also he would attend the envoys of the French King in their missions to surrounding courts and states, and thus became instructed in diplomacy. Meanwhile, he was temperate and active, and assiduously eager in the acquisition of fresh knowledge. Of William's genius there is ample record: the Norman writers praise him as a wise and pious King; the Chronicle of the Sea Kings of Norway describes him as "a very wise man, but not considered a man to be trusted;" and even the Saxon Chronicler, who had lived some time in his Court, says, "he was wise and rich, mild to good men, but beyond all measure severe to those who withstood his will."

VI.

LANFRANC—INGULPHUS AND THE SCHOOLS OF CROYLAND.

William the Conqueror patronised and loved letters. Many of the Norman prelates preferred in England by him, were polite scholars. Herman, a bishop of Salisbury, founded a noble library in his cathedral. Godfrey, prior of St. Swithin's, at Winchester, was an elegant epigrammatist, and wrote with the smartness and ease of Martial. Geoffrey, another learned Norman, established a school at Dunstable, where he composed a play, which was acted by his scholars, dressed in character in copes borrowed from the neighbouring abbey of St. Alban's.

One of the most learned men of this age was Lanfranc, a native of Lombardy, and born of a noble family. Having obtained the best education that the universities of Italy could afford, he practised as a lawyer in his native city of Pavia. He next quitted the bar, passed the Alps, and settling in Normandy, opened a school in Avranches. He suddenly disappeared, and in three years was discovered in the small and poor monastery of Bec, where he had become monk, and had risen to the office of prior. He then opened a school there, was quickly surrounded with scholars, while his fame as a teacher enriched the monastery. His natural arrogance and deep policy was shown in an incident which occurred on a visit made him by Bishop Herfast, with a numerous company of Duke William's courtiers. When they appeared in his lecture-room, he had the audacity to hand the bishop a spelling-book. This insult was resented; complaint was made to William, the farm of the monastery was burned, and Lanfranc was ordered to fly from Normandy. He mounted on a poor lame horse, rode to the Court, and told the Duke he was most willing to obey his orders, but that it was plain he could not with the animal on which he was mounted, and begged the favour of a good horse. William laughed heartily, took him into favour, and made him Abbot of St. Stephen, at Caen, where he established an academy. He accompanied William to England, and four years after the conquest he was called to the See of Canterbury. It is reasonable to suppose that Lanfranc, who had done so much for Normandy, and whose literary fame was commensurate with Europe, established schools in England, and revived the love of letters; for we are told that, by incessant labours "he roused the rude minds of many to good, rubbed away the rust of viciousness, extirpated the seeds of evil, and planted those of virtue." Speaking of the monks of his own time, the historian of Malmesbury says: "Their minds are still formed on the model of Lanfranc; his memory is dear to them; a warm devotion to God, to strangers a pleasing affability, still remain; nor shall ages see extinguished what in him was a benevolence of heart, comprising the human race, and felt by each one that approached him."

One of Lanfranc's admirers was Ingulphus the Abbot of Croyland: he is remarkable as the first upon record who, having laid the foundation of his learning at Westminster, proceeded for its further cultivation to Oxford. He was born of English parents, and a native of the city of London. Whilst a school-boy at Westminster, he was so fortunate as to interest in his behalf Egitha, the daughter of Earl Godwin, and queen of Edward the Confessor—a young person of great beauty and learning, modest, and of a sweet disposition. "I have often seen her in my childhood," says the Abbot Ingulphus, "when I went to visit my father, who was employed in the King's palace. If she met me on my return from school, she interrogated me upon my grammar, poetry, or even logic, in which she was well versed; and when she had entangled me in the meshes of some subtle argument, she never failed to bestow upon me three or four crowns, by her servant, and to send me to have refreshment in the buttery." Egitha was mild and kind to all who approached her; those who disliked the somewhat savage pride of her father and brother, praised her for not resembling them, as is poetically expressed in a Latin verse, then much esteemed: "*Sicut spina rosam, genuit Godwinus Editham.*"—"As the thorn produces the rose, Godwin produces Editha."

"It is possible," (says the Rev. Mr. Tyler, in his *Henry of Monmouth*) "that many of our fair countrywomen, in the highest ranks now, are not aware that, more than 800 years ago, their fair and noble predecessors could play with a Westminster scholar in grammar, verses, and logic." Ingulphus tells how he made proficiency beyond many of his equals in mastering the doctrines of Aristotle, and covered himself to the very ankles in Cicero's Rhetoric!

In his History of the Abbey of Croyland, which he governed, he minutely describes its buildings, its various fortunes, possessions, and immunities, its treasures, its monks, its occupations, and its statutes. No distinct period seems to have been allotted to study; though it is related that, on one occasion, a present of forty large original volumes of divers doctrines, and of more than one hundred smaller copies of books on various subjects, was made to the common library. Sometimes also the names are mentioned of men said to have been "deeply versed in every branch of literature." In the story of the abbot Turketul, we read that as the convent was rich, he relieved the indigent, solaced the unhappy, and provided succour for all in distress. In the neighbourhood, such children were educated as were designed for the monastic life. These the abbot visited once every day, watching, with parental solicitude, their progress in their several tasks; rewarding their diligence with such little presents (which a servant carried with him) as children love: and animating all by exhortation, or, when necessary, compelling them by chastisement, to the discharge of their duties.

Of Croyland Abbey, standing upon the south border of Lincolnshire, there remain considerable portions of its church, of Norman early English, and Perpendicular architecture; and, as the lover of our national antiquities stands upon the adjoining triangular bridge of the 14th century, (supposed to have been designed as a symbol of the Holy Trinity), he may reflect that within the hallowed convent walls dwelt some of the earliest promoters of education; and as from these picturesque ruins over the neighbouring fens the eye ranges, it may rest upon some nobly built churches.

VII.

HENRY THE SECOND, HIS LOVE OF LETTERS—SPORTS OF THE LONDON SCHOLARS.

Henry II., born at Mans, in Maine, 1133, was brought to England in his tenth year, by his uncle, Robert Earl of Gloucester, who being distinguished for his scholarship and love of letters, superintended the education of the young prince, while he remained for five years shut up for safety in the strong castle of Bristol. From his excellent uncle, Henry imbibed a greater degree of literary culture than was then usual among princes: his faculties received a learned training, and to the end of his days he preserved an attachment to literature and to the conversation of scholars, and he drew around him many of the chief lights of the time. His reign has, however, according to a very common but incorrect mode of speaking, been called a *Dark Age;* for an age cannot possibly be dark which had such men living in it as John of Salisbury, Peter of Blois, Thomas à Becket, and many others, especially historians, whose writings show the great extent of their reading and intellectual power. John was well acquainted with the Latin and Greek writers; he had some knowledge of Hebrew; he was skilled in the mathematics, natural philosophy, theology, and morals; he was an eloquent orator and an eminent poet; and he was amiable and cheerful, innocent and good. His letters are delightful reading: his style was best adapted to this species of composition, and his correspondents were among the first personages of the age. Peter of Blois was invited by Henry into England, became his secretary, and enjoyed high ecclesiastical dignities; his writings are chiefly theological,

but his letters alone are now read: like the letters of John of Salisbury, they abound in quotations from Scripture, and from ecclesiastical and profane writers, but Peter's own writing is encumbered by forced antitheses and a constant play upon words. Thomas à Becket was born in London, and educated at Oxford, but was sent to France, while young, to lose the English accent, the hateful vulgarity of which would have rendered his association with respectable people impossible. He returned from his travels fully accomplished. Theobald, archbishop of Canterbury, made him his deacon, and the King made him his chancellor; he was also entrusted with the education of the King's eldest son, and he subsequently became archbishop of Canterbury.

From Fitzstephen's life-like description of London in this reign we obtain a picture of the hardy sports which then formed an important portion of the education of the people, as it did of the early Britons. To the north of the City were pasture-lands, with mill-streams; and beyond was an immense forest, with dense thickets, where stags, fallow-deer, and wild bulls had their coverts; and through this, citizens, by the Charter of Henri I., had liberty to hunt. This great hunting-ground is now a suburb of the metropolis; and as the Londoner strolls over the picturesque locality of "Hampstead Heath," he may encounter many an aged thorn—the lingering indications of a forest - and in the beautiful domain of Caen Wood, he may carry his mind's-eye back to those Anglo-Norman sports of seven centuries since. Hawking was also among their free recreations. Football was their favourite game; the boys of the schools, and the various guilds of craftmen, having each their ball. In summer, the youths exercised themselves in leaping, archery, wrestling, stonethrowing, slinging javelins, and fighting with bucklers. In winter, when "the great fen or moor" which washed the city walls on the north was frozen over, sliding, sledging, and skating were the sports of crowds, who had also their sham fights on the ice, which latter had their advantages; for as Fitzstephen says, "Youth is an age eager for glory and desirous of victory, and so young men engage in counterfeit battles, that they may conduct themselves more valiantly in real ones." We are even told how the young Londoners, by placing the leg-bones of animals under their feet, and tying them round their ankles, by aid of an iron-shod pole, pushed themselves forward with great velocity along the ice of the frozen moor; and one of these bone-skates, found in digging Moorfields, may now be seen in the British Museum.

The Latinity of the writers during this reign was more pure than in many of the following ones. It has been presumed that the monks of these times were ignorant of classical learning, from Caxton speaking in one of his prefaces of Virgil's Æneis as a story then hardly known, and without any commendation of the poetry; but it appears by Fitzstephen that in the schools of his time, the scholars daily *torquent enthymemata*, an expression which shows that he was well versed in Juvenal. John of Salisbury was as well versed and as ready in citing the Latin classics as the men who have been most eminent for this knowledge in modern times. The Saxons also seem to have made a distinction between the Latin which was spoken by some of the clergy, and what was to be found in classical books.

(To be continued.)

Taking a Thing for Granted.

One of Her Majesty's School Inspectors gives the following account of a school examination:—

"I was once inspecting a school, to speak in slighting terms of which would convey an utterly incorrect impression of its relative quality. As compared with other schools it was a very respectable and thriving institution. The clergyman learned, assiduous, pious, and most deservedly of high position and repute; beloved in his parish, and esteemed beyond it. The teacher was accomplished, industrious, humble minded, and zealous in his work. The first class had read a portion of the Sermon on the Mount. I asked them whose were the words they had been reading. No answer. I repeated the question in many varied forms; but still no answer. The clergyman said they could not understand my way of putting the question. I therefore showed them some very bad penmanship of my own, which lay upon the table, addressed to the correspondent of the school, and asked whose words those were; and they gave the answer with terrible precision. I asked whose were the words of the sermon they had heard last Sunday; they reply (I have no doubt with equal accuracy), 'the clergyman's.' I asked whose were the words of St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans; and they said, 'St. Paul's.' I now repeated my first question, 'Who spoke the words of the Sermon on the Mount?' No answer still. The visitors grew uncomfortable; the teacher distressed; and the clergyman, assuring me that the children could answer the question if intelligibly proposed to them, accepted, at my request, the responsibility of putting it. 'Now, my dear children,' he proceeded, 'I am going to ask you precisely the same question as the Inspector, which I am sure you can answer.' 'Who spoke the words of the Sermon on the Mount.' But before answering it, think for a moment who it was; and as you pronounce his name, make a bow or courtesy of obeisance, for it is written, 'at his name every knee shall bow.' So, now; whose words were they.'

"I need not add that the question was answered by a shout more accurate, triumphant, and unanimous, than reverential; that comfort and good humor were restored, and that I was looked upon as an incompetent and discomfited examiner. But when afterwards alone with the teacher, a frank and candid person, I thought it well to inquire whether it was supposed that the children had been really able to answer the question which I in vain put to them. No, it was readily acknowledged they had not. Had they ever been told whose words those were? *No, most likely not; it had been taken for granted that they knew so simple a thing as that.* Would the children ever, of their own accord, have inquired whose they were? No, it was not in their way to do so.

"And yet several of these children would have answered questions far more difficult than any that I should have dreamed of putting to them; questions in the books of Deuteronomy, or Daniel, or the Epistle to the Hebrews."—*English S. S. Teachers' Magazine.*

Corrupt English.

"I should like to see a tribunal established at Westminster," says a correspondent of a literary journal, "for the trial of those who assail and batter the Queen's good English. With such a man as the late Sir Philip Francis on the judgment seat, we should fill all the state prisons during Hilary term. I mention two more of the most recent improvements in the language of Old England, for the making of which platform orators and the daily newspaper press cannot be too much complimented. *Patent*—A word, in the dark age of William Shakspeare, that was wont to be used only as a substantive, and always meant something appropriated by letters patent; but in the Augustan age of Gilfillan and Tupper, it seems bad breeding to use the words clear, plain, evident, intelligible, open—we must say patent, if you please, instead. 'I feel confident,' thunders one gentleman, who is denouncing the Pope in Exeter Hall, 'that this utterly abominable priestcraft must be patent to you all.' 'My Luds,' says another (Mr. Slipslop, Q. C.), 'that the last witness called has disgracefully perjured himself must be patent to everybody present in this court.' 'Have faith in this sublime truth, my beloved brethren,' snuffles the Honorable and Very Reverend Somebody, in his most sonorous cadence, 'the road to eternal life is patent to you all.' *Some*—'The jury retired for some half hour or so, to deliberate upon their verdict.' *Here is a vicious* sense in which to use the word 'some'—it makes flat nonsense of it. Why not say, 'The jury retired for half an hour or thereabouts; or, 'For about an hour?' Yet these learned wits, these ripe scholars, would laugh consumedly if they heard any man say that 'The judge retired to drink some sherry or so,' or that 'The foreman of the jury came into court and delivered some verdict or so.' 'Our own correspondents' in the daily public prints have been at a great feast of languages and stolen the scraps. Critical severity, therefore, on these points, cannot be pushed to an excess."—*Rhode Island Schoolmaster.*

LITERATURE.

POETRY.

SCORN NOT THE LEAST.

Where words are weak, and foes encountering strong,
Where mightier do assault than do defend,
The feebler part puts up enforced wrong,
And silent sees that speech could not amend.
Yet, higher powers must think, though they repine,
When sun is set the little stars will shine.

The merlin cannot ever soar on high,
Nor greedy greyhound still pursue the chase:
The tender lark will find a time to fly,
And fearful hare to run a quiet race:
He that higt. growth on cedars did bestow,
Gave also lowly mushrooms leave to grow.

In Haman's pomp poor Mardocheus wept,
Yet God did turn his fate upon his foe:
The Lazar pined while Dives' feast was kept,
Yet he to heaven, to hell did Dives go.
We trample grass, and prize the flowers of May,
Yet grass is green when flowers do fade away.

ROBERT SOUTHWELL. (1)

A PSALM OF LIFE.

WHAT THE HEART OF THE YOUNG MAN SAID TO THE PSALMIST.

Tell me not, in mournful numbers,
"Life is but an empty dream!"
For the soul is dead that slumbers,
And things are not what they seem.

Life is real! Life is earnest!
And the grave is not its goal;
"Dust thou art, to dust returnest,"
Was not spoken of the soul.

Not enjoyment, and not sorrow,
Is our destined end or way;
But to act, that each to-morrow
Find us farther than to-day.

Art is long, and Time is fleeting,
And our hearts, though stout and brave,
Still, like muffled drums, are beating
Funeral marches to the grave.

In the world's broad field of battle,
In the bivouac of Life,
Be not like dumb, driven cattle!
Be a hero in the strife!

Trust no Future, howe'er pleasant!
Let the dead Past bury its dead!
Act,—act in the living Present!
Heart within, and God o'erhead!

Lives of great men all remind us
We can make our lives sublime,
And, departing, leave behind us
Footsteps on the sands of time;

Footprints, that perhaps another,
Sailing o'er life's solemn main,
A forlorn and shipwreck'd brother,
Seeing, shall take heart again.

Let us, then, be up and doing,
With a heart for any fate;
Still achieving, still pursuing,
Learn to labour and to wait.

LONGFELLOW.

HOW SHALL I LIVE?

BY E. J. G.

Teacher! In thy toilsome way,
Look not downward mournfully;
Life hath sunshine, Life hath flowers,
And a joyous work ours.
Let us train the mind's high powers,
Cheerfully, Oh! Cheerfully.

Teacher! With no careless hand,
Guide thy precious youthful band;
Think each soul must ever bear
Every impress graven there;
Choose thy pathway then with care,
Thoughtfully, Oh! Thoughtfully.

Teacher! Linger not nor stay
For the pleasures of to-day.
List not when the syren sings,
Know'st thou not that Time hath wings?
Every hour its labor brings,
Earnestly, Oh! Earnestly.

Teacher! Lift thine eye above;
Look to Him whose name is Love.
Would'st thou ne'er from duty stray?
Bow thy knee and humbly pray;
Seek thou aid from Heaven alway,
Prayerfully, Oh! Prayerfully.

Teacher! Trust thy Father's word.
Hast thou ne'er this promise heard,
"As thy day strength shall be?"
Faith's thy strong-hold; thither flee:
This shall cheer and comfort thee,
Trustfully, Oh! Trustfully.

Teacher! When thy work is done,
And thy conquest nobly won,
Well fulfilled God's high behest.
Called by Him who knoweth best,
Thou shalt enter into rest,
Peacefully, Oh! Peacefully.

—*Connecticut Common School Journal.*

(1) This author from whom we have already published a beautiful passage "Times go by turns" was an English Jesuit attached to the household of the Countess of Arundel. He died a martyr to his religion in 1595, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

OFFICIAL NOTICES.

ERECTION OF SCHOOL MUNICIPALITIES.

His Excellency, the Governor General, has been pleased to erect the new parish of St. Justin, in the county of Maskinongé, into a school municipality, retaining the same boundaries as designated for ecclesiastical purposes; this municipality will comprise the concession known as Ste. Geneviève or Trompe-Souris, the concession or double range called de l'Ornière, that of the Ruisseau des Aulnes, the double concession or range called du Grand Bois Blanc, and also that known as Le Petit Bois Blanc.

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APPOINTMENTS.

His Excellency, the Governor General, has been pleased to approve of the following appointments:

CATHOLIC BOARD OF EXAMINERS FOR THE DISTRICT OF QUEBEC.

The Revd. Bernard McGauran to be a member of the said Board, in the place and stead of the Revd. J. Nelligan, whose resignation has been accepted.

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CATHOLIC BOARD OF EXAMINERS FOR THE DISTRICT OF MONTREAL.

Messrs. Benjamin Singer, Joseph Chartrand, Alphonse Picher, François Lavoie, Odilon Caron, François-X. Tessier, Isaac Lucier, Alphonse Lopez and James O'Reilly, and Misses Rose de Lima Leduc, Marie Desneiges Lalaune, Diana Ladéroute, Philomène Poirier, Eliza Vallée, Ezilda Beaudoin, Marie Victorine Paré, Louise Savaria, Denise Lefebvre, Virginie Phaneuf, Georgina Richer, Philomène Meloche, Mathilda Plouffe, Marie Ducharme, Cléop.ée Cadieux, Aurélie Chevalier, Marceline Poissant, Philomène Quesnel, Mélodie Ducharme, Zélia Poirier, Sophranie Neveu, Eliza O'Leary, Eulalie Rémillard, Marie Célina Vaénais, Rose de Lima Barbeau, Lucie Bourke, Marie Célina Aresse, Aglaé Raymond, Angélique Acard, Rose de Lima Deguire Julie Desparois, Vitaline Préfontaine, Eudosie Lauzon, Marguerite Pulchérie Benjamin, Eliza Laporte, Adèle Lefebvre, Malvina Latour, Célina Morin, Adèle Cartier, Joséphine Laporte, Caroline Caine, Catherine Tessier, Angélique Hamelin, Vitaline Dugas and Julie Latour, have obtained diplomas authorising them to teach in elementary schools.

DONATIONS TO THE LIBRARY OF THE DEPARTMENT.

The Superintendent acknowledges, with thanks, the receipt of the following donations to the library of the department.

From Mr. H. Emile Chevalier, of Montréal: "Les Trappeurs de la Baie d'Hudson," first edition, 24 pages in-8.

From Mr. Felix Vogeli, of Montréal: "Almanach Vétérinaire et d'Economie Rurale, pour l'an 1859," a pamphlet in-12.

From R. Bellemare, Esquire, Revenue Inspector, Montreal: An engraving, now very rare, representing the death of Montcalm.

From Messrs. Dunnigan and Brothers, Booksellers, New-York: Rome, its churches, its charities and its schools, by the Revd. J. Nelligan, 1 vol. in-12.

From Messrs. Harper and Brothers, New York: Mensuration and Practical Geometry, 1 vol. in-12.

From J. Bouchette, Esquire, Toronto: a map of part of North America, 2 copies.

From Messrs. Hickling, Swan and Brewer, of Boston, Maine, through H. D. Smith, Esquire: A Pronouncing Spelling Book of the English language, by J. E. Worcester, 1 vol. in-12; and A Pronouncing, Explanation and Synonimous Dictionary of the English language, 1 vol. in-8.

From the Academy of Sciences, New Orleans, by the hands of L. A. Huguet Latour, Esquire, Montréal: Ten pamphlets containing the Annals of the Academy.

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SITUATION AS TEACHER WANTED.

A young lady who is qualified to teach elementary classes in an English academy, and also embroidery, crochet and ornamental needlework, is desirous of obtaining a situation as an assistant teacher. address: Office of Education, Montreal.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

MONTREAL, (LOWER CANADA) OCTOBER, 1858.

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

(Concluded from our last.)

Mr. Hume has charge of the county of Megantic, a section of the country which, on account of the bad state of the roads, of the poverty of new settlers, scattered over large tracts of land, offers more than ordinary obstacles to the progress of education. This accounts for some of the following remarks:

The statistical tables accompanying this Report will show, that the number of pupils attending school during the last year has been nearly the same as in the preceding year, it is true that there has been an increase in some of the municipalities, but there has also been a deficiency in others.

The great difficulty of procuring qualified teachers often keeps a school vacant that would otherwise be in operation. The establishment of superior schools in suitable and central places, will, I feel convinced, alone supply this deficiency. Qualified teachers must be raised up and educated amongst the people before the supply will equal the demand. For the support of these superior schools a special grant will be required. There can be no question but that the establishment of a model school in each of the populous municipalities as provided by law, would do much to give to many, an education superior to what can now be obtained in the common or elementary schools, but at the same time I very much fear that in some instances such a school could not be established without in a great measure sacrificing the elementary schools in the municipalities.

Very little progress has yet been made in some parts of my district towards the principle of adopting assessment in the place of voluntary contributions; in all the municipalities which are settled entirely with French Canadians, assessment prevails, while in all those settled by a population altogether or chiefly of British origin, voluntary contribution is adopted.

The extreme difficulty of collecting all the arrears of assessment due, is the great difficulty which lies in the path of school Commissioners. In many places they are slowly and sometimes reluctantly paid, especially when claimed from those who derived no direct benefit from the schools in operation, there is always a reluctance felt to institute an action for the recovery of a few shillings when it is known that the costs will perhaps be equal to double the amount sued for, and even when an action has been instituted and judgment obtained, prompt payment does not always follow, because it is known that a still greater reluctance exists to cause an execution to issue.

Mr. Valade has charge of the catholic schools of the city of Montreal, and of all the schools of Jacques Cartier, Hochelaga, Vaudreuil and Soulanges. He speaks favorably of the state of things in his district, which we may add is generally born out by our personal experience, this district being one of those in which we have been able to visit schools, from time to time, without interfering with our official duties.

The schools in my district are directed with talent, and shew progress; the teachers are better remunerated, and the Commissioners are very zealous and act in perfect harmony with the ratepayers. It was most agreeable to see the number of parents and other interested inhabitants of each municipality, who accompanied me in my visits to the several school-houses. The Commissioners have become better convinced of the high mission committed to their charge and with scarcely any exception, gladly accompanied me in my examinations. With myself they have had a better opportunity of judging of the real and apparent progress made by the scholars than can be done in public examinations, where true talent is made to shine; but where also, perseverance and application are often overlooked. Though there are still many schools that remain comparatively stationary, yet a greater facility in reading is more general, hand-writing is more perfect, and in the more progressive schools geography and composition have become favorite subjects of study. However, I regret to add, that arithmetic and grammar, the two most essential branches, do not receive any where the attention which they should command. The management of the scholastic finances of our municipalities, I consider as conducted upon a very defective system, which is the cause every year of complaints and recrimination. This is due, sometimes to the ignorance and incapacity of the secretary-treasurer, at other times to his apathy and indifference, but often, I regret to say, to the want of integrity in this officer.

I have given particular attention to this portion of my duties, and if I cannot flatter myself that I shall see all these difficulties overcome, still I trust that for the future, such a strict watch will be kept by the Commissioners over the secretary-treasurer, that the accounts will be handed over with more regularity and clearness than heretofore. The district this year assigned to my inspection, has offered a greater number of good schools, of more able masters, better remunerated, a better set of School Commissioners, attentive and well disposed, in fact, in every respect a more happy concatenation of circumstances tending towards the wise and beneficent views of the Legislature on education, than I have ever had occasion to remark before.

The following facts are worthy of attention, we give them as stated in the concluding part of Mr. Valade's report.

I will confine myself to a few general remarks which will complete these statistics.

1. The children of, from five to seven years, and those from fourteen to sixteen, are comparatively in the proportion of 1 to 20.

2. The number of girls who attend school are about equal in number to that of boys.

3. The average attendance at school in summer is about the same, as in winter.

4. Very few catholic children attend protestant schools, and fewer protestants attend catholic schools.

5. The country district-schools are almost without exception under the direction of female teachers.

6. With the exception of four schools which are attended exclusively by children of British origin, all the others are attended by children of French-Canadian extraction.

7. All the schools within my district of inspection, are with very few exceptions, provided with black-boards, and even charts, which has been greatly the cause of the progress made in arithmetic and Geography.

Finally, Sir, I beg leave to reiterate the assurance of my own individual zeal in favor of Education, by which I am induced with-

out the slightest deviation, to pay two yearly visits to the schools within my district of inspection, devoting at least a half day to each visit.

The reports of Dr. Bardy, inspector for the city and the county of Quebec, and for the counties of Portneuf and Montmorency, and that of Mr. Crépault, who has charge of the counties of Bellechasse, Montmagny and l'Islet, offer nothing worthy of notice.

Mr. Béland's district is, perhaps, the most extensive and one of the most densely populated in Lower Canada. It comprises the counties of Lévi (opposite the city of Quebec, on the south shore of the St. Lawrence), and the adjoining counties of Dorchester, Beauce and Lotbinière. In that section of the country the execution of the school laws met for several years with the most violent opposition. For the last four or five years, however, the statistical returns have shewn a continual and most encouraging increase in the number of schools, the number of pupils attending them, and the number of those amongst them who have really benefitted by their attendance. Mr. Béland sums up as follows the result of this year's inspection.

I have in my district 107 common schools, two superior schools for females, one model, one independent, and one dissentient school. The common schools have greatly improved their systems of teaching, indeed some fifty of them may be considered as efficient as model schools.

The number of children who read fluently and well are 2862, those who begin to read currently are 2028, beginners 2663. The total number frequenting schools in this district 8253. In attendance at common schools are 7553, and in convents, colleges and model schools 700.

1876 pupils study grammar, 1503 learn parsing, and 3422 practice the art of writing. This is an increase upon last year, which had but 3169 learning to write. In arithmetic 1800 children are exercised in the simple rules, and 1021 in compound rules of arithmetic; last year there were but 1602 studying the first-mentioned, and but 939 the latter. Finally, geography is taught to 745 children, history to 962, and English grammar to 73 pupils.

Mr. Cimon, Mr. Martin, Mr. Meagher, Mr. Lespérance and Mr. Painchaud had charge respectively, the first named, of the counties of Charlevoix and Tadoussac, the second of the county of Chicoutimi, the third of the counties of Gaspé and Bonaventure, with the exception of the settlements of Cap Chat and Ste. Anne des Monts, which were under the supervision of the late Dr. Lespérance. The Magdalen Islands in the gulph St. Lawrence are under Mr. Painchaud's jurisdiction. In all these remote settlements notwithstanding the great difficulties under which the school authorities and the friends of education are labouring, many facts have recently transpired which are indicative of progress and speak well for the present state of the public mind. From Pabos and other localities in the counties of Gaspé and Bonaventure, advertisements have appeared in the newspapers, offering $200 salaries for teachers which is, it is true, the minimum fixed by the superintendent for the salary of male teachers anywhere, but is still indicative of a desire for the progress of Education. At Chicoutimi several schools have lately been established and among them a model school which is presided over by one of the best pupils of the Laval Normal School with a salary of $300. At Baie St. Paul and at Malbaie in the counties of Charlevoix academies for boys and for girls are now in operation; and even in the new townships of Labarre, Mésy and Métabetchouan on the shores of Lake St. John's, schools are being organised. Most of these facts are subsequent to the reports we are now calling attention to and we mention them to counteract the discouraging effect they might produce.

The last report we find in the order in which they are published in the appendix, is that of Mr. Inspector Germain for the counties of Laval, Terrebonne, Two-Mountains and part of Argenteuil. It is on the whole, satisfactory, as may be seen by the following comparative statement of the years 1854, 1855 and 1856.

	In 1854	In 1855	In 1856
Pupils frequenting school	6122	6124	6217
Pupils from the reading of their alphabet to fluent reading	2462	1867	1803
Pupils reading fluently	2251	2064	2200
Pupils reading well	1409	2193	2164
Pupils learning to write	1487	2826	2942
Pupils learning simple arithmetic	1243	1422	1482
Pupils learning compound arithmetic	718	1092	1208
Pupils learning Book-keeping	58	123	110
Pupils learning orthography	624	1107	973
Pupils learning geography	499	951	1234
Pupils learning French grammar	1287	1808	2123
Pupils learning English grammar	114	328	535
Pupils learning grammar and parsing	536	982	1531
Pupils learning history	572	1247	1190
Pupils learning epistolary composition	57	259	423
Pupils learning horticulture and agriculture	0	36	134
Pupils learning mathematics	0	12	98
Pupils learning mensuration	15	71	96
Pupils learning linear drawing	2	110	132
Pupils learning vocal music	36	78	307
Pupils learning instrumental music	28	180	168

Such is a brief review of the reports of the several School Inspectors for the year 1856 as they are found in the appendix. Although a very great circulation has been given to the report of the superintendent, we have thought that its leading features ought to be noted in this journal; and that our readers would not grudge it the space it has occupied. It is only by spreading in the widest manner the information contained in such documents, that we can attain the real object of their publication, which is to make, if possible, every man in the community acquainted with the present state of education. Many who have been deterred from the reading of the voluminous blue-book, the substance of which has now been placed before our readers, may perhaps have glimpsed over the extracts we have published from time to time; and if such is the case, we need no other apology for their insertion to the exclusion of other matter, perhaps more attractive, but certainly not more important.

MONTHLY SUMMARY.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

— We have received the third number of the *Journal of Education and Agriculture for Nova Scotia*. It contains 16 pages of educational and agricultural information, and is edited at Halifax by the Rev. A. Forrester,

D.D., Superintendent of Education for that Province. The Lower Provinces have now two educational periodicals, this, and the *Parish School Advocate*, also published in Halifax for all the other Provinces. Now that schemes for a federal union are afloat, it will be interesting for our readers to follow the series, the extracts we propose publishing from time to time from these papers. The project of uniting the educational and the agricultural periodicals in one has been discussed in the Board of Agriculture for Lower Canada; but it has been found more advisable to try first the improvement of the *Farmers Journal* and the "*Agriculteur*" which, after having been suspended have reappeared in a very neat shape, the former under the direction of James Anderson, Esquire, and the latter under the care of Joseph Perrault, Esquire, secretary of the Board. The September and October issues of these two publications are now before us and we must say that they are highly creditable both to the learned and able editors and to the printers Messrs. de Montigny. "The Farmer's Journal and the Journal of Education, says the *Canadien*, ought to be subscribed for by every family in the country; their cheapness and their utility leaves no excuse to those who remain without them."

—A school of agriculture has been recently opened at Ste. Anne Lapocatière in the county of Kamouraska, in connexion with the splendid college of that place. Messrs. Casgrain and Pelletier, two of the professors of the college, recently visited the chief agricultural schools of Europe.

—A model farm is to be established at Varennes, near Montreal, by a joint stock company. It is to be managed by a Board of Directors elected by the shareholders. Mr. Perrault is now busy in preparing for the opening of this establishment, which is we believe, to be principally conducted by him.

—The public courses of the Laval University are now held in the splendid halls of the large building of which a view is to be found in the 3d number of our first volume. The rooms although very large are densely crowded every night. We were present at one of the lectures of the course of intellectual and moral philosophy by Father Taillan, recently arrived from Paris. There were more than four hundred hearers amongst whom we noticed several of the leading men of the city of all creeds and origins. The Rev. lecturer expounded the highest principles of metaphysics in a most clear, forcible and elegant manner.

—A weighty blue-book just issued, gives the report of the Commissioners on the progress and condition of the Queen's colleges at Cork, Galway and Belfast. The Commissioners recommend the abolition of the professorships of the Celtic languages. The great majority of the students in the colleges belong to the middle classes of society, and in 1857-58 there are registered 155 students, of whom 109 are matriculated. The total number of students from 1849-50 to 1857-58 is 1758 representing 1686 individuals.

—We see in the *Moniteur* that the seven pupils who gained the first prizes at the annual competition of all the colleges of the University, dined with the minister of public instruction, His Imperial Highness Prince Napoleon, and the Archbishop of Paris: and that several other ministers and dignitaries honored Mr. Rouland with their presence on that occasion.

—On the occasion of the great convocation of authors which met at Brussels in Belgium, great festivities accompanied the ceremonies. Mr. Rogier, the minister of public instruction, met and reviewed the students of all the public institutions of the country. The King and his son, the young Duke of Brabant, presided over this most extraordinary ceremony.

—Two *salles d'asiles* (infants' schools) and two *crèches* are now being established in the city of Montreal, under the auspices of the gentlemen of the seminary. The *salle d'asile* and *crèche* of the Quebec suburb are consided to the Sisters of Providence, and those of St. Joseph suburb to the Sisters of Charity. In the latter ward a building is now in course of erection and will soon be completed; it is 120 feet long and 30 deep. The school room will be 16 feet high. The building will contain easily 350 children in the *salle d'asile* and 50 in the *crèche*. Further particulars will be found in the last number of the *Journal de l'Instruction Publique*; and all information on the system followed in similar institutions in France, may be easily obtained by applying to the Education Office, for the "Ami de l'Enfance, journal des salles d'asiles," and for the "Bulletin des Crèches."

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

—A great congress of authors and publishers is now being held in Brussels, to discuss all the questions connected with copyright, with a view to assimilate the laws of all civilized nations in that respect and to arrive at international reciprocity. The congress was opened by a very good speech by Mr. Rogier, minister of the interior and of public instruction. His Majesty, the King of Belgium, honoured the congress with his presence. Mr. Cozens made a speech in the English language, as representing the United States; his address was immediately translated into French, by the secretary. An animated debate, in which Messrs. Walewski and Jules Simon took an active part, was commenced on the question whether copyright ought to be a portion of the inheritance of any estate, like any other property, or whether it ought to be limited to the life of the author or to a certain number of years after his death, as is the case in several countries.

—An autograph signature of Shakespeare, which is considered as the best in existence was recently sold by auction and bought by the British Museum, at the price of £315 sterling. It was the signature on a mortgage deed, and it would be interesting to know the amount of the mortgage which is now, perhaps, more than covered by the value of the poet's autograph. Old copies of Shakespeare also realized large amounts on the occasion referred to. A copy of the sonnets, 1609, was paid £154 stg.!

—A decree which covers nearly the whole of the *Moniteur* has been issued, concerning the reorganisation of the Imperial Library of France. The staff of officers is prodigious and their salaries very handsome. The library is to be opened free to all parties during six hours every day, except during the Easter vacation. It is to be re-divided into four departments: 1st. Printed books, maps, and geographical collections; 2nd. Manuscripts, charts, and diplomas; 3rd. Medals, cameos and other antiquities; 4th. Engravings

SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

—A statue of the great mathematician and astronomer, Sir Isaac Newton, from the hand of W. Theed, Esquire, in light coloured bronze was inaugurated at Grantham, Lincolnshire, in the last week of September. The statue is twelve feet high; about two tons of bronze were used in founding it, one half of which was presented in the shape of old cannon by Her Majesty. It is placed on a pedestal fourteen feet high carved out of a block of marble. Newton is represented clothed in the robe of a master of arts, and as in the act of lecturing to a class. He points with his right hand to a scroll which he holds in his left, upon which is traced the diagram of one of his celebrated problems in the *Principia*, that we believe upon gravitation. The following speech was delivered after the falling of the veil which covered the statue, by Lord Brougham, who presided on the occasion:

"We are this day assembled to commemorate him of whom the consent of nations has declared that that man is chargeable with nothing like a follower's exaggeration of local partiality which pronounces the name of Newton as that of the greatest genius ever bestowed, by the bounty of Providence, for instructing mankind on the frame of the universe, and the laws by which it is governed—(the noble Lord was here overpowered by emotion, and paused: in a few seconds he proceeded)—

> Whose genius dimmed all other men's as far
> As does the midday sun the midnight star.

But, though scaling these lofty heights be hopeless, yet is there some use and much gratification in contemplating by what steps he ascended. Tracing his course of action may help others to gain the lower eminences lying within their reach; while admiration excited and curiosity satisfied are frames of mind both wholesome and pleasing. Nothing new, it is true, can be given in narrative; hardly anything in reflection; less still, perhaps, in comment or illustration; but it is well to assemble in one view various parts of the vast subject, with the surrounding circumstances, whether accidental or intrinsic, and to mark in passing the misconception raised by individual ignorance or national prejudice which the historian of science occasionally finds crossing his path. The remark is common and is obvious, that the genius of Newton did not manifest itself at a very early age; his faculties were not, like those of some great and many ordinary individuals, precociously developed. His earliest history is involved in some obscurity; and the most celebrated of men has, in this particular, been compared to the most celebrated of rivers, the Nile—as if the course of both in its feebler state had been concealed from mortal eyes. We have it, however, well ascertained that within four years—between the age of eighteen and twenty-two—he had begun to study mathematical science, and had taken his place amongst its greatest masters, learnt for the first time the elements of geometry and analysis, and discovered calculus which entirely changed the face of the science, effecting a revolution in that and in every branch of philosophy connected with it. Before 1661 he had not read Euclid; in 1665 he had committed to writing the method of fluxions. At twenty-five years of age he had discovered the law of gravitation, and laid the foundation of celestial dynamics, the science created by him. Before ten years had elapsed he added to his discoveries that of the fundamental properties of of light. So brilliant a course of discovery, in so short a time—changing and reconstructing analytical, astronomical, and optical science—almost defies belief. The statement could only be deemed possible by an appeal to the incontestable evidence that proves it strictly true. By a rare felicity these doctrines gained the universal assent of mankind as soon as they were clearly understood, and their originality has never been seriously called in question. The limited nature of man's faculties precludes the possibility of... ever reaching at once the utmost excellence of which they are capable. Survey the whole circle of the sciences, and trace the history of our own progress in each—you find this to be the universal rule. Nor is this great law of gradual progress confined to the physical sciences; in the moral it equally governs. Again, in constitutional policy, see by what slow degrees, from its first rude elements—the attendance of feudal tenants at their lords' courts, and the summons of burghers to grant supplies of money—the great discovery of modern times in the science of practical politics has been effected, the representative scheme,

which enables States of any extent to enjoy popular government, and allows mixed monarchy to be established, combining freedom with order—a plan pronounced by the statesmen and writers of antiquity to be of hardly possible formation, and wholly impossible continuance. The globe itself, as well as the science of its inhabitants, has been explored according to the law which forbids a sudden and rapid leaping forward, and decrees that each successive step, prepared by the last, shall facilitate the next. Even Columbus followed several successive discoverers on a small scale; and is by some believed to have had, unknown to him, a predecessor in the great exploit by which he pierced the night of ages, and unfolded a new world to the eyes of the old. The arts afford no exception to the general law. Demosthenes had eminent forerunners, Pericles the last. The art of war itself is no exception to the rule. The plan of bringing an overpowering force to bear on a given point had been tried occasionally before Frederick II, reduced it to a system: and the Wellingtons and Napoleons, of our own day, made it the foundation of their strategy, as it had also been previously the mainspring of our naval tactics. So the inventive powers of Watt—preceded as he was by Worcester and Newcomen, but, far more materially by Solomon de Caus and Papin—had been exercised on some admirable contrivances, now forgotten, before he made the step which created the steam-engine anew; not only the parallel motion, possibly a corollary to the proposition on circular motion in the "Principia," but the separate condensation, and, above all, the governor—perhaps the most exquisite of mechanical inventions; and now we have those here present who apply the like principle to the diffusion of knowledge, aware, as they must be, that its expansion has the same happy effect naturally of preventing mischief from its excess which the skill of the great mechanist gave artificially to steam, thus rendering his engine as safe as it is powerful (A burst of applause). The grand difference, then, between one discovery or invention and another is in degree rather than in kind, the degree in which a person, while he outstrips those whom he comes after, also lives, as it were, before his age. Nor can any doubt exist that in this respect Newton stands at the head of all who have extended the bounds of knowledge (Cheers). The most marvellous attribute of Newton's discoveries is that in which they stand out prominent among all the other feats of scientific research, stamped with the peculiarity of his intellectual character. He not only enlarged the actual dominion of knowledge, penetrating to regions never before explored, and taking with a firm hand undisputed possession, but he showed how the bounds of the visible horizon might be yet further extended, and enabled his successors to occupy what he could only descry; as the illustrious discoverer of the New World made the inhabitants of the Old cast their eyes over lands and seas far distant from those he had traversed—lands and seas of which they could form to themselves no conception, any more than they had been able to comprehend the course by which he led them on his grand enterprise. In this achievement, and in the qualities which alone made it possible—inexhaustible fertility of resources, patience unsubdued, close meditation that could suffer no distraction, steady determination to pursue paths, that seemed all but hopeless, and unflinching courage to declare the truths they led to, how far soever removed from ordinary apprehension—in these characteristics of high and original genius we may be permitted to compare the career of those great men. But Columbus did not invent the mariner's compass, as Newton did the instrument which guided his course and enabled him to make, and his successor to extend, his discoveries by closely following his directions in using it Nor did the compass suffice to the great navigator without any observations, though he dared to steer without a chart: while it is certain that, by the philosopher's instrument, his discoveries are extended over the whole system of the universe, determining the masses, the forms, and the motions of all its parts, through the mere inspection of abstract calculations and formulas analytically deduced. New observations have been accumulated with glasses far exceeding any powers possessed by the resources of optics in the days of him to whom the science of optics, as well as dynamics, owes its origin—the theory and the fact have thus been compared and reconciled together in more perfect harmony; but that theory has remained unimproved, and the great principle of gravitation, with most sublime results, now stands in the attitude, and of the dimensions, and with the symmetry which both the law and its application received at once from the mighty hand of its immortal author (Loud applause). But the contemplation of Newton's discoveries raised other feelings than wonder at his matchless genius The light with which it shines is not more dazzling than useful. The difficulties of his course, and his expedients, alike copious and refined, for surmounting them, exercise the faculties of the wise while commanding their admiration; but the results of his investigations, often abstruse, are truths so grand and comprehensive, yet so plain, that they both captivate and instruct the simple. The gratitude, too, which they inspire, and the veneration with which they encircle his name, far from tending to obstruct future improvement only proclaim his disciples the zealous because rational followers of one whose example both encouraged and enabled his successors to make further progress. How unlike the blind devotion to a master which for so many ages of the modern world paralysed the energies of the human mind!

> Had we still paid that homage to a name
> Which only God and nature justly claim,
> The Western Seas had been our utmost bound,
> And poets still might dream the sun was drowned,
> And all the stars that shine in southern skies
> Had been admired by none but savage eyes

Nor let it be imagined that the feelings excited by contemplating the achievements of this great man are in any degree whatever the result of national partiality, and confined to the country which glories in having given him birth. The language which expresses her veneration is equalled, perhaps exceeded, by that in which other nations give utterance to theirs, not merely by the general voice, but by the well-considered and well-informed judgment of the masters of science. Leibnitz, when asked at the Royal table in Berlin his opinion of Newton, said that, "taking mathematics from the beginning of the world to the time when Newton lived, what he had done was much the better half" "The 'Principia' will ever remain a monument of the profound genius which revealed to us the greatest law of the universe" are the words of La Place. "That work stands pre-eminent above all other productions of the human mind." "The discovery of that simple and general law by the greatness and variety of the objects which it embraces confers honour upon the intellect of man." Lagrange, we are told by Delambre, was wont to describe Newton as the greatest genius that ever existed, but to add how fortunate he was also, "because there can only once be found a system of the universe to establish." "Never," says the father of the Institute of France, one filling a huge place among the most eminent of members—"never," says M. Biot, "was the supremacy of intellect so justly established and so fully confessed; in mathematical and in experimental science without an equal, and without an example, combining the genius for both in its highest degree" The "Principia" he terms "the greatest work ever produced by the mind of man" adding, in the words of Halley, that a nearer approach to the Divine nature has not been permitted to mortals. In first giving to the world Newton's "Method of Fluxions," says Fontenelle, "Leibnitz did like Prometheus—he stole fire from heaven to bestow it upon men." "Does Newton," L'Hopital asked, "sleep and wake like other men? I figure him to myself as a celestial genius, entirely disengaged from matter" To so renowned a benefactor to the world, thus exalted to the loftiest place by the common consent of all men—one whose life, without the intermission of an hour, was passed in the search after truths the most important, and at whose hands the human race had only received good, never evil—no memorial has been raised by those nations which erected statues to tyrants and conquerors, the scourges of mankind, whose lives were passed, not in the pursuit of truth, but the practice of falsehood—across whose lips, if truth ever chanced to stray towards some selfish end, it surely failed to obtain belief—who, to slake their insane thirst of power or of pre-eminence, trampled on all the rights and squandered the blood of their fellow-creatures; whose course, like lightning, blasted while it dazzled; and who, reversing the Roman emperor's noble regret, deemed the day lost that saw the sun go down upon their forbearance, no victim deceived, betrayed, or oppressed. That the worshippers of such pestilent genius should consecrate no outward symbol of the admiration they freely confessed to the memory of the most illustrious of men is not matter of wonder; but that his own countrymen, justly proud of having lived in his time, should have left this duty to their successor, after a century and a half of professed veneration and lip homage, may well be deemed strange. The inscription upon the cathedral, the master-piece of his celebrated friend's architecture, may possibly be applied in defence of this neglect:—"If you seek for a monument, look around" If you seek for a monument, lift up your eyes to the heavens, which shew forth his fame. Nor, when we recollect the Greek orator's exclamation, that the whole earth is the monument of illustrious men, can we stop short of declaring that the universe itself is Newton's? Yet, in raising the statue which preserves his likeness, near the place of his birth, and on the spot where his prodigious faculties were unfolded and trained, we at once gratify our honest pride as citizens of the same State, and humbly testify our grateful sense of the Divine goodness which deigned to bestow upon our race one so marvellously gifted to comprehend the works of infinite wisdom, and to make all his study of them the source of religious contemplation, both philosophical and sublime (Enthusiastic applause)."

—We subjoin the following particulars respecting the four comets which are now engaging the attention of astronomers:—

Donati's Comet—Some very fine views have been obtained of the comet since the beginning of October, both telescopic and otherwise: and several remarkable changes have taken place in the appearance of the head and nucleus during this interval. As far as we are aware the comet has not yet been seen during full sunshine; and, although the nucleus has been very bright, the light has hitherto been too little concentrated to be visible when so near the sun. Since October 8 or 9, the comet has been perceptibly waning in lustre: and although it still preserves nearly the same dimensions as formerly, yet its increasing distance from the sun has already commenced to tell on its brightness. From this circumstance, as well as from its approaching nearer to the horizon on each successive evening, we may abandon all hope of its visibility in the daytime, although many less remarkable and less imposing comets have thus been seen. On the night of October 2, a nebulosity was seen in the tail of the comet at the Observatory in Rome, which was duly published in the bulletin of the Paris Observatory, and considered as the probable repetition of the phenomenon of Biela's comet, which occurred in 1845, when, as is well known, that body fell into two portions, which have since remained divorced. It was quickly found, however, that this phenomenon was altogether due to the tail of the comet passing over the splendid cluster of stars, the third in the catalogue of Messier, an object second only to the

great cluster of Hercules in our latitudes. The publication of this telegraphic despatch, it has since appeared, was due to the absence of M. Secchi, the astronomer at Rome (but who is now at Berlin), and the simultaneous absence of M. Leverrier, from the Paris Observatory. Doubtless many such phenomena might have been noticed as the comet passed directly through the great nebulous region of Coma Berenices. It would seem that this comet is longer and larger, if not as bright as the famous one of 1811 (at least as seen in the British Islands); th greatest length of the latter appears not to have exceeded 25°, whilst the present one has exceeded 30°. From the observations which have hitherto been made it would seem that this comet will return in 2100 years' time; but with comets of long period, and with the observations not yet fully discussed, calculators cannot be certain to a few centuries. After October 27, the comet will altogether disappear from our latitudes, and will probably not be seen for some days before this date. The positions of the comet between October 16 and October 27, are as follows:—

	Right Ascension.	Declination, South.
October 16	243° 13'	15° 24'
" 19	249° 57'	23° 11'
" 22	255° 41'	29° 12'
" 25	260° 32'	33° 47'
" 27	263° 22'	36° 14'

Drawings and descriptions of the changes which have taken place in the comet will appear in the *Illustrated London News* of next week.

Encke's Comet.—This highly-interesting but small faint object is now a well-recognised member of our system, and its motions are far better known than those of many of the recently-discovered planets. On the 12th instant it entered the 12th hour of right ascension at 3d. 10m. of north declination. It rose that morning at 4h. 11m. a.m., in the due east point of the horizon. The following morning it passed close to the star Eta in the constellation Virgo, and thence continued its course in the direction of the bright star Spica. Its period of revolution occupies only three years and four months.

Faye's Comet.—This is a still smaller and miserably faint patch of light, which, however, revolves about the sun in a period of seven years and a half. On the 1st. inst., it was situated a little to the south-west of the star Gamma, in the constellation Gemini. It moves slowly along in the heavens towards Canis Minor, and will reach the bright star Procyon about the middle of November.

Tuttle's Comet.—On the 5th ultimo, M. Horace Tuttle, a young astronomer attached to the Observatory of Harvard College, Cambridge, United States, discovered a small telescopic comet near the star Ca la, which has since moved across the constellation Perseus, and will attain its greatest brightness to-morrow (the 17th inst.) It is not, however, likely to be at all discernible without telescopic aid. This is the seventh comet which has visited our system during the present year.—*Illustrated London News.*

Statement of monies paid by the Department of Education for Canada East, between the 1st January to 30 September, 1858.

Amount paid from 1st January to 31st July 1858, as per statement published in Journal No. 8, 1858 ..... $208,118:70

Paid from 1st August to 30 September 1858, viz:

On account of grant to common schools	$ 12,978:33
" " for Superior Education	100:00
" " Normal Schools	2,759:90
" " Journals of Education	487:00
" " Office contingencies	450:35
" " Pensions to superannuated teachers	000:00
" " Books for library	55:15
" " Books for prizes	112:00
" " Salaries of School Inspectors	250:00
" " Poor Municipalities	000.00
	$225,311:43

ADVERTISEMENTS.

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