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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

	PAGE
I. EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND	81
II. COMMISSION TO INQUIRE INTO THE CONDITION OF THE GREAT ENGLISH PUBLIC SCHOOLS	84
III. PAPERS ON PRACTICAL EDUCATION—(1) Maxims for Teachers. (2) Self-Control in a Teacher. (3) English Examination Paper on School Management. (4) Examination Questions in Domestic Economy. (5) Necessity for the Slate and Blackboard. (6) Education of the Street. (7) Manners and Morals at School. (8) Geography out of Doors. (9) Geographical Formula. (10) The True Educational Doctrine. (11) The Way the English bring up Children. (12) Character is Power	84
IV. EDITORIAL—Apportionment of the Legislative School Grant for Upper Canada, for the Year 1861	88
V. QUEEN'S BENCH HILARY TERM	91
VI. TEXT BOOKS IN OUR SCHOOLS	92
VII. BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES—No. 14. Count Cavour	92
VIII. PAPERS ON NATURAL HISTORY—(1) Shooting Singing Birds. (2) Longevity of Animals	93
IX. MISCELLANEOUS—(1) My Darling's Shoes. (2) The Laws of Cricket, as Revised by the Mary-le-bone Cricket Club	94
X. EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE—(1) Annual Convocation of the University of Toronto. (2) Annual Convocation of the University of Victoria College. (3) Examination of the Model Schools in Toronto. (4) Trinity College Volunteer Rifle Corps	95
XI. ADVERTISEMENTS	96

EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND.

In connection with the article on Popular Education in England, which we inserted in the last number of this Journal, we now insert several extracts from a paper in the *North British Review* for May, on Education in Scotland.

“The earliest schools established in Scotland were the burgh schools. Of these, a considerable number are known to have been in existence in the 15th century, although their early history can hardly be traced. ‘Long before the Reformation, all the principal towns had grammar-schools, in which the Latin language was taught. They had also “lecture schools,” as they were called, in which children were instructed to read the vernacular language. Among these, we find a grammar school in Glasgow in the 15th century, and the High School of Edinburgh in operation very early in the 16th century. The earliest Scottish legislation on the subject of education appears in an Act of James the Fourth (1494, c. 54), which is so brief, and affords so interesting a glimpse into the condition of Scotland only fifteen years after the invention of printing, that it may be worth while to quote it.

“‘Item, It is statute and ordained through all the Realme that all Barronnes and Freeholders that are of substance put their eldest sonnes and aires to the schules fra they be sex or nine zeires of age, and till remain at the Grammar Schules quhill they be competentlie founded and have perfect *Latine*. And thereafter to remaine three zeires at the schules of art and jure, swa that they may have knowledge and understanding of the Lawes: throw the quhilks justice may remaine universally throw

all the Realme: Swa that they that are Schireffes or Judges Ordinares under the King's Hienesse may have knowledge to doe justice, that the puir people sulde have no neede to seeke our Sovereine Lordis principal Auditor for ilk small injurie: And quhat Barronne or Freeholder of substance that haldis not his son at the schules as said is, havand na laichful essoinzie, but failzie herein, fra knowledge may be gotten thereof, he sall pay to the King the summe of twentie pound.’

“It was the Reformation that gave birth to popular education in Scotland; and the debt which is due to Knox, on account of his labours on this behalf, can hardly be overstated. The comprehensive scheme of education, embraced in the First Book of Discipline, included a proposal ‘that every several kirk have one schoolmaster appointed;’ and ‘that in every notable town there should be erected a college, in which the arts, at least Logic and Rhetoric, together with the tongues, be read by sufficient masters;’—an extent of provision for the educational wants of the community which has not been yet attained. We do not know any way in which the several Reformed Churches of Scotland, which have lately been celebrating the Tri-centenary of the Reformation, might more worthily combine in practically carrying out the work of the Reformers, than in endeavouring to secure an educational provision such as they contemplated, adapted to the present state of the country.

“The parochial schools, like the burgh schools, did not owe their origin to any legislative enactments. They were in many instances established, through the unceasing efforts of the Reformed clergy, by the parishioners, under a system of voluntary or ecclesiastical assessment. From the Record of the northern part of the diocese of St. Andrews, containing a report of a visitation of parishes in the years 1611 and 1613, it appears that the parishes which had schools were double in number to those which had them not. The earliest legal provision for parish schools appears in an Act of the Privy Council, following upon a letter from the King, and dated 10th December, 1616. It directs that a school be established in every parish where the means of maintaining one existed, with a view to the instruction of all the youth, and especially to the expulsion of the Irish language, one of the principal causes of ‘barbaritie and incivilitie.’ This Act of Council was ratified by Parliament A.D. 1633; and power given to the Bishop, and heritors, and parishioners, to assess the parish for the support of the schools.

"More explicit provisions were made for the establishment of parish schools by one of the Acts passed during the Commonwealth (1646, c. 46), which, although rescinded at the Restoration, was, together with many other beneficial Acts, re-enacted almost *verbatim* after the Restoration, in the statute 1696, c. 26—the foundation of our present system. The amount of stipend specified by this Act is 'not less than one hundred merks (£5, 11s. 1½. sterling), nor above two hundred merks.'

The records of the Church show how much it was concerned in the establishment of schools, and how great were the opposing obstacles, even after legislative sanction had been obtained. It would be out of place here to give the details. Among other things we find it enacted by the General Assembly in 1705—'*That the poor be taught upon charity, and that none be suffered to neglect the teaching of their children to read.*' In 1706, electors are recommended to prefer as teachers '*men who have passed their course at colleges or universities and taken their degrees.*' In 1802, a strong representation is made that the gains of parochial teachers are not equal to those of a day labourer, and that the whole order is sinking into a state of depression. This was happily followed by the passing of the act of Parliament in 1803 (43 Geo. III., c. 54), which still mainly regulates the appointment and removal, the duties and the emoluments, of parochial schoolmasters.

"By this Act, the heritors and minister of every landward (or partly burghal and partly landward) parish are constituted a Parliamentary Board for its administration; *heritors* being those only who have lands within the parish of not less than £100 Scots valued rent. In this respect the Act differs from that of 1696, which was interpreted as giving the right of appointment to the whole heritors of the parish paying cess, with the minister. The Presbytery have an exclusive and final jurisdiction in matters of neglect of duty, or criminality,—the grounds of removal being specified in the Act; and every schoolmaster-elect must, as the condition of office, sign the Confession of Faith, and Formula of the Church of Scotland, and undergo an examination as to literature and character, and be approved of by the presbytery; to whom also, and specially to the minister of the parish, is committed the superintendence of the school. The salary provided by this Act for the schoolmaster, in addition to a small dwelling-house, is 'not less than 300, nor more than 400 merks Scots.' This has yielded, for the period from 1828 to 1853, a *maximum* of £34 4s. 4d., and a *minimum* of £25 13s. 4d. sterling.

"A lower average of prices having lately come into operation, the *maximum* legal salary is now reduced to £27 11s. 9d., and the *minimum*, £20 13s. 10d. So inadequate has this provision been regarded, that, in a large proportion of parishes, the *old maximum* salary, or a salary above the present legal *maximum*, has been granted. From a return obtained in December, 1859, it would appear, that, at that date, in 400 parishes, no meetings had been held to fix the salaries under the Act of 1857. In some parishes, the legal *minimum* only, that is, a salary of £20, had been allowed!

"We now call special attention to the remarkable contrast between the parish schools and the burgh schools. The former, since they were finally settled under the Act passed in the beginning of this century, have been, both in respect of their administration and the emoluments of the teachers, too rigidly fixed; the latter have been progressive. The parish schools, although endowed, have been also fettered; the burgh schools, under the administration of the magistrates and councils, while generally dependent for their endowments upon the liberality of the municipalities, and in many instances insufficiently maintained, have been practically unfettered, and have thus freely become adapted to the local necessities. In the larger and wealthier burghs, the original schools have thus expanded into Institutions fitted to take the place of gymnasia, or intermediate schools, not yet otherwise provided in Scotland, and affording such education in the higher branches of study as adequately to prepare their pupils for the universities; in a few instances, they have acquired a distinguished reputation.

"Such expansion or development is unknown in the parochial schools; although, in many cases, the parochial teachers have made great efforts to supply the defect; and, besides furnishing the elementary instruction, have also provided the only teaching locally attainable in classics and mathematics, by which a very large proportion of the students could make even the present ordinary, though insufficient, preparation for entering upon a university curriculum. By those who have seriously considered in how great a degree the elevation of the middle classes in Scotland has been due to the university culture, thus brought within their reach, these services, and those of the burgh schools, are not likely to be undervalued. Now, what is the remuneration of these teachers? In his interesting Report for the year 1858, Mr. Gordon, the Inspector for the South-western District, has given an estimate of the total emoluments of the parish schoolmasters within his district, which contains the counties of Renfrew, Lanark, Ayr, Dumfries,

Wigtown, and Kirkcudbright, and may be reckoned probably as among the best provided in this respect. Including the allowances by parochial boards, kirk sessions, and private individuals for the education of the children of the poor, and also including mortifications, he concludes that 'the average income of a parish schoolmaster in this district (not including the value of the dwelling-house) is £70; consisting of £27 salary, and £43 from school fees.' With reference to Scotland generally, this must be considered much above the average. On the other hand, in the northern counties of Aberdeen, Banff, and Moray, the position of many of the parochial schoolmasters has been greatly benefited by allowances from the Dick Bequest, through a distribution of that fund conceived with great judgment, and executed with great fidelity and success. By means of an annual expenditure never rising above £5000, and often falling far below that sum, the parochial schools in these counties have been materially elevated. The number of parishes containing schools admissible to the bequest is 124, and the population in 1851 was about 250,000. The bequest came into operation in 1833, and the first Report regarding it was issued in 1835. The Report from which we quote, prepared with much ability by the late Professor Allan Menzies, was issued in 1854. During that interval the yearly worth of the office of parish schoolmaster 'had risen from £55 12s. 5d. to £101 1s. 7d., including in the latter sum the allowance from this bequest. £20 additional is enjoyed by the Aberdeenshire schoolmasters in receipt of the Milne Bequest. At the same time, their domestic comfort and respectability has advanced; the dwelling-house, which in 1833 consisted of three apartments only, having been enlarged to five by the liberality of the heritors.' At the end of that period of twenty years, there were thirty more pupils, upon an average, enrolled annually in every parish school than at the beginning. 'The elevation of the literary character of the school pervades every part of the instruction; and the large numbers who now receive a knowledge of English grammar and geography, as well as the increase in the study of mathematics, Latin, and Greek, give unequivocal testimony to steady upward progress, and the rising standard of attainment among a widening circle of the people.' It is highly encouraging and instructive to learn, that so small a sum as £5000 annually, *well spent*, in aid of parish schools, will materially benefit a population of not less than a *quarter of a million*. Before leaving this Report, which contains much interesting matter relating to the state of education in these counties, attention must be called to the statement, that, after a careful inquiry, '*forty-nine of the parishes within the district are reported as containing no person between the ages of eight and twenty years unable to read; and thirty-eight parishes as containing none within these ages unable to write.*'

"We have said something as to the emoluments of parish schoolmasters in the best provided districts; were we to travel to the Highlands, we should find many of them in a state not far removed from pauperism. Many of them have incomes not exceeding £40 a year. That their emoluments, on the whole, are utterly inadequate, no man can question; and it may be assumed that, in order to raise the quality of the teaching, the pecuniary position of the schoolmasters must be improved. What might have been anticipated under the ordinary laws which regulate industry, is also stated to be the fact. Mr. Gordon writes:—'There is a proportion observed to exist, in general, between the income of a master, and his efficiency in the duties of his school; but this proportion is apt to be disturbed when he is encumbered with several of the adjunct offices now mentioned, and with one of them in particular.' The offices here alluded to are those of session clerk, heritors' clerk, parish registrar, and inspector of the poor; the last 'often laborious and lucrative, and always ill according with the proper occupation of a schoolmaster.'

"Next, *in number*, the parochial schools have long been felt to be quite insufficient for the public necessities. Their number is about 980; and we have seen that so early as 1704 the General Assembly began to take steps for the establishment of schools in the Highlands by means of general subscriptions. The efforts then begun seem never to have been entirely discontinued; and they have resulted in the establishment, as appears from the last report, of not fewer than 189 schools. Then there are sessional schools, some of them of considerable antiquity and importance; the number aided by the Privy Council being 66. The schools established by the Christian Knowledge Society seem to be about 150. To these, perhaps, should be added about 78 schools, established by the United Presbyterian Churches, and receiving no public aid; also the very large number of private and adventure schools and academies, carried on by individuals or societies both in town and country districts, but chiefly in the former.

"The schools already named as additional to the public schools, may be regarded as auxiliary or allied; a considerable proportion, at least, of those we have now to notice must be deemed rival. When the disruption of the Church of Scotland took place in 1843,

it was not unnatural that, actuated by a deep conviction that they were the representatives of the past tendencies, objects, and traditions of the Presbyterian Church, those who left the Establishment should endeavour to realize, in their new capacity, the old connection of church and school. The execution of this plan would probably have been postponed until more pressing claims had been provided for, had not several of the parochial schoolmasters been unfortunately removed from their office, in consequence of their adherence to the Free Church. This gave rise to the establishment of a separate system of schools over Scotland, not determined by the educational destitution of the localities, but by the religious views of a section of the inhabitants. These schools had thus their origin in the old connection between the public schools and the Church. They now amount in number to 619, besides two normal schools; and the scholars attending them to more than 62,000. The large proportion of these schools receiving aid from the Privy Council—viz., 405, besides the normal schools—testifies to their general efficiency. The scholars are usually drawn from all denominations, especially in towns, where, except in name and management, the schools hardly preserve a denominational character. Indeed, it is certain that eighteen years' experience has considerably modified the views prevalent in the Free Church as to the constitutional connection of the church and school; and were the subject to be now considered from the beginning, the practical result would, in all likelihood, be materially different.

"We must here say a few words about the Privy Council system in its relation to Scotland. This can be done without any general impeachment, for it was not originally designed for Scotland, but for England. When it was established, popular education in England was afforded chiefly by benevolent societies, having an ecclesiastical or religious organization. There were no national schools; and as it was not contemplated or deemed practicable to establish them, but only by means of regulated aid to elevate and extend the existing institutions, the system was probably well adapted to that purpose, and, it must be said, has done very much to improve the quality of popular education. The Report of the Commission affords satisfactory proof of this. In Scotland it was far otherwise. There the system came into contact with an established organization of public schools, which, in many respects, it has affected injuriously. Its tendency is to dissociate them from the Universities. It has improved the mechanical part of teaching, but is introducing a lower class of teachers; less cultivated, and of inferior education, as compared with those who, in the best districts, occupy the parochial schools. Of these a large proportion have studied, during several years, at one of the Universities; in the counties to which the Dick Bequest extends, one hundred of the schoolmasters are graduates in Arts. This injury, or incongruity, seems acknowledged by Sir J. K. Shuttleworth himself, who proposes to meet these cases by establishing University bursaries in favour of some of the students of the training colleges. But not only are the pupils, thus expensively and laboriously trained in the technical part of teaching, comparatively uncultivated and immature; they are also in many instances defective in scholarship, to such a degree as to disqualify them for discharging efficiently the duties of parochial schoolmasters; and yet their special training tends to favour their appointment.

"Then, more obviously, by giving aid to rival schools, this system injures the parochial school. And here the *wastefulness* of the system comes out prominently. In some cases it grants subsidies to two or three schools in the same locality, where one school would do the work better; for schools are not improved, but rather made worse, by the reduction of the number of pupils below a certain standard.* And this wastefulness occurs at a time when its formidable expense is limiting the efforts for popular education. It is the case of a father keeping up two establishments, while his children are crying for bread. We want aid for Gymnasias, or higher schools; we want aid for Ragged Schools; and meantime not only the public exchequer, but the public bounty, is drained of the means so much required. And the poorest classes are not reached by this system. The evidence on this point is uniform and conclusive; and it seems doubtful whether, even with the considerable amendments proposed by the Commissioners, the present system can be made available to the poorest. The amount stated in the estimates for the present year, just issued, is £803,794, showing an increase on the preceding year of £5627. The total amount of this sum appropriated to Scotland is £87,664.† For England and Wales the capitation grant

* Dr. Guthrie said, the denominational schools introduced a system of ruinous rivalry. He had been visiting a place in the Highlands, where they had three schools close together; he proposed that they should teach day about, and let two of the teachers go to the fishing, or where they liked.—*Transactions*, etc., p. 423.

† Expenditure from Education Grants, classified according to denomination of recipients, so far as these relate to Scotland (*Estimates for 1861-62*):—

On schools connected with Established Church	£44,376 11 9
Free Church	36,650 8 0
Episcopal Church	4,436 7 5½
Roman Catholic	2,202 13 6½

The number of schools thus aided appears (so far as we can collect them from the

amounts to £77,000; and, taking the estimated populations as a measure of proportion, this grant, if extended to Scotland, would add about £11,000 to the sum already stated,—giving a total of very little less than £100,000. If, as we have seen, £5,000 well spent has materially elevated the education in the northern counties, representing a population of a quarter of a million, what advantage may be anticipated from £100,000, as well spent, over the whole of Scotland?

"Now, it is of the utmost importance to find that, by those who attend the schools, the denominational element, as among Protestants, is scarcely regarded at all. The Report of the Commission as to England, founded on a very careful inquiry, is on this point quite decided; and also shows that, except where combined with Church attendance, the schools have no appreciable proselytising influence. As to Scotland, the reports of some of the inspectors are to the like effect. If there be difficulty, it does not come from the parents of the children, but from the managers of the schools, who attach importance to differences to which the parents do not give weight, where *good teaching* is the thing required. The condition of the burgh schools, already stated, shows that no ecclesiastical control is necessary, either to secure religious instruction or efficient general teaching. The reports of presbyteries to the General Assembly for last year, where the question of religious teaching is specially inquired into, mention *no instance of the neglect of religious teaching*, so far as we observe, although they embrace 1741 non-parochial schools, of which 51 are burgh schools, and 371 adventure schools. The answer under this head is uniform, 'None neglect religious instruction.' It may therefore be regarded as certain, that no system of elementary education could be maintained in Scotland in which religious instruction, conducted substantially as at present, did not form a part.

"Former attempts to put the parish schools on a more national basis have failed; and we believe all such attempts will fail until the pressing necessity is better recognized. In the words of the Lord Advocate, at the meeting of the Social Science Association in Glasgow—'Of all the difficulties which stand in the way of a national system of education, one of the most conspicuous and important is the want of due appreciation on the part of the public of the real importance of the question.'

The general tone of the papers read and of the discussions at that meeting, seems to show that some progress has been made towards agreement. As respects the parish schools, the practical difficulties are not great, the changes requisite not being fundamental. The appointment of the teacher might remain with the heritors, —the interpretation of the word being extended to its original meaning, and embracing all those whose names are on the valuation roll as proprietors, or at least within some very moderate limits.*

"We have now nearly completed our task; very inadequately, but at least with a desire to do justice. The immediate obstruction we find to be the tests. The objections on the part of a large proportion of the community to any religious teaching by Act of Parliament, would be obviated, it is believed, by some such arrangement as has been proposed: the opposition to all public aid of education is, in Scotland, too exceptional to be important.

"The most serious opposition comes at present from the Churches, or from those acting in their interest. Meanwhile, another generation is growing up with most inadequate means of education. It is true they do not use sufficiently the means they have, children being so early withdrawn from school; but is not that a reason why the quality should be as good as possible? The argument used for the tests, and also against any school organization not ecclesiastical—that there will be no security otherwise for religious teaching—is not always used honestly; and it implies distrust both of the Churches and people of Scotland.† From its felt importance, and from confirmed habit, a religious education has become a recognized necessity. Religious wants have greatly promoted education; more than any other cause, in its beginning, the desire to read the Bible in the vernacular; whose influence has, indeed, been pre-eminent—first impelling to the study of letters, then providing a literature so sublime and various, that they who have pondered that solitary Book can never be an uneducated people. The nation, having now 'attained its majority,' may naturally refuse to continue longer under subjection in the matter of education."

enumeration in the last Report for 1859-60) to be:—Parochial, 256; General Assembly, 205; Others—Established Church, 68; Free Church, 405; Episcopalian, 77; Roman Catholic, 28,—amounting, exclusive of the Roman Catholic schools, to 1011 schools. The expense of the Establishment in connection with this system amounts to £65,205, 17s., of which there is charged under the head of *Inspection*, £43,164, 17s. 3d.

* Principal Tulloch—'There are few intelligent Churchmen, I fancy, who would be disposed to contend for the exclusive connection of the parish teacher with the Established Church, so long as his appointment is left in the hands of the present electors.'—*Transactions*, p. 345.

† Mr. Murray Dunlop said: 'Tests were of no practical value; for while they kept back the conscientious, they were no barrier to the unprincipled. At the same time, he dissented from that part of Mr. Fraser's paper in which it was stated, that if the tests were removed, without any other safeguard being adopted, the religious teaching of the country would be endangered.'—*Transactions*, etc., p. 422.

II. COMMISSION TO INQUIRE INTO THE CONDITION OF THE GREAT ENGLISH PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Mr. Grant Duff gave notice that on Tuesday, April 23rd, he would move an address praying her Majesty to issue her Royal Commission to inquire into the state, discipline, and revenues of the colleges of Eton, Winchester, and Westminster, as well as all the endowed schools of England and Wales in which the Latin or Greek languages are taught, with a view to ascertain whether the great resources of these institutions may not be made more serviceable to education and learning.

With reference to this Commission, the *Daily News* makes the following remarks:—"The probable intention of Mr. Duff is to ascertain the condition of the great public schools, such as Eton, Westminster, Winchester, the Charterhouse, and of the numerous other endowed grammar schools—to investigate the precise amount of educational work they are doing, and to devise means for the purpose of extending and utilising to the utmost these valuable endowments. It should be remembered that the income of the grammar schools in England and Wales amounted some thirty years ago to a sum of £152,047, which has now been greatly increased.

These schools are distributed throughout the different counties and cities, and therefore everybody is more or less interested in the administration of this large fund, and in deriving from it all possible advantages. Hitherto the grammar schools have escaped that spirit of inquiry which has penetrated into all other educational institutions. Years ago the Scottish universities were inquired into and reformed—later the same fate befel the English universities, and we are told that in the course of the present month the Education Commissioners will publish their report, which will no doubt embrace the endowments appropriated to popular education.

"If there were reason to suppose that at present the grammar schools did their duty, the inquiry proposed by Mr. Grant Duff might seem superfluous. But the contrary appears to be the fact. Of all the public schools, there is none more eminent than Eton; the number of boys now being educated there exceeds eight hundred. These are the youths who will some day not only fill seats in parliament, but become our judges, our bishops, our generals, and our admirals. It might seem tolerably certain that the parents of such boys would insist upon their sons receiving an education worthy of the place, and commensurate with the sum expended in procuring it. But, according to the opinion of Sir John Coleridge, one of the most illustrious of Eton men, and of others who are well acquainted with the system, it is far from being so efficient as it ought to be. Again, only a few months ago, a meeting took place of Westminster men for the purpose of considering what could be done to revive that decaying institution. Nor would it be difficult to mention other great schools, which, from some reason or other, present a melancholy contrast to their former magnificence. But, besides these great schools, there are hundreds of other endowed schools throughout the country, which at present are comparatively useless. The master is either totally incompetent and practically irremovable, or the free scholars are of such a character that they cannot take advantage of the classical education furnished. In fact, the whole system of free education as applied to the higher branches of knowledge, demands the most thorough investigation; for at present it is certainly the opinion of many that such a system is mere waste and extravagance.

"These reasons would probably suffice to show the necessity of such a commission as that which is proposed. But there are others even more cogent. The changes in the mode of appointment to places in the public service and to emoluments in the Universities have rendered it more than ever necessary to place education within the reach of every citizen. It is quite true that, although appointments to India, to the army, to the civil service, to scholarships and fellowships, are thrown open to general competition, all lads will not have an equal chance of sharing in the prizes unless the means of education are placed within the reach of all. Under any circumstances the interest of the state is to obtain the man who will best fulfil the duties imposed upon him, and experience has shown that such a man is best secured by open competition. It is, of course, impossible to prevent men of wealth from giving their sons the advantage of a good tutor. But it becomes the duty of the state to see that the aids provided by the liberality of individual benefactors for those who have not the means of paying for these advantages should be turned to the best possible use. For this purpose, the first step should be to open the foundations of the public schools to general competition. It is quite true that at Eton and Winchester this has been tried with the most eminent success. Since this change at Eton it has been remarked that the collegers or foundation boys show themselves very superior to the rest of the school, although in old times it was far otherwise. But if this alteration has succeeded so thoroughly at Eton, why should not the same be done at Charterhouse? At that school it is notorious that a place upon the foundation is in fact the right to a gratuitous

education, and, even after the boy goes to the university, he continues to derive very considerable emoluments. At present, the various boys are appointed by patronage, and the question which well deserves the consideration of a Royal Commission is—whether the mode of electing scholars at Charterhouse might not be assimilated to that practised at Winchester and elsewhere. Then there is the case of Merchant Taylors' School, where the boys are appointed by the members of the company. This school is especially connected with St. John's College, Oxford—a society which has earned a discreditable notoriety by being the only one in the University to resist the ordinance of the Commissioners. Narrow-minded as the Fellows of St. John's are, they have, however, boldly confessed that their body suffers by being connected with a school recruited as that of Merchant Taylors' is by pure nominees. Such instances might be multiplied indefinitely, but these must suffice.

It is clear, then, that whilst the endowed schools are the nurseries of the English youth, they are by no means in a satisfactory condition. But it further appears that the privileges which, in the case of the universities, have been swept away, are still retained by many of the largest endowed schools. This must be changed; and the reform is the more urgent now, seeing that if they are retained at school after being abolished at college, a host of patronage lads will find themselves stranded at the opening of their career, having imbibed a taste for a mode of life in which neither their talents nor their means will enable them to indulge. In old times, when a particular place of birth, or a special genealogy procured a boy a provision for life, parents had no occasion to consider the talents of their son, or whether he had a turn for literary pursuits. But under a system in which a boy cannot obtain a scholarship or a fellowship after leaving school without proof of conspicuous merit, it becomes an important question for a parent whether he should keep his son at a public school or not. It is surely a doubtful kindness to tempt a father to send his boy to the Charterhouse by offering him an appointment on the foundation, unless the boy is likely to be able to qualify himself for advancing to the university. Moreover, it is a mere matter of justice that the educational endowments should be made as generally useful as possible—so that the boy who is most eager to benefit by them should be able to gratify his wish. The chief purpose of those who endowed the grammar schools was to furnish the means of education to those who had not the means within their reach; and the effect upon the humblest man in society who sees the son of his neighbour rise to distinction by his own merit, will surely be to induce him to follow the example. Only let the small shop-keeper, the mechanic, and the labourer know that his son has the chance of rising to distinction by his own intellectual exertion, and an impetus will be given to education which it is impossible to over-estimate.

For this purpose, the endowed schools must be opened after the fashion of the Universities, and the great schools of Eton and Winchester. The facts, however, connected with the subject, are but imperfectly known, and it requires the aid of a commission to bring them prominently before the public."—*English Journal of Education*.

III. Papers on Practical Education.

1. MAXIMS FOR TEACHERS.

By the Author of "*Sunday School Notes and Sketches*," "*Sunday School Gems*," &c.

I. *Be early.* In other words be punctual—be in time. If teachers, you are not early in the school, where is your self-respect? where is your solicitude for the children entrusted to your charge? where is the beauty of your example? where is your intellectual and moral power? where, indeed, is your consistency? Further than this, where is your sense of justice? Besides, if you are late and irregular, the children in your schools will imitate you, and soon do it. Your irregularity will inevitably render them irregular also. You must move with the punctuality and precision of the well-regulated clock. Nothing must be out of order.

II. *Be well qualified.* Determine on this—that you will understand what you teach; that you will have well-informed minds; that your acquaintance with language shall be clear, correct, full; that your tact and ability in the great work of education shall be obvious to all. Aim at superior attainments, and labour hard, that they may be acquired and unfolded. A well qualified teacher will invariably command respect, produce impression, and make his way; but what can an ignorant, lazy, ill-qualified preceptor accomplish?

III. *Be decided.* Think for yourselves—have your opinions—express and maintain them, if you have valid reasons for believing that they are sound and good. In the school, dealing with children and youth, do not be vacillating. Do not cherish unfixed sentiments.

In matters of education have your minds made up: mark out your course, and steadily and boldly pursue it. An undecided teacher, whose opinions are always loose and floating, is worth nothing; indeed, he inflicts *positive injury*. If you want to do good, to have influence—be decided.

IV. *Be simple in your attire.* You cannot be too particular in observing this direction. Children and youth are very quick and shrewd, and they soon notice the habits, the manners, and even the *dress* of their teachers. Beware, then, of finery,—of undue expensiveness, or improper show with regard to your apparel. Be uniformly neat, female teachers, but never gaudy. Remember that a Christian teacher should be simple in her attire, and that the most educated, and also the most genteel, are invariably the most unpretending in their garb. There is nothing to attract attention—nothing finical—nothing extravagant. Let not your persons, female teachers, be unduly decorated. If the children see, by your ornaments, by the attention which you concentrate on the exterior, that dress is the *principal* thing regarded, you will not be respected, you will do little; indeed, your instruction will be effectually neutralized.

V. *Be unassuming.* Keep your place—maintain your standing—properly magnify your office—still, be *unpretending*—uniformly develop a lowly spirit. Scarcely anything, teachers, will beautify you more, or recommend you more powerfully, than humility. It will lend a charm to all you say and all you do. When you are modest in the estimate which you form of yourselves—unpretending in your intercourse with each other, and without assumption or arrogance in imparting instruction to the young, or maintaining discipline among them, there is peculiar attractiveness given to your character and conduct; and it is most gratifying to observe frequently, how powerful and beneficial is the effect produced on the minds of children by the tone of voice, by the uniform spirit, by the arrangements, discipline, and labours of a truly humble teacher.

VI. *Be amiable and kind.* Ever remember, teachers, that in the work of education, whether purely intellectual or religious, nothing, comparatively, can be effected without kindness—a bland and amiable demeanor. Children, like adults, are to be won, generally, *by love*. If you are rigid, inflexible, and endeavouring continually to coerce them and terrify them, thinking of nothing but punishment—severe discipline—you will not accomplish much, and you are acting in the most unphilosophical and foolish, as well as in the most unscriptural manner.

We do not want you to be *too kind*—to relax unduly; this would be wrong and injurious; still, be it always observed, that the law of intelligent, and especially of *Christian kindness*, must be the *only* law to govern the school, pre-eminently the sabbath-school, and no other is required. By this kind and amiable spirit, children and youth are drawn, powerfully and universally influenced, and, indeed, savingly blest.

VII. *Be active and energetic.* Vigilantly guard against inactivity—against anything like an indifferent, slothful, lazy temper. If you are not active and full of energy, who should be?

You *must* be energetic now, teachers, or you will bring dishonour on yourselves and the cause with which you are identified. Every department of society, and of the church, is, at the present time, full of animation, and are you to be cold, sluggish, and insensible? A sleepy teacher now must make way for the preceptor who is awake—who is animated—who is all energy—who is concentrating his powers and efforts.

A drone among teachers, at the present working period, must be *driven out of the hive*; all now must labour in the school-room, and labour more vigorously and entirely than ever. Be then resolved to develop from day to day the enlightened and “full-toned energy” which an efficient teacher will be sure to discover. Such energy will never be lost. It will infallibly yield fruit both to yourself and others.

VIII. *Be self-denying.* You will invariably find this temper, valued teachers, most necessary in the school-room; indeed, you can do nothing without its habitual cultivation. Self-sacrifice will be uniformly requisite when instructing children and youth, and those especially who are dull, wayward, perverse, what condescension is necessary! what labour is demanded! what difficulties must be overcome! what struggles and hardships, which none but the teacher knows, must be endured! And if an instructor be in the sabbath-school, educating children in the great principles of the gospel, he must live not to please himself but his divine Master; and if he wish to resemble the great Teacher, when he enters the school, his motto must be, “Here I labour, not to please myself, but to serve and honour the Redeemer.”

IX. *Be patient.* This is a prime quality for you to unfold; an essential feature for you to express; an indispensable habit for you to cultivate. Unless, teachers, you uniformly exercise this spirit you will be soon discouraged, your labours will be unblest, and you yourselves will fail in exemplifying one of the most desira-

ble and important features which the character and efforts of an educator shall discover.

You must be patient and forbearing, else you cannot long sustain the office of the teacher. Children and youth sadly try the temper: there is, assuredly, much to bear with—much to endure under the most favourable circumstances—still, if you wish to accomplish anything, you must bear with them—you must pity their infirmities—you must pass by their occasional listlessness and waywardness—you must forgive their sins of omission and commission, remembering that you were children *once* yourselves. Never be implacable with a child; never give up a child hastily; or, in a fit of impatience, abandon a youth too soon! This is a golden rule for every day or Sabbath-school instructor.

“Patience” is a word which the educator must have engraven in capital letters, not on his desk merely, but on his memory and on his heart, and which he must keep ever before him.

X. *Be persevering.* Never let it be seen that you are fickle, inconstant, capricious—that there is to be no confidence reposed in you—that you cannot be depended on for steady and unremitting effort. Teachers, you must be no changelings! You must be fixed in your sentiments, decided in your character, unceasing in your endeavours. You must be the same persons from year to year—only, if there be any change, it must be developed by your increased energy, and by the untiring character of your efforts. Enter the school from principle. Let all your labours spring from love to the children, and from an earnest desire to be useful; then you will and must persevere. You cannot flag; you cannot be fitful and uncertain; but devoted, undeviating, and increasingly fervent in your exertions.

XI. *Be anxious to fulfil your mission.* You have noble plans to form, and you must form them. You have great undertakings to execute, and you must accomplish them. You have not entered the school-room, teachers, without a purpose—without an object—without having a great result in view. *Do, then, your work!* Regard, then, your end! Let the nature of your mission, the importance of your mission, the means to accomplish your mission, and the results flowing from the execution of your mission, be always before your minds. Let everything you do bear, either directly or indirectly, on the fulfilment of your high mission.

XII. *Uniformly rely on the Divine blessing.* The enjoyment of that blessing will be *everything* to you,—without it, your services will be poor and ineffective indeed. You need the Divine blessing to illumine the youthful mind, to prepare the minds of children and youth for listening to your instructions, for appreciating your counsels, and for rendering all your efforts permanently beneficial. Rely, then, simply on that blessing, that you may not labour in vain. An educator of the youthful mind cannot commit himself too simply to the direction of Infinite Wisdom,—cannot confide too earnestly in Infinite power, goodness, and love. If heaven bless your plans and endeavours, you cannot be inoperative: knowledge will be imparted, the mind will be disciplined, character will be formed, and impressions, of the utmost value, will be produced, which will never be effaced.—*English Journal of Education.*

2. SELF-CONTROL IN A TEACHER.

From the days of Solomon even unto the present, the duty of self-control has been urged in proverbs and aphorisms. But in no position is the exercise of this virtue more demanded than in the school room. The “man that ruleth his own spirit,” will always be superior in school management, to him who, though highly endowed with intellect and education, is yet wanting in this quality of mind. It may be assumed, that in school the general *tendency* is to disorder and anarchy. Hence the necessity for some force from without, to reduce this disorder to order, this anarchy to system and rule.

All this must originate from the self-control of the teacher, for there is no true government of others without government of self, first of all. In times of danger and imminent peril at sea, as the safety of all will depend on the self-control of the captain, so occurrences will arise in school administration, in which absence of self-control will shipwreck the most precious interests.—*Indiana School Journal.*

3. ENGLISH EXAMINATION PAPER ON SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

Sect. I.—1. In teaching to read, what are the respective advantages of the Phonic method and the Look-and-say method?

2. What are the chief faults to be noticed in articulation? State how you would correct each.

3. What method would you adopt with your first class to secure a proper emphasis and expression? Would learning by heart assist this or not?

Sect. II.—1. How do you intend to teach spelling?

2. Will an acquaintance with the derivation of words assist correct spelling? How should derivation be introduced at first?

3. What are the errors into which a pupil-teacher would be apt to fall in questioning children on the meaning of words? Write out directions to warn him of them, and suggest the best method.

Sect. III.—1. What are the faults in writing to which you would give most attention? Suppose you are giving a pupil-teacher directions.

2. What method would you adopt to secure straight writing in books which are not ruled?

Sect. IV.—1. How would you arrange a lesson on numeration for children who are to begin arithmetic?

2. How would you teach the multiplication table?

Sect. V.—1. At what stage of children's progress in arithmetic would you begin Mental Arithmetic? or would you teach Mental Arithmetic before they used slates? Give your reasons.

2. In a country school, where the children are very young, what subjects would you teach? in what order? and what books and apparatus would you require?

Three hours allowed for this paper.

Write the first line of your first answer as a specimen of copy setting in *large hand*, and the first line of your second answer as a specimen of copy setting in *small hand*.

1. Define, as clearly as you can, the following terms:

Education.
Elementary school.
School Management.
School Organization.

2. Mention the most necessary articles of school furniture, and explain the use of each briefly.

3. Describe three or four different methods of arranging a class, noticing the merits of each.

4. Construct a "Time-table" for a school of four classes with two pupil teachers.

5. Describe your method of conducting a reading lesson, (1) in the lowest (2) in the highest, class of your school.

6. To what do you ascribe the slow progress of most children in learning to write? How would you remedy this?

7. *For Boys*.—What are the uses of the Ball-frame, Black-board, and Text-book, respectively, in teaching Arithmetic?

For Girls.—How was your school supplied with needlework? Give some plain directions for cutting out a shirt sleeve.

8. What means do you consider most efficacious for securing regularity of attendance?

9. What is meant by "The highest weekly average" in school registration?

10. How would you ascertain the mean term of schooling, *i. e.*, the length of time during which each child on an average continued to attend school?

11. Give four or five simple rules to guide a young teacher in the matter of *punishments*.

12. What are the advantages and disadvantages of Prizes?

13. What is meant by *emulation*? How may the principle be safely introduced into the work of a school?

14. "Provoke not your children to anger, lest they be discouraged." What practical hints can you deduce from this text for the guidance of young children?

4. EXAMINATION QUESTIONS IN DOMESTIC ECONOMY.

MODEL SCHOOL, TORONTO, JUNE 1861.

Time—Three hours.

1st. What reason can you give for introducing Domestic Economy as a branch of study in Female Schools?

2nd. Give directions for setting a table.

3rd. Rules for carving and helping at table.

4th. Observations on the care of bed rooms and chambers.

5th. Give directions for making a bed.

6th. In what culinary operations is *soft water* preferable to *hard*?

7th. Is not *hard water* in some cases *better* than *soft*?

8th. Give directions for boiling a joint of fresh meat; for boiling a ham; for broiling a beef steak.

9th. Why should flesh be changed as little as possible in cooking?

10th. Why should vegetables always be eaten with salted meat?

11th. How does fermentation make dough light?

12th. What is the effect of baking upon bread?

13th. Show the high nutritive properties of bread made from wheat, by comparing it with *milk*, which constitutes the sole food from which all parts of the young animal are formed, and also with *blood*, which supplies the whole body with its elements of nutrition.

14th. Give directions for making a cup of coffee. State reasons for roasting and grinding the coffee-berry.

5. NECESSITY FOR THE SLATE AND BLACKBOARD.

The slate and blackboard are both indispensable instruments in primary teaching. Drawing has too long been regarded as an accomplishment to be acquired only by the few. It should be deemed a necessity, and the elements at least be acquired by the many. I have long been of the opinion that the elements of linear and mechanical drawing should be included in the common school course, and that the former, at least, should be commenced in the primary department. Beginning with the straight line, let the class be taught to draw it; first as a horizontal, next as a perpendicular, then at all the intermediate angles. Let them afterwards try to divide the line by the eye, without measurement, into two, three, or more, equal parts, till they can do it promptly and well. Then take up the curves, the circle, and the simple geometrical figures, &c. Great progress can be made in these elements, by very young children, and, besides the immense advantage to them in life, they will take great interest in the exercise. The letters of the alphabet furnish an admirable series of exercises in drawing. Nearly all the primary movements, as straight lines, perpendicular, horizontal, oblique, curves, &c., are involved in their formation. Especially is this true of the capitals. Some of the best teachers of the art employ them as copies, even for more advanced pupils. For primary scholars, it is an excellent training for the eye and hand, and, while imparting knowledge and skill in the elements of drawing, it *incidentally* fixes the name and shape of each letter indelibly in the memory, for, when a child has learned to draw a letter correctly, and to associate with it its appropriate name, he will not forget it. Thus, while the eye and hand are being trained to skill—while the first principles of a noble and useful art are being thoroughly learned—while the mind is pleasantly excited and interested, instead of being wearied and stupified, the alphabet itself is completely mastered; incidentally, almost unconsciously. The names of the letters are not only more permanently learned in this way than by the old routine repetition process, but in less than half the time. This is not theory, but fact. It has been demonstrated by a thousand trials. That such an amount of precious time is annually wasted in the effort to print the mere names of the twenty-six characters of our language upon the memory of the child, by the endless iteration of a b—c, would be ludicrous, if it were not so sad. Not only one, but several school terms are often squandered, before the stupendous result is achieved! And when at last the victory is won, how poor and barren it is—the child can call the names of twenty-six crooked, dry, unmeaning things! that is all. No mental power has been developed; no new faculty has been awakened; no pleasure has mingled in the weary task; the mind is deadened, almost stultified; the child is disgusted with his mind and tired of school, but he *knows his letters*, and great is the rejoicing of friends! There is, thank God, "a more excellent way." It is difficult to over-estimate the good effects of a judicious use of the slate and blackboard in primary schools. No school room for small children is equipped without them—no one is fit to be a primary teacher who is unable or unwilling to use them.—N. Bateman.

6. EDUCATION OF THE STREET.

One of our exchanges contains an anecdote of a City Missionary who visited an unhappy man in our jail, waiting his trial. "Sir," said the prisoner, tears running down his cheeks, "I had a good home education; it was my *street education* that ruined me. I used to slip out of the house, and go off with the boys in the street. In the street I learned to lounge; in the street I learned to swear; in the street I learned to smoke; in the street I learned to gamble; and in the street I learned to pilfer. Oh! sir, it is in the street the devil lurks to work the ruin of the young!" Yes, that's it! In the street! Some boys are always in the street. They sleep and eat at home, but they *live* on the street; they seek amusement on the street; they do all the work they have on the street; they get their education on the street; they *enter society* on the street; and the devil finds and enlists them in his service on the street. Oh! parents, keep your sons off the street. All the means in the world cannot save them if they go much on the street.

7. MANNERS AND MORALS AT SCHOOL.

Many a boy comes from school with his first knowledge of forbidden things. He learns there his first profane or obscene word. He there receives his first lessons of insolence and disobedience, and becomes coarse and rude in his manners. How often have parents mourned over a child's innocence lost at school. It is easy

to say that this evil necessarily results from the child's contact with an evil world, and that the school is not responsible. But while there is truth in the suggestion that evil is inevitable, and may be expected to come to the child from companions at school, as elsewhere, it is equally true that the school is responsible, to the extent of its most earnest endeavour, to counteract the dangers of evil companionship, and to impress the great lessons of purity and truth, generosity, integrity and affection, upon every heart within its control. This cultivation of the better sentiments, and finer impulses of the heart, is recognized in our statutes as a prominent duty of teachers. And yet I rarely find it receiving any distinct attention. I am well aware that there is no place in the school-room for protracted homilies on moral duties. But the teacher so inclined, and rightly estimating his responsibility in this regard, can easily exert his influence to suppress the wrong and encourage the right and the true. In a thousand ways, sometimes quite unnoticed, he may inspire a love of what is beautiful and good, and frown his disapproval on all that is low and unmanly. Under such an influence, the profane and vulgar have often been reformed, and the whole moral atmosphere of the school-room purified. Parents and school authorities have need to combine their counsels and efforts with those of the teacher, to secure a result at once so desirable and so difficult. Our schools will not have reached their highest success, until they have acquired a more controlling moral power over the children in their care; until they have succeeded in producing a generation of youth better educated in sentiment and principle, as well as in knowledge. It is better children, not brighter, that we most need; children who shall be fitted to adorn and bless the circles in which they will soon become controlling spirits.—*E. P. Weston, Supt. Maine Schools.*

8. GEOGRAPHY OUT OF DOORS.

"When about to introduce the study of Geography, the intelligent teacher will take the children out of the school room to the road or fields, where we may suppose a conversation to take place in which the teacher will communicate something like the following,—the children asking questions and also answering those of the teacher.

We will now stand upon the hill opposite the school-house and see what is around us. The objects at our right hand are *east* of us, or in the direction where the sun rises; those at our left hand, or in the direction of the sun's setting, are *west* of us. The field at the right or to the north of the school-house is level, and may be called a *plain*. Sometimes a plain is barren, and then it is called a *desert*.

Beyond the plain are high masses of land, called *mountains*. When a mountain sends forth fire, smoke, and melted stones from its top, it is called a *volcano*. Far off in the north between two mountains, is a portion of low land called a *valley*.

At the left of us is a body of fresh water. This is a *pond*, or small lake. In the lake is a portion of land entirely surrounded by water. This is an *island*, and the point of land extending into the water from the main land, is a *cape*.

The narrow passage of water between the island and cape is a *strait*. From the lake a stream of water called a *river*, flows on through the valley to a very large body of water called an *ocean*. If we were on the top of the mountain we could see the ocean. The land which is next the water is a *shore* or coast.

As we study Geography we shall learn about some countries that have very high mountains and about others that are mostly level. Some have large rivers and lakes. Some are very cold and others are very warm. Our Geography will tell us the names of these countries, and we can find them on the maps.—*Connecticut Common School Journal.*

9. GEOGRAPHICAL FORMULA.

We give a formula, or list of topics for the description of any country, which has been presented at Teachers' Institutes, and may be found useful, especially in advanced classes.—The formula can be abridged or modified to suit circumstances, and it is of course open to criticism and improvement:—

FORMULA FOR DESCRIBING A STATE OR COUNTRY.

- I. POSITION.
 - 1. Local.
 - 2. Mathematical, (Lat. and Long.)
 - 3. Finite, (Boundaries.)
- II. AREA.
 - 1. Real, (in square miles.)
 - 2. Comparative, (with Wisconsin.)
 - 3. Amount under Cultivation.
- III. CONTOUR.
 - 1. Sinuosity, (by coast-lines, rivers, &c.)
 - 2. Profile, (giving mountains, water-sheds, table-lands, &c.)

- IV. WATERS.
 - 1. Seas, Gulfs, &c.
 - 2. Navigable Rivers.
 - 3. Navigable Lakes.
- V. PHYSICAL FEATURES.
 - 1. Soil.
 - 2. Climate.
 - 3. Salubrity.
- VI. POPULATION.
 - 1. Total.
 - 2. Fractional, (by nationalities.)
 - 3. To the square mile.
- VII. RESOURCES and PRODUCTIONS.
 - 1. Of the forest and sea.
 - 2. Mineral.
 - 3. Agricultural.
- VIII. AVOCATIONS. (In order of importance.)
 - 1. Agricultural.
 - 2. Manufacturing, &c., &c.
 - 1. Capital.
 - 2. Noteworthy places.
 - 3. Containing 5000 inhabitants.
- IX. CITIES.
 - 1. Rail Roads.
 - 2. Canals.
 - 3. Miscellaneous.
- X. COMMERCIAL FACILITIES.
 - 1. Civil.
 - 2. Educational.
 - 3. Religious.
- XI. POLITY.
 - 1. Individual.
 - 2. Social.
- XII. CHARACTERISTICS.
 - 1. First settlement.
 - 2. Admission into Union.
 - 3. Other Leading Events.
- XIII. HISTORY.
 - 1. Natural, (Volcanoes, Cataracts, &c.)
 - 2. Animal and Vegetable.
 - 3. Artificial, (ancient or modern.)
- XIV. CURIOSITIES.
 - 1. Civil.
 - 2. Educational.
 - 3. Religious.

QUESTIONS.

- 1. More water by far flows down the Mississippi, than ever reaches the Gulf of Mexico; what becomes of it? *Ans.*—It is absorbed.
- 2. What is most remarkable about the position of the islands of Great Britain and New Zealand? *Ans.*—One is in the centre of the land, and the other of the water hemisphere.

10. THE TRUE EDUCATIONAL DOCTRINE.

In the last semi-annual report of the Hon. John D. Philbrick, Superintendent of the Boston schools, we find the following, which we think will apply to Connecticut just as well as to Massachusetts:

"Our system of public education is founded on the principle, early adopted and constantly maintained by our ancestors, that it is the undoubted right and the bounden duty of government to provide for the instruction of all youth. For this purpose every man is held subject to taxation in proportion to his property, without regard to the question whether he himself have, or have not, children to be benefitted by the education for which he pays. The first secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education described the foundation of our common school system in the three following propositions:

"The successive generations of men, taken collectively, constitute one great commonwealth.

"The property of this commonwealth is pledged for the education of all its youth, up to such a point as will save them from poverty and vice, and prepare them for the adequate performance of their social and civil duties.

"The successive holders of this property are trustees, bound to the faithful execution of their trust by the most sacred obligations; and embezzlement and pillage from children and descendants have not less of criminality, and have more of meanness, than the same offences when perpetrated against contemporaries."

In recognition of these principles, the fundamental law of the state enjoins upon legislators and magistrates in all future periods, the duty to cherish the interests of "Public Schools and Grammar Schools in the towns."

11. THE WAY THE ENGLISH BRING UP CHILDREN.

The English bring up their children very differently from the manner in which we bring up ours. They have an abundance of out-door air every day, whenever it is possible. The nursery maids are expected to take all the children out airing every day, even infants. This custom is becoming more prevalent in this country, and should be pursued wherever it is practicable. Infants should be early accustomed to the open air. We confine them too much, and heat them too much for a vigorous growth. One of the finest features of the London parks is said to be the crowds of nursery maids with their groups of healthy children. It is so with the promenades of our large cities to a great extent, but is less common in our country towns than what it should be. In consequence of their training, English girls acquire a habit of walking that accom-

panies them through life, and gives them a much healthier middle age than our women enjoy. They are not fatigued with a walk of five miles, and are not ashamed to wear, when walking, thick-soled shoes, fitted for the dampness they must encounter. Half of the consumptive feebleness of our girls results from the thin shoes they wear, and the cold feet they must necessarily have. English children, especially girls, are kept in the nursery, and excluded from fashionable society and all the frivolities of dress, at the age when our girls are in the very heat of flirtation, and thinking only of fashionable life.—*Connecticut Common School Journal.*

12. CHARACTER IS POWER.

It is often said that knowledge is power, and this is true. Skill or faculty of any kind carries with it superiority. So, to a certain extent, wealth is power, and rank is power, and intellect is power, and genius has a transcendent gift of mastery over men. But higher, purer, and better than all, more constant in its influence, more lasting in its sway, is the power of character,—that power which emanates from a pure and lofty mind. Take any community, who is the man of most influence? To whom do all look up with reverence? Not to the "smartest" man, nor the cleverest politician, nor the most brilliant talker, but he who, in a long course of years, tried by the extremes of prosperity and adversity, has approved himself to the judgment of his neighbours and of all who have seen his life, as worthy to be called wise and good.



TORONTO: JUNE, 1861.

. Parties in correspondence with the Educational Department will please quote the number and date of any previous letters to which they may have occasion to refer, as it is extremely difficult for the Department to keep trace of isolated cases where so many letters are received (nearly 1,000 per month) on various subjects.

APPORTIONMENT OF THE LEGISLATIVE SCHOOL GRANT FOR UPPER CANADA, FOR THE YEAR 1861.

Circular to the Clerk of each County, City, Town, and Village Municipality in Upper Canada.

SIR,—I have the honour to transmit herewith, a certified copy of the apportionment, for the current year, of the Legislative School Grant to each City, Town, Village, and Township, in Upper Canada. This apportionment will be payable at this Office, to the Agent of the Treasurer of your Municipality, on the 1st of July, provided that the School Accounts have been duly audited, and, together with the Auditors and Local Superintendents' Reports, have been transmitted to the Department.

The basis of apportionment to the several Counties and

Cities for this year, is the census returns of 1861, which have been procured for that purpose by this Department from the Bureau of Statistics at Quebec. This apportionment to the Counties has been sub-divided among the several Townships, Towns, and incorporated Villages, according to the statistical returns of school population for 1860, which have, for this purpose, been carefully revised and corrected in this Department. Many inequalities in the apportionment have thus been removed, and all parts of the Province share in the grant upon equal terms, and in accordance with the demands made upon each locality, for school accomodation and instruction. By this means also a more just and equitable apportionment has been made to those new and thinly settled Counties where poor schools have heretofore existed, and where the ordinary Legislative and Municipal grants have not been sufficient to enable Trustees to sustain the schools during the whole year.

As much difficulty has hitherto been experienced in making an equitable apportionment to Union Schools, a plan has this year been adopted which I think will entirely obviate this difficulty. The school population reported in each Union Section has been carefully divided among the respective townships concerned, and the apportionment has then been made to the township. Thus to each township an apportionment has been made according to the entire School population in the township as reported by the Local Superintendents.

Where Separate Schools exist, the sum apportioned to the Municipality has been divided among the Common and Roman Catholic Separate Schools therein, according to the average attendance of pupils at both classes of Schools during that year, as reported by the Trustees.

The gross sum apportioned this year is about \$4,000 more than that of last year.

Owing to the delay in procuring certain necessary information from Quebec, the apportionment for 1861 could not be made in the usual time.

I trust that the liberality of your Council will be increased in proportion to the growing necessity and importance of providing for the sound and thorough education of all the youth of the land.

I am, Sir, your obedient Servant,

Education Office,
Toronto, 24th June, 1861.

APPORTIONMENT TO COUNTIES, FOR THE YEAR 1861.

1. COUNTY OF GLENGARRY.	
Townships.	Apportionment.
Charlottenburgh	\$663 00
Do. for Separate Schools.....	73 00
Kenyon	515 00
Lancaster	497 00
Do. for Separate Schools.....	33 00
Lochiel	539 00
Do. for Separate School	69 00
	\$175 00
Total for County, \$2389.	\$2214 00

2. COUNTY OF STORMONT.	
Townships.	Apportionment.
Cornwall	\$562 00
Finch	223 00
Osnabrock	707 00
Roxborough.....	352 00
	\$1844 00

3. COUNTY OF DUNDAS.	
Townships.	Apportionment.
Matilda	\$555 00
Mountain	406 00
Williamsburgh	513 00
Winchester	503 00
	\$1977 00

4. COUNTY OF PRESCOTT.	
Townships.	Apportionment.
Alfred.....	\$156 00
Caledonia	144 00
Hawkesbury, East	377 00
Do. for Separate Schools.....	\$85 00
Do. West	225 00
Longueuil.....	196 00
Plantagenet, North	292 00
Do. South	152 00
	\$85 00
Total for County, \$1629.	\$1544 00

5. COUNTY OF RUSSELL.	
Townships.	Apportionment.
Cambridge	\$72 00
Clarence	179 00
Cumberland.....	307 00
Russell	206 00
	\$764 00

6. COUNTY OF CARLETON.	
Townships.	Apportionment.
Pitaroy	\$302 00
Do. for Separate School	\$24 00
Gloucester	487 00
Do. for Separate School	26 00
Goulbourn	360 00
Gower, North	267 00
Huntley	324 00
March.....	161 00
Marlborough	307 00
<i>Carried forward.....</i>	<i>\$50 00</i>
	\$31508 00

COUNTY OF CARLETON—Continued.

Table for County of Carleton showing Apportionment for Townships: Nepean, Osgoode, Torbolton. Total for County, \$3309.

7. COUNTY OF GRENVILLE.

Table for County of Grenville showing Apportionment for Townships: Augusta, Edwardsburgh, Gower, South, Oxford, Wolford. Total for County, \$2392.

8. COUNTY OF LEEDS.

Table for County of Leeds showing Apportionment for Townships: Bastard and Burgess South, Crosby, Elizabethtown, Elmsley, Escott, Kitley, Leeds, Yonge. Total for County, \$3617.

9. COUNTY OF LANARK.

Table for County of Lanark showing Apportionment for Townships: Bathurst, Beckwith, Burgess, Dalhousie, Darling, Drummond, Elmsley, Lanark, Montague, Pakenham, Ramsay, Sherbrooke. Total for County, \$3078.

10. COUNTY OF RENFREW.

Table for County of Renfrew showing Apportionment for Townships: Admaston, Algona, Alice, Bagot, Bromley, Grattan, Horton, McNab, Pembroke, Ross, Stafford, Westmeath, Wilberforce. Total for County, \$2171.

11. COUNTY OF FRONTENAC.

Table for County of Frontenac showing Apportionment for Townships: Bedford, Hinchinbrooke, Kingston, Loughborough, Pittsburg, Portland, Storrington, Wolfe Island. Total for County, \$2618.

12. COUNTY OF ADDINGTON.

Table for County of Addington showing Apportionment for Townships: Amherst Island, Angelsea, Camden East, Ernestown, Kaladar, Sheffield. Total for County, \$1918.

13. COUNTY OF LENNOX.

Table for County of Lennox showing Apportionment for Townships: Adolphustown, Fredericksburgh North, Richmond. Total for County, \$876.

14. COUNTY OF PRINCE EDWARD.

Table for County of Prince Edward showing Apportionment for Townships: Ameliasburgh, Athol, Hallowell, Hillier, Marysburgh, Sophiasburgh. Total for County, \$2141.

15. COUNTY OF HASTINGS.

Table for County of Hastings showing Apportionment for Townships: Elzevir, Hungerford, Huntingdon, Madoc, Marmora, Rawdon, Sidney, Thurlow, Tudor, Tyendinaga. Total for County, \$4216.

16. COUNTY OF NORTHUMBERLAND.

Table for County of Northumberland showing Apportionment for Townships: Alnwick, Brighton, Cramahé, Haldimand, Hamilton, Monaghan, Murray, Percy, Seymour. Total for County, \$3784.

17. COUNTY OF DURHAM.

Table for County of Durham showing Apportionment for Townships: Cartwright, Cavan, Clarke, Darlington, Hope, Manvers. Total for County, \$3619.

18. COUNTY OF PETERBOROUGH.

Table for County of Peterborough showing Apportionment for Townships: Asphodel, Belmont, Douro, Dummer, Ennismore, Monaghan, Otonabee, Smith. Total for County, \$2332.

19. COUNTY OF VICTORIA.

Table for County of Victoria showing Apportionment for Townships: Eldon, Emily, Fenelon, Galway, Mariposa, Ops, Verulam. Total for County, \$2403.

20. COUNTY OF ONTARIO.

Table for County of Ontario showing Apportionment for Townships: Brock, Mara and Rama, Pickering, Reach, Scott, Scugog Island, Thorold, Uxbridge, Whitby, Whitby East. Total for County, \$4271.

21. COUNTY OF YORK.

Table for County of York showing Apportionment for Townships: Etobicoke, Georgina, Gwillimbury North, King, Markham, Scarborough, Vaughan, Whitchurch, York. Total for County, \$6392.

22. COUNTY OF PEELE.

Table for County of Peel showing Apportionment for Townships: Albion, Caledon, Chinguacousy, Gore of Toronto, Toronto. Total for County, \$2768.

23. COUNTY OF SIMCOE.

Table for County of Simcoe showing Apportionment for Townships: Adjala, Essa, Flos, Gwillimbury West, Innisfil, Medonte, Mono, Mulmur, Nottawasaga, Orillia, Oro, Sunnidale, Tay and Tiny, Tecumseth, Tossorontio, Vespra. Total for County, \$4496.

24. COUNTY OF HALTON.

Table for County of Halton showing Apportionment for Townships: Esquesing, Nassagaweya, Nelson, Trafalgar. Total for County, \$2288.

25. COUNTY OF WENTWORTH.

Table for County of Wentworth showing Apportionment for Townships: Ancaster, Barton, Beverley, Bimbrooke. Total for County, \$1740.

COUNTY OF WENTWORTH—Continued.

Townships.	Apportionment.
<i>Brought forward</i>	\$1749 00
Flamborough East	418 00
do Separate School, \$33 00	
Flamborough West	453 00
Glanford	243 00
Salfleet.....	340 00
	\$33 00
Total for County, \$3236.	\$3203 00

26. COUNTY OF BRANT.

Brantford	\$790 00
Burford	724 00
Dumfries South	461 00
Oakland.....	102 00
Onondaga.....	268 00
	\$2345 00

27. COUNTY OF LINCOLN.

Caistor	\$250 00
Clinton	339 00
Gainsborough	368 00
Grantham.....	473 00
Grimby	331 00
Louth.....	222 00
Niagara.....	260 00
	\$2343 00

28. COUNTY OF WELLAND.

Bertie.....	\$290 00
Crowland	161 00
Humberstone	343 00
Pelham	289 00
Stamford	336 00
Thorold	328 00
Wainfleet	278 00
Willoughby	190 00
	\$2215 00

29. COUNTY OF HALDIMAND.

Canborough	\$163 00
Cayuga North.....	289 00
do South	114 00
Dunn	108 00
Moulton and Sherbrooke.....	191 00
Oneida	313 00
do Separate School	\$30 00
Rainham	253 00
Seneca	360 00
Walpole	535 00
	\$30 00
Total for County, \$2334.	\$2304 00

30. COUNTY OF NORFOLK.

Charlotteville	\$411 00
Houghton	257 00
Middleton	297 00
Townsend	748 00
Walsingham.....	478 00
Windham	410 00
Do. Separate School	\$18 00
Woodhouse	438 00
	\$18 00
Total for County, \$3053.	\$3037 00

31. COUNTY OF OXFORD.

Blandford	\$221 00
Blenham	769 00
Dereham	606 00
Niassouri East	454 00
Norwich North	409 00
Do. South	368 00
Oxford North	211 00
Do. East.....	355 00
Do. West.....	337 00
Zorra East.....	493 00
Do. West.....	380 00
	\$4583 00

32. COUNTY OF WATERLOO.

Townships.	Apportionment.
Dumfries North	\$433 00
Waterloo	943 00
Wellesley	673 00
Do. Separate Schools	\$48 00
Wilnot	601 00
Do. Separate Schools	82 00
Woolwich	557 00
	\$130 00
Total for County, \$3337.	\$3207 00

33. COUNTY OF WELLINGTON.

Amaranth	\$152 00
Arthur	316 00
Do. Separate Schools.....	\$104 00
Eramosa	467 00
Erin	621 00
Garafraza	555 00
Guelph	334 00
Luther	18 00
Maryborough	320 00
Minto	132 00
Do. Separate School.....	8 00
Nichol	238 00
Do. Separate Schools	35 00
Peel.....	601 00
Pilkington.....	295 00
Do. Separate Schools	46 00
Puslinch	615 00
	\$193 00
Total for County, \$4857.	\$4664 00

34. COUNTY OF GREY.

Artemesia	\$340 00
Bentlnck	310 00
Collingwood.....	214 00
Derby	141 00
Egremont	232 00
Do. Separate Schools	\$6 00
Euphrasia	191 00
Glenelg	289 00
Holland	224 00
Do. Separate School	30 00
Keppel and Sarawak.....	20 00
Melancthon	187 00
Normanby	328 00
Do. Separate Schools	25 00
Osprey	274 00
Proton	224 00
St. Vincent	397 00
Sullivan	192 00
Sydenham.....	423 00
	\$61 00
Total for County, \$4047.	\$3986 00

35. COUNTY OF PERTH.

Blanchard	\$396 00
Downie	442 00
Easthope North	420 00
Do. South	284 00
Ellice	258 00
Do. Separate School	\$20 00
Elma	216 00
Fullarton	337 00
Hibbert	383 00
Logan	241 00
Mornington	340 00
Wallace	235 00
	\$20 00
Total for County, \$3573.	\$3552 00

36. COUNTY OF HURON.

Ashfield	\$250 00
Biddulph	443 00
Colborne	235 00
Goderich	425 00
Grey	368 00
Hay.....	408 00
Howick	82 00
Hullett	339 00
Do. Separate School.....	\$16 00
McGillivray	478 00
	\$16 00
Carried forward.....	\$3228

COUNTY OF HURON—Continued.

Townships.	Apportionment.
<i>Brought forward</i>	\$16 00
McKillop	\$3228 00
Morris	297 00
Stanley	160 00
Stephen	426 00
Stephenson	209 00
Tuckersmith	368 00
Turnberry	56 00
Osborne	401 00
Wawanosh	489 00
	\$16 00
Total for County, \$5450.	\$5434 00

37. COUNTY OF BRUCE.

Arran	\$366 00
Brant	357 00
Bruce	254 00
Carrick	288 00
Do. Separate School.....	\$37 00
Culross	196 00
Elderslie	241 00
Greenock	133 00
Do. Separate School.....	28 00
Huron	277 00
Kincardine	409 00
Kinloss	166 00
Saugeen	203 00
	\$65 00
Total for County, \$2955.	\$2890 00

38. COUNTY OF MIDDLESEX.

Adelaide	\$334 00
Carradoc	492 00
Delaware	195 00
Dorchester, North.....	513 00
Ekfrid.....	325 00
Lobo	427 00
London	1043 00
Metcalf	214 00
Mosa	344 00
Nissouri, West	380 00
Westminster	729 00
Do. Separate School.....	\$14 00
Williams, East	247 00
Do. West	139 00
Do. Separate School	14 00
	\$28 00
Total for County, \$5410.	\$5382 00

39. COUNTY OF ELGIN.

Aldborough	\$204 00
Bayham	604 00
Dorchester, South.....	266 00
Dunwich	322 00
Malahide	599 00
Southwold	663 00
Yarmouth.....	653 00
	\$3311 00

40. COUNTY OF KENT.

Camden	\$275 00
Chatham	413 00
Dover, East and West.....	233 00
Harwich	560 00
Howard	482 00
Orford	266 00
Raleigh	401 00
Do. for Separate School.....	\$60 00
Romney.....	65 00
Tilbury, East	152 00
Zone	133 00
	\$60 00
Total for County, \$3030.	\$2970 00

41. COUNTY OF LAMBTON.

Bosanquet.....	\$373 00
Brooke	212 00
Dawn	71 00
Enniskillen	104 00
Euphemia.....	242 00
Moore.....	344 00
	\$1446 00
Carried forward.....	\$1446 00

COUNTY OF LAMBTON—Continued.

Table showing Apportionment for County of Lambton, including Townships like Plympton, Sarnia, Sombra, Warwick and County of Essex like Anderdon, Colchester, Gosfield, Maidstone, etc.

APPORTIONMENT TO CITIES, TOWNS, AND VILLAGES, FOR 1861.

Table showing Apportionment to Cities, Towns, and Villages for 1861, categorized into Cities (Toronto, Hamilton, Kingston, London, Ottawa) and Towns (Amherstburgh, Barrie, Belleville, Berlin, etc.).

TOWNS—Continued.

Table showing Apportionment for Towns, including Common Schools, R. C. Sep. Schools, and Totals for various locations like Niagara, Oakville, Owen Sound, Paris, Perth, etc.

SUMMARY OF APPORTIONMENT TO COUNTIES, FOR 1861.

Table showing Summary of Apportionment to Counties for 1861, listing 42 counties with their respective Common Schools, Separate Schools, and Total apportionment.

GRAND TOTALS.

Table showing Grand Totals for Counties, Cities, Towns, and Villages, including an additional sum reserved for any Roman Catholic Separate Schools.

NOTE.—The School Moneys apportioned to the various Cities, Towns, and Villages, as per the foregoing statement, are payable to the Toronto agents of the local treasurers, on the first day of July next.

V. QUEEN'S BENCH, HILARY TERM, 24 VICT., 1861.

REGINA V. THE TRUSTEES OF SCHOOL SECTION No. 27, IN THE TOWNSHIP OF TYENDINAGA, IN THE COUNTY OF HASTINGS.

School Trustees—Mandamus—Attachment—Practice.

A mandamus nisi having been issued to school trustees to levy the amount of a judgment obtained against them, on return was made, and a rule nisi for an attachment issued.

On the 18th of October, 1860, a writ of mandamus was issued from this court, directed to these school trustees, commanding them to levy and collect, or cause to be levied and collected, from the freeholders and householders of the school section No. 27, in Tyendinaga, a sum of money sufficient for the payment and satisfaction of two certain judgments recovered against the trustees of the said school section by one John Waterhouse, for the building of a school-house for the said school section, or to shew cause to the contrary on the first day of Michaelmas Term then next.

Copies of this writ, it was sworn, were personally served on the 23rd of October last, upon William Cross and James Glass, two of the trustees of the said school section, and upon Robert Gillespie, another of the trustees, the original writ of mandamus being shewn to each at the time of service.

In Michaelmas Term last an affidavit was made that on search in the Crown office in Toronto, on the 24th of November, it did not appear that the writ of mandamus had been returned as filed. And the court, upon application of Mr. Sisson, the counsel for Waterhouse, ordered a rule to issue upon the trustees to shew cause why an attachment for contempt should not issue against them for not returning the writ.

In answer to this rule, during this term, Cross, one of the trustees, made an affidavit that he had always been and still was willing and desirous to levy the money necessary for satisfying the judgments obtained by Waterhouse, as commanded by the writ of mandamus, and had repeatedly requested Glass and Gillespie, the other trustees, or either of them, to unite with him in making a rate for that purpose; that he had done this both before and after the mandamus came to him, but that they had always refused, and that he could not alone impose and levy the necessary rate.

James Glass, another of the trustees, in answer to the rule nisi for attachment, filed an affidavit, to the effect that, being in very ill health at the time of the election of school trustees in January, 1860, he declined the office, protesting that he could not serve in it on account of the state of his health, but that he was nevertheless chosen: that his ill health continuing, he solicited permission to resign, not being able to discharge any of the duties; and he annexed a letter received from his co-trustees, Cross and Gillespie,

dated the 9th of February, 1860, allowing him to resign for the reason given, and another letter from the local superintendent, dated the 14th of March, 1860, consenting to his being released from his duties as school trustee.

Mr. Glass, however, took no notice of the writ of mandamus till he made his affidavit on the 4th of February, 1861, nor Mr. Cross till he made his affidavit on the 9th of February, 1861.

Mr. Gillespie did not appear to have taken any notice of either the mandamus or the rule nisi for attachment.

Crombie appeared for the defendant Glass. O'Hare for defendant Cross.

ROBINSON, C. J., delivered the judgment of the court.

Both Cross and Glass failed to pay due obedience to the writ by returning to the court the reasons which had prevented their doing what they had been directed to do. This may have arisen from their relying on the sufficiency of reasons, and not being advised of the steps which it was still incumbent on them to take.

As to them, therefore, we may discharge the rule nisi for attachment, on their paying the costs of the application.

As to the other defendant, Gillespie, we grant the attachment. We might have ordered a preematory mandamus, when no return had been made in due time to the first; but an attachment being moved for it is proper to grant it against the member of the corporation (Gillespie) who has been guilty of the contempt of wholly disobeying the mandamus, neither doing the act, nor manifesting any readiness to do so, nor assigning any cause for not doing it.

VI. TEXT BOOKS IN OUR SCHOOLS.

(To the Editor of the Journal of Education.)

SIR,—Having had some experience as a Common School Teacher in Upper Canada, I presume to submit the following, trusting it may be deemed worthy of space in the columns of the *Journal of Education*. We have in this Province an admirable School System—one which is perhaps unrivalled. One of the requisites for availing ourselves of the privileges of such a system, is a series of text-books, containing matter calculated to aid the teachers in developing the different faculties of the youthful mind.

It is not my intention at present, to discuss the question on the propriety of changing the whole series of books used in our Common Schools; but to confine my remarks to one particular branch, (grammar,) and the text-books treating upon this subject, in use in our Common Schools. It may be said by some that, if teachers have a thorough knowledge of this subject, they can convey it to their pupils without the aid of books; but this might be said with greater propriety concerning other branches, upon which Text-books are extant which have proved of immense benefit to both teacher and pupils. The system of teaching certain branches without the aid of books, may answer well in some schools, but not be at all suitable to others. In a school in which there are several teachers, and in which the same teacher has charge of a single division only, certain branches may be efficiently taught without the aid of books. But to apply such a system to our Common Rural Schools, in which only one teacher is engaged, would be the height of folly. Where a teacher's mind is directed to a great many classes, and a diversity of subjects, it is extremely difficult for him, without any aid, to lead a class through the regular gradations essential to a scientific knowledge of such a complicated subject.

Another advantage of text-books is, they give pupils an opportunity for study, when not under the special direction of the teacher. By the aid of a proper text-book, I feel confident a teacher might produce better results without half the labour on his part, than by endeavouring to communicate orally. The time has come when grammar must be taught in all our schools, in fact it would be hard to find a School in the Province in which it is totally neglected. In many schools it is the pride of both teacher and pupils.

It has been remarked by some that the works upon the subject are already so numerous, that another is not to be desired; but if their name were legion, I would maintain that we still need another. We have no work which has been so much as designed by the author to suit the lower as well as the more advanced classes in our schools. The popularity of Murray ended with the reign of terror; but those who succeeded were superior in little, save the fancy of their admirers.

Murray was utterly unphilosophical, and so are all his disciples. He laid down a number of rules, some of them altogether absurd, which have been but slightly improved by being rewritten by other authors. His great error was in following the rules of the Latin Grammar, which was unphilosophical when applied to the language for which it was intended. English is not Latin, and it is altogether absurd to apply the Latin Grammar to a language so different from the one for which it was intended. Again, if we go to the classical languages for our authority, we imply that the science was then in a more perfect state than in modern times. If the science was

formerly perfect, why should we be dissatisfied with those authors who have given us works which are little more than mere translations? Authors have written works for the benefit of others who never had one clear idea of the subject of which they treated.

Absurdities have been taught for centuries gone by, which appear more difficult of conception than truth. If we wish for a philosophical system of grammar we must look forward for it, and not backwards. It must be a modern improvement. The Latin Grammar had been stereotyped long before the days of Murray, and was incapable of being adapted to modern English. Lennie, of the same school, has become unpopular. A thirst for something more philosophical has lately arisen, which is not at all likely to be quenched by the National Grammar, which appears to be universally despised and rejected. In fact I never saw it used as an authority in any school. As criticism is not my intention, I forbear to follow the list any further. My desire is to agitate the minds of those engaged in promoting the cause of education upon such an important branch of study. It is certainly time that the Schools of Upper Canada should be supplied with a suitable text-book upon a subject taught in all of them.

If the study of grammar is of no service farther than making us acquainted with a few technicalities and teaching us a few rules, the practical application of which we might otherwise learn, it is to be regretted that it is so extensively pursued. Such I believe to be the chief benefit arising from the study of it, as taught by those who follow the dictates of the majority of authors of works upon the subject. Error can never supply the place of truth. To receive absurdities in the place of philosophical ideas, must have a stupefying influence upon the mind. The great end for which the educator strives is not approached if the perception is not quickened. Information is far from being the principal advantage derived from pursuing a proper course of study.

It is a disputed point among educators at what age the study of grammar should be commenced; some recommend commencing very early, others object. Experience teaches that it cannot be applied to the understanding, till considerable mental discipline has been accomplished; and as there are other branches which may be taken up, much better calculated to develop the mental faculties at an early age, I think it imprudent to perplex children with such a difficult subject, before proper training has been accomplished. When children are far enough advanced to be taught grammar intellectually, they are capable of deriving advantage from the use of proper text-books upon the subject. I would not argue in favour of not commencing till pupils are capable of being made to understand the most difficult parts; but I believe it may be rendered distasteful by commencing too soon, or by taking it up too extensively for the comprehension. I am of opinion that it would be advantageous to have a work on the subject in two parts, the first being more simple and practical, and the second more philosophical. That something new is needed, must be beyond a doubt in the mind of every one who has visited our Common Schools extensively. There is a greater uniformity in the text-books upon almost every other subject.

The public mind is craving something new. We need something original—something boldly deviating from the authors of the old school; else it must sink to the same level.

It is a wonder to me that the subject has not been brought before some of our Teachers' Associations. The National Grammar has proved a failure,* and still we have nothing to supply its place. The teachers of the Province are not in favour of introducing American works into our schools, and yet many of them have been driven to that expedient by their desire for a more philosophical work. Can we not have a work prepared expressly for Canadian Schools? Is it not time that the question was agitated? Must the teachers still use text-books replete with errors, and prepared for a by-gone age? There is no doubt that we might have a work practical in its nature and calculated not only to aid the teacher in instructing in the proper use of language, but also useful in assisting him to draw out the powers of the mind.

HAY, June 13th, 1861.

Yours, &c.,

A. McCULLERY.

VII. Biographical Sketches.

No. 14.—COUNT CAVOUR.

Camillo di' Cavour was born in Turin on the 14th day of July, 1809. His father was a large merchant, ennobled by Carlo Alberto, and left the young Cavour an ample fortune. About his twenty-fifth year Camillo paid a visit to England, whose prominent men and institutions proved so strong an attraction to a mind always

* Our Correspondent seems to have overlooked Sullivan's Grammar, and Kirkham's Grammar, both authorized for use in our Public Schools. In regard to Robertson's Grammar, see Miller's advertisement at the end of this Journal. Mr. Lovell, the enterprising publisher, of Montreal, also publishes a Grammar by the Rev. J. G. Armstrong, M. A., Local Superintendent of West Hawkesbury.

active and investigating, that he remained in the country for several years. During this period he pushed his researches in all directions. He was a constant and eager visitor at the debates in Parliament, a close observer of the more sparkling currents of English social life, with whose leaders his fine presence and genius immediately made him a great favorite, yet unaltered by the blandishments of gay society, an equally diligent student of those manufactures and that commerce which are the true substratum of England's greatness.

In the agriculture of England he took the deepest interest, and many of the hints which he derived from British farmers were treasured up to bear seed hereafter in the improvement of Italian husbandry, through the Agricultural Association which he founded in Sardinia on his return. Already in his youth, among foreigners, he began to be regarded as an *en cyclopaedic* man—one who cultivated himself in all possible and valuable directions—one destined to become in all of them an authority for reference.

In 1842 Cavour returned to Turin. He was now in his opening prime—thirty-two years of age—gifted with the strongest natural powers of perception judgment and execution, developed to their utmost by his English training, and enriched by the stores of fact and conclusion brought back with him from the land of his sojourn. He possessed, moreover, one element of success, without which these mental riches, as we sadly see every day in other men of genius, would have been of little use to him. He was *healthy*. Up to the period of his last illness he had hardly known a day's indisposition. His frugality was almost as famous as that of Garibaldi, and his capacity for sleepless work, worthy to be compared with that of Napoleon the First or Palmerston. His habitual quantum of sleep was but four hours a day. We may understand the strength of his constitution when we learn that, after six successive bleedings for the removal of the congestion which finally proved fatal, he had so little idea of his peril as to call his ministerial colleagues to his bed and held with them a conference of several hours upon the matters of the realm.

With such a constitution Cavour, in 1842, commenced the great Italian work which ceased its activities eleven days ago—which shall never cease in its fruits. His ruling grand idea was the acclimation of free institutions on the English model in an Italian atmosphere.

Almost immediately he founded the agricultural society of which we have spoken. Its membership soon rose to two thousand. Not only did this society afford a nucleus for the researches of all minds interested in the speciality after which it was named, but a home and a debating school for the Italian friends of liberal government, otherwise without a rallying point.

With the crisis of 1847 both absolutism and government of all kinds were threatened with destruction. Cavour, a foe alike to anarchy and despotism, in conjunction with other prominent Italian liberals, now established *Il Risorgimento* (the Resurrection), a journal exponent of those principles to which he and his party have also been pledged. As the storm grew thicker he became the mouthpiece of all the moderate liberals, and was the first to proclaim Sardinia's great want—a constitution. Cavour himself wrote to the King, strongly urging the necessity of that measure, and within a week afterwards, Carlo Alberto, as we know, granted it.

Cavour entered the Sardinian Chamber of Deputies in 1849, and seated himself among the moderate opposition. Soon after, the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce was conferred upon him, to which, in 1851, was added that of Finance. In 1852 he became President of the Council, and with the exception of a short retirement in 1855, has filled that place ever since. He added much to his reputation by opposing the ultramontanists, and taking sides against Russia in the Crimean war. He signed the manifesto of Sardinia during this latter period, and was one of her two representatives at the Peace Congress of Paris in 1856.

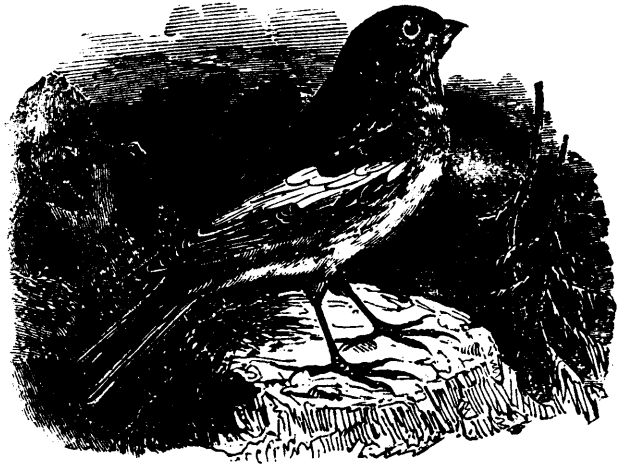
From that time his ministry has uniformly supported France, and set itself against the policy of Austria. His strong support to Napoleonic ideas, hardly less than the unequivocal indications of selfish interest, have procured and continued the powerful aid of the French arms in the struggle of united Italy; while his policy of caution in the matter of Rome and Venice may have been the reflex of the Napoleonic mind, no less than his strong natural proclivity to the use of diplomatic means.

Cavour's part in the last Italian struggle is too fresh in every mind to need re-writing. His record is especially memorable in a single point—he did not hesitate to dissent from that *ex parte* settlement of a great question involved in the peace of Villafranca. Napoleon was the friend of Cavour, but Cavour indignantly resigned the day after the treaty was signed.

He dies at a strange time. Italy needed him more than ever before—unless, perhaps, it be within the plans of Providence that the vast result expressed in Italian unity are to be attained by the *red sword* of the soldier, rather than by the subtle pen of the

diplomatist. If this be so he died opportunely. But be this as it may, his country mourns the noblest statesman she has known since the Di Medici.

VIII. Papers on Natural History.



1. SHOOTING SINGING-BIRDS.

Perhaps the most wanton and disgraceful thing about Montreal, is the shooting of singing birds in the Mountain, which is practised almost daily, and especially on Sundays. These birds greatly enhance the beauty of our scenery by their lively, graceful motions and beautiful plumage; and it is delightful to listen to their singing. They are also exceedingly useful in picking up noxious insects and caterpillars. We should, therefore, as a community, consider it a very great privilege to have them; and if we do not protect and cherish them, at all events nothing should be done to drive away or destroy them. The people of Australia have gone to a very great expence to import singing-birds, which they have set free in various localities to multiply and render their woods and gardens vocal; and doubtless we would go to a similar expence if we did not enjoy this advantage gratis. In Australia one would no more think of shooting a singing-bird than a lamb or a colt; but in Canada much time and powder are bestowed on hunting down our warblers. This is a relic of barbarism which cannot too soon pass away; and we ask the priests to explain the matter to their people, who surely continue to shoot these birds through mere thoughtlessness and ignorance.

In the New England States, singing-birds are protected by law, which is particularly enforced at this breeding season; and thus it should be everywhere, for thoughtless or mischievous persons have no right wantonly to destroy what ministers so much to the pleasure and profit of society.

Were the birds of any use when shot, there might be some little excuse; but they are none whatever; and the act of shooting them is mere wanton destruction. Indeed we cannot help saying, that it is one of the greatest drawbacks to a residence in Lower Canada, that the quiet and holy hours of the Sabbath should be disturbed by this disgraceful amusement.—*Witness*.

2. LONGEVITY OF ANIMALS.

The average of cats is 15 years; a squirrel and hare, 7 or 8 years; rabbits, 7; a bear rarely exceeds 20 years; a dog lives 20 years; a wolf, 20; a fox, 14 to 16; lions are long-lived; the one known by the name of Pompey lived to the age of 70; elephants have been known, it is asserted, to live to the great age of 400 years. When Alexander the Great had conquered Porpus, King of India, he took a great elephant which had fought very valiantly for the king, and named him Ajax, dedicated him to the sun, and let him go with this inscription: "Alexander, the son of Jupiter, hath dedicated Ajax to the sun." The elephant was found with this inscription three hundred and fifty years after. Pigs have been known to live to the age of 30; the rhinoceros to 20; a horse has been known to live to the age of 62, but average 25 to 30; camels sometimes live to the age of 100; stags are very long-lived; sheep seldom exceed the age of 10; cows live about 15 years. Cuvier considers it probable that whales sometimes live 1,000 years; the dolphin and porpoise attain the age of 30; an eagle died at Vienna at the age of 104 years; ravens frequently reach the age of 100; swans have been known to live 300 years. Mr. Mallerton has the skeleton of a swan that attained the age of 200 years. Pelicans are long-lived; a tortoise has been known to live to 107.

IX. Miscellaneous.

1. MY DARLING'S SHOES.

God bless the little feet that can never go astray,
For the little shoes are empty in the closet laid away !
Sometimes I take one in my hand, forgetting till I see
It is a little half worn shoe, not large enough for me ;
And all at once I feel a sense of bitter loss and pain,
As sharp as when two years ago it cut my heart in twain.

O little feet that wearied not, I wait for them no more,
For I am drifting with the tide, but they have reached the shore.
And while the blinding tear-drops wet these little shoes so old,
And so I lay them down again, but always turn to say—
God bless the little feet that now so surely cannot stray.

And while I thus am standing, I almost seem to see
Two little forms beside me, just as they used to be !
Two little faces lifted with their sweet and tender eyes ;
Ah me ! I might have known that look was born of Paradise.
I reach my arms out fondly, but they clasp the empty air !
There is nothing of my darlings but the shoes they used to wear.

O, the bitterness of parting can not be done away
Till I see my darlings walking where their feet can never stray ;
When I no more am drifted upon the surging tide,
But with them safely landed upon the riverside ;
Be patient, heart ! while waiting to see their shining way,
For the little feet in the golden street can never go astray.

2. THE LAWS OF CRICKET, AS REVISED BY THE MARY-LE-BONE CRICKET CLUB.

1. The ball must weigh not less than five ounces and a half, nor more than five ounces and three-quarters. It must measure not less than nine inches, nor more than nine inches and one-quarter, in circumference. At the beginning of each innings, either party may call for a new ball.

2. The bat must not exceed four inches and one-quarter in the widest part ; it must not be more than thirty-eight inches in length.

3. The stumps must be three in number ; twenty-seven inches out of the ground ; the bails eight inches in length ; the stumps of equal, and of sufficient thickness to prevent the ball from passing through.

4. The bowling crease must be in a line with the stumps ; six feet eight inches in length ; the stumps in the centre ; with a return crease at each end towards the bowler at right angles.

5. The popping crease must be four feet from the wicket, and parallel to it ; unlimited in length, but not shorter than the bowling crease.

6. The wickets must be pitched opposite to each other by the umpires at the distance of twenty-two yards.

7. It shall not be lawful for either party during a match, without the consent of the other, to alter the ground by rolling, watering, covering, mowing, or beating, except at the commencement of each innings, when the ground may be swept and rolled at the request of either party ; such request to be made to one of the umpires within one minute after the conclusion of the former innings. This rule is not meant to prevent the striker from beating the ground with his bat near to the spot where he stands during the innings, nor to prevent the bowler from filling up holes with saw dust, etc., when the ground is wet.

8. After rain the wickets may be changed at the consent of both parties.

9. The bowler shall deliver the ball with one foot on the ground behind the bowling crease and within the return crease ; and shall bowl four balls before he change wickets, which he shall be permitted to do only once in the same innings.

10. The ball must be bowled ; if thrown or jerked, or if the bowler, in the actual delivery of the ball, or in the motion immediately preceding the delivery, shall raise his hand or arm above his shoulder, the umpire shall call "No Ball."

[Considerable difficulty exists in relation to the proper definition of a throw. A throw may be made in two ways : one way, with the arm nearly straight, from first to last in delivery, this throw requiring the hand to be raised as high as the head, and brought down in a whirl or circle ; and the other, and most common throw, being first bent on the forearm, the power of delivery being gained by the sudden lash out and straightening of the elbow. It is a mistake to say that the action of the wrist makes a throw.]

11. He may require the striker at the wicket from which he is bowling to stand on that side of it which he may direct.

12. If the bowler shall toss the ball over the striker's head, or

bowl it so wide that in the opinion of the umpire it shall not be fairly within the reach of the batsman, he shall adjudge one run to the party receiving the innings, either with or without an appeal, which shall be put down to score of Wide Balls ; such ball shall not be reckoned as one of the four balls ; but if the batsman shall by any means bring himself within the reach of the ball, the run shall not be adjudged.

[The 12th law expressly states that if the ball is tossed over the striker's head it is a wide ball.]

13. If the bowler deliver a "No Ball," or a "Wide Ball," the striker shall be allowed as many runs as he can get, and he shall not be put out except by running out. In the event of no run being obtained by any other means, then one run shall be added to the score of "No Balls," or "Wide Balls," as the case may be. All runs obtained for "Wide Ball," to be scored to "Wide Balls." The names of the bowlers who bowl "Wide Balls," or "No Balls," in future to be placed on the score, to show the parties by whom either score is made. If the ball shall first touch any part of the striker's dress or person (except his hands,) the umpire shall call "Leg Bye."

[It will be seen by the wording of law 13 that should a batsman hit a "No Ball," the runs thus obtained are to be scored to his credit, and not charged to the bowler.]

14. At the beginning of each innings the umpire to call "play ;" from that time to the end of each innings, no trial ball shall be allowed to any bowler.

15. The striker is out if either of the bails be bowled off, or if a stump be bowled out of the ground ;

16. Or, if the ball, from the stroke of the bat, or hand, but not the wrist, be held before it touch the ground, although it be hugged to the body of the catcher ;

17. Or, if in striking, or at any other time while the ball shall be in play, both his feet shall be over the popping crease, and his wicket put down, except his bat be grounded within it ;

18. Or, if in striking at the ball he hit down his wicket ;

19. Or, if under pretence of running, or otherwise, either of the strikers prevent a ball being caught, the striker of the ball is out ;

20. Or, if the ball be struck, and he willingly strike it again ;

[This does not prevent the batsman from hitting the ball a second time if it be running on to his wicket, in which case he can prevent its doing so, either with his bat or feet, but not his hands.]

21. Or, if in running the wicket be struck down by a throw, or by the hands or arm (with the ball in hand,) before his bat (in hand) or some part of his person be grounded over the popping crease. But if both bails be off, a stump must be struck out of the ground ;

22. Or, if any part of the striker's dress knock down the wicket ;

23. Or, if the striker touch or take up the ball while in play, unless at the request of the opposite party ;

24. Or, if with any part of his person he stop the ball which, in the opinion of the umpire at the bowler's wicket, shall have been pitched in a straight line from it, to the striker's wicket, and would have hit it.

[Unless the ball is pitched in a straight line from wicket to wicket a batsman can not be given out leg-before-wicket. The meaning of it is simply, that the ball, when it pitches—viz., touches the ground—must be within the lines that run from the outer stumps of one wicket, to those of the other.]

25. If the players have crossed each other, he that runs for the wicket which is put down is out.

26. A ball being caught, no run shall be reckoned.

27. A striker being run out, the run which he and his partner were attempting shall not be reckoned.

28. If a lost ball be called, the striker shall be allowed six runs ; but if more than six runs shall have been run before lost ball shall have been called, then the striker shall have all which have been run.

[This refers literally to a lost ball, and not to one that merely is sent out of sight of a majority of fielders.]

29. After the ball shall have been finally settled in the wicket keeper's or bowler's hand, it shall be considered dead ; but when the bowler is about to deliver a ball, if the striker at his wicket go outside the popping crease before such actual delivery, the said bowler may put him out unless (with reference to the 21st law) his bat in hand, or some part of his person, be within the popping crease.

30. The striker shall not retire from his wicket and return to it to complete his innings, after another has been in, without the consent of the opposite party.

31. No substitute shall in any case be allowed to stand out or run between wickets for another person without the consent of the opposite party ; and in case any person shall be allowed to run for another, the striker shall be out if either he or his substitute be off the ground in manner mentioned in laws 17 and 21, while the ball is in play.

32. In all cases where a substitute shall be allowed, the consent

of the opposite party shall also be obtained as to the person to act as substitute, and the place in the field which he shall take.

33. If any fieldman stop the ball with his hat, the ball shall be considered dead, and the opposite party shall add five runs to their score; if any be run they shall have five in all.

34. The ball having been hit, the striker may guard his wicket, with his bat or any part of his body except his hands; that the 23rd law may not be disobeyed.

35. The wicket-keeper shall not take the ball for the purpose of stumping, until it have passed the wicket; he shall not by any noise incommode the striker; and if any part of his person be over wicket, although the ball hit it, the striker shall not be put out.

36. The umpires are the sole judges of fair and unfair play, and all disputes shall be determined by them, each at his own wicket; but in case of a catch, which the umpire at the wicket bowled from can not see sufficiently to decide upon, he may apply to the other umpire, whose opinion shall be conclusive.

37. The umpires in all matches shall pitch fair wicket, and the parties shall toss up for choice of innings. The umpires shall change wickets, after each party has had one innings.

38. They shall allow two minutes for each striker to come in, and ten minutes between each innings. When the umpire shall call "play," the parties refusing to play shall lose the match.

[This law ought to be more strictly enforced than it is; as then much unnecessary delay would be avoided. The captains of the elevens should have their men in readiness to go in the moment a batsman is out.]

39. They are not to order a striker out, unless appealed to by the adversaries.

40. But if one of the bowlers be not on the ground behind the bowling crease and within the return crease when he shall deliver the ball, the umpire at his wicket, unasked, must call "No Ball."

41. If either of the strikers run a short run, the umpire must call "One Short."

42. No umpire shall be allowed to bet.

43. No umpire is to be changed during a match, unless with the consent of both parties, except in violation of 42nd law; then either party may dismiss the transgressor.

44. After the delivery of four balls, the umpire must call "Over" but not until the ball shall be finally settled in the wicket-keeper's or bowler's hands—the ball shall then be considered dead; nevertheless, if an idea be entertained that either of the strikers is out, a question may be put previously to, but not after the delivery of the next ball.

45. The umpire must take special care to call "No Ball" instantly upon delivery; "Wide Ball" as soon as it shall pass the striker.

46. The players who go in second shall follow their innings, if they have obtained 80 runs less than their antagonists, except to matches limited to one day's play, when the number shall be 60 instead of 80.

47. When one of the strikers shall have been put out, the use of the bat shall not be allowed to any person until the next striker shall come in.

X. Educational Intelligence.

— UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO, ANNUAL CONVOCATION.—The annual convocation of the University of Toronto was held in the Convocation-hall, on the 6th ult., at half-past two o'clock, the Chancellor, the Hon. Judge Burns, and Vice-Chancellor the Hon. James Patton, with the Professors of University College and other members of the Senate, entered the room and took their seats on the platform. They were followed by a large number of students, who seated themselves in the places allotted them around the room. The proceedings commenced with the admission of the following gentlemen to the degrees named:—M.D.—F. B. Tisdell, M.B. M.A.—R. Sullivan, B.A.; J. A. Boyd, B.A.; J. T. Fraser, B.A.; D. A. Sampson, B.A. LL.B.—R. Smith, W. Boys, M. O'Gara, J. Bethune, H. Robertson, W. N. Miller, F. H. Stayner, N. Douglass, R. P. Stephens, L. English, W. E. O'Brien, G. P. Denison. M.B.—A. Hudson, J. Elliot, W. Tempest, D. J. Pollock, J. Wanless, J. Bell. B.A.—J. Turnbull, A. Grant, G. Grant, J. H. Thom, D. Ormiston, A. McMurchy, W. A. Reeve, J. B. Ross, R. McGee, J. H. Hunter, J. C. Hatton, A. Gillespie, S. Lount.

MEDALS, SCHOLARSHIPS, AND PRIZES.—*Faculty of Law*.—R. Smith, Silver Medal. *Faculty of Medicine*.—A. Hudson, M.B., Gold Medal; J. Elliot, M.B., Silver Medal. *Faculty of Arts—Mathematics*.—1. J. H. Thom, Silver Medal; 2. D. Ormiston, Silver Medal; 3. A. McMurchy, Silver Medal. *Modern Languages*.—J. Turnbull, Gold Medal. *Natural Sciences*.—A. Grant, Gold Medal. *Met., Ethics and Civil Polity*.—G. Grant, Gold Medal; A. Grant, Silver Medal. *Oriental Languages*.—G. Grant, prizeman. *Civil Engineering*.—C. F. Robertson, prizeman.

SCHOLARSHIPS.—*Faculty of Law*.—First year, W. W. Hamilton. *Faculty of Medicine*.—First Year, 1. W. N. Whiteside; 2. J. F. Rolls; 3. J. W. McLaughlin. Second year, 1. S. F. Ramsay; 2. D. B. McCool. Third year, 1. J. Bolster; 2. H. Manly. *Faculty of Arts—Greek and Latin*.—First year, 1. J. Connor; 2. T. J. Robertson (double.) Second year, 1. N. McNish; 2. J. M. Gibson. Third year, S. Woods. *Mathematics*.—First year, 1. T. J. Robertson (double.) 2. J. Rutlege; 3. J. E. Seymour. Second year, 1. T. W. Wright; 2. A. M. Lafferty. Third year, 1. J. Loudon; 2. J. McLellan. Fourth year, J. H. Thom. *Modern Languages*.—Second year, W. Mulock; Third year, 1. J. M. Gibson (double.) 2. J. M. Buchan; Fourth year, J. Turnbull. *Natural Sciences*.—Second year, R. Harbottle; third year, R. Reeve; fourth year, A. Grant. *Metaphysics, &c.*—Second year, T. D. Craig; third year, J. M. Gibson (double.) Fourth year, G. Grant. *General Proficiency*.—J. McMillan. *Oriental Languages*.—First year, F. L. Patton; second year, J. M. Gibson; third year, J. Hubbard. *Thesis for M.A.*—R. Sullivan, B.A. *Civil Engineering*—B. Irwin. *Agriculture*.—C. Forneri.

In awarding the medals, prizes, and scholarships the successful candidates were presented by the different examiners, who briefly addressed the meeting in terms highly complimentary to the students who bore off the honors. The announcement of the names was received with applause which swelled into wild enthusiasm when some of the favourites made their appearance to claim the honors they had so deservedly gained. The last prize having been awarded, the Chancellor rose and said that nothing remained to be done by him save to call attention to the increase in the number of matriculants entering the University this year. The total number in the faculties of medicine and arts, and civil engineering and agriculture was 74, while last year upon the same subjects there were only 52—showing an increase of 22. It should be borne in mind that this was quite irrespective of those gentlemen who had made legal studies their pursuits, no examination for matriculation in the faculty of law taking place until a later period in the year. Consequently, the real increase in the number of matriculents was greater than 22; for last year the number in the faculty of law was 10, and if it proved the same this year—and there was no reason to doubt that it would—the total increase would be 32. He mentioned these facts in order that the public might bear in mind the result of the labors of the University, and to induce the people of Canada to send their sons to it for education. (Applause.) It only remained for him to declare the Convocation dismissed. The students then gave three hearty cheers for the Queen, three for the Chancellor, three also for the late Vice-Chancellor, and three for the Professors, after which the meeting separated.—*Leader*.

— UNIVERSITY OF VICTORIA COLLEGE.—The Annual Convocation of Victoria College took place on Wednesday noon, the 22nd ultimo. The proceedings were commenced with prayer by the Rev. Dr. Stinson. The delivery of the Essays by the successful candidates for the B. A. degree followed immediately, Mr. McClive bravely leading with Latin Salutatory. We subjoin a list of these with the names of their respective authors and orators:—W. McClive, Chippawa—*Salutatory*. Coleman Bristol, Bath—*Garibaldi*. Daniel Perrin, Mount Vernon—*National Greatness*. John Philp, Woodbridge—*The Genius of Discovery*. Edmund S. Rupert, Mapleville—*The Destiny of Opinion*. W. I. Shaw, Kingston—*The Mission of the Anglo-Saxon*. Alexander Burns, Toronto—*Valedictory*.

The following degrees were then conferred in due form by the Rev. President:—B. A.—Alexander Burns, Coleman Bristol, Jas. Hossack, Wm. H. McOlive, Daniel Perrin, John Philp, E. S. Rupert, William I. Shaw, William E. Scott. M. D.—Joseph Clarke, William Lane, Isaac Bowman, Thomas J. Sutherland, Anson Buck, Charles W. Stinson, David W. Dubble, Levi H. Swan, Benjamin Bowman, Henry Smith, Titus Crooker, John Grant, Edward Allworth, Alexander R. Strachan, John Baird, William McGregor, William H. Street, A. Cook, J. O'Donnell, T. Keating, E. Hornibrooke, H. Tuck, Thomas Schofield.

HONORARY.—M. A.—Professors C. V. Berryman, M. D., and John Herbert Sangster, Esq., Second Master of the Normal School, Toronto. LL.D.—Rev. Egerton Ryerson, D.D., Chief Superintendent of Education in Upper Canada. The President then announced that the Senate had also granted the degree of D.D., to the Rev. Samuel D. Waddy, President of the British Wesleyan Conference. The Presentation of Prizes was the next in order, and in reference to the Prince of Wales' Prizes, the President drew particular attention to the fact that they were given to the students who had been most successful in all departments of the College curriculum during the four years of their course. The First Prize was not given to a student who had shone brilliantly in one department of study, or who

had run well for a year or two, but to him who took the highest standing in all the prescribed subjects of the curriculum during the whole four years of study.

The Rev. Dr. Ryerson, on being called upon to present the different prizes to the successful competitors, explained the origin of the various prizes. In referring to the principles which guided the award in the case of the Prince of Wales' Prizes just set forth by the learned President, he observed very forcibly that solidity of character could only be acquired by cultivating every faculty of the mind. Such a course of mental discipline as that which is maintained in the curriculum of the University of Victoria College tended to produce minds of a high order, distinguished by the breadth and comprehensiveness of their views. The following were the Prizes awarded to under graduates:—*First in Arts*—The Prince of Wales' First Prize—Alexander Burns. *Second in Arts*—The Prince of Wales' Second Prize—W. H. McClive. *First Prize in Scripture History*—The Ryerson Prize—Alex. Hardie. *Second Prize in Scripture History*—Nelson Bigelow. *First English Essay*—The Webster Prize—John Frost. *Second English Essay*—The Hodgins Prize—John Philp. Concerning these we have briefly to remark:—

1. That the First Prince of Wales' Prize is the highest honor in the gift of the University, and though for the present consisting of Books will probably be bestowed hereafter in the form of a Gold Medal. In this event a Medal will be given to the talented and industrious graduate who has won the Prize the present year.

2. We may mention that inasmuch as the donation given by the Prince of Wales had not been invested long enough to produce the required amount for the three prizes which will hereafter be annually bestowed, only one would have been given this year, but for the generous kindness of Mr. John Hayden, of this town, who kindly furnished this year a sum sufficient to enable the University authorities to bestow the Second Prize

3. The First Prize in Scripture History, named "the Ryerson Prize," and the First and Second Prizes, named the "Webster and "Hodgins" Prizes, are the proceeds of a sum of between \$600 and \$700, given some time since by J. George Hodgins, Esq., LL.B., the Deputy Superintendent of Education, for the purpose of founding Prizes for the encouragement of industrious students in Victoria College, his own beloved *alma mater*. The Second Prize in Scripture is the result of a similar gift on the part of her distinguished son W. Kerr, Esq., a valued townsman of Cobourg. In addition to the prizes already referred to, there were three others of less value bestowed upon the leaders of the three matriculant classes, all of which are regarded as of equal standing. The names of these prizemen are—James G. Blair, William Wilkinson, and Alexander McNab Meacham. The Hon. John Rolph, LL.D., the venerable Dean of the Medical Faculty, then delivered an Address, which we understand bore chiefly on the relative position of the Universities of Toronto and of Victoria College, but it was spoken in so low a tone that most of it was inaudible to three-fourths of the audience. The Benediction was then pronounced, and the meeting adjourned.—*Cobourg Star*.

—**MODEL SCHOOLS EXAMINATION.**—The annual public examination of the Model Schools of Upper Canada, took place on the 21st inst., in the Normal School buildings, in the presence of a large number of the parents of the children and of the general public. The appearances made by the children during the examination in the several departments, was exceedingly creditable to their own assiduity and to the efficiency of their teachers. At the close of the examination, the prizes awarded to the most diligent and successful pupils, were distributed—those to the girls, by the Hon. P. M. Vankoughnet, Commissioner of Crown Lands, and those to the boys by the Hon. James Patton, Vice-Chancellor of the University. Besides the usual prizes in the girls' department, Mrs. Clark, the teacher of the first division, gave at her own expense a copy of Worcester's large and costly dictionary to each of the two best spellers among the girls under her care. Master William Gemmell, the boy whose general proficiency entitled him to the scholarship for the Model Grammar School, being called forward, Dr. Ryerson said that this scholarship was given for the first time last year. The boy who obtained it was the son of a poor man who was unable to procure the books necessary for his studies in the Grammar School, and the father therefore intended to put the boy to a trade. A gentleman hearing this, purchased for him the necessary books, and the boy went into the Model Grammar School last year without knowing a word of Latin or Greek. He passed through the first or lowest class, and at Christmas was advanced into the second class, and now stood dux of the third class in the Model Grammar School. (Applause.) The Hon. Mr. Patton in presenting

the scholarship, hoped that the boy who had carried it this year, would be as successful as his predecessor of last year, and giving his ambition a still wider flight, he might in a few years take an honourable place within the walls of the University. After the distribution of the prizes, the girls of the second division presented their teacher, Miss Shennick, with a handsome work-box, as a mark of their affection and regard. The girls of the first division, who have completed their course of instruction in the Model School, presented their teacher, Mrs. Clark, with a valuable gold chain. Dr. Ryerson then briefly addressed the audience. He said the session of the Normal School closed last week, the session of the Model School closed to-day. He had never listened with more pleasure to the examinations in the model schools than he had done to-day, or with more satisfaction in regard to the mode of teaching which was pursued. And he had equal reason for satisfaction in viewing the condition of the Normal School. During last session there were no fewer than 182 new applicants for admission to the Normal School; of these 23 were rejected and 159 admitted. There were who left during the session—some on account of ill health, others on account of poverty, and others on account of inability to keep up with the classes—46; leaving 113 in the Normal School at the close of the session. Of the 182 who applied for admission during the past session, no less than 93 had been teachers previously to coming to the school, and many of them first-class teachers. He was happy also to state that among the most successful teachers in training in the Normal School were those who had a previous training in the Model School—and the two young ladies who on a former occasion like this stood the first in the Model School, stood now, if not the two first, at least among the first in the Normal School, competing with not only female but male teachers. Dr. Ryerson concluded by announcing an adjournment of the school till the 12th August. Rev. Wm. Ryerson then pronounced the benediction, and the proceedings were closed by the singing of the National Anthem.

—**TRINITY COLLEGE VOLUNTEER RIFLE CORPS.**—A well attended meeting of the members of the University of Trinity College, was lately held, for the purpose of organizing a Volunteer Rifle Corps, to consist of the graduates and under graduates of the College. A memorial of His Excellency the Governor General was drawn up and signed by all present, petitioning His Excellency to give his sanction to the formation of a Rifle Corps in connection with the College. Major Robert Denison, to whom the credit of setting the scheme on foot is mainly due, was unanimously appointed Captain, subject to the approbation of the Commander-in-Chief. The Captain-elect was then requested to recommend Salter J. Vankoughnet, Esq., M. A., B. C. L., as Lieutenant, and Professor Bovell as Surgeon to the Corps. We are glad to observe that Trinity College has thus exhibited its loyalty in being the first in Upper Canada to follow the example so nobly set by our fellow subjects at home, and more particularly by the Universities of Cambridge and Oxford.—*Leader*.

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