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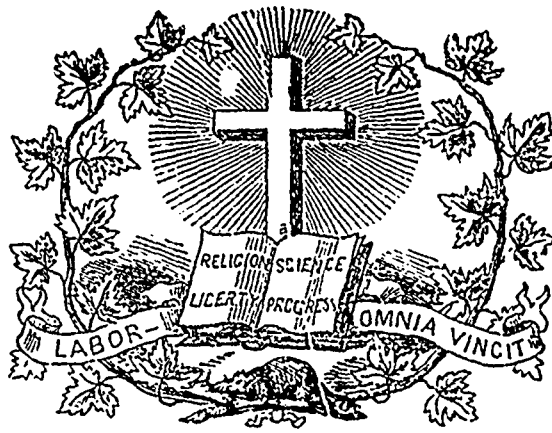
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# JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

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**SUMMARY.**—**EDUCATION:** Graduation in teaching and training, by John Bruce, Esq., Inspector of Schools, (continued).—School Days of Eminent Men in Great Britain, by J. F. Thoms, (continued).—Suggestive Hints towards Improved Secular Instruction, by Revd. R. Daws, xvii: Schoolmasters, (continued).—Health and Physical Education.—Air necessary for life and health.—Valuable suggestions to promote health.—Errors about sleep.—Little children's dresses.—Never too old to learn.—You are a stupid blockhead.—Thoughts on Education from various authors, (continued).—**OFFICIAL NOTICES:** Separation and annexation of School Municipalities.—Diplomas granted by Boards of Examiners.—Notice respecting School Census.—**ERRATA:** The visit of H. R. H. the Prince of Wales to America, (continued).—**NOTICES OF BOOKS AND PUBLICATIONS:** Cleanings from school life experience, by Isaac Orestu.—Voyage d'André Michaux en Canada, par M. O. Brant.—Wilson and Robb: The metals in Canada.—Ornithologie Canadienne, par J. M. Lemoine, 2e partie.—**MONTHLY SUMMARY:** Educational Intelligence.—Literary Intelligence.—Miscellaneous Intelligence.

## EDUCATION.

### Graduation in Teaching and Training.

In teaching, the educator has to study many things. He has to deal with infant minds gradually developing their powers; and as these unfold, suit his instructions, manner of conveying, and language employed to each stage of development. Adapting teaching to children of different ages, degrees of advancement and capacity, is certainly no easy task; but it is a task at which we must aim. Success in teaching, and the healthy development of the powers of the mind, depend so much upon it, that it should be made one of the indispensable qualifications of the teacher.—The object of the following hints is to direct attention to this very important subject.

Expanding—directing—and consolidating the powers of the young mind, should be the teacher's *first great object*. The exercises employed in doing this should be carefully chosen and specially studied. They should at first be exceedingly simple, and appropriate, attended with a constant repetition of the facts presented in them to the mind. In proportion as the mind strengthens and expands, its stores of ideas should be increased. As the pupil advances, as his mind gathers strength, and acquires grasp, exercises should be made progressively more adapted to his stages of advancement. But at no stage of advance should repetitions, —well connected repetitions, so as to form and ground in the mind a well conjoined outline of what is taught—be by any means neglected. Thus communicating one chain of thought after another, and of a character suited to its strength, and adding others in succession as it can profitably receive them, there is built up in the mind and memory of the child a regular and connected framework of knowledge intimately connected in all its parts, and forming as it advances a compact whole. The advantage of this permanent linking of ideas in the mind of the pupil, is, that by the law of association any one idea of a chain brought before the mind at any future period, calls up in their first order all the ideas, of

this chain as they were originally combined. Another thing not to be overlooked in education is, that the course of knowledge with the scholar must be *expansive* as well as progressive: from narrow infantile views to more general principles; from near confined conceptions to wide-world utilities; from initiatory beginning, and vague ideas of what is taught, to the facts, the truths of a living universe. Our schools must keep up with the advance of knowledge, and keep pace with the progress of the human mind, or they will prove false to their place and trust. The onward movements of society make it urgent. It cannot be evaded. We are not to trundle round and round forever in the old ruts of thoughts—clinging with blind faith to crude schemes and modes of instructions, which belong—where they originated—to bygone ages. The elevating onward tendencies of education must never be lost sight of. The progress of society and the advancement of education must ever keep pace. As the treasures of knowledge enrich, school progress should so advance, as to be able to take advantage of these,—be prepared profitably to draw upon them. [And without intelligent advances in systems of teaching this cannot be done.] The subjects of school study should be so modified and extended, and methods of teaching and training youth and storing their minds from the mass of facts, principles, and increasing knowledge, be so improved, as to afford more and larger opportunities and ampler means—to draw upon the labours of the great expounders of arts, sciences and nature, for more highly and more intelligently educating our youth.

My views of the graduation which should be followed in educating youth, I shall endeavour to explain in the following remarks, and illustrate by a few examples. In a previous communication I attempted to explain, and as simply as I could, how a child may be interestingly, and in a very short time, taught his letters and his first stage of reading. In this I shall begin at his next or second stage,—supposing that he can read easy lessons, give the meaning of what he reads,—define such words as may occur in his lessons,—express his own ideas a little on the subjects he reads,—and that his mind has, in some degree, been trained to reflect, judge and reason, &c. In this paper I solicit the attention of teachers to the following rules and remarks. In my next these will be followed up by passage-illustrations.

Regulate your teaching much by the following rules:—

1. Remember that prevention is better than cure. Therefore, begin teaching your pupils, first, by preparing their minds for the work, by object exercises, directing them how to think, reflect, judge and reason. And to prevent their falling into improper habits in thinking and doing, guide them carefully at every step of their work by example and illustrations, showing them how to *prepare themselves for reading each lesson, how then to read, define, explain and apply words, picture out truths, &c.* Beginning to teach them in this way will prevent the forming of a hundred injurious habits in thinking, speaking, reading; the forming of improper, incorrect notions about school and school work; and its

whole tendency will be to make the business of learning, interesting, rational and rapidly progressive.

2. Example in school does ten times more than precept and advice. As the bodies of children are imperceptibly affected by the air they breathe, so are their minds by the moral, intellectual and skill-teaching atmosphere which, in school, surrounds them. The tone of character and general influence of those under whom their education is carried on are giving to their minds a mould, a tone, a character, and a sum of tendencies, which will never cease, while they live, to exert and exhibit an influence over them. Therefore, every thing done by the teacher in school should be highly exemplary, both in what he says and does. In his manner, he should be engaging, in his language correct and guardedly moral, and in his way of teaching attractively skillful—full and familiar in his illustrations.

3. Be more concerned, and make more efforts to form habits than to inculcate rules. Seeing, doing, and correctly imitating, with *unceasing repetitions*, is the grand school rule. It is little—it is beginning at the wrong end—to tell a child what to do: we must first show him how to do it, *lead him on in his efforts—repeat these, till crowned with success*. It is nothing to enact laws, if we do not take care that they be put into practice, and adopted as habits. This is the chief business of education, yet the most neglected.—With the scholar there is an internal and an external doing. The mind within is at work, and on it depends entirely the work without. Now, to think is the highest exercise of the mind, and *doing* is just carrying out what is there begun in thought. Now the teacher who begins the education of his pupil by teaching him how to think—think correctly, and how to follow up his own processes of thought in a connected rational way, seldom fails to carry out the external work. To think correctly must ever precede doing correctly; and so entirely does the latter depend on the former that no one can speak or act, without at once showing how he thinks. The character of the workings of his mind he stamps upon his words and actions.

When the accomplished educationist, Dr. Vogel was questioned about "exercises in thinking," his reply was, "I consider it a *sin* in any teacher, not to lead his pupil to think, think with correctness on all the subjects he teaches." He did not call it an omission, or even a disqualification in a teacher not to awaken thought in the minds of his pupils, and train them in the art of thinking, he peremptorily denounced it as a *sin*. Where should the teacher begin his work, if not here? How should he commence his work, if not with exercises of speech and thought—communicating to his pupil's thinking powers, freedom, direction and expansion—how in his studies to use these powers with advantage, and give expression to his thoughts in correct language?—All our leading educationists, without exception, insist upon this preparatory breaking in exercise of the child, as of all training exercises the most important, in commencing the education of a child.

4. Never forget the overwhelming importance of the office of the teacher.—What are teachers? Are they not the living, acting models of intelligence and skill, in training, moulding and enlightening the minds of our youthful population to become the lights and life of their own and a coming generation? Teachers, in fact, should be the constituted fountain-head of every educational improvement, from every possible source, and thus to be to national education a *LIVING HEART*—sending forth its precious streams so collected, vivified and perfected, every where to circulate—reaching every cot and hamlet of the land. The two most prominent ideas this view of the subject of teachers and teaching bring up, are the high object of education, and the high accordant qualifications requisite for the work. Of these the true teacher never loses sight. He works *for* the work, and he works *in* the work,—self-preparation for it, skill in doing it. He goes to the work seriously *pondering its nature and its responsibilities*, and devotes his best powers for a thorough preparation of himself for his high duties.—To every teacher, I would say—Go and do likewise.

I shall now endeavour to explain, so plainly as I can, how children may be successfully and intelligently trained and taught reading at what I would call, the *second stage* of their education. A passage-illustration will be subjoined.

§ 1. Children should not be made to read a lesson, nor trained upon it on the book till well exercised upon the ideas it contains, (and connectedly,) and made acquainted with the meaning and correct pronunciation of all its words. To do this, read the lesson to them,—they listening with books closed. Be sure to read very slowly, and with a clear distinct enunciation. As you proceed with the reading, stop at each sentence, or even clause, if the sentence be long, and question the class on what you have read—making them also repeat—and re-repeat, if required, what you

have read. On reading the next sentence or clause, take in what you before questioned them on and made them repeat. As you give, see that their minds *get and keep hold of all from the beginning*. This is the great secret of successful teaching. As you proceed with the reading, stop now and then and put a question, either to an individual or to the whole class, to ascertain whether or not attention is paid to your reading and *that you are carrying their understandings along with you*.—This will be farther illustrated by a short passage subjoined.

Finding that the class is pretty familiar with the subject of the lesson and with its leading ideas, question minutely on every part of it,—taking sentences, clauses, and single words. But in this preparatory exercise pay special attention to the connexion and relation of the different parts of the lesson, and to the meaning and application of the words. If this exercise is gone through with spirit and skill, the class will very quickly and correctly, master the lesson on the book. But be sure to give as much suitable variety as possible to this part of the work. It lies at the very foundation of mental development.

§ 2. *With books open*, commence the next stage of the work. You read before them,—taking sentences by clauses, or as much as they can easily take hold of and retain at one time. When you stop, all read simultaneously as you did. To command attention make individuals here and there in the class, read what was read to them. Be sure that your own reading is good and correct, as it respects *tone, pitch*, emphases, flexions of the voice, &c.—You are setting them an example for imitation,—and an effect, *it will certainly produce*. And what teacher—deserving the name—would not wish it to be good—indicative of skill in the teacher? For every impression we make in teaching remains on the mind of the impressed, and exerts an influence on it, and it on others, less or more, how long and in how many way, we cannot tell. Proceed in this way to the end of the lesson. As they read after you—closely imitating you reading—individually or simultaneously, allow no inaccuracies of any kind to pass uncorrected. Draw out and train their voices well. But take care—take care—that as little as possible of your labour be here lost; and see that every individual in the class is doing *his* part of the work. Your instruction and school hours, are too precious for any of either to be lost. I observe that half the labour of some teachers is lost, or productive of little benefit, either, because they want sufficient tact to stir up, keep awake and carry the understanding of the children along with them, when training them, or they want *earnestness* in the work. Again, ever remember that *prevention* is better than cure. Diligent watchfulness at this stage, to prevent the formation of injurious habits, is of the utmost importance. Let your rule not be to correct bad habits, whenever they manifest themselves; but, to *prevent their formation*. To do this is a great saving of labour to both teacher and scholar; and, besides, it saves the disagreeable irritation—*teasing* irritation, I may say, which, generally, attends correcting inaccuracies, which creep in, when first teaching reading, and doing away with habits of muttering, stammering, hesitating, and such others, as render it impossible to make any scholar a fluent correct reader, when these become stereotyped.

§ 3. I beg now to make a few remarks on explanations. This is an important part of the teacher's work as he trains; and how best to do it; should be a subject of much study with the teacher. He who can do it skilfully saves to himself and his pupil much time, trouble and labour.

In stating or explaining any thing, make the scholar or the class, as it may be, repeat your statement or explanation, and let it be repeated till you are satisfied that they have got hold on your definitions, statements or explanations. Inattention to this greatly increases the labour and trouble of both teacher and scholar, and very much retards progress. Till the scholar repeats, *and with the understanding*, what is told him, how can any teacher know, whether or not he has succeeded in making him correctly and fully comprehend him, or that the thing explained has received a lodgement in the mind? Repeating and reviewing are far from being sufficiently attended to in schools.—Every repetition, remember, deepens impressions on the pupil's mind; and every review, familiarizes him more and more with the ground gone over. But see, and especially, that all is done through the understanding, and take special care that no word is used not well comprehended by the pupil. One word used, *not understood*, may, and often does, mystify the whole of an explanation.

§ 4. When the class is able to read the lesson by clauses pretty correctly, and all are familiar with the meaning and correct orthoëpy of words, know where pauses are to be made, and how the words between the points are, to give the meaning correctly,

to be joined in reading, the class is then—but not till then—to read the lesson off, sentence after sentence. This is to be done, first by the teacher, leading them by sentences, and they simultaneously following, and made to repeat every clause and every sentence correctly and at once, without stammering, hesitating, dwelling too long on a word, repeating words or parts of words, or any thing which makes the reading faulty, or a discontinuity in reading, against which every teacher should guard from the child's very first attempts at reading. The class, then, is to read alone, simultaneously and individually, till a considerable degree of correctness is reached.—By this time the teacher has had sufficient opportunity of knowing how far they have mastered the lesson and understood words. And it very seldom happens, if all the previous exercises are intelligently gone through, in the different ways directed, that any class is not prepared for seat preparation. [When time admits read to them the whole lesson, right through—to show how, as a whole, it should be read—how to pause—regulate the voice—emphasize words, clauses, &c.] The class is then to be marched in order to seats, for self-preparation, with strict injunctions, there to study in the way it was trained—two and two, when convenient, going together, to aid and check each other in study. On seats, they first examine each other on words—their pronunciation and meaning, then on stops, places for pausing, words to be made emphatic in reading, &c. This exercise prepares them to commence its reading; this, from the previous training, and self-preparation, is done with little labour.—During this time of self-preparation, another class should be before the educator, to undergo similar training, and so on, in succession till all the forms or classes have passed through their initiatory training.

[N. B. The more I consider the subject of training, and its excellent results, the more I incline to the opinion, that its more general adoption, based upon sound principles and skilfully worked, is the only effectual way to give life to our methods of teaching, make the progress of the scholar more satisfactory and rapid work into our schools a higher standard of intelligence, and give a greater impetus to general improvements.—To give full development to training principles, and fairly bring out results, I am of opinion that part of school time, (say the morning hours,) should be devoted solely to training, not only in reading and its concomitants, but in teaching every branch, taught especially in forms or classes, and another part, (say the after part of the day,) in testing results—the results of training, and of self-study. First train, then test; first, show practically, and with method, how to do or study, and then, after sometime of self-efforts, try results; first, make every thing clear and intelligent, always associating practice with every explanation, example or illustration, then, after giving due time for study, trace the effects of both in your class; first, show the way, bring the pupil upon it, and direct him how to proceed; then, after an interval for advance, see what his progress may have been.]

When called up to test their reading, and ascertain their knowledge of their lesson, the teacher, first, divides the lesson into portions, if long, then orders it to be read, in rotation, beginning at the head or foot of the class, or calling on any individual in the class to read the named portion. Before he begins the teacher questions him on his knowledge of his portion; how it should be read, with reference to pronunciation—tone—pauses, &c., he then begins, and as he reads, his mistakes, faults in reading, &c. are marked by both the class and the teacher,—but not named for correction till he has gone through with his portion; then they are marked out to be corrected, either by the master or the class; and he is again called on to read his portion,—and with special reference to the mistakes he made. Checking and correcting the reader as he goes on, is an injurious custom. It leads to hesitancy, is a great hinderance to fluent expressive reading, and it often deprives the pupil of that self-confidence and self-command, (through fear of being checked or interrupted,) so indispensable, to make reading correct, easy and flowing. Constant interruptions destroy reading. To do justice to a passage read, to bring out its full meaning, show the connexion of its parts and their grammatical and logical dependence on each other, the reader must read on uninterruptedly,—making the continued flow of his voice accord with the continued flow of ideas in what he reads.

Till the class can read with considerable ease and correctness, lessons should be short. It is a fault with many teachers to give long—too long lessons. This instead of pushing on their education, retards it; and it very much discourages them. A pupil at once knows, from the length and character of the lesson, whether or not he can, within the allowed time, master it. If he believes he cannot, he becomes discouraged, and commences its study dispondingly and out of humour,—comes before the master ill pre-

pared, and with little heart to go on with the work; but if he believes he can, he will study it cheerfully—go through his work with spirit, and with satisfaction to his teacher.

To make the preceding remarks and directions more easily understood, and how to be practically carried out, I shall illustrate them by a few passages. I first thus show how to teach a class the facts or truths of a lesson, in their given connexion, without books, so as to prepare it for book-training. Let this exercise be gone through skilfully, and in such a way as to command the attention of the children, and the book-teaching, will be found an easy task.

## FIRST ILLUSTRATIVE PASSAGE.

Birds build their nests in our gardens, | as they built them in Eden; | the bees in our hives construct their honeycomb | as the bees of Samson's time did that which he took from the carcase of the lion; | and the beavers of Canada rear their dams, | and huts, and burrows at this day | as they have done ever since their species was created.

N. B. The upright lines or bars show how much should at one time be read. When a marked off division is read, (the children attentively listening,) they repeat it, in a distinct manly tone,—without the least approach to a sing-song, and then they are questioned upon it, to see that they fully understand what they have repeated.—as follows:

*Birds build their nests in our gardens. |*

[Make the class repeat ... clause simultaneously—and then question them as directed in the 1st of my directions.] *As they built them in Eden; |*

[To be repeated aloud, and questioned upon, as before.]

The bees in our hives construct their honey-comb. |

[To be repeated and questioned upon.]

As the bees of Samson's time did that which he took from the carcase of the lion; |

[Proceed in this way to the end of the lesson; then take the principal points or leading ideas—Birds build their nests—bees construct their honey-comb,—beavers build their dams, &c., and exercise their faculties upon them—showing them how to picture out ideas from these,—how to express themselves in correct language, &c.—This method has never been known to fail to prepare children for learning the lesson on the book, quickly—correctly—and with the understanding.]

The teacher now proceeds to train them with books open, nearly in the same way. See directions under numbers 2, 3, and 4.

Eight or ten days of such training will so improve their reading, make them understand the nature of study, and develop their faculties, as to make learning to read, and with the understanding, an easy and pleasant work.

At the next stage of advance, the training, first without books may be dispensed with, as preparatory to book-training.—Begin immediately with books; and as you proceed, let it be with special attention to the directions of numbers 2, 3 and 4.

## PASSAGE FOR ILLUSTRATION.

We are about to enter on a most delightful study,—| that of the human body. | We need no text-book, | but our own bodies;—and our aim will be | to find out of what elements | these bodies are made,—how they are nourished | how preserved, | and how in being built up, | each stands out,—a living temple for the living soul, | than which | there is nothing greater or grander | than God himself.

Suppose this passage to be a lesson, I would direct it to be read before the class, thus—Read in a clear, distinct way, and slowly to the first bar, then stop, and make the class read the same, and if required, re-read it till they all come up to your reading; then read the next, to be by them read in the same way. But see that they begin not till you shall have read to the bar, or end of the sentence. Let them be still and very attentive, that they may hear and get hold on your pronunciation and mode of reading. Proceed in this way to the end of the lesson; then, immediately, commence and read it again by sentences, i. e. read a sentence before you stop; and make them as before, read after you. Lead them on in this way to the end. If they have been attentive, and yourself particular, they will be pretty well prepared for self-study on seats.—See the directions of number 4. In the whole of this training, guide yourself as much as possible by the directions given in numbers 1, 2, 3 and 4.

The great objects in thus leading them on,—clause after clause, sentence after sentence, are, to train their voices, ground them well in correct pronunciation, and give them an idea of good read-

ing,—how with a continued flow of voice, without any break, to read on, clause after clause, sentence after sentence,—taking breath and pausing only where the sense admits or requires it.—The more a pupil is made master of the words he is to pronounce and join them in reading the less liable is he to stammer, hesitate, or make blunders, and *vice versa*. Again, when he is led on in a correct way, when a proper example is set before him, which he is, on the instant, to imitate, and to repeat till he comes up to it, he is prevented, from falling into a blundering defective reading; and the HABIT of correct, fluent, manly reading, will insensibly grow up and exert,—what we want—a controlling power,—a power which cannot be too early employed in the education of youth.

Let us now suppose the class called up after seat-preparation to go through TEST exercises on the lesson. This is to be done as directed in my remarks. See number 4.

Having read, they may then be tried, first, on the meaning of words, on books, slates, or the black-board, and then generally on the lesson.

A tabular view will better illustrate this exercise than any other way.

The first column in the table contains the words to be analysed—defined—and exemplified; the second, the definitions of the words, and the third, the same words embodied in sentences—given by the pupils.—The words are selected from the lesson read.

Tabular view of exercises on the definitions of words.

Words to be defined.	Definition of words.	Application of words in sentences.
Enter on. . . . .	To begin a most delightful study.	We enter on our work with pleasure.
Study. . . . .	Application of the mind in learning.	Study is often very difficult.
Aim. . . . .	Purpose object.	In studying we should aim at improvement.
Elements. . . . .	The simple substances of which our bodies are composed.	Every body has its first or making up elements
Nourished. . . . .	Supported by food.	Our bodies need to be nourished.
Preserved . . . . .	Kept from injury or decay.	Life is kept up or preserved by nourishment
Temple. . . . .	A holy or sacred place of abode or residence	The temple of Solomon was very grand.
Soul. . . . .	The never dying spirit of man.	Our soul is our living self.
Grandeur . . . . .	More splendid or glorious.	The more we know of the works of God the grander they appear.
God . . . . .	The ever-living-one—the creator of all things.	In the beginning God created all things.

In this exercise make them substitute the definition for the word defined, thus: 'We are about [to begin] a most delightful study'; and if the meaning of the clause or sentence, with the definition, is the same as with the word defined, it proves the explanation to be correct, if not it must be so altered as to convey the same idea, or one as near to it as possible. In this way exercise them a good deal, and especially on the application of words in sentences of their own construction. Without this the exercise is not fully followed up.—Finding that they know the meaning of words and their application pretty well, question them generally on the lesson. In this be particular. No plan tends more to give the scholar a clear understanding of his lesson as this, if skilfully employed; and it aids the memory much in permanently remembering it. Lecturing on a lesson is not nearly so profitable to the scholar. It produces an exercise of thought which lecturing cannot; it develops and whets the faculties far better; it commands attention more; and it keeps the mind more profitably awake. In lecturing our words may be well chosen, but how are we sure that they have reached their minds, or that they have paid close attention to us?—But by questioning, we can ascertain both. Their thoughts are of necessity drawn out and set at work. If an answer of any meaning is made, it must be the result of consideration, which is an important point gained.—Questions well put, and upon well

selected points are suggestive of a chain of ideas, and which the intelligent educator, as he has time, follows up exciting, but not supersedes, the pupil's reflection. It also offers to the teacher an excellent opportunity of training his pupils to correctness of thought and expression. Children are generally ignorant and unheededful; they know little, and that in a way loose and vague; but the little they know, they should be taught in proper form. They should be taught how best to arrange it, how to reduce it to method, how to think and express themselves with facility and precision; and their answers to questions affords the very best opportunity of teaching them how to clothe their ideas in correct language.

Very often the teacher finds that their knowledge of the subject on which they were questioned exceeded his belief, or they were themselves conscious of possessing: the information might be there, but scattered and inexact; they have, therefore, to be taught by little and little, how one point and one part are to be connected with another, and from the whole, collected and better arranged, how the desired results are to be brought out.

Another point in catechising should not be overlooked, and which should, indeed, be considered part of the exercise.—Often they fail to answer, not for want of knowledge, but for want of words for expressing what they know. The teacher, in questioning should, therefore, keep in view storing their minds with words and ideas. Exercises for this purpose should be given to scholars at an early stage of their education. The first exercises might be on names and descriptive terms. First, names of things, and then, words descriptive of their qualities. Each name to stand at the head of a class, or suggestive of a number of other names, the exercise to be extended as they would improve.

Examples of Names.

Body.	Mind.	House.	Tree.	Tools.	Ship.
Man	Thought	Foundation	Root	Axe	Deck
Head	Sensation	Wall	Rootlet	Saw	Hold
Eye	Perception	Gable	Trunk	Plane	Cabin
Nose	Conception	Chimney	Branch	Hammer	Steerage
Mouth	Memory	Roof	Twig	Auger	Watch
Ear	Judgment	Window	Leaf	Chisel	Oar
Neck	Reason	Door	Pith	Gimlet	Sail
Shoulder	Speech	Room	Wood	Screw	Mast
&c.	&c.	&c.	&c.	&c.	&c.

Such an exercise as this opens almost an interminable field for verbal exercises, embracing the entire vocabulary of names in the language; and for this exercise—a most valuable one—the teacher should draw up a classified table of names—grouping them together under their proper or natural head-terms,—natural, artificial, or scientific, as bird, fish, quadruped; architecture, husbandry, carpentry; botany, chemistry, mathematics, &c.

Such words are not to be given as a dry exercise of memory. The teacher gives, for exercise, a number of names of objects or things, each name or object standing at the head of a class, division, or sub-division of a class, &c., &c. as fruit, flower, grain; animal, mineral, water, &c. and the pupil, finds out as many, coming under each as he can,—the teacher taking care that the correct idea is associated with each word, and that the scholar is able to use the words in sentences of his own construction and is able to give some description, or state something descriptive of the object or thing, which the name represents.—Such exercises awaken curiosity in the mind of the scholar, and lead to research. They in fact—where interestingly conducted,—supply materials, and a basis for every mental operation, give expansion and elasticity to the imagination, how to bound from object to object, and in a practical way, store the mind with words.

The exercises on names or objects are to be followed by others on descriptive terms or adjectives. These should be associated with nouns, and both to be embodied in sentences of the pupil's own construction, as follow:

Nouns or names.	Adjectives.	Applied in sentences.
Mountain.	High. Low. Steep. Rugged. Rocky. Towering	Some Mountains are high, steep and rugged. A mountain may be low, yet rocky. A towering mountain has a fine appearance at a distance.

Forest.	Open.	Open forests are generally more valuable than those which are dense.
	Dense.	
	Large.	Forests have both large and small trees.
	Small.	
	Valuable.	
Tree.	Tall.	Oak trees are often tall, branching and spreading.
	Low.	
	Branchy.	Some trees are bare and twisted; others are low and bent.
	Spreading.	
	Bare.	Pine trees are straight and tall.
	Bent.	
Twisted.		
Straight.		

The next series of exercises would be on verbs and adverbs; but the preceding examples are sufficient, I hope, to show the object of such exercises, and how to proceed with them. No kind of exercise I know is better calculated to stock the mind of the scholar with words, give him correct ideas of their varied uses and applications, and increase his store of thoughts.

JOHN BRUCE,  
Inspector of Schools.

(To be continued in our next.)

**School days of Eminent Men in Great-Britain.**

BY JOHN TIMBS, F. S. A.

(Continued from our last.)

THE MARQUIS WELLESLEY AT ETON AND OXFORD.

CXLII.

In the foremost rank of high scholarship at Eton is Richard Marquis Wellesley, the eldest son of the Earl of Mornington, "a person of talents and virtue, and his taste in music being cultivated in an extraordinary degree, he was the author of some beautiful compositions, which still retain their place in the favour of the musical world." Richard was born at Dangan Castle, in the county of Meath, in 1760: his mother, a daughter of Lord Duncannon, lived to an extreme old age: "she saw all the glory of Hindostan, of Spain, and of Waterloo; and left four sons sitting in the House of Lords, not by inheritance, but by merit raised to that proud eminence." (1)

Richard, who, at his father's death, had nearly attained majority, was sent first to Harrow, and there took part in a great rebellion that had well nigh broken up the school. This occasioned his expulsion, and he then, in his 11th year, went to Eton, where, says his biographer, Lord Brougham, "he was distinguished above all the youths of his time."

When Dr Goodall, his contemporary, and afterwards Head-Master, was examined in 1818, before the Education Committee of the House of Commons respecting the alleged passing over of Porson in giving promotion to King's College, he at once declared that the celebrated Grecian was not by any means at the head of the Etonians of his day; and being asked by me (as chairman) to name his superior, he at once said, Lord Wellesley.—*Lives of Statesmen*, by Lord Brougham, who adds in a note, "Some of the Committee would have had this struck out of the evidence, as not bearing upon the subject of the inquiry, the Abuse of Charities; but the general voice was immediately pronounced in favour of retaining it, as a small tribute of our great respect for Lord Wellesley; and I know that he highly valued this tribute."

Dr. Davis was Lord Wellesley's tutor when he entered Eton School; and, in after-life, the Marquis described the Doctor to have always bestowed on his education the solicitude and affection of a kind parent. The pupil greatly excelled in classical studies: some of his verses in the *Musa Etonensis* have great merit, as examples both of pure Latinity and poetical talent: the Lines on Bedlam, especially, are of distinguished excellence. Some of his Latin poems were published about this early period.

On leaving Eton, Lord Wellesley went to Christchurch, Oxford, and here, under Dr. W. Jackson, afterwards Bishop of Oxford, he continued his classical studies. His poem on the Death of Captain

Cook showed how entirely he had kept up his school reputation: it justly gained the University prize. At college he formed with Lord Grenville a friendship which continued during their lives, and led to his intimacy with Lord Grenville's great kinsman, Mr. Pitt, upon their entering into public life. (1) Yet the young minister never deemed it worth while to promote Lord Wellesley, whose powers as a speaker were of a high order, and with whom Mr. Pitt lived on the most intimate footing. The trifling place of a junior Lord of the Treasury, and a member of the India Board, formed all the proformant which he received before his appointment as Governor-General of India, although that important nomination sufficiently shows the high estimate which Mr. Pitt had formed of his capacity. In 1781, before taking his degree, Lord Wellesley was called away to Ireland in consequence of the death of his father; subsequently he attended to the education of his younger brothers. Lord Wellesley (say Pearce, his biographer,) "was deeply attached throughout his long life to Eton. Some of the latest productions of his lordship's pen were dedicated to his beloved Eton; and in testimony of the strong affection which he entertained towards the place where he received his first impressions of literary taste, and in accordance with his desire expressed before his death, his body was deposited in a vault of Eton Chapel."

In his riper years, Lord Wellesley retained the same classical taste which had been created at school and nurtured at college. As late as a few weeks before his death, he amused himself with Latin verses, was constant in reading the Greek orators and poets, and corresponded with the Bishop of Durham upon a favourite project which he had formed of learning Hebrew, so that he might be able to relish the beauties of the Sacred Writings, particularly the Psalmody, an object of much admiration with him. His exquisite lines on the "Babylonian Willow," (2) transplanted from the Euphrates a hundred years ago, were suggested by the delight he took in 137th Psalm, the most affecting and beautiful of the inspired King's whole poetry. This fine piece was the production of his eighteenth year—Lord Brougham.

LORD-CHIEF-JUSTICE TENTERDEN AT CANTERBURY AND OXFORD.

CXLIII.

THE vicissitudes of life, and the contrast presented by great elevation from a very humble origin, are strikingly exemplified in the history of this able and impartial judge.

Charles Abbott, Baron Tenterden, was born in 1762, at Canterbury, where his father was a hair-dresser, "a very decent, well-behaved man, much respected in his neighbourhood," who did his best, with decent humility, to obtain for his son a good education. Young Abbott was sent to the King's School in Canterbury Cathedral, of which he became the captain, and where he so distinguished himself that the trustees of the school came to a special vote to send him as an exhibitioner to the University of Oxford. This assistance he afterwards repaid from his private purse, by opening it to the same trustees in a similar exigency. While he was at Canterbury school, his master, Dr. Osmond Beauvoir, it is said, proud of his proficiency, showed his verses to the clergy of

(1) When Mr. Pitt was a youth, some law-lord (could it be Lord Mansfield?) one morning paid a visit to Lord Chatham at his country residence. Whilst they were conversing, his son William came through the library. Lord——asked who is that youth? Lord Chatham said, "I. it is my second son—call him back and talk to him." They did so, and Lord——was struck by a forwardness of knowledge, a readiness of expression, and unyieldingness of opinion, which even then was remarkable in the future minister. When he had left them, Lord Chatham said: "That is the most extraordinary youth I ever knew. All my life I have been aiming at the possession of political power, and have found the greatest difficulty in getting or keeping it. It is not on the cards of fortune to prevent that young man's gaining it, and if ever he does so, he will be the ruin of his country."—*Blackwood's Edinburgh Magazine*, 1825.

Pitt was born in 1759. Lord Brougham gracefully says of Pitt: "At an age when others are but entering on the study of state affairs and the practice of debating, he came forth a mature politician, a finished orator, even, as if by inspiration, an accomplished debater. His knowledge, too, was not confined to the study of the classics, though with these he was familiarly conversant; the more severe pursuits of Cambridge had imparted to him some acquaintance with the stricter sciences which have had their home upon the banks of the Granta since Newton made them his abode; and with political philosophy he was more familiar than most Englishmen of his own age." In honour of this great Statesman there was founded, in 1813, in the University of Cambridge, a Classical "Pitt Scholarship."

(2) *Salix Babylonica*.

(1) The Marquis Wellesley, Lord Maryborough, the Duke of Wellington, and Lord Cowley.

the neighbourhood, boasting that "the son of the Canterbury barber was qualified to carry off a classical prize from any aristocratic versifier at Westminster, Winchester, or Eton."

He obtained remarkable honours at Oxford. The Class List was not established till the commencement of this century, and young Abbott took his bachelor's degree in 1785: consequently, there being yet no *tripos*, he was obliged to content himself with all the honours which were open to him. He had gained a scholarship at Corpus after he had been a week in Oxford, and he gained in 1784, the Latin prize essay, subject, "*Globus ærostaticus*;" and in 1786, the English prize essay, subject, "*The Use and Abuse of Satire*—so that, as the Latin essay and English poem were yet unknown, he gained all he could gain.

Abbott lost his father while at the University; his mother then became in a measure dependent on his assistance, and he was obliged, in consequence, to decline an advantageous offer to go as tutor to a rich gentleman of Virginia; his small means were straitened by the performance of his filial duties; he was obliged to dress plainly, to forego the enjoyment of society, and to sustain himself hardly, yet becomingly, on his limited resources.

The first practical result of young Abbott's efforts was his election as Fellow, and his appointment as junior tutor of his college. He was already destined for the church, when he was invited to become tutor to the son of Mr. Justice Buller. This connexion introduced him to the judge, who soon discovered his intellectual powers and peculiar fitness for law, and recommended him to attempt it. The advice was taken; and we have the authority of Lord Campbell for adding that Abbott became the very best lawyer of his generation in England, as he had already become the finest classical scholar. Lord Campbell adds:

"The scrubby little boy who ran after his father, carrying for him a pewter basin, a case of razors, and a hairpowder bag, through the streets of Canterbury, became Chief Justice of England, was installed among the peers of the United Kingdom, attended by the whole profession of the law, proud of him as their leader; and when the names of orators and statesmen illustrious in their day have perished with their frothy declamations, Lord Tenterden will be respected as a great magistrate, and his judgments will be studied and admired." (1)

Lord Tenterden died in 1832, and was buried in the chapel of the Foundling Hospital, of which he was Vice-President. (2) At the extreme entrance to the chapel is a marble bust of his Lordship, and beneath it a Latin inscription, which, after describing his humble origin, and judicial eminence, concludes with these emphatic words: "Learn, Reader how much in this country may, under the blessing of God, be attained by honest industry."

HOW ROBERT BLOOMFIELD WROTE HIS "FARMER'S BOY" IN THE HEART OF LONDON.

#### CXLIV.

This true poet of nature was born in 1766, at a small village in Suffolk: his father died in the same year, leaving his widow five other children besides Robert. To obtain a maintenance, she opened a school, and taught her own children the elements of reading along with those of her neighbours. Besides this education, Bloomfield was taught to write for two or three months at a school in the town of Ixworth. At the age of eleven he went to work upon his uncle's farm, receiving only his board for his labour. In his fifteenth year he removed to London, to join his two brothers in making shoes, in a garret in Bell-alley, Coleman-street. At this time he read about as many hours every week as boys generally spend in play. He next wrote a few verses, which were printed in the *London Magazine*; and he was observed to read with much avidity a copy of Thompson's *Seasons*, which first inspired Bloomfield with the thought of composing a long poem, such as the *Farmer's Boy*, the idea being favoured by a visit of two months to his native district, where he had often held the plough, driven a team, and tended sheep. He returned to London and shoemaking; but some years elapsed before he produced his *Farmer's Boy*, which he composed while he sat at work in his garret in Bell-alley, with six or seven other workmen; and nearly 600 lines were completed before Bloomfield committed a line to paper. The

poem was published in 1800, was translated into French and Italian, and partly into Latin; 26,000 copies were sold in three years; and it was the dearest of the lowly-born poet's gratifications, when his book was printed, to present a copy of it to his mother, to whom he then had it in his power, for the first time, to pay a visit, after twelve years absence from his native village.

Bloomfield was a little boy for his age. "When I met him and his mother at the inn." (in town) says his brother, "he strutted before us just as he came from keeping sheep, hogs, &c., his shoes filled full of stumps in the heels. He, looking about him, slipped up; his nails were unused to a flat pavement. I remember viewing him as he scampered up—how small he was. I hardly thought that little fatherless boy would be one day known and esteemed by the most learned, the most respected, the wisest, and the best men of the kingdom."

PRECOCITY OF SIR THOMAS LAWRENCE.

#### CXLV.

We have few instances of the precocious development of talent so striking as are presented by the boyhood of this great artist. He was born in 1769, at Bristol, where his father kept the White Lion inn, and was more noted for his love of poetry, and writing rhyme, than for his success in business. His son Thomas was a very beautiful boy, and had been remarkable from infancy for his sprightly and winning manners. His father taught him to recite poetry; and when the child was only four or five years old, it was common for him to be presented by his parent to strangers who visited the inn at Bristol, and subsequently at the Black Bear at Devizes, whither he had removed. At four years old, young Lawrence could recite the poem of Joseph and his Brethren; at five, Addison's *Nymphs of Solyma*; and at seven Milton's *Lycidas*. He was already able to use his pencil, and to take likenesses, which art he had acquired entirely of himself. The portraits which he thus sketched are affirmed to have been generally successful: among them was a portrait of Lady Kenyon, which was recognised by a friend twenty-five years after. At the age of six, Lawrence was sent to school near Bristol, where he remained scarcely two years; and this, with a few lessons in Latin and French, was all the education he ever received. At the age of eight years, he contributed verses to the magazines; and many of his pieces may be found in the *European* and *Lady's Magazines* from 1780 to 1787. Daines Barrington relates that at the age of nine, without instruction from any one, Lawrence copied historical pictures in a masterly style, and succeeded amazingly in compositions of his own, particularly that of Peter denying Christ. In about seven minutes he scarcely ever failed to draw a strong likeness of any one present, which had generally much freedom and grace. He was also then an excellent reader of blank verse, and would immediately convince any one that he both understood and felt the striking passages of Milton or Shakspeare.

Young Lawrence's early talent soon made him generally known. His father would neither permit him to go to Rome to study, nor to take lessons at home, lest it should cramp his genius. He allowed him, however, to visit the house of some of the neighbouring gentry, where he saw some good pictures, which first gave him an idea of historical painting; he copied several, and at last produced original compositions of his own. When he was ten years old, his father took him from Devizes to Oxford, where the boy's qualifications were announced, and numbers thronged to him to have their likenesses taken. From Oxford they removed to Salisbury, and thence to Weymouth, at both which places the talents of the young artist were very profitable. At last his father settled at Bath, Thomas being then in his thirteenth year. Here sitters came to him in such numbers that he raised the price of his crayon portraits from a guinea to a guinea and a half. He also made copies of pictures; and one of the *Transfiguration* of Raphael, which Lawrence sent to the Society of Arts, was rewarded with a silver-gilt palette and five guineas. He remained at Bath about six years, and was the sole support of his father and family. They removed to London when Thomas was in his eighteenth year: he became a student of the Royal Academy; was kindly received by Sir Joshua Reynolds; and on his death, in 1792, was appointed his successor as painter to his Majesty and to the Dilettanti Society. Thence his reputation grew steadily till he became the first portrait-painter of the age: he succeeded Mr. West as President of the Royal Academy in 1820. Of his earlier career it has been truly said that Art presents no parallel case of an equal degree of excellence, attained so rapidly, and so exclusively without instruction, or opportunity of study.

(To be continued.)

(1) Lives of the Lord Chief-Justices.

(2) Some verses written by his lordship to be set to music, are annually sung at the commemorative festivals of the Governors of the Hospital.

## Suggestive Hints towards Improved Secular Instruction.

BY THE REV. RICHARD DAVES, A. M.

(Continued from our last.)

XVII.

SCHOOLMASTERS.

Having spoken of the kind of knowledge which I conceive is the most useful to be introduced into our schools, and the mode of teaching it, I will add a few observations bearing upon the duties of the schoolmaster, and the course of education, which I trust may not be altogether without interest.

At present I fear these duties are not sufficiently understood, and that society at large does not attach the importance to them which it ought to do; but as the people become better educated they will, it is to be hoped, attach greater value to the services of the schoolmaster. In the meantime he must expect to meet with difficulties, and to find hindrances where he might have looked for support, and altogether to find the road not so smooth as he had calculated upon.

So long as there are those who prefer darkness to light—an ignorant peasantry to an enlightened one—who look upon the labourer as a machine which sleep winds up at night, to be set again in motion in the morning, and again run down on doing its daily work—who think he has sufficient knowledge of the world if he knows the order of succession in which the days of the week come—and that although God has given to the labourer a mind, it was not intended he should exercise it, it was only the body which was made for his use—so long will there be hindrances in the way of education, and it will have to struggle against opinions, and against difficulties arising out of them, which may for a time impede its progress, but must in the end give way.

But it is not learning alone which will make an efficient schoolmaster and overcome these difficulties; there are many other requisites of a personal nature, which, if he does not naturally possess, he must endeavour to acquire. He must not only teach by precept but by examples; anything he can say will have comparatively little effect, if he is an example of the direct contrary in his own conduct.

With respect to punishment, the less of severity the better—he should endeavour to win over the children by kindness and good temper, reasoning with them in a cheerful way, and always endeavouring to discriminate, as far as possible, between idleness and want of ability. When two children are set to do the same thing, such as getting by heart a piece of poetry for instance—it may be a very unequal task—he should not be angry with a child which has done its best: this is an error I have often seen in schoolmasters.

On this point, there is an anecdote in Stanley's interesting "Life of the late Dr. Arnold," which ought to be registered in the mind of every schoolmaster in England. At Laleham (the place where he lived), he had once got out of patience and spoke sharply to a pupil, who was a plodding boy, and had taken great pains; when the pupil looked up in his face, and said, "Why do you speak angrily, sir? indeed, I am doing the best I can." Years afterwards he used to tell this story to his children, and said, "I never felt so much ashamed in my life; that look and that speech I have never forgotten." This requires no comment, it speaks both to the feelings and to the understanding. Mr. Stanley adds, that he used to say, "If there be one thing on earth which is truly admirable, it is to see God's wisdom blessing an inferiority of natural powers, where they have been honestly, truly, and zealously cultivated."

In teaching children habits of cleanliness, the schoolmaster will have great difficulty if he does not set an example in his own person; he should not get into the school unshaved, as I see many do: this has a dirty and a slovenly appearance.

He should endeavour to make them open and straight-forward in their conduct, and on all occasions to speak the truth—to get rid of all those feelings of low cunning which are too prevalent among the labouring classes—to be an example himself of open, manly, and straight-forward conduct. He must not attempt to despise others for conduct which he himself is guilty of.

He should set an example of industry, thriftiness, and good management in his own household; by this he will gain the good opinion of those around him, and very much increase his power of doing good.

The following passage from a paper of Addison's in the Spectator conveys an instructive lesson, and requires no comment:

"It is of unspeakable advantage to possess our minds with an habitual good intention, and to aim all our thoughts, words, and actions at some laudable end, whether it be the glory of our Maker, the good of mankind, or the benefit of our own souls.

"A person who is possessed with such an habitual good intention, enters upon no single circumstance of life without considering it as well pleasing to the great Author of his being, conformable to the dictates of reason, suitable to human nature in general, or to that particular station in which Providence has placed him. He lives in a perpetual sense of the Divine presence, regards himself as acting, in the whole course of his existence, under the observation and inspection of that Being, who is privy to all his motions and all his thoughts, 'who knows his down-sittings and his up-rising, who is about his path and about his bed, and spieth out all his ways.' In a word, he remembers that the eye of his Judge is always upon him, and in every action he reflects that he is doing what is commanded or allowed by him who will hereafter either reward or punish it. This was the character of those holy men of old who in that beautiful phrase of Scripture are said to have 'walked with God.'"

Some of these observations may appear trite and commonplace, and I will not go on adding to them. The schoolmaster ought to see and feel that life is made of little things—that man is a "bundle of habits," and that it is therefore of importance he should acquire good habits in youth, and that although each single thing may not of itself appear of importance, it is only by attending to each separately that good as a whole, and in the aggregate, can be produced—that it is only by impressing upon the minds of children over and over again, by example and by precept, the importance of these little things and these little duties (in addition to other instruction which he has to give), that he can work out a good result, and discharge those duties to society which are expected from him.

"Think nought a trifle, though it small appear;  
Small sands the mountains, moments make the year;  
And trifles life."

(To be continued.)

## Health and Physical Education (1)

AIR NECESSARY FOR LIFE AND HEALTH.

No fact is better understood than that of the necessity of air for securing life and growth to crops; but the functions of the atmosphere, and all the advantages arising directly from its influences, are not so well comprehended.

The face of Nature is continually giving off excrementary matters, which are taken up in the atmospheric ocean and carried from place to place; the falling of dews and rains abstracts these from the air and returns them to the earth for re-assimilation. During a drouth the moisture parted with from the soil pervades the atmosphere, which in circulating through well and deeply disintegrated soils, is brought in contact with particles colder than itself, and not only deposits moisture upon their surfaces, but this moisture is fully charged with those volatile matters which act as an excitant, enabling water to dissolve the inorganic portions of the soil. In Winter the water occupying the immediate surface becomes frozen, thereby destroying thousands of insects; when thawed in early spring, it has the capacity of receiving many times its volume of such gases as are given off by decayed vegetation, and carrying them into the roots of new organisms for re-appropriations. The motion of the atmosphere above the surface of the earth not only takes away excessive heats from plants, but as it passes over the leaves and other tumuli, it causes partial vacuum in the capillary tubes of each plant, thus securing the elevation of moisture received by the roots. It is the medium by which the *farina secunda* of plants is carried from place to place, and when trees and plants are swayed by its motion, it renders each in degree a Hungarian pump, and every capillary-tube acting as a distinct pump barrel for the elevation of fluids from the soil into the body of the tree, where the endosmose action detains them. By this infinite mode of analysis, the primaries and proximates necessary to build up certain portions of the plant are supplied,

(1) We copy the above extracts from a series published in the *Upper Canada Journal of Education*. They are well worth the attention of parents and teachers.



permitting other matters in solution to pass on and in turn deposit themselves where needed. The refractory force of the atmosphere prevents the sun's rays from being destructive of plant life. It is the vehicle of the organic excretia, as well as of water, and while the surface of every particle of soil to the depth at which the atmosphere can circulate, is covered with moisture by its presence, it furnishes to those particles the necessary gases for securing such chemical changes as will gradually convert the inorganic and inert portions into suitable pabulum for plant growth.

We need not explain its exosmose action, for every leaf gives evidence of the importance of this function. To animals it is still more important than to plants. By respiration oxygen is supplied to the blood; indeed, no function of the animal economy can perfect itself without the presence and sustenance of atmospheric air. Even when dilated, as at great elevations, still the animal respire the larger bulk to get the same amount of oxygen, and the very atmosphere, that in its dilated condition abstracts the heat at the mountain tops and creates their caps of snow, when descended to their base is compressed in figure, and gives out as present heat, that which was before latent, thus increasing the verdure of the valley. None of nature's laws could be exhibited without the intermediate office performed by the atmosphere. The very life-principle would be inert without it; men, animals, and plants, would cease to exist, and the universe itself would become a chaotic mass of death and darkness.

#### VALUABLE SUGGESTIONS TO PROMOTE HEALTH.

Never go to bed with cold or damp feet. In going into a colder air, keep the mouth resolutely closed, that, by compelling the air to pass circuitously through the nose and head, it may become warmed before it reaches the lungs, and thus prevent those shocks and sudden chills, which frequently end in pleurisy, pneumonia and other serious forms of disease. Never sleep with the head in the draught of an open door or window. Let more cover be on the lower limbs than on the body. Have an extra covering within easy reach in case of a sudden and great change of weather during the night. Never stand still a moment out of doors, especially at street corners, after having walked over a short distance. Never ride near the open window of a vehicle for a single half minute, especially if it has been preceded by a walk; valuable lives have thus been lost, or good health permanently destroyed. Never put on a new boot or shoe in the beginning of a walk.

#### ERRORS ABOUT SLEEP.

Dr. Hall, in his "Journal of Health," says:—"One of the very worst economies of time is that filched from necessary sleep. Multitudes of business men in large cities count it as a saving of time if they can make a journey of a hundred or two miles at night by steam-boat or railway. It is a ruinous mistake. It never fails to be followed by a want of general well-feeling for several days after, if, indeed, the man does not return home actually sick, or so near it as to be unfit for all attention to his business. The first great recipe for sound, connected, and refreshing sleep, is physical exercise. We caution parents particularly not to allow their children to be waked up of mornings; let nature wake them up. But have a care that they go to bed at an early hour, and let it be earlier and earlier, until it is found that they wake up of themselves in full time to dress for breakfast. Being waked up earlier, and allowed to engage in difficult or any studies late, and just before retiring, has given many a beautiful and promising child brain fever, or determined ordinary ailments to the production of water on the brain."

#### LITTLE CHILDREN'S DRESSES.

A distinguished physician, who died many years since in the city of Paris, made this statement:—"I believe that during the twenty-six years I have practised my profession in this city, twenty thousand children have been carried to the cemeteries, a sacrifice to the absurd custom of exposing them to the weather with their arms naked."

I have often thought if a mother were anxious to show the soft white skin of her baby, and would cut a round hole in the little thing's dress, just over the heart, and then carry it about for observation by the company, it would do very little harm. But to expose

the baby's arms, members so far removed from the heart, and with such feeble circulation at best, is a most pernicious practice. Put the bulb of a thermometer in a baby's mouth; the mercury rises to 99 degrees. Now carry the same bulb to its little hand; if the arm be bare and the evening cool, the mercury will sink to 40 degrees. Of course all the blood which flows through these arms and hands must fall from 20 to 40 degrees below the temperature of the heart. Need I say that when these cold currents of blood flow back into the chest, the child's general vitality must be more or less compromised? And need I add that we ought not to be surprised at the frequently recurring affections of the lungs, throat, and stomach. I have seen more than one child with habitual cough and hoarseness, or choking with mucus, entirely and permanently relieved by simply keeping its arms and hands warm. Every observing and progressive physician has daily opportunities to witness the same simple cure.—Lewis' "New Gymnastics."

#### Never too Old to Learn.

Socrates, at an extreme age, learned to play on musical instruments.

Cato, at eighty years of age, thought proper to learn the Greek language.

Plutarch, when between seventy and eighty, commenced the study of Latin.

Boccaccio was thirty-five years of age when he commenced the study of polite literature, yet he became one of the great masters of the Tuscan dialect, Dante and Petrarch being the other two.

Sir Henry Spelman neglected the sciences his youth, but commenced the study of them when he was between fifty and sixty years of age. After this he became a most learned antiquarian and lawyer.

Colbert, the famous French minister, at sixty years of age, returned to his Latin and law studies.

Ludovico, at the age of one hundred and fifteen, wrote the memoirs of his own times; a singular exertion, noticed by Voltaire, who was himself one of the most remarkable instances of the progress of age in new studies.

Ogilby, the translator of Homer and Virgil, was unacquainted with Latin and Greek till he was past the age of fifty.

Franklin did not commence his philosophical pursuits till he had reached his fiftieth year.

Accorso, a great lawyer, being asked why he began the study of law so late, answered that he indeed began it late, but he should, therefore, master it the sooner.

Dryden, in his sixty-eighth year, commenced the translation of the Iliad, and his most pleasing productions were written in his old age.

Chaucer wrote his Canterbury Tales when sixty years of age.

John Wickhiffe acquired his great reputation after he was fifty years of age.

Thomas Hobbes wrote the most important of his works between the ages of sixty and ninety.

Alexander Von Humboldt, Washington Irving, Sir William Hamilton, Macaulay, Lord Brougham, Cousin and Carlyle, are illustrious examples of thorough students in old age.—*Upper Canada Journal of Education.*

#### You are a Stupid Blockhead!

Are you sure of that? Is it not just possible that the boy's teacher is the stupid one? Are you quite certain that your questions or your explanations are expressed in intelligible language? Don't you talk so rapidly that none but the brightest scholars can follow you? Does not your severity of manner frighten the poor fellow so that he can not tell what he knows perfectly? Are you not, in your anxiety to make him recite promptly and brilliantly, embarrassing him so that he can not recite at all? Have you ever done any thing to give that boy self-confidence? Have you ever heartily encouraged him, sympathized with him, made him feel that you are his friend? Have you ever earnestly tried to find the avenue to his heart? Say to yourself thoughtfully, 'After all, am not I the stupid one?'

But grant that the boy is naturally a 'stupid blockhead'. Is it his fault? Had he the making of his own brains? And is it not misfortune enough to have been born a blockhead without your repeatedly reminding him of the disagreeable fact? Will your statement make him any the brighter, or yourself the more amiable?

Put yourself down in that boy's place. How much better would you feel, how much more clearly would you think, how much more cheerfully would you afterward study, if your teacher were to make a public announcement of your stupidity? Would you not be either utterly discouraged, or righteously indignant? What right, then, have you to outrage that scholar's feelings by your cutting words? If his father were sitting in your school-room, think you that you would utter such harsh words? And have you the thoughtlessness, or the meanness, to use language in the father's absence which you would be ashamed, and would not dare to use in his presence? Is it not your duty to remember that boy has sensibilities to be moved, feelings to be respected, as much as you have? And have not his parents a right to demand that you shall treat him with kindness and patience? Will you not do away, then, with all bitter words, assured that they do no good, but much harm?—*Mass. Teacher.*

## Thoughts on Education from various Authors. (1)

(Continued from our last.)

### II.

#### DUTIES OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS.

Children's clothes should be neat, but not rich, even if the means of the parents will permit it.

For temporal wealth is transitory; while rich clothing usually infects a child's mind with pride.

To cure or hide bodily defects, and to let the soul remain ugly, is nothing but whitewashing a sepulchre full of fashionable bones.

To bring them to baptism, or to the Lord's Supper, and then not to instruct them any further in Christianity, is a dangerous custom. It quenches the spark of faith, and may destroy a soul, which at the last day will cry Ah! and Wo! over the neglect of its parents.

As the years pass on, it is the duty of parents to see that their children learn something which may enable them to be of service to God and to the commonwealth.

Reasonable parents will consider not only for what their sons are fitted, but whether their own means will allow of it.

It is contrary to prudence to risk anything in hazards.

And in particular, it is an over-haste which deserves punishment, to undertake to devote children to a particular calling, even before they are born. Such destinations often have bad results.

It would be well if women were not merely made to stick fast to household affairs, but were to have their understanding cultivated and their moral nature developed, so that together with Martha's attainments in family management, they might with Mary choose the good part. Luke, x; 42.

Moderate correction with the rod, in case of positive obstinacy is better than a foolish bugbear.

Fear and terror are injurious, and often may become impossible to be removed during the whole life.

As reason grows with years, it will be well for parents to instruct children in their duties towards God, themselves, and their neighbors; to exhibit to them the reward of virtue and the punishment of vice, so that they may not go astray and fall into immorality.

Above all, parents should set their children a good example.

For children are like tinder, which quickly catches fire.

CHRISTIAN BUCHNER.

If you are blessed with children, so act that your children shall be carefully trained to the knowledge of God.

If a prince had honored you by presenting you his portrait, and you, out of folly or lack of respect, had permitted it to become covered with dust, cobwebs and dirt, could you hope to receive any further favors from him, if he should become aware of your carelessness, or should see it?

But your children are the image of God.

If you act wrongly by them, the Omniscient will not leave you unpunished.

Men must consecrate to God the firstlings both of their thoughts and of their youth.

Then He will bestow his blessings on the rest.

You ought to pray for and with your children.

When your children have arisen, and are clean, washed and dressed, let them come to you and bid you a good morning.

Then you can see if there is anything wrong about them, and how to adjust it.

Then place them before you, and with uncovered head pray the prayer for parents over them, and bless them with laying on of hands; so that they may hear and understand how the eternal well-being of children is earnestly desired by their parents; so that they may not only be made

more obedient, but may in the subsequent management of their own children do the like.

Watch that no wicked habit comes upon the children; for their depraved nature will otherwise always be before their better nature.

Boys and girls should always sleep in separate rooms; and brothers and sisters should not see each other without clothes.

Wherever possible, each child should have a separate bed.

Do not permit your children to hear loose and frivolous stories.

A child's Bible with pictures, to be explained by you, picture by picture, is the best book for children.

Christian parents should be very careful what sort of persons they have about their children; for from these, if they are immoral or vicious persons, they often learn tricks, improper speeches and curses, which they would otherwise never have heard, much more learned.

The rod should only be used on important occasions.

Children should be made to give brief and intelligent answers. Permit no obscurity and no conceit of cunning to appear in their words. Do not praise witty children, but rather God-fearing ones.

They should be early cured of coarse and awkward habits.

Empty threats should be avoided.

The love for their children of many parents is a really foolish mere animal instinct.

Many parents admire the foolish and apish gestures and tricks, and even the improper speeches and wicked actions of their children; and thus do not love them as human beings, but amuse themselves with them as if they were young apes.

MOSCHENOSCI.

Parents are indisputably most immediately called, and most naturally bound, to provide for the cultivation of the bodily and intellectual powers of those to whom they have given life.

An instinctive impulse makes them fittest and most skillful to attend to the first necessities of their children, and to endure their weakness with patience.

Early habituation to the company of their children makes it almost indispensable to parents in whom the voice of nature is not silenced by unhappy circumstances or by corruption of morals.

They thus learn to feel that these beings, at first so helpless, depend entirely upon their strength and their will; and this feeling which no other person can have so strongly as parents, except, (during their earliest years,) a nurse, strengthens their interest in their little ones.

The home, the family, will always be the most appropriate place for the growth of a child.

A child is like a young plant, to which a too early transplantation is injurious, even if the new soil is the best.

It is only in the family that certain impressions can be received, and certain feelings awakened, which, as being those most distinctively human, should be deeply and strongly rooted in the human breast; such are love of parents, sense of domestic happiness, early sympathy in all that relates to the family; pure susceptibilities, which contain the germ of those feelings for universal humanity, which are so easily quenched for ever.

Children who by accident or convenience, or perhaps the mistaken views of their parents, are thrust too soon out of their homes among strangers, usually cease to be children too soon, and perhaps even to have childish faults, but without becoming for that reason any better.

They omit a step in their experience which, according to the wise arrangements of nature, should not be omitted.

But the advantages above mentioned can only be expected where the parents, by their own example, awaken and nourish the germ of a pure humanity in their children, for this means is undoubtedly more efficient than all possible positive instrumentalities and institutions.

It is entirely natural that children should respect and value nothing so much as what is commended to them by the words and actions of those whose offspring they are, under whose protection they grow up, and who are thus the first objects of their reverence and love.

The influence, moreover, of constant association, and the tone of family life which proceeds from the character and spirit of parents, have so uninterrupted and strong an influence, although it is imperceptible, that this cause alone will serve to explain all the peculiarities of children, not only the resemblances, but also—for they are not all brought up under the same circumstances and the same time, if they are by the same parents—the dissimilarities of brothers and sisters.

It is true, however, that not even the highest degree of morality and education in parents can of itself protect their children from injuries; for the world and actual life, work along with them, and join in the work of education.

NIEMEYER.

Whoever has a father, or mother, or both, must be educated by him, her, or both; and no one, neither father nor mother, can for gold or good words hire another mother and another father for their children.

Parents can infinitely lighten their duties in this respect, by apportioning to themselves such parts of the child's training as are most proper for each of them, and at the same time a corresponding part of the enjoyment arising from every advance in knowledge or usefulness.

The mutual instructive affections of teacher and pupil, in this care also diminish by at least half, the labor of the occupation.

But what is it that people of rank—the question is worth considering—secure by employing all sorts of nurses for their children?

If the question is rightly answered, this it is:—nurses' stories and all manner of vulgarisms in speech and action. **HIRREL.**

Teachers should treat their pupils as they would their own children; should have pleasure in being with and among them. should love them as affectionately as a good hen does her chickens; for in Donatus, first comes *Amo*, and *Docco* follows afterwards. **GIZAS.**

The teacher should be free from all selfishness; he should love, in his pupils, themselves and humanity; he should not respect a pupil less than himself, but should even observe, with reverence, whether he has not met, in the pupil, an individual of even higher grade of mind and capacity than himself.

The teacher should use all his powers to make his pupil a more valuable man than he himself is.

He should not claim any more influence over the pupil than the latter feels of himself.

If love inspire him, and patience assist him, the consciousness of his divine vocation will enable him to overcome the difficulties of his work.

He should employ only such incitements and means of training as are noble, pure, and in harmony with the essential ideas of humanity, and such as unite virtue, love, justice and beauty; so that the pupil may respect him as a true man. **KRAUSE.**

The first and principal mark of eminent mental endowments is a memory which easily grasps knowledge, retains it faithfully, and renders it up when desired.

The second mark is imitation.

For it indicates capacity for being taught, if young people endeavor to repeat what they see.

A young man however does not give hopeful indications by trying to imitate for the sake of making others laugh.

If he really has talent, he will be modest; a feeble intellect would be preferable to a vicious tendency.

Yet this modesty will be very different from stupidity or indolence.

What such a boy is taught, he will understand without difficulty.

He will question inquisitively about many things; thus endeavoring rather to follow than to lead.

Too early a development of the mind does not easily bear good fruit. Such children easily learn some little things, but soon lose their mental activity.

Precocious geniuses accomplish everything quickly, but not much.

What they know has no substantial foundation.

It is like seeds of grain scattered on the surface of the earth, which indeed quickly spring up and put out leaves, but wither before harvest with empty ears.

This rapid faculty of learning is very successful in early youth, but soon comes to a stand, and all admiration of it dies with it.

As soon as a teacher has otherwise examined the capacity of a pupil, he should seek how his mind requires to be managed.

Some, if not stimulated, grow indifferent, others will not endure anything of an imperative nature. Fear restrains some, others it deprives of their spirits. A continuous strictness quite prostrates some, while others are encouraged by it.

A teacher must be able to study the variations of character in his pupils, and to treat them accordingly; and so to instruct each, that the peculiar excellences of his character will be developed, and that thus he will be directed as his powers require.

Nature must advance by means of art.

He who is urged into employments to which he is not adapted, will accomplish no more than he whose mind is neglected.

Examination of the mental faculties and of their reference to instruction is absolutely necessary.

For some show a preference for history, some for poetry, some for law; while others had better be sent to the plough.

But if we find one whose mind is quite corrupt, shall we allow him to proceed with his studies?

It is necessary for a young person to apply himself to something; shall he not be permitted to make any exertions to do so?

If he has any one good natural trait, it ought not to be neglected, but rather strengthened, and existing deficiencies, as far as possible, supplied.

Feeble intellects must be condescended to, at least as far as to learn what their natural tendencies are.

For in this way they may at least accomplish whatever they are capable of. **QUINTILIAN.**

The same education, under the same circumstances, may not produce the same virtues; for these differ according to natural endowments. For instance; the manly virtues are more commanding, the womanly more obedient, in character; and in like manner, minds vary in the same sex.

Our endeavors must therefore be directed towards the subjection of the unreasoning part to the reasoning part.

Thus are the virtues produced.

Education is intended to prepare the mind for instruction in moral excellence; as the land is prepared before the seed is sown in it.

Nature has planted within us an innate faculty of knowing and of conscience; by which we decide within ourselves upon existence and non-existence, in doing and not doing, with a yes or no, without any further reasonings.

The better manners are, the better the condition of the whole state; for the power of the law rests in great part upon usage.

If the gods concern themselves about men, that which lies nearest their hearts with regard to them is their nobler part—the improvement of the mind and moral faculties.

For as the eye receives light throughout the surrounding atmosphere, so does the mind through instruction. **ARISTOTLE.**

## OFFICIAL NOTICES.



### SEPARATION AND ANNEXATION OF SCHOOL MUNICIPALITIES.

His Excellency the Governor General in Council was pleased, on the 1st instant:—

10. To annex the first range of the township of Bulstrode, in the county of Arthabaska, to the School Municipality of Blandford in the county of Nicolet.

20. To separate from the School Municipality of Henriville, all that part of the Seigniories of Noyan and Sabrevois, which is included in the county of Missisquoi, and to annex the same to the School Municipality of Stanbridge, as it is annexed for all other civil and religious purposes.

30. To erect into a School Municipality the new parish of St. Albert, in the county of Arthabaska, comprising the sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth and eleventh ranges of the township of Warwick, less the part of the ninth, tenth and eleventh ranges included in the parish of Ste. Clotilde, lots numbers sixteen, seventeen and eighteen of the sixth range of the township of Horton.

40. To erect into a separate School Municipality, by the name of St. Vincelas, in the county of Arthabaska, that part of ground comprising the fifth range of the township of Aston, from the river Bécancour to lot number twenty, inclusively; the sixth, seventh, eighth and ninth ranges, from the river Bécancour to lot number one hundred, inclusively, and the tenth range of the same township, from lot number six to number one hundred, both inclusively.

50. To erect into a School Municipality the new parish of Ste. Eulalie, in the county of Arthabaska, comprising the eleventh range of the township of Aston, from lot number six to lot number one hundred, inclusively, the twelfth, thirteenth, fourteenth and fifteenth ranges, from the augmentation of Bulstrode to lot number twenty-five, inclusively, and moreover that part of the second range of Horton, which is situated between the Rivière du Loup, the augmentations of the townships of Bulstrode and Aston, and moreover the fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth and ninth ranges of the augmentation of the township of Bulstrode.

60. To erect into a School Municipality the new parish of Ste. Clotilde, in the counties of Arthabaska and Drummond, comprising in the township of Horton the entire first range, the part of the second range which is not comprised in the parish of Ste. Eulalie, in the third and fourth ranges from the township of Simpson to lot number nineteen, inclusively, in the fifth range from the township of Simpson to the township of Bulstrode, in the sixth range from the township of Simpson to lot No. 15 inclusively, and moreover numbers A, B, C, D and E, and the eleventh and twelfth ranges of the township of Simpson; in the township of Warwick, in the ninth range, lots Nos. 24, 25, 26, 27, 28 and 29, in the tenth range lots Nos. 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, and in the eleventh range from lot No. 16 inclusively, to the township of Simpson.

70. To erect into a School Municipality the new parish of St. Léonard in the counties of Arthabaska and Drummond, comprising the thirteenth and fourteenth ranges of Wendover, in the township of Aston, the sixth, range from lot number twenty, inclusively, to the Seigniorie of Nicolet, the seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth and eleventh ranges, from lot number twenty-three, inclusively, to the Seigniorie and River Nicolet, and the twelfth, thirteenth and fourteenth ranges from lot number twenty-six, inclusively, to the River Nicolet.

80. To erect into a School Municipality the new parish of Mont Carmel, in the county of Champlain, comprising the part hereinafter described of the parish of St. Maurice, the double range of St. Félix from lot number 49, inclusively, to the River St. Maurice, the whole ranges of St. Flavien and St. Louis, and the south-east range of St. Michel; bounded on the south-west by the river St. Maurice, on the north-east by the line separating the north-west range from the south-east range of St. Michel, line prolonged as far as the river St. Maurice, and passing on the south-east of the first lot of the range *Des Grés*, on the north-east again by the Seigniorie of Champlain, on the south-east by the line dividing the south-east range of St. Flavien from the north-west range of St. Félix, from lot number one to lot number forty-eight, inclusively, thence, coming down towards the south-east, following the line of separation between lots No. 48 and No. 49 of said north-west and south-east ranges

of St. Félix, to the north-west range of Ste. Marguerite, and thence resuming a south-westerly direction by the line separating the south-east range of St. Félix from the north-west range of Ste. Marguerite, to the River St. Maurice.

BOARD OF EXAMINERS FOR THE DISTRICT OF SHERBROOKE.

Messrs. Wesley Frye, James Fraser, Henry Millette; Misses Anna Ball, Ellen Bailey, Martha M. Stevens, Mary Draper, Philena Fletcher, Catherine Desaulniers, Julia H. Warner, Rachel Greenley, Jerusha Williams, Catherine Dougan, Annie Gill, Mathilde Morin, Louisa Richardson, and Mary Taylor have obtained diplomas authorizing them to teach Elementary schools.

S. A. HARR,  
Secretary.

NOTICE RESPECTING SCHOOL CENSUS.

1st. This census shall include all the children of heads of families in the municipality, whether they attend the schools under control of the Department, independent schools or schools situated without the limits of municipality. Children attending the schools of the municipality but whose parents do not reside within limits, must not be included.

2ndly. The Report of the census must be correct, under penalties imposed by law, and should also be forwarded to the Education Office, Montreal, on or before the Tenth day of October.

3rdly. If parents refuse to state the number or age of their children, the Secretary-Treasurer shall take a note of said refusal, and complete the census by means of the best information he can obtain from the Clergyman of the Parish or from the neighbors. The School Commissioners and School Trustees are strictly bound to sue for payment of monthly rates all parents so refusing to make the required declaration, according to the best information obtained. In all cases where parents shall so refuse to answer, costs shall go against them.

SITUATIONS WANTED

Miss Jessie Fergusson, who is provided with an Elementary diploma, is desirous of a situation in a private family, to teach English, French, and music. Apply at the Office of the *Montreal Transcript*.

Mr. Mark McReady is provided with a diploma for Academies. Apply at Mr. Thomas McReady's, 55 Mountain St., Montreal, or at the Education Office.

Mr. George Wm. Simpson.—Apply at the Education Office.  
Mr. Joshua Blezard, Elementary School. Pointe Cavagnol.

DONATIONS TO THE LIBRARY OF THE DEPARTMENT.

The Superintendent acknowledges with thanks the following donations:—  
From the author: *Hints to Common School Teachers*. By Hiram Orcutt, Rutland.

From the author: *New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward's Island*. By Alexander Munroe, Esq.

From M. St. Edme Rameau: "Catalogue de la Bibliothèque de la Société Mercantile de St. Louis du Missouri;" and two pamphlets: "Sur le Percement de l'Isthme de Suez," and "Notes sur la Colonie du Détroit."

From the author: *Voyage Botanique de Michaux au Canada*. By M. O. Brunet, 2 copies.

From M. le Chanoine Paré: "Rapport sur les Missions du Diocèse de Montréal pour 1860."

From the author: "Abécédaire Musical." By M. Gustave Smith.

From M. l'abbé Beaudry: "Le Conseiller du couple."

NOTICE TO DIRECTORS OF INSTITUTIONS CLAIMING AID ON THE GRANT FOR SUPERIOR EDUCATION UNDER THE ACT 19 VICT., CAP. 54.

1st. No institution shall be entitled to or receive any aid unless the return, and demand therefor, be filed within the period prescribed, that is to say, before the first day of August next. No exception will be made under any pretence whatsoever.

2. Acknowledgment of the receipt of such return and demand will be made immediately to the party forwarding same.

3. Any party not receiving such acknowledgment within eight days after mailing the documents should make inquiries at the post office and also at this office, failing which, such demand and return will be deemed as not having been sent in.

4. Blank forms will be transmitted during the first fortnight in June to all institutions now on the list; and institutions not receiving them during that period, must apply for them at the office of this department.

5. Institutions not on the list, that may be desirous of making the necessary return and demand, can obtain the requisite blank forms by applying for them at this office between the 1st and 15th of June.

P. J. O. CHAUVEAU,

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

MONTREAL (LOWER CANADA) MAY, 1861.

The Visit of His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales to America.

(Continued from our last.)

XI.

IMPORTANCE OF CANADA AND THE BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES AND THEIR FUTURE DESTINY.

Though the Prince had travelled through a vast region, His Royal Highness had seen but a part of the British possessions in North America, as Canada does not extend even half-way across the continent. The British territory is 3000 miles long from ocean to ocean, and about 2000 miles wide. When to this we add the Indian Empire with its immense population, Australia and the numerous possessions throughout the globe, it will be seen that the British Empire exceeds in importance the old Empire of Rome; though its relative importance is not so great, as the latter governed the whole of the civilized world, and it would seem, is not to be equalled in that respect by any modern people. (1)

Canada, by its interesting history, its material progress and the constitutional liberty which it enjoys, is entitled to the foremost rank among the colonies of Great Britain. The attention of adepts in social science is arrested by the strange aspect which every thing wears in this country at once young and old—young, as but a small portion of its territory is as yet settled,—young by its civilization and modern institutions, by its activity and energy, its commerce and rapid growth; and yet old—old as compared to other countries of North America—old by its customs and manners, its laws and its traditions. The lakes of Canada are inland seas, and even the streams that feed the tributaries of the mighty St. Lawrence,—itself equal in volume to half a dozen of the largest rivers in Europe,—are more considerable than many rivers celebrated in history. The Gatineau, for instance, would absorb many

(1) The following is a list of the possessions of Great Britain:—In Europe; the islands of Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney and Sark, held from the time of William the Conqueror, the Isle of Man, and divers islands belonging to Scotland (these are all dependencies of the United Kingdom,) the Island of Heligoland, near Denmark; Gibraltar, the key of the Mediterranean, Malta, in the Mediterranean, and the Ionian Islands off the coasts of Greece; in Africa, the colonies of the Cape of Good Hope, Caffraria, Natal, Sierra Leone, Gambia, and the Gold Coast; Mauritius or Isle of France, the Seychelles, St. Helena and Perim Islands, the last is situated in the strait of Babelmandel and is an important post on the route to India by the Red Sea, which England acquired foreseeing that France might cut a canal across the Isthmus of Suez; in Asia almost the whole of India, the Island of Ceylon, and the islands of Labuan and Hong-Kong in China; in Australasia: Australia or New Holland which is divided into four colonies, viz: New South Wales, Victoria (where the gold fields are found), South Australia and West Australia; Van Dieman's Land and the smaller islands which belong to it, and New Zealand; in North America: the Island of Newfoundland, Labrador, the islands of Cape Breton and Prince Edward, and the other islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Canada, Rupert's Land or Hudson's Bay Territory, comprising all the interior of America north of the limits of Upper Canada and the United States, and east of the Russian possessions; New Caledonia or Columbia on the Pacific Ocean, Vancouver's Island, Queen Charlotte Island and the adjacent islands; the Bermuda Islands in the Atlantic, Bahama Islands, Jamaica, Antigua, St. Kitts and the other British West Indies; in Central America: Honduras and the islands in the Bay of Honduras; in South America: British Guiana, the Falkland Islands east of Patagonia, and Pitcairn's Island in the Pacific Ocean.—Montgomery Martin estimated the population of this vast empire at 130 millions before the last conquest in India. The population of the Roman Empire under Claudius was believed to be 126 millions.

such as the Xanthus and the Simois. Almost all of these tributaries form beautiful cascades, which, were they not thrown into the shade by the Falls of Niagara, would not long remain unknown. The climate is also extraordinary, in winter the cold being sometimes as severe as it is in Siberia, and the heat in summer as oppressive as in the Torrid Zone; the beloved season of the poets,—spring—does not visit the country, as the most luxuriant vegetation succeeds the ice and snow after a few days of sunshine. The inhabitants struggle bravely against the natural disadvantages which they have to encounter; and although there are many dissensions among them, caused by political and religious factions and rivalry between the different races,—although Protestantism is directly opposed to Catholicism, the French element contending with the English element, monarchical institutions assailed by democratic tendencies—they have succeeded in laying the foundation of great national prosperity, which will be materially supported by the finest system of canals in the world, an inland navigation extending from the western limits of the great lakes to the ocean, and 2000 miles of railroads already opened to traffic. This prosperity will also derive solidity and strength from the final settlement of important political questions which had long agitated the country—among these are, the abolition of the feudal tenure in Lower Canada, with indemnification of seigniors, and the secularization of the Clergy Reserves in Upper Canada,—and from a well-organized system for the administration of justice, the constitution of municipal authorities, the establishment of public schools and a general plan of popular education, and the codification of the laws. The genius of the French and the genius of the English, with the resources, advantages and defects of each, are continually brought face to face in the Parliament by the two languages, in the judicature by two codes of laws and in the public journals by two literatures. The old prediction that one race would absorb the other does not appear to have been fulfilled. The tide of British immigration has incessantly rolled towards Upper Canada and the West, while the inhabitants of French descent have not only greatly increased in number in the old settlements, but have without the aid of immigrants formed many new establishments, extending from the St. Lawrence to the interior, on the banks of the Saguenay, the St. Maurice, the Ottawa, in the Eastern Townships, the United States, and in Upper Canada; indeed there are few tracts on the continent so remote or so wild that they cannot venture to settle there, and sometimes they form groups considerable enough to maintain a distinct nationality.

The population of Canada is estimated at about 2,600,000 inhabitants, of whom 1,400,000 are in Western Canada, and 1,200,000 in Canada East. The population of French origin numbers about 900,000 in Lower, and 50,000 in Upper Canada. There was a time when persons of French descent only were called Canadians; those of other origins looked upon the appellation with a feeling something akin to contempt, but now the descendants of all races have openly adopted our common country,—certainly this is a step toward the national existence of Canada. It must not be supposed that all races can be assimilated by fictitious means; rather leave our destinies in the hands of Providence, and to time, one of the most powerful instruments which it employs. For us a noble work remains, that of improving and opening to the husbandman our vast territory, which is twice as large as that of the United Kingdom; and of turning to account the almost unlimited resources it offers,—a work which of itself should be sufficient to put an end to all jealousy between races where there is room for all.

The divers sources of prosperity which we have indicated as belonging to each of the Lower Provinces here unite to make of Canada a great country. The fisheries of the Gulf and of the lower St. Lawrence embrace 1000 miles of coast, and comprise the porpoise, seal, cod, herring, mackerel, salmon, and other fish; and the whale fishery is carried on by vessels fitted out in the Port of Gaspé. Salmon is found in upwards of seventy rivers falling into the St. Lawrence, and thanks to the recently introduced art of pisciculture, many other streams will soon be stocked with this delicious fish. Oysters, which are found only in the fisheries of New-Brunswick and the other provinces at the entrance of the Gulf, are now to be propagated in the waters of Canada. The value of all products drawn from the sea by this country is about \$950,000 annually; but its fisheries afford a greater source of profit to others, as will be readily seen when it is stated that for about 100 vessels and 1,200 to 1,500 small boats which Canada employs, Nova Scotia and the other provinces have 250 to 300 vessels, and the United States over 300 vessels. Within a few years the Government has turned its attention to this important subject, a superintendent of the fisheries has been appointed, and laws en-

acted for their protection, the art of pisciculture has been encouraged, and an armed vessel under the command of Capt. Fortin cruises in the Gulf, and protects the different establishments. It is said that a separate section of the Crown Lands Department will soon be formed to take charge of this branch. In addition to this inexhaustible wealth of the ocean the great lakes also possess considerable fisheries.

Besides the inland trade and navigation of the lakes and canals there is great activity in the sea-ports; the number of vessels registered within the province in 1860, was 130 with an aggregate tonnage of 36,207; the total number of sea-going vessels visiting the ports was 1,992 with an aggregate tonnage of 114,411. Among the countries from which these vessels sailed Great Britain stands first, then come the British colonies, United States, Norway, Sweden, Prussia and the Hanse Towns. France, Portugal, and Italy scarcely occupy a place in the list.

Upper and Lower Canada contain in abundance the useful metals and minerals. Iron, copper, lead, manganese, marble, gypsum and many other materials are found in different parts and are already successfully worked. Iron mines, near the River St. Maurice, and copper mines, on the shores of Lake Superior, have been long wrought, and copper has been recently found in abundance in the Eastern Townships, and lead in the District of Gaspé.

Wheat and other cereals, and all the garden vegetables of Europe are grown throughout the country; the sugar maple, and flax and hemp might be rendered more available if cultivated on a more extensive scale; and the trade in ginseng which formed so important an item in the exports under the French rule might also be renewed. Lumber and ashes are the staple article of export. The richest and most useful materials for ship building and for cabinet work are found in abundance, here as in the Lower Provinces; specimens sent to the great exhibitions of London and Paris were much admired by good judges in these matters. The products of the mines exported in 1860 amounted to \$558,306, lumber and ashes \$11,012,353, beef, pork, provisions, &c., \$4,221,257, products of fisheries \$832,616, and agricultural products \$14,259,225. Of the last mentioned, it may be added, that besides the amount of grain used for food 1,275,268 bushels were consumed by distilleries and breweries in the course of the year. These great resources will be further developed by immigration which every year brings to our shores thousands of active and enterprising men, and by the natural growth of our population.

The greatest possible efforts have been made by the Government during the past few years to diffuse education among all classes of society. We saw with what interest the Prince, during the visit, inspected our educational institutions; and by the details which we have given in the preceding chapters an opinion may easily be formed of the intellectual advancement of the country. In 1859 Upper Canada contained 13 universities and colleges with 1,373 students, 51 grammar schools with 4,381 pupils; 321 academies and private schools with 6,182 pupils; 1 normal school with 158 pupils, 3 model schools with 500 pupils; 3,953 common schools controlled by Government, with 301,592 pupils; total number of educational institutions 4,372 with 314,246 pupils. Lower Canada contained in 1860, three universities, and apart from these, a school of Law, a school of medicine and five schools of theology—number of students 552; 13 classical colleges with 2,781 students, 14 industrial colleges with 2,333 pupils; 66 academies for boys and mixed, with 6,210 pupils; 64 convents and academies for girls, with 14,817 pupils; 3 normal schools with 228 pupils, and 5 model schools with 682 pupils; 3,076 elementary schools both independent and under control, with 141,905 pupils; 1 school of arts and manufactures; 2 schools of agriculture, and 2 schools for the deaf and dumb; total number of educational institutions 3,264 with 172,155 pupils. The progress made by this section of the province will be at once appreciated when it is stated that in 1853 the total number of schools in operation was 2,352 with 108,284 pupils, and that the amount of contribution for elementary schools had risen, from \$165,819 to \$503,859 in 1860. We may here remark that the difference in the total number of pupils in favor of Upper Canada is due to the greater population and to its density in the old settlements, to the little towns and villages which are more numerous, the advantage of a milder climate and to the time during which the school laws have been in full operation. The amount expended by the Government in Upper Canada during 1860 was \$238,719, and in Lower Canada \$240,145.

There are many public libraries,—that belonging to Parliament now in Quebec, contains 50,000 volumes and is not sur-

passed by any on this continent for rare and valuable works. There are in Canada West 2,372 public libraries, containing 567,649 volumes; of these 354 are school libraries organized and supplied by the Department of Education, and containing 177,586 volumes. The number of libraries belonging to parishes, institutes, &c., in Lower Canada is 131, with 102,539 volumes; the libraries of universities, colleges, convents and other educational establishments contain 152,758 volumes. There are besides many libraries belonging to public institutions not included in these figures.

There are at present published in Canada East 22 journals and periodicals in the English language, 3 in French and English, and 20 in French. There is also a newspaper published in the last named language in Ottawa, and there will soon be another published at Sandwich, Canada West, to be called the *Courrier de l'Ouest*, and also another at Miramichi, New Brunswick. The list of public journals in Canada West, at the head of which stand the *Leader* and *Globe*, is very considerable; as in the United States, one at least is published in every little town and village. Three German sheets are also printed, and one in the Chippewa tongue. The press of the province enjoys unbounded liberty; all subjects are discussed and invariably handled in the most open way. The question which at present occupies all its attention is the claim put forth by a majority of Upper Canadians for representation according to population, with new division of the province into constituencies upon the basis of population, without reference to the stipulation in the Union Act which allows to each section an equal number of representatives. The demand seems to rest on the principle of equality. To this it is answered that in England representation is not based upon population alone, but that there are other social elements to be considered; that the Union Act having provided for an equal number of representatives in the interest of Upper Canada whose population was then the less numerous, it has been maintained and approved of by Upper Canada and submitted to by Lower Canada until the present time; that now Lower Canada has more than ever a right to that numerical equality in the representation, as otherwise her religious and social self-government would be endangered, which on account of the English population in Canada East can never be the case with Canada West; that Lower Canada never desired the union, which was brought about without her help, and indeed against her inclination, and that if Upper Canada is not satisfied with the present state of things she will find a simple remedy in secession.

This last hypothesis recalls a subject which we have already mentioned while taking a view of the Lower Provinces. We have already spoken of the great importance which the B. N. A. Provinces would acquire if united together, let us now look at the resources they would have at their command. The territory of the Lower Provinces comprises 82,586 square miles, Canada West 147,832 square miles, Canada East 209,990 square miles; thus it will be seen the territory of the new confederation would be twice as large as that of France, without of course including the Hudson's Bay Territory, some part of which must sooner or later be annexed and which contains 2,436,000 square miles, or much more than half of Europe whose territory is 3,805,800 square miles. The population of the Lower Provinces numbers, as we have seen, about 725,000; of Canada 2,600,000, forming a total of 3,325,000, or more than the present population of Scotland which occupies so important a place in the United Kingdom, and indeed in the whole world. Our imports amounted, in 1865, to \$34,631,890, and our exports to \$34,441,611; add to these the imports of the Lower Provinces and the result is \$61,000,000, and of exports about \$48,500,000. Our revenue for 1860, was \$7,292,838; the revenue of the Lower Provinces was for the same period \$2,000,000; which would almost amount to nine and a half millions. In such a rapid sketch as this it is impossible to make even an approximate estimate of the numbers to which the population would soon rise, the degree of political and military importance they would acquire, and the height the producing power would attain in a young, energetic and productive country when urged on by the triple force of maritime trade, agriculture, and manufactures. It may be also remarked, that throughout this immense region almost every farmer is the absolute owner of the fields he tills, and that with the vast proportion of wild land at our disposal proletarianism and pauperism cannot weigh very heavily upon us for at least many years to come. The British North American confederacy would command the lakes and the St. Lawrence throughout its whole course; mistress of the great northern highway to the interior of the continent, and protected by the armies and the navy of the greatest empire of the globe, this new state would at

once have a great weight in the American balance of power. Its double origin would, instead of being a source of weakness, aid in the development of its strength, as each party would strive to emulate the other; while a long co-existence must soften down all animosity.

Who can say that this is to be our destiny? The subject has not been even seriously discussed, but only mentioned as an expedient to escape other difficulties which, in the end, may be otherwise disposed of. Is it quite certain that in the consummation of this scheme those wise counsels and that tolerant spirit, so necessary to national prosperity, would prevail? These questions we shall not attempt to decide; indeed we have perhaps drawn the outlines as they *might*, and not as they *will* be.

## XII.

## THE PRINCE IN THE UNITED STATES.

It was night as Baron Renfrew—the name under which the Prince travelled in the Great Republic—arrived in Detroit. A flotilla of illuminated steamers, the town itself a mass of light, six hundred torches carried by the firemen and an immense concourse of people assembled on the wharves and in the streets, were the first objects that met the eyes of the distinguished guest. The crowd was so great that it was thought to be more advisable that the Prince should proceed to the hotel *meognito*, and so the suite was left to parade in the procession.

On the morrow, after a promenade in the city, the party proceeded to Chicago, where they arrived at eight o'clock p. m. At ten on the following morning the Mayor, Mr. Wentworth, conducted the visitors to the Court House which, as the town is built on ground perfectly level offers a good view from its cupola, and is visited by all tourists. The Prince was told that in 1836, there were but 5000 inhabitants in the city of Wigwags—or Chicago as almost every town in the Union has its *soubriquet*;—it now numbers over 105,000 souls. The party here witnessed two nocturnal processions by the partizans of the candidates for the presidency.

Baron Renfrew left this town for Dwight, a small village of the Prairies which is reached by rail, and forming an outpost of American civilization in the wilderness. It had long been the wish of our tourists to spend a few days away from the dust and din of cities where they might enjoy a ramble and some hours shooting.

Dwight was not in existence five years ago, but it now contains a population of five hundred souls; a little church with a large school-house, and about a hundred wooden houses form the entire establishment; but so rapid is the growth of western towns that in less than ten years it will probably be a large and flourishing city.

At this great distance from home and in these half explored regions the Prince and Duke of Newcastle spent the first evening after their arrival in reading letters and newspapers that had been mailed in London but eighteen days before. During the four days' sojourning in the Prairies the tourists shot a great quantity of game, including Prairie Hens and quails, witnessed a thunder storm, a prairie on fire and a splendid sunset, all of which here present a spectacle of indescribable grandeur. Capt. Retalack, aid-de-camp to His Excellency the Governor General and who had before visited the Far West, had organized this expedition.

The 26th September, Baron Renfrew, who had met with great success on the prairie as a sportsman, left Dwight by the railway, charmed with this poetical incident. At noon the party passed by Springfield, where the residence of Mr. Lincoln is situated, and at six arrived at St. Louis, Missouri,—the farthest point to be visited in the West. The reception was most cordial; and the affable manner of the Prince and of the Duke while visiting the agricultural exhibition delighted the people.

St. Louis, also, is a city which has developed itself in a very short space of time. It was founded by the French, who had established a trading post where it now stands; and its population numbered but 7,000 souls in 1830; in 1840, this number had reached 16,000, which increased to 78,000 in 1858; and now the city has 200,000 inhabitants. There is still a French quarter which the Prince visited; the Jesuits have a flourishing university, and there

are several convents, and many schools taught by the Christian Brothers. Germans, and Irish, are numerous.

(To be continued.)

### Notices of Books and Publications.

HUMAN OCCURE: Hints to Common School Teachers, Parents and Pupils: or gleanings from school life experience.—Geo. A. Tuttle and Co., Rutland, 1859.—12mo 144 pages. Revised Edition.

We recommend this interesting little book to all teachers. They will find it stored with useful information,—the result of long experience and meditation. We were quite refreshed by the piquant remarks of the author upon the easy and rapid process which modern scholars adopt, so as to "finish their education," and "to get a diploma." We make a short extract:—

"But, as has been suggested, modern improvement has invented a labor-saving process in the cultivation of mind. The time seems too long and the labor too hard to our visionaries, for acquiring an education. They have marked the improvements of the age: the rearing of factories to manufacture our fabrics; the construction of engines to traverse the land and navigate the water; the making of machines to stitch our garments, to cut and thrash our grain, to write our letters and transmit our thoughts in the twinkling of an eye to the ends of the earth: and hence they infer that there may be machines for cultivating mind and manufacturing thought. But all such views betray an alarming ignorance as to the nature and object of education.

"The growing of trees in the forest requires as much time now as in the days of Plato. It still requires an hundred years, even in the fertile soil of young America, for the growth of a single oak to maturity. And the growth of mind must also be gradual, it must result from the same labor and toil that it cost the hardy old Greek who wrote the Iliad, centuries ago. "The path which leads to the mount of science does not lie among flowers; and he who travels it, must climb the cold hill-side; he must have his feet cut by the pointed rocks, he must faint in the dark valley, he must not seldom have his rest at midnight on the desert sand. It is no small thing for which the true scholar strives." The oak, that king of the forest which has braved the storms of a century, as we have intimated, grows as slowly now as when the earth was young. But the mushroom, now as then, grows up in a single night. And may we not conclude, judging from our diluted literature and simplified text-books, from perverted public opinion and prevailing false theories, that this vegetable production, the mushroom, has been transplanted into our educational garden."

WILSON AND ROBB: The Metals in Canada. A manual for Explorers; containing practical instructions in searching for and testing the value of Metallic Ores, with special reference to Canada. By James L. Willson and Charles Robb, Mining Engineers. Montreal: B. Dawson and Son, 1861. A pamphlet, small 8o, 80 pages, with a Table of Chemical Tests for some of the more important metals and earthy bases.

This small volume contains very valuable information on the subject treated by the authors, and to such as are connected with mining operations, or who would devote themselves to the pursuit, will be found very useful. Messrs. J. L. Willson and C. Robb have opened an Office in Montreal for the transaction of all business connected with mining in Canada.

BRUNET: Voyage d'André Michaux en Canada, depuis le lac Champlain jusqu'à la Baie d'Hudson.—By O. Brunet, Professor of Botany at the Laval University. From the printing establishment of P. Bédelle, Quebec; 8o, 27 pages.

This is a notice on the voyages to North America of André Michaux, a native of France, made during the years 1785 to 1796, with a sketch of his life. The object of his travels was to make botanical researches and mark the locality of trees and plants peculiar to the country. He has rendered great service to science and deserves the especial consideration of Canadians, for he may be looked upon as the founder of Botany in Canada. The only work having any pretension to a history of Canadian plants which appeared before that of André Michaux was Cornut's, published in 1635, under the title, *Plantarum Canadensium Historia*, which is far from being a complete flora, and it is besides defective in classification. Charlevoix gives a translation of this work into French, adding a number of plants which had been subsequently discovered. Kalm, the celebrated disciple of Linnæus and Professor of Natural History at Abo, had also visited America, in 1749-51, at the request and charge of the King of Sweden; he extended his visit even to Canada, but the fruits of his labors went to enrich the *Species Plantarum* of his great master, where to this day they are to be seen, being identified as his discoveries by the mark of the initial letter K. This would show that Canadian Botany may claim a respectable origin, as by this it is a most contemporaneous with the introduction of the science in modern times,—botany owing its rational nomenclature and classification to Linnæus. Michel Sarrazin, an inhabitant of Quebec and Physician to

the King under the French dominion, and also a Corresponding member of the Academy of Sciences, may be mentioned here as the first Canadian botanist who became renowned for his discovery of the curious plant which bears his name—*Sarracenia purpurea* (1). To the above names may be added those of the Marquis de la Gallissonnière, Dr. Gaultier, after whom Kalm called a small plant, very common in our woods,—*Gaultheria procumbens*, yielding an essential oil used in medicine; P. Boucher, Governor of Three Rivers, and several others.

Michaux was very successful in his searches for the native productions of the vegetable kingdom in Canada, but as the spots where he made his numerous and important discoveries are not always sufficiently described in his works, printed and manuscript, many of the plants have not been met with since and others are either exceedingly rare or still very little known. As most of his time was spent in travelling and herboring, he did not write much, thinking that the best way he could serve science was by introducing new plants into Europe. Still he has left a history of the oaks of America, published in Paris in 1801, containing a description of twenty species of this tree; besides notes on his travels, which are scattered through the works of his son, who had accompanied him in some of his voyages to America, and a manuscript diary which the latter presented to the Philosophical Society of Philadelphia. But his notes and herbariums have furnished materials for a work still more interesting to Canada.—the flora of North America published in Latin by the eminent botanist Claude Louis Richard, in 1803, (the year in which Michaux died,) forming two volumes 8vo, with 52 plates, and in which upwards of 1700 plants are described.

Michaux had already visited England, the Pyrenees and Spain, and had brought with him from Persia a splendid collection of plants and seeds, when the French Government desiring to introduce into France some of the trees and shrubs growing in North America, charged him with the mission of procuring them.

Instructions had been given to him to travel over the United States and collect seeds and shoots. He arrived in New-York in November 1785, from whence during two years he made excursions to New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Maryland. During the first year, he sent to France twelve boxes of seeds, several thousand specimens of trees, and some Canadian partridges that multiplied at Versailles. He also laid out a garden near Charleston, South Carolina, which was to serve as a starting point for his southern exploration.

In 1787, he made a journey to the Alleghany Mountains. Having ascended the Savannah to its source, and found many beautiful plants and several kinds of oaks, he also proceeded to the sources of the Tennessee, and thence returned to Charleston, having travelled 300 leagues through Carolina and Georgia. Many of his notes contain remarks on the most interesting plants he met with here and even point out the places where they were discovered in such precise terms that it would still be easy to find them out. In 1788 and the following year, he successively visited Florida, the Bahama Islands, and Virginia. On the 1st of July he arrived at *Washington Court House*, a hamlet in the latter State, which then passed for the first town in that part of the world, though it contained only "twelve wooden houses," and could afford no better cheer to the traveller than "corn bread" and "bad rum," but no "fresh meat," nor "cider."

After other excursions to different parts of the Union, attended with more or less success, he came to Canada, in 1792; having spent some seven or eight years in the United States. His first researches in passing from one country into the other, were made on both shores of Lake Champlain, where he noticed many plants,—all mentioned in his flora. Then directing his course towards Montreal, he arrived in this city on the 30th of June, and having remained here only a few days, started for Quebec. On his way down he stopped at Sorel and there found the *Rhodora Canadensis*. His sojourn in the ancient metropolis of Canada was also of short duration, as it was important he should avoid being overtaken by winter in his progress northward. Having sailed down the St. Lawrence as far as the Saguenay, he landed at Tadoussac, the first outpost of the Hudson's Bay Company in that direction, situated at the entrance of the river and at one time much frequented by the Indians for the purpose of trading. It is now a pretty village. Here he remained a few days, during which he collected some specimens. He next ascended the Saguenay in a bark canoe, and early in August reached Chicoutimi, where the river ceases to be navigable for large vessels. As his way to Lake St. John lay through an almost unexplored wilderness, and as the journey had never been undertaken except by aborigines and a few missionaries, he secured the services of a half-breed and three Indians with whom he proceeded up the River Chicoutimi and Lake Kinogami, and, after a short portage, through Lake Kinogamichichi, down the Aulnet River and Belle Riviere, thus reached Lake St. John after six days' travelling. At Lake Kinogami he found an aquatic plant, *Lobelia Dortmanna*, which has not since been met with here; its light blue corolla floats

(1) Specimens of this plant, which blooms in June, are found in abundance in the savannas near Quebec. The country people give it the very vulgar name of *petits cochons* (little pigs), from its leaves being so shaped and twisted as to resemble somewhat the form of that animal's head.

upon the surface, while the leaves are entirely submerged. Michaux discovered many specimens on the shores of Lake St. John; and he saw in the surrounding forest the *Pinus rubra*, (red pine) *Abies Alba*, (white spruce) and the *Thuja occidentalis*, (cedar); this situation is the furthest north in which these trees had been seen. He remarked that the white pine, *Pinus stroba*, was scattered over a vast extent of country, but not equally so, having seen some on the banks of Lake Mistassin as far north as forty leagues from Lake St. John; it is however very common two degrees south of that. The *Larix Americana*, American larch, generally called tamarack in Canada—abounds in the environs of the lake; the *Abies canadensis*, (hemlock spruce) which thrives on the shores of Hudson's Bay, is also abundant.

Our indefatigable voyager then ascended the Mistassin, sometimes called *Rivière des Sables*, which falls into Lake St. John and which, with the exception of a few short portages, is navigable for canoes a distance of 120 miles. It was then and still is the route followed by the Mistassin Indians, who dwell near the great Lake Mistassin, and who come to trade at Pointe Bleue, the most northern post in the Canadian territory. Having journeyed for 120 miles up the river he came to the foot of a water-fall. High banks of rock contract the width of the stream, which is precipitated from an elevation of eighty feet over ledges of stone resembling huge steps. Here the intrepid botanist stopped to scramble over the drenched rocks in quest of new specimens, pausing now and then to admire the grandeur of the scene.

Continuing his route over the mountains intervening between Canada and the Hudson's Bay Territory, and from whose summit he had a view of the immense valley lying beyond, he reached Lake Mistassin on the 4th September, having halted a few moments to herborize on the shores of the Lake des Cygnes, one of the many lakes which, with numerous streams, water this region. Mr. Brunet, from whose pamphlet we scarcely need observe, the information contained in this notice is gleaned, gives some interesting details and traditions connected with the great Lake Mistassin, but into these we have neither time nor space to enter. The northernmost point reached by Michaux was one which our author indicates as being on Rupert River at a short distance from Hudson's Bay; the Indian guides dreading the approach of winter would proceed no farther. He however had an opportunity of determining the exact latitude at which the trees of the north cease to grow, and of recording his observations on the topography of the country. It was while exploring in the neighborhood of Lake Mistassin that he found the pretty specimen of primrose which he named after the lake, *Primula Mistassinica*. This was his last discovery in that part of North America. Before leaving this continent however, he once more visited the United States, and returned to his native country in 1796. His diary contains interesting information on the climate and vegetable productions of the northern regions visited by him, and the author expresses a hope that the government or some public institution may be induced to cause it to be printed. Mr. Brunet, we understand, intends travelling over the same region up to Lake Mistassin with a view to completing the beautiful herbarium which he is making for the Laval University.

LEMOINE. "Ornithologie du Canada." By J. M. Lemoine, Advocate, part second; 398 p. 12c.—E. R. Frechette.

We have much pleasure in announcing the publication of a second volume by our young Canadian naturalist.

## MONTHLY SUMMARY.

### EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

—There are in Philadelphia three hundred and twenty-three public schools. The total number of scholars on the first of January, 1860, was 61,745. The amount invested by the city in real estate and furniture, for the support of schools up to the first of January last, was \$1,380,908 00. The amount appropriated for last year, was \$518,802 67.

—From the report of the president of the Cincinnati School Board for the year 1860, it appears that the number of pupils enrolled in the public schools of that city the past year, was 20,892, of whom the average number belonging to the schools, from time to time during the year, was 13,841. Of this average number belonging to the schools, the average of actual daily attendance was 12,337, and of daily absentees the average number was 1,297. The total expenditure for schools was \$230,934. Especial attention is given to the physical education and development of the scholars.

—Connecticut has nearly one thousand public schools and about one hundred thousand children between the ages of four and sixteen. The state has school accommodations for some eighty thousand children, at an annual expense of about one hundred thousand dollars or five dollars to each child. The average attendance, however, is but little over fifty thousand.

—The number of School teachers in Maine last year was 7,408: 4,632 females and 2,776 males, an increase of 1,119 in ten years. The average

wages of male teachers per month, exclusive of board, was 21.51; of females, \$2. 03 per week, exclusive of board. The cost of 621 school-houses built during the year ending April 1st, 1860, was \$59,135. The whole number of school-houses in the state is 3,946. The whole number of children between the ages of 4 and 21 years, is 243,396.—*The School-master.*

—The semi-annual meeting of the St. Francis District Teachers' Association, was held at Eton Corner, C. E., on Thursday and Friday, the 30th and 31st instant. The capacious Congregational Church was filled to overflowing during some of the sessions. Mr. Hubbard, of Danville, School Inspector, occupied the chair. An address was delivered by the Rev. Cyril Pearl, of Waterville, on how to secure a greater number of well-qualified teachers. Professor Graham, of St. Francis College, delivered a lecture on our "Common Schools, and the means of improving them." Dr. Dawson, of the University of McGill College lectured on "Normal Schools." Many practical subjects were extensively discussed by the above named gentlemen, and by Professors (Rev.) Cornish, Miles, Thorburn, and by the Rev. Messrs. Gillies, Sherill, Constable, and by many others. The Convention was one of great interest. The good people of Eton and vicinity most cordially entertained all those from abroad. The next meeting is to be held at Richmond just before Christmas.

—A movement has been set on foot in England for the appointment of a conference to be held at Birmingham. The originators are Lord Brougham, Teignmouth, and Shaftesbury; Sir J. Pakington, M. P.; Sir Stafford Northcote, M. P.; Sir Andrew Agnew, M. P.; Adam Black, Esq., M. P., the Lord Provost of Edinburgh; Sir A. H. Elston; Sir H. W. Moncrief, M. D. Hill, Esq., Recorder of Birmingham; Miss Mary Carpenter, and many distinguished friends of the Social Science movement. The object of the association will on this occasion be to bring to bear on the Legislature such arguments as will lead to the grant of public moneys for the education of children who are neither criminals nor paupers, but whose parents are either unwilling or unable to educate them.

—The School commissioners of Gaspé Bay South having refused to levy the school rate in that municipality, Inspector Béchard had them prosecuted before the Hon. Justice Thomsor who fined them severally. The counsel, Mr. Hamilton, who successfully took part for the prosecution deserves the thanks of the community for the courage and ability with which he conducted the case in a place where the school law is by no means popular.

—On the 16th of May the pupils of the Laval Normal School celebrated the fourth anniversary of the inauguration of the school by a literary and musical soiree.

### LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

—The death of Henri de Courcy has been announced in Paris. He had under the name of C. de la Roche Héron, contributed several articles on Canada to the *Univers*. He was long a resident of New-York, having been employed as a manufacturer's agent; and he also visited Canada where he became acquainted with the late Mr. Jacques Viger, who furnished him with the materials for his work, *Les Serpentes de Dieu en Canada*. He is the author of an *Histoire de l'Église Catholique aux États-Unis*; and was the brother of M. Pol de Courcy, a distinguished writer.

—A literary and scientific sitting lately took place in the Laval University at which experiments with the electric light were made by Professor Hamel. M. Rameau also lectured on colonization in Algeria and Canada compared; concluding by reading an interesting letter from M. Belcourt, missionary to Prince Edward's Island, which announced the immigration of a number of Nova-Scotians to the county of Bonaventure.

### MISCELLANEOUS INTELLIGENCE.

—The *Africa* brings us intelligence of the death, on the 16th March, of the Duchess of Kent, the mother of the Queen of England. For a long time the late Duchess had been afflicted with a cancer, which was the immediate cause of her death. Since the accession of her daughter to the throne of England she had remained a resident either at Windsor Castle with the Queen or at Frogmore, a mansion of her own, a mile or two distant from the castle, whither the Queen went almost daily to visit her.

The late Duchess had attained a venerable age. She was a princess of the house of Saxe-Cobourg, was born on the 17th of August, 1786, and was baptized under the name of Marie Louise Victoria. She was, at an early age, married to Prince Henry of Leiningen, who dying, left her a blooming young widow in 1814. A year or so later she attracted the attention of Edward Duke of Kent, the fourth son of George III., and was married to him in London on the 11th of July, 1818. But the married life of the new Duchess was but short; for in less than two years the Duke of Kent died; and she was again a widow with one child—the Princess (now Queen) Victoria. At that time the accession



of this little child to the British throne seemed but a remote contingency; George III. outlived his son, the Prince of Wales, while George IV. and William IV., his other sons, who reigned after him, both died without issue; thus, the issue of the next brother, the deceased Duke of Kent, became heir to the British throne. As soon as this contingency gradually resolved itself into a probability, and then a certainty, the Duchess of Kent devoted her time fitting her daughter for the high station she was called upon to occupy. A firm and consistent Protestant, she taught the young Princess a veneration for that religion as expressed in the church of England. Mental and personal accomplishments were carefully attended to, as well as physical requirements. The daughter thrived under such judicious treatment, and the mother had the satisfaction of attending the coronation and the marriage of her child, of seeing her the mother of a large family, and of knowing that her throne was built upon the hearts of loving subjects.

The life of the Duchess of Kent, quiet and unostentatious, was so identical with that of the present Queen that there is little to say of her otherwise. Her death will place in mourning most of the reigning families of Europe, while at the English court there can be little doubt that the official trappings of woe will this time represent—what they seldom do in court circles—the honest and unaffected grief of the wearers. It may be added that this is the first serious bereavement Queen Victoria has ever experienced. Her father died before she was old enough to know him, and she has never lost a child. An only child herself, she never had a brother or sister to lose or mourn for, and thus the present bereavement must be peculiarly afflicting to her.—*L. C. Journal of Education.*

—INTERNATIONAL RAILWAY.—The following memorandum has been published for circulation, in anticipation of the debates which are likely to take place in the House of Lords and the House of Commons with respect to this important Imperial undertaking:—

In 1838, on the establishment of Transatlantic steam navigation, Lord Melbourne's Administration directed Lord Durham to report upon the best mode of opening up a communication between Halifax and Quebec.

1839, Lord Durham, in his report on British North America, strongly urged the construction of a railway.

In 1843, a survey for a military road was made at the instance of the Home Government, but afterwards abandoned in favour of a railway.

In 1846 Mr. Gladstone, Secretary of State for the Colonies, organised a survey for a railway by Royal Engineers.

In 1848 that survey was completed, and the report thereon, by Major Robinson and Captain Henderson, was presented to Parliament in February, 1849.

Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia contributed 30,000*l.* to expenses of that survey.

In 1851, Lord John Russell's Administration, through Lord Grey, the Colonial Minister, in a despatch to the Governor-General of British North America, dated the 14th of March of that year, pledged the Imperial guarantee, or to advance the money from the British Treasury, on an estimate that the line would cost 5,000,000*l.* sterling.

In 1852 that pledge was renewed by Lord Derby's Administration, but fell into abeyance on a question of route, but the pledge has never been withdrawn.

Canada has since that time made 2,000 miles of railway westward from Quebec, and also 114 miles of the line from Quebec towards Halifax; New-Brunswick has also made 110 miles of the line, extending from Shediac to St. John, and Nova-Scotia has made 60 miles of the line, extending from Halifax to Truro, and a branch line to Windsor of 38 miles,

The length of line remaining to be constructed is 350 miles, and which can be fully completed and equipped for 3,000,000*l.* sterling.

In the autumn of 1858, Canada, New-Brunswick, and Nova Scotia made a joint application to the Imperial Government, expressing their inability to complete the undertaking without Imperial aid.

Canada, New-Brunswick, and Nova Scotia have granted to her Majesty 60,000*l.* per annum, and all the ungranted lands within ten miles on either side of the line, and a free right of way through all private property, providing her Majesty's Government will, by themselves, or, through the instrumentality of a private company, complete the railway.

Her Majesty's Government are asked to give 60,000*l.* per annum for the carriage of the mails, military stores, and troops between Halifax and Quebec, and with that and the provincial grant guaranteed for a series of years by the Imperial Government, the necessary capital can be raised to complete the railway.

Against the foregoing sum of 60,000*l.*, the Governments of Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia estimate a saving to the Imperial Treasury of 70,000*l.* per annum, exclusive of the great saving the railway would effect in the Imperial military expenditure, which amounts at present to about 420,000*l.* a year.

Upwards of 20,000,000*l.* of British capital invested in Canadian railways is in great jeopardy, owing to the want of access to and from the Atlantic through British territory.

The Grand Trunk Railway was constructed on the distinct assurance that the line would be continued through New Brunswick and Nova Scotia to the Atlantic by the Imperial and Provincial Governments.

Canada during last session, and New Brunswick and Nova Scotia have, during the present session of their several Parliaments, unanimously passed joint addresses to her Majesty from both branches of their several Legislatures, asking for such aid as will secure the immediate construction of this railway.

Particular attention is directed to the petitions which have just been presented to Parliament, and to copies of the addresses to her Majesty from Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia.

—Hundreds of British people who have been living in the United States are now said to be leaving that country for Canada, and the various mercantile agencies in our cities report frequent inquiries from Americans as to whether capital can be advantageously invested here and the best means of doing so. Lower Canada, as well as Upper Canada, participates in the benefit of the exodus from the Republic, and we hear that the cars of the Champlain and St. Lawrence Railway Company are daily crowded with French-Canadians who are disinclined to mix themselves up with the disturbances which now distract our neighbours, and are returning to their native soil, where they can live in peace and quietude. Great advantage will accrue both to Upper and Lower Canada from this changed state of things, and the colonisation roads which have been opened up by the Government in both sections of the province will be found of great service in providing openings for the settlement of the immigration which we may reasonably expect to be directed to Canada. For the interests of the whole province we would gladly see the Government extending their action with respect to this means of preparing for and attracting immigration, by opening up and rendering accessible more of the large extent of territory which is now lying, as it were, fallow—its worth almost unexplored, its resources undeveloped. As Quebecers, we should like to see the St. Maurice territory thus dealt with, for that is properly our "back country." It can contain a population equal to that which now inhabits the Ottawa valley, and pours the wealth of that region into the lap of Montreal and Quebec. Its soil is fertile, its climate not too rigorous to allow of the finest cereals, while its lumber and its minerals only await the axe and the pick to yield an abundant return. If colonisation roads were made into the St. Maurice territory—a main line running from Quebec westward, with cross roads at intervals leading from it to the river—the Canadians now returning from the States would swarm into them. The populous parishes on the north shore between this and Montreal would send their surplus labour thither too. In ten years the forest, now unbroken, would be chequered with numerous farms; the country now a desert would be well peopled; lands now useless would be rendered valuable to the country, and the trade of Quebec would be largely increased. But there are other parts of Lower Canada which might be opened up with almost as much advantage. There is the country between River du Loup and the New Brunswick frontier. In view of an union of the colonies, it would be desirable that that region should be developed by concentrating there a good deal of the labour and expenditure now diffused over half-a-dozen counties on the south shore. Then there is Gaspé, which, if it is to be prosperous, must be made populous, and this by opening up roads from the basin into the country. Let some one of these districts be singled out and prepared for the reflux of the Canadian population which the troubles on the other side of the lines are likely to create with the same energy, which our energetic Commissioner of Crown Lands has displayed within the last three years in opening up the country north of Lake Ontario. In the supplementary estimates we see indications that such a policy is really to be adopted. If so, it will be of the greatest benefit to the province.—*Quebec Chronicle.*

—While the American Union is being rent assunder by intestine war, the project of a Pacific railroad is abandoned and forgotten. England, however, alive to her interests, is contemplating the realization of a great railway from Halifax to the Gulf of Georgia, without going out of British territory. The *Illustrated London News* contains an interesting article on the subject.

The terms of subscription to the "Journal de l'Instruction Publique," edited by the Superintendent of Education, will be five shillings per annum, and to the "Lower Canada Journal of Education," edited by the Superintendent of Education and Mr. J. J. Phelan, also five shillings per annum.

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3,000 copies of the "Journal de l'Instruction Publique" and 2,000 copies of the "Lower Canada Journal of Education" will be issued monthly. The former will appear about the middle, and the latter towards the end of each month.

No advertisements will be published in either Journal except they have direct reference to education or to the arts and sciences. Price—one shilling per line for the first insertion, and six pence per line for every subsequent insertion, payable in advance.

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