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# JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

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## SYSTEM OF FREE SCHOOLS IN THE NEW-ENGLAND STATES.

The subject of providing education for the whole community has already been discussed in this journal ; and as the importance of the question can no longer be overlooked, we think it desirable to appeal to experience to aid us in forming a judgment. We, therefore, now refer to the only instance, where, as far as we know, the experience has been fully and fairly tried—to the Free-school system in the New-England States of North America.

Universal elementary education in Free-schools established by law, has been known in that part of the United States nearly two centuries. Of course, by this time, it may be reasonably supposed, that materials must exist there, from which we may form an opinion as to the value and efficacy of the system itself. If it has failed in that free government, it may well fail almost anywhere ; if it has succeeded there, we may, perhaps, gather from the experiment, materials for promoting its success in other countries. But, we must first understand something of the circumstances under which it has arisen, and attained its present extent and character in New-England itself.

The New-England States are now six in number ; Massachusetts being the chief of them ; and constitute the northern and eastern portion of the United States of North America. They lie under a climate, where a severe winter prevails one half of the year ; and this circumstance is, probably, favourable to the education of the labouring classes, since the inclement season, which suspends so many of their occupations, gives them at least the leisure needful for intellectual culture. But, on the other hand, the population, though it has increased and is increasing with enormous rapidity, is still a scattered population ; and this circumstance is unfavourable to the progress of popular education, which, like all other moral ameliorations and benefits, is much dependent on the social principle, and is propagated and maintained with ease only in well-peopled neighbourhoods and communities. The New-England States, whose capital is Boston, a city of about sixty thousand inhabitants, comprise a territory of more than sixty-six thousand English square miles, and constitute about one-fourteenth part of the soil of the whole republic of the United States. Their population in 1830 was more than one million and nine hundred thousand, or about thirty souls on an average to each English square mile ; but if it were as dense as population is in France, there would be nine millions on the same

soil ; and if as dense as it is in England, there would be about twelve millions. Taking then all these circumstances together, especially the large amount of the population, and the length of time it has been subjected to the effects of universal education, the experiment has probably been a fair one, and is likely to afford important results either one way or the other.

The history of this population, so far as our present purpose is concerned, is short. It goes back to the year 1620, when the first settlement of that part of America was begun at Plymouth. The people are almost entirely of English descent, and in their language and characteristics more homogeneous than the population of England itself ; since they have hardly any varieties of dialect or personal qualities by which the inhabitants of the different states can be distinguished. For a long time they were nearly all Puritans, who in the reigns of James I. and Charles I., left their native country to enjoy unmolested the rights of conscience. Many of those who thus emigrated were men of property. Many of them had received the best English training and education.\* All of them were high-minded men, full of moral daring, and a stern courage ; eager to sacrifice everything to what they esteemed the true faith, and the genuine practice of Christianity. Their church government, their civil polity founded on it, all their institutions, indeed, were essentially popular from the first, and have remained so ever since.

Among the popular tendencies in these earlier settlers, none was more marked or original in its character, than the tendency to make *education universal*, an idea which, so far as we know, had then been neither acted upon nor entertained elsewhere. The first hint of this system—the great principle of which is, that the property of *all* shall be taxed by the *majority* for the education of *all*—is to be found in the records of the city of Boston for the year 1635, when, at a public or ‘body’ meeting, a school-master was appointed ‘for the teaching and nurturing children among us,’ and a portion of the public lands given him for his support. This, it should be remembered, was done within five years after the first peopling of that little peninsula, and before the humblest wants of its inhabitants were supplied ; while their very subsistence from year to year was uncertain ; and when no man in the colony slept in his bed without apprehension from the savages, who not only everywhere pressed on their borders, but still dwelt in the midst of them.

This was soon imitated in other villages and hamlets springing up in the wilderness. Winthrop, the earliest governor of the colony, and the great patron of Free-schools, says in his journal under date of 1645, that divers Free-schools were erected in that year in other towns, and that in Boston it was determined to allow for ever £50 a year to the master with a house, and £30 to an usher. But thus far only the individual towns had acted. In 1647, however, the Colonial Assembly of Massachusetts made *provision by law*, that every town in which there were fifty families should keep a Free-school, in which reading and writing could be taught ; and every town where there were one hundred families should keep a school, where youth could be prepared in Latin, Greek, and mathematics, for the College or University, which in 1638

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\* It is made apparent by Mr. Savage, the accurate and learned editor of Winthrop's Journal, that in 1638, there were in New-England, in proportion to its population at that time, as many graduates from the two English Universities, as there were in England proper.—Vol. ii. p. 265, note.

had been established by the same authority at Cambridge. In 1656 and 1672, the colonies of Connecticut and New-Haven enacted similar laws ; and from this time, the system spread with the extending population of that part of America, until it became one of its settled and prominent characteristics, and has so continued to the present day.

This system of universal education has now therefore become, to a remarkable degree, the basis of the popular character, which marks the two millions of people in New-England. The laws, indeed, differ in the six states, and have been altered in each from time to time since their first enactment ; but all the states have laws on the subject ; the leading principles are the same in all of them ; and the modes of applying them, and the results obtained, are not materially different. Indeed, in almost every part of these six states, whatever may be the injunctions of the law, the popular demand for education is so much greater, that the legal requisitions are generally or constantly exceeded. The most striking instance of this is, perhaps, to be found in the city of Boston, where the requisitions of the law could be fulfilled by an expenditure of three thousand dollars annually, but where from sixty to seventy thousand are every year applied to the purpose. And yet multitudes of the poor and small towns in the interior show no less zeal on the subject, and in proportion to their means make no less exertion.

The mode in which this system of popular education is carried into effect is perfectly simple, and is one principal cause of its practical efficiency. The New-England States are all divided into small territorial communities called *towns*, which have corporate privileges and duties, and whose affairs are managed by a sort of committee annually chosen by the inhabitants, called *select men*. These towns are of unequal size ; but in the agricultural portions of the country, which contain four-fifths of the people, they are generally five or six miles square, and upon them, in their corporate capacity, rest the duty of making provision for the support of Free-schools. This duty is fulfilled by them in the first place, by voting at a meeting of all the taxable male inhabitants over twenty-one years old, a tax on property of all kinds to support schools for the current year, always as large as the law requires, and often larger ; or if this is neglected by any town, it is so surely complained of to the grand jury by those dissatisfied inhabitants, who want education for their children, that instances of such neglect are almost unknown. The next thing is to spend wisely and effectually the money thus raised. In all but the smallest towns, one school at least is kept through the whole year, in which Latin, Greek, the lower branches of mathematics, and whatever goes to constitute a common English education in reading, writing, geography, history, &c. are taught under the immediate superintendence of the *select men*, or of a special committee appointed for the purpose. This, however, would not be carrying education near enough to the doors of the people in agricultural districts to enable them fully to avail themselves of it, especially the poorer classes and the younger children. To meet this difficulty, all the towns are divided into districts, varying in number in each town from four to twelve, or even more, according to its necessities and convenience. Each district has its district school committee, and receives a part of the tax imposed for education ; sometimes in proportion to the population of the district, but oftener to the number of children to be educated. The committee of the district determine where the school shall be kept, select its teacher, choose the books that shall be used,

or delegate that power to the instructor, and in short are responsible in all particulars for the faithful fulfilment of the trust committed to them ; the general system being, that a school is kept in each district during the long winter months when the children of the farmers are unoccupied, by a male teacher capable of instructing in reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, geography and history ; while in the same school-house, during the summer months, schools are kept by women to instruct the smaller children in knowledge even more elementary. In this way, for the population of New-England consisting of two millions of souls, not less than from ten to twelve thousand Free-schools are open every year ; or on an average, one school to every two hundred souls ; a proportion undoubtedly quite sufficient, and larger than would be necessary, if the population were not in many parts very much dispersed.

The beneficial effects of this system are such as might be expected, and are in general sufficiently obvious. The security of life and property is greater in New-England than it is anywhere else in the world, by far the larger part of the inhabitants sleeping constantly with doors neither barred nor bolted. The intelligence of the people is greater, on an average, than anywhere else ; not one in a thousand of those born and educated in New-England being unable to read and write. The pauperism in the native population is almost nothing. Indeed the industry, order, wealth, and happiness, which so generally prevail there, which have so greatly increased during the last half century, and which are still so rapidly increasing, rest, under Providence, for their basis, mainly on the elementary education given to all in the Free-schools.

But besides these obvious and wide effects of the system of universal education, there are others, which have been incidental and unexpected, and which can, perhaps, be fully understood only in connexion with the circumstances that produced them, and the principles on which they depend. One of the most remarkable of these is the readiness with which the inhabitants of each town vote and raise the money necessary to support their schools. *The reason is, that it is raised by a tax on property, and therefore operates as a benefit to the majority of those who vote for it.* In most towns of New-England, one-fifth of the inhabitants pay, at least, one-half of the tax ; and probably do not send more than one-sixth of the scholars. Of course, the school-tax is, to a considerable extent, a tax on the richer classes to educate the children of the poorer ; and yet, as all pay in proportion to their means, the poorest man feels that he has done all he ought to do to purchase the benefit which he receives, and he therefore claims it, like the protection of the state, as a right, instead of receiving it as a favour. And this is as it should be. Every man in the community has an interest, that ignorance, vice and barbarism be kept out of it, and a claim on the commonwealth that they should be. In New-England, if he be poor, he has the promise of the law, that his child shall be educated, and thus preserved from the greatest temptations to degradation and crime ; if he be rich, he is promised by the same law, that he shall live in a community, where universal education shall keep the foundations of society safe, and afford him a personal security greater than that offered by the terrors of prisons and tribunals of justice. The system of Free-schools in New-England, therefore, is to be regarded, and is there regarded, as a great moral police wisely supported by a tax on property, to preserve a decent, orderly, and respectable population : to teach men, from their earliest childhood, their duties and rights, and by giving the mass of the community a higher sense of character, a more

general intelligence, and a wider circumspection, to make them understand better the value of justice, order, and moral worth, and more anxious and vigilant to support them.

On this point no one has spoken with so much power as the Hon. DANIEL WEBSTER, now the first statesman in New-England, and probably in the United States, who, alluding in public debate to their Free-schools, where he himself received his earliest training, said :—

“ In this particular, New-England may be allowed to claim, I think, a merit of a peculiar character. She early adopted and has constantly maintained the principle, that it is the undoubted right, and the bounden duty of government, to provide for the instruction of all youth. That which is elsewhere left to chance, or to charity, we secure by law. For the purpose of public instruction, we hold every man subject to taxation in proportion to his property, and we look not to the question, whether he himself have, or have not, children to be benefited by the education for which he pays. We regard it as a wise and liberal system of police, by which property, and life, and the peace of society are secured. We seek to prevent, in some measure, the extension of the penal code, by inspiring a salutary and conservative principle of virtue and of knowledge in an early age. We hope to excite a feeling of respectability and a sense of character, by enlarging the capacity, and increasing the sphere of intellectual enjoyment. By general instruction, we seek, as far as possible, to purify the whole moral atmosphere ; to keep good sentiments uppermost, and to

turn the strong current of feeling and opinion, as well as the censures of the law, and the denunciations of religion, against immorality and crime. We hope for a security, beyond the law, and above the law, in the prevalence of enlightened and well-principled moral sentiment. We hope to continue and prolong the time, when, in the villages and farm-houses of New-England, there may be undisturbed sleep within unbarred doors. And knowing that our government rests directly on the public will, that we may preserve it, we endeavour to give a safe and proper direction to that public will. We do not, indeed, expect all men to be philosophers or statesmen ; but we confidently trust, and our expectation of the duration of our system of government rests on that trust, that by the diffusion of general knowledge and good and virtuous sentiments, the political fabric may be secure, as well against opened violence and overthrow, as against the slow but sure undermining of licentiousness.”—*Journal of Debates in the Convention to revise the Constitution of Massachusetts, 1821, p. 245.*

Another benefit, which was not foreseen when Free-schools were first introduced, and which, like the last, both facilitates their extension and ensures their permanence and efficacy, is the great interest they excite, and the consequences that follow it. By the mode in which they are managed, the whole population is led to take an interest in them ; and each individual, as it were, is called on to assist in carrying forward some one school in the way best suited to the wants of his family and neighbourhood, as well as to the universal demand. The people, in their town meetings, vote the money for the schools ; the people, by their district committees, spend the money they have raised ; and the people, by their own children, get the benefit of the money. It is, indeed, the people's affair from beginning to end ; the whole people's affair : and as it is one that comes home every day to their notice, supervision, and wants in the daily education of their children in the very schools where they were themselves taught, it is sure to be understood, and equally sure not to suffer materially from neglect. The committees will not fail to get as good teaches as the money entrusted to them will procure, that their judgment may not be dia-

paraged among the little body of their constituents ; they will have the schools as numerous as they can afford, that none of the children may be kept from them by distance ; and the people themselves, feeling they have thus paid for the instruction, are sure to claim the benefit of their own sacrifices by sending their children to get it. Popular education has thus long been the most important subject that occupies and agitates the little villages and neighbourhoods of New-England ; and this stir, this interest, this excitement about it, constitute a more watchful superintendence, and produce a more sagacious adaptation of the means to the end, than could result from any apparatus devised for the purpose by the government, or any other interference of the constituted authorities of the state. One of the most important effects then of the New-England system of Free-schools is, that it has developed this strong popular interest, and made it an effectual agent in popular education.

Another indirect, but more obvious benefit arising from this system is, that it gives an upward tendency to the whole population. It gives the first means of intellectual culture to all, and, with the use of these means, there comes inevitably, in more ingenuous minds, the desire to rise. It is true, the state does little more than give this first impulse and opportunity ; but the people, sometimes with, and sometimes without the assistance of the state, create everywhere the rest for themselves. New-England, besides eleven *colleges*, which are chartered institutions offering the best education America yet affords, possesses not less than one hundred and fifty chartered *academies* ; a sort of gymnasium between free-schools and the colleges, often founded or assisted in their foundation by the state, from which few young men of promise are excluded, and where they receive, certainly not a thorough classical or scientific training, but still one that fits them to be efficient, practical men in the concerns of the world. In this way many are led onward step by step, almost without being aware of it, from the Free-schools, through the academies, the colleges and the studies of a profession, until at last they find themselves suddenly standing, they hardly know how, on the very threshold of life, and entering the most important places in society. The benefits arising from this effect of the Free-schools of New-England are undoubtedly more wide and important than could have been anticipated, and are every day increasing. Many persons in that country are now distinguished in the learned professions, and in the management of the state, who, but for the means offered them in the Free-schools of their native villages, would never have emerged from the humble condition in which they were born.

The last benefit of this system, which is becoming every day more and more perceptible, is that it is certainly the safest, and perhaps the only safe foundation on which to trust the popular institutions of the country. In a government where the people hold *practically* the sovereign power, and where they meet repeatedly every year in their small communities to exercise that power in matters of moment ; where the most important offices in the state are filled *annually* by *universal* suffrage, and where the very elements and action of the constitution are, from time to time, submitted to the same test, it is plain there can be no ultimate security for liberty or property, so deep or so effectual, as a universal education, which shall cultivate the moral sense of the whole people, and, by instructing them in their own rights, make them wise enough to respect the rights of others. Such an education is to be supported by law, on the same principle on which the administration of justice is supported by it ; and

can be defended more successfully than church establishments for the religious instruction of the people ; for it goes deeper and broader than either of them. It lays the foundation not only for the religious instruction of the whole people, but for their instruction in all their rights and duties as men and citizens.

On the whole, therefore, the experiment of subjecting the property of all to taxation for the purpose of giving the first elements of education to all, which has now been going on in New-England for nearly two centuries, must be considered as having been fairly tried and eminently successful. Success, too, has had its natural effect, and has produced, and is producing, imitation. The other states of the American Republic, though education has always been greatly encouraged and widely spread among them, have of late shown renewed anxiety in relation to it ; and many have already begun by legislation to attempt to place it on the same ground on which it has so long stood in New-England. Indeed the idea seems more and more to prevail throughout the whole republic, that all popular institutions of government can only rest safely on some similar system of education, protected by law and *founded on property*.

But the introduction of such a system, whether into those parts of the United States where it does not yet exist, or into other countries where it is entirely unknown, must, in order to produce all its good effects, be gradual, as must any change intended to reach and affect the character of a whole people. For such a change cannot be brought about by the enactment of a statute, or the providing a fund. It can be brought about only by gradually interesting the whole population in it ; by making each town, each village, each neighbourhood assist in it, contribute to it, and superintend and watch it, as a private interest of their own, which they will not trust out of their own hands. They must feel too, that it is not a charity, or a favour granted to them by others, or sent down from their ancestors, but a right purchased and paid for by themselves, to which they have as clear a claim, as they have to the protection of the laws or the offices of religion. This is, of course, the work of time, of habit, and of experience. The statute book can no more do it, than it can compel a man to manage his own business skilfully, or regulate his household with discretion. It is, therefore, only where popular education has been the anxious care of the people, until it has become to them as a personal interest or a domestic want, that we can expect from it the wide practical results in the character and condition of a country, which it is undoubtedly, at last, able to produce.

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## AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION IN UPPER CANADA.

### No. I.

BY H. Y. HIND, ESQ., MATHEMATICAL MASTER, ETC., NORMAL SCHOOL, U. C.

It has long been a trite saying among practical men, that "a work well begun is half finished ;" the aphorism loses none of its force when applied to theory or system, especially a system of Education.

Among the multitude of sincere and perhaps benevolent individuals who have in times past thought, written, and lectured upon the best mode of provi-



ding for the education of the million, how few have developed schemes which have borne the only convincing test of long continued success.

Who is prepared to question the value of experience and knowledge, so laboriously attained, or to express general disapprobation and distrust, because that which observation extended over a series of years has sanctioned as good, may embrace peculiarities in opposition to our own sentiments and views?

With the extraordinary facilities for rising in the social scale, and becoming *intellectual* as well as *practical*, which modern enterprise and art present to all, we no longer wonder that the governments of European States should have been anxious and careful, not only to direct the education of the people, for the purpose of elevating their character and improving their national resources, but also to control the exercise of new and questionable opinion, wherever it might have been prejudicial to their particular interests.

It may appear somewhat remarkable that an element of so vast importance in the economy of a state, should have been comparatively neglected in almost every country before the commencement of the last half century; an anomaly partially explained by the progress resulting from the energies and discoveries of a few master-minds, during or antecedent to the same period, favoring the exercise of "unexampled art," which has placed within the reach of the "poorest subject," the privilege before enjoyed by those only on whom fortune had lavished opportunity and wealth.

One of the most marked features in the character of modern European Education, is the especial reference which a considerable portion of the knowledge imparted has to the future occupations of the pupils. The governments of some continental states have particularly distinguished themselves by their efforts to render the education of the youth a stepping-stone to his pursuits as a man.

The relationship existing between the government and the people has enabled some of those states to adopt and enforce a system of universal instruction, comprehensive, uniform, and in conformity with their political condition; while others, possessing a far milder authority, have exerted their influence to establish seminaries, characterized by the same discriminating regard to the future occupations of their youth.

It may be considered as a universal law, that by far the greater part of the rising generation in all countries are destined to devote their energies and to seek for the means of maintenance and independence in the exercise of one of the three great sources of national industry and wealth, Agriculture, Manufactures, and Commerce.

The consciousness of this universal limitation in the pursuits of the million, has induced the promoters of general education in Europe to have especial regard to instruction in all that pertains to these several branches of industry. It is thus that we find the majority of the German States exhibiting the strongest desire to embody in their systems, seminaries for particular instruction in those subjects which may be advantageously brought to bear upon the after-life pursuits of the individual pupil; and other nations, following this laudable and patriotic example, are drawing largely from their experience, without engrafting upon their own systems the peculiar national characteristics of their originals, wisely selecting much of what time has shown to possess to them intrinsic worth, and rejecting peculiarities of a local or political character.

The most prominent illustrations of this distinguishing feature, in modern European Education, are to be found in the numerous Schools of Commerce or Trade Schools established throughout Germany and France,—in the Agricultural Seminaries and Model Farms of those countries,—of Switzerland, Sweden, Great Britain and Ireland, Holland and Belgium ; more indirectly in the encouragement given to Societies and Associations for the improvement of Agriculture and Rural Economy—in the formation of literary, scientific, and philosophical institutes ; and lastly, in the amazing increase of periodical papers, magazines, and reports, especially devoted to all the concerns of practical life, of which latter important elements the United States and Canada already offer numerous and influential examples.

The results which have arisen from the establishment of this principle in Education, have been most flattering and satisfactory, wherever time has permitted them to be tested with rigor. It has given a ceaseless impulse to the progress of national improvement, both intellectual and practical, and in its bearing upon the future domestic and political condition of nations, it seems destined to exercise a most varied and beneficial influence.

Peculiar and local circumstances have naturally a marked effect upon the precise nature of the *general* information afforded by the above mentioned instruments of Education, but more widely do climate and relative position necessarily modify the *particular* education of children in schools. It would be considered a fruitless expenditure of time and labor, to give the youth of this country an intimate acquaintance with the regulations which affect the internal commerce of central Europe, or to pursue the precise method of educating the prospective school teacher or farmer, which we find adopted in the training seminaries of Switzerland, or the primary schools of France. The principle is always the same, but the details are widely different ; the chief object being, to make each individual pupil acquainted with what may be of direct use to *him* in after-life occupation ; consequently, to conform the knowledge imparted as much as possible to the habits, associations, and advantages, by which *he* is surrounded, independently of those subjects which universally constitute the ordinary routine of common school instruction.

The internal condition of Canada is of a nature peculiar to herself, and to a few of the western states of the neighbouring Republic. Nine-tenths of her energetic population are engaged in Agricultural pursuits ; and such is the happy facility for the industrious mechanic to advance his interests, that, with judicious economy, the produce of his labour may enable him in a very few years to unite farming operations with his other means of obtaining independence, if not affluence,—an association almost invariably met with beyond the limits of large towns, whenever industry and discretion have characterized the individual.

It therefore becomes an object of extreme interest to the rural population of Canada, that their children should be educated in the theory and practice of Agriculture ; that they should be instructed, as far as is consistent with their station, in the rationale of those occupations they are destined to pursue in future years ; that they should be able to understand the relation of earth, air and water to vegetable and animal life, be made acquainted with the office of the soil, and of some of its constituent elements in the growth of plants, and comprehend the necessity of *feeding* the soil, as they would themselves, to save it from pining away under the repeated abstractions of its most important and nourishing ingredients ; and, indeed, so bright has been the light which the

investigations of modern chemists have thrown upon the economy of the vegetable and animal world, that a youth may become sufficiently acquainted with all the conditions necessary to the favourable development of plants, without having ever witnessed the *modus operandi* adopted by the experienced practical farmer. But, as in all operations of the kind, circumstances occur which theory may not, perhaps cannot, take into account, or in which a capability of observation and reflection, too refined to be generally possessed, may be implied; it is needful that other and more extended means of obtaining information should be accessible to the young farmer, than those which ordinary sources and experience present to him.

The foregoing remarks suggest the consideration of the mode in which the primary object of Agricultural instruction can be most advantageously attained in this country, together with the capability of that instruction being duly and effectually imparted, and, in default of opportunity for its practical elucidation, to consider the manner in which that important deficiency may be remedied.

Here, again, it will be necessary to glance at the course adopted in Europe, and selecting those features which appear to be adapted to the present circumstances of Canada, endeavour to give them an applicable form, possessing the characteristic of real and permanent utility.

The most important consideration with reference to the Agricultural Education of a community, or of an entire people, embraces the principle, that the subjects of instruction, and the mode of imparting that instruction, should be generally applicable to the circumstances of the country, and of practical benefit to its inhabitants.

We find the means adopted by European Nations to possess several distinctive features. The establishment of Agricultural Professorships in their Universities, or of colleges devoted expressly to all the concerns of rural economy, have been warmly embraced and sustained by many; others again have introduced into their common or primary schools the general outlines of the theory of Agriculture, as in Scotland and parts of England, or a more detailed illustration of some particular departments—such as the grafting of fruit-trees, especially taught in the primary schools of France, while very generally a theoretical, and, if possible, also, a practical study of the Science and Art of Agriculture, constitutes one of the most prominent subjects of instruction in the training seminaries of Great Britain, Ireland, and Continental Europe. However well adapted the former of these methods may be to produce a beneficial effect in those Countries where they have been established and supported, yet can it be expected that they would be productive of general information and consequent utility in Canada, under her present circumstances.

Sufficient proof has already been afforded of the encouragement likely to be given to the establishment of a Professorship of Agriculture in the University of King's College, Toronto.

The formation of Agricultural Schools, with their necessary adjuncts—model farms, would perhaps meet with but little more success, arising from the circumstance that such establishments are too much in advance of the undeveloped wealth and limited population of the Country.

In new and comparatively thinly settled states, where land is to be obtained at a little cost, and available capital of very limited amount, "men prefer cultivating much to cultivating well." Hence it can only be expected that in the

immediate vicinity of large towns individuals would be found able or willing to give the proper time, or incur the necessary expense, attending the course of instruction to be adopted in establishments devoted exclusively to a scientific and practical elucidation of all the minutæ of farming operations. Even among those whose means and opportunities would permit them to embrace any advantages of the kind which might be open to them, it is questionable whether the majority would not prefer directing their attention to other and more remunerative studies, at perhaps the same, or at least a very small increase of expenditure of time and capital.

The climate and circumstances of Canada would also materially affect the *present* value of information on various subjects connected with the economy of a farm, to which especial attention is devoted in the Agricultural seminaries of the densely populated European states, and which will always constitute a most important element in the comprehensive study of rural economy to be adopted in such establishments, without which, indeed, they would be shorn of half their value.

We find, upon examination, that the rearing and fattening of cattle comprises a very important part of the course of instruction pursued in those institutions. The practical value of that information depends upon the facilities afforded for the sale of the produce of the dairy, and the money-value of the animal for the purposes of the butcher. Such information would possess *comparatively* little value in a country, where, on the one hand, the ordinary supply is greater than the demand—where, as yet, encouragement for excelling in that particular department, is, from the nature of circumstances, extremely limited, and no suitable market offers remunerating prices, when more than ordinary outlay and care have been expended; while, on the other hand, the *means* for advantageously exercising that knowledge do not as yet lie within the reach of the farmer.

A preliminary step has to be taken, requiring considerable length of time for its accomplishment; namely, the introduction of new varieties of grasses, oil-bearing seeds, and other vegetables, of a character adapted to the climate and soils of Canada, and favourable to the attainment of the object in view; a desideratum to be arrived at rather by a proper course of experiments in numerous separate localities and on different soils, in a manner hereafter alluded to, than through the instrumentality of a Model Farm; while, whatever relates to the improvement of the breed of cattle is slowly yet beneficially being effected by the agency of private enterprise, and the daily extending influence of Agricultural Associations.

In a country where every farmer is, or may eventually become, his own landlord, unfettered by any of those restraints which so effectually retard the progress of good husbandry, under the tenant system of Europe—the primary object should doubtless be, to diffuse general agricultural information as much as possible throughout the length and breadth of the land, and when by that means the attention of farmers is directed to the subject, and the vast advantages which flow from Scientific Husbandry are become manifest to all, other and more extended means of obtaining accurate knowledge, applicable to the wants of the country, will be fully appreciated and sought after. To effect this desirable object, and to ensure an enlightened and interested attention to the more elaborate details of the Science and Art of Agriculture, we must look to the common schools of the country.

## AGRICULTURAL EXPERIMENTS CONNECTED WITH THE PROVINCIAL NORMAL SCHOOL.

*Letter addressed by H. Y. Hind, Esquire, to the Chief Superintendent of Schools.*

REVEREND SIR :

Allow me to present for your consideration and approval a list of Agricultural Experiments which may, perhaps, be made with advantage in that portion of the garden attached to the Government House which you may hereafter propose to set apart for the purpose.

I am induced to solicit an early attention to this subject, from the necessity of commencing, at the very first opportunity, certain preliminary operations, without which the experiments in question can scarcely be productive of advantageous information; and also, that any suggestions of your own may be embodied immediately in those which are contained in the accompanying paper, supposing the enclosed to meet with your approval.

You will doubtless consider it most necessary that the soil upon which the experiments are to be made should be effectually drained.

Since draining has become one of the most important elements in the Science and practice of Agriculture, it would be very desirable to know what form of drain is best adapted to the peculiar circumstances of this country.

Long continued experience in England and Scotland has shown that the pipe drain, having a bore of about one inch and a-half, is the most durable and efficient of all the various modes hitherto practiced of draining the soil. Road metal or pebble drains offer advantages perhaps as great, with regard to temporary effect, but are far inferior in point of durability. And in the United States, common brush is occasionally substituted for pipes or road metal; while, however, a pipe drain, well constructed, will last a life time; a road metal or pebble drain, perhaps ten years; a brush drain must be renewed after a still shorter period.

In many parts of this country, the expense of pipe draining would tend to prevent its general adoption. The same objection, though not with equal force, applies to road metal drains; and brush drains are too destructible to be ordinarily applied by the careful and economical farmer.

For the purpose of ascertaining whether another mode of draining the soil, applicable to the circumstances of this country, might not be adopted with advantage by the farmer, I would suggest that an experiment should be made with a *wooden drain*. Let, for instance, the ground be prepared in the usual way, by digging an open ditch to the depth of three feet, being fifteen inches in breadth at the top, and gradually sloping downwards, until at the depth of thirty-two inches it is no more than four inches in breadth; the remaining four inches are to be cut in such a manner as to leave a base of two inches at the bottom of the drain; three planks, being one or two inches in thickness, four or five inches in breadth, and of any convenient length, are then to be placed at the bottom of the open ditch so as to form a triangular box, resting upon a plank two inches in breadth. The object of leaving the planks inclined is to confine the current of water flowing through them, which has the effect of preventing the accumulation of sediment. When the earth is returned to the open ditch, the sides of the drain will be preserved in a fixed position by the

superincumbent pressure, and the superfluous water will rise chiefly through the interstices at the bottom of the box. The planks will begin to decay first at their points of contact; this, however, will have little or no effect at the top of the box upon the efficiency of the drain, and the heavier particles of sand entering from time to time through the lateral joining of the planks will, by settling at the bottom, tend to prevent their shifting as the decay of the material advances, without the inclination of the drain is so great as to allow all the sandy particles to be washed away by the stream of water passing through it; and under any circumstances the relative position of the side planks may be maintained by means of a cedar peg introduced through them into the adjacent soil.

When turnings are required, it would be advisable to make use of very short pieces of plank, in order to make the turnings as nearly approaching to a curve as possible. The mouth of the drain might be filled with road metal for the space of two or three feet, in order to exclude vermin and atmospheric air as much as circumstances will permit, thereby retarding, in some measure, the decay of the materials.

It is probable that a drain of this description would be discovered to last considerably longer than a road metal or pebble drain, at the same time being more efficient and in this country less expensive. Where cedar plank can be procured at a small cost, it is questionable whether this form of drain will not be found to vie, in permanency and adaptation to the severe climate of Canada, with pipe or tile draining. In order to test its comparative efficiency, it would be advisable to have a few of the parallel drains, hereafter alluded to, constructed according to each method, and accurate observation made at stated times for the purpose of ascertaining the amount of water they respectively convey away, in a given time, after a shower of rain.

The great difference existing between the climate of this country and that of Great Britain and Ireland, will perhaps materially affect the mode in which the draining of land can be most advantageously prosecuted in Canada. It will therefore be expedient to note every circumstance connected with the appearance of the crops on the drained soil, during the prolonged period of drought, so usual in the summer months of this climate. And with reference to the construction of the drains, it may be considered advisable to leave the space of a few feet immediately accessible, in order to exhibit a practical illustration to the pupils of the Normal School of the mode in which different kinds of drains are constructed.

The sub-soil plough has been found to be a most influential follower of the drain, in promoting the welfare of the crops. The same effect may be produced by loosening the subsoil with a common garden fork, where the limited field of operations precludes the use of the subsoil plough. I would therefore propose that a portion of the subsoil should be submitted to that process, in order to test its comparative effects.

In the experiments made to ascertain the respective influence of different manures, it will perhaps be deemed sufficient, for the present at least, to confine the experiments to those substances which are either accessible to the generality of Farmers in the neighbourhood of large towns, or exist in their own immediate vicinity, or may be procured at a comparatively trifling cost, the peculiar condition of this country rendering the use of expensive addition

to the soil, as long as the low price of land and produce continue, a measure of precarious character.

The real value of Agricultural experiments depends essentially upon a correct acquaintance with every circumstance under which the experiments are made. It is, therefore, of the greatest importance, that an accurate and continued account should be kept of every thing connected with the experiments in question. Among the most prominent which suggest themselves at present, are,—

1st. An analysis of the soil and sub-soil upon which the plants grow, its absorbing and retaining power, &c.

2nd. The precise weight and description of the seed sown.

3rd. The time of its being placed in the soil ; the nature and quantity of the manure applied.

4th. The nature of the vegetables grown upon the soil the preceding year.

5th. The appearance of the crops at weekly intervals.

6th. The precise appearance of the crops, before and after top-dressing.

7th. The amount of rain falling upon the soil during the growth of the plants.

8th. The period at which they were reaped, with an account of the weight of the seed and stalk, tops or roots, according to the nature of the plant.

9th. The weight of the dried portion of the several plants—together with the quantity of inorganic matter contained in them respectively.

10th. An exact account of the labour employed and expense incurred during the experiments.

The accompanying list embodies upwards of fifty different experiments, for the purpose of testing the comparative effects of those manures upon different vegetables, which are easily accessible to the farmers of this country ; also of ascertaining the effect of sub-soiling and thorough draining, and of approximating to the produce per acre of certain other vegetables, the cultivation of which may be attended with great benefit to the agricultural interests of this country.

I am, Reverend Sir,

Respectfully yours,

H. Y. HIND.

March 15th, 1848.

W H E A T.

1. One bed wheat, without farm-yard manure.
2. One do. with do. do.
3. One do. with subsoil stirring and farm-yard manure.
4. One do. with do. wood ashes and farm-yard manure.
5. One do. with do. lime and do. do.
6. One do. with do. lime, wood ashes, and do. do.
7. One do. with do. do. common salt, and do. do.
8. One do. with do. farm-yard manure, and top-dressing with gypsum when in early leaf.
9. One bed wheat, with subsoil stirring, farm-yard manure, and bone dust.
10. One do. with do. do. do. and top-dressed, when in early leaf, with fermented stable urine.
11. One bed wheat, with subsoil stirring, farm-yard manure, and top-dressed with the ammoniacal liquor of the gas works, when in early leaf.

## O A T S.

12. One bed oats, with farm-yard manure.
13. One do. with subsoil stirring and farm-yard manure.
14. One do. with do. do. do. ashes, and lime.
15. One do. with do. do. do. and top-dressed with gypsum when in early leaf.

## B A R L E Y.

16. The same as oats.
17. do. do.
18. do. do.
19. do. do.
20. One bed barley, with subsoil stirring, farm-yard manure, and top-dressed with fermented stable urine when in early leaf.

## P O T A T O E S.

21. One bed potatoes, with subsoil stirring.
22. One do. do. do. and farm-yard manure.
23. One do. do. do. do. do. and top-dressed with gypsum when in early leaf.
24. One do. top-dressed with fermented urine.
25. One do. with subsoil stirring, farm-yard manure, lime, and common salt.
26. One do. with do. do. do. and wood ashes.
27. One do. with farm-yard manure.

## T U R N I P S.

28. One bed turnips, with farm-yard manure.
29. One do. with do. do. and subsoil stirring.
30. One do. with subsoil stirring, farm-yard manure, and bone dust.
31. One do. with do. do. do. and ashes.

## P E A S.

32. One bed peas, with farm-yard manure.
33. One do. with subsoil stirring and farm-yard manure.
34. One do. with do. do. do. and lime.
35. One do. with do. do. do. and top-dressed with gypsum when in early leaf.
36. One bed peas, with subsoil stirring, farm-yard manure, and top-dressed with fermented urine when in early leaf.

## M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

37. One bed French Beet, with farm-yard manure.
38. One do. do with subsoil stirring and farm-yard manure. (The process adopted for the manufacture of sugar from the beet is the same as that pursued with the sap of the maple.)
39. One bed Jerusalem Artichokes, with farm-yard manure.
40. One do. do. with do. do. and subsoil stirring.
41. One bed Indian Corn, with subsoil stirring and farm-yard manure.
42. One do. do. with farm-yard manure.
43. One bed Safflower, with do. do.
44. One do. with subsoil stirring and farm-yard manure. (The Safflower appears to be well adapted to the climate of Canada. The process of obtaining the dye is exceedingly simple, and the price of the article very remunerative. The chief supplies of this article of commerce are derived from India and Turkey.)



45. One bed Sunflower, for oil. (The climate of Canada is also admirably adapted to the peculiar nature of this vegetable. The cake which remains after the oil has been expressed, forms a very flattening food for cattle.)
46. One bed Hops, with farm yard manure.
47. One do. do. do. and subsoil stirring.

A portion of the Lawn set apart for

1. Experiment with the ammoniacal liquor of the gas works, used as a top-dressing.
2. With gypsum, as do.
3. Fermented Urine, as do.
4. Solution of common salt, as do.
5. In its natural state, for comparison.

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STATEMENTS AND REMARKS ADDRESSED BY DISTRICT  
SUPERINTENDENTS TO MUNICIPAL COUNCILS.

LONDON DISTRICT.

*February 1st, 1848.*

The Warden having addressed the Council,

Mr. Elliot, the District Superintendent of Common Schools, said he wished in the first place to explain why he had not been able to pay in full that portion of the School Fund arising from Tax. At the last February sitting of the Council a By-law was passed, requiring the sum of £1600 to be raised for Common School purposes. Having been apprised of the passing of this By-law by the Clerk of the Council, he had notified the Trustees of the various sections of the amount which they might expect, as the statute required he should do. But instead of £1600 it turned out that only about £1061 were put upon the collection rolls, and he stood in the position of one who having £10 promised him to make a certain payment, had £7 handed to him to do it. He had applied to the Council at their last meeting to know what was to be done, and a resolution was then passed that the deficiency should be made up out of the general funds of the District. He had not, however, been able to get one shilling of that money, and hoped the Council would take some step to have it paid at once, as the Teachers were suffering much inconvenience for the want of it.

There were 200 Common Schools in operation in the District during the past year, and there would be several more during this.

He could not say he discovered any very decided improvement in the condition of these schools, since he had had an opportunity of observing them. He questioned very much whether they had much improved since the act of 1843 came into operation. And why? Because, the remuneration given to Teachers now, was little or no greater than it was then, in some cases not even so great; because it sometimes happened that the amount of the school fund coming to a section was greater than it was now. For now the school fund was distributed over so large a number of schools. But if the schools had not materially improved, elementary instruction was much more widely diffused. For, with the exception of some parts of the newly settled Townships, there was no part of the London District in which children might not

attain such instruction, if their parents were disposed to avail themselves of the opportunity.

He took it that every man of respectable attainments, of judgment and ability, knew and felt his worth, and that such men would not devote themselves to the occupation of Teachers for the remuneration now generally given. And they might set up Normal and Model Schools; aye, they might set them up in every Township, but well qualified persons if they were to continue Teachers would require to be better paid than they now generally were.

It was no uncommon thing to hear the Teachers of the Common Schools spoken of as persons very inadequate for their duties. And he was not disposed to deny that in many cases they were not nearly so well fitted as they might be. But he would say that they were just as competent, quite as well qualified, as could be expected, considering the remuneration and treatment they received. For what was the fact? In the first place a Teacher was expected to be a person of unblemished character. In the next, he was expected to be able to teach everything. And what was he to get? from ten to sixteen dollars a month.

If he was a man with a family he was put into the meanest and most comfortless house in the settlement. If he was an unmarried person he was generally required to board from house to house,—exposed to all the annoyance of that most pernicious practice,—with his feelings wounded,—and feelings, too, of that sensitive character which we so frequently find in persons living so much apart from the world.

He knew there were neighbourhoods where it was absolutely impossible for the inhabitants to pay competent Teachers. In such cases there was at present no alternative but to await the time when those inhabitants would have more means at their disposal. But the most discouraging part was, that in some of the oldest and best settled parts of the country, there were some of the worst schools; because the absurd idea prevailed, that well qualified Teachers should be procured upon the same terms as mere labourers with the hand—and because the Teachers that were engaged were constantly changed—and indeed he did not think there was a greater evil than this constant shifting and changing of the Teachers. The bad consequences resulting were too obvious for him to detail them. It took some time for children to become acquainted with the method of their Teacher—it took some time for the Teacher to become acquainted with the different capabilities and dispositions of his pupils; but no sooner had this mutual acquaintance been brought into existence than it was severed by the abrupt dismissal of the Teacher. And his successor, confident of meeting with the same requital, cared but little for the improvement of those committed to his charge. He positively declared he knew sections, in which, for the last two or three years, the school money had been utterly wasted on account of this constant changing of the Teachers.

It was no wonder then that there were people who said, “you will never have good schools while you give so much power to the Trustees,” and who would place the entire control of those schools in the hands of the Executive Government. He need not say, however, that there were considerations which might render such a course very undesirable. These were persons who expected far too much from the School Law—person who sat with folded arms, and when they saw inefficient schools, exclaimed,—“oh! the miserable School Law!”—as if the School Law could ever be expected to help those who would

not stir to help themselves!—Why, the root of the law was in the people themselves—it was they, who by their Trustees, selected the Teacher—it was they who fixed his remuneration, and decided the term of his engagement. All that the School Law could be expected to do, was to preserve something like order and system—to give facilities for the establishment of schools—and to prevent the School Fund being given to improper persons offering themselves as Teachers. And it was idle for persons who were unprepared to advocate a coercive School Law, to attribute the inefficiency of the schools entirely to the existing law.

There was not a more troublesome duty under the act than the regulating of the School Sections. Many of these, he believed, had not been laid out in the most judicious manner, but having once been laid out by persons of competent authority, he thought they should be scrupulous about altering them. It was, he conceived, to concentrate the payments for school purposes, in order to secure the services of respectably qualified Teachers, that this plan of dividing the Townships into sections had been devised. He thought, therefore, it was improper to divide them on account of any party or personal feeling, or for any reason other than the convenience or inconvenience of the distance to be travelled.

He did not see a necessity at present for going to the expense of establishing a Model School in the County. The Provincial Normal School was in operation, and a large sum was appropriated to it. A few of the Teachers of the County had gone there, and several others were likely to follow. When they returned he hoped they would be able to get an adequate remuneration: and that thus gradually a better class of Teachers might be obtained. But he apprehended that it was not through the mere provisions of the School Law that this desirable result was to be brought about, but by the cordial co-operation of all who appreciate the superiority of an intelligent and well-informed population over an ignorant one.

For himself he had attempted to administer the law, not so much as to the strictness of the letter, as for the end of promoting the efficiency of the schools. How he had succeeded it was for them to say. He had held that appointment with a deep sense of its responsibilities. It was essentially popular in its character; it could be of no use without there was confidence in him who filled it, and not one hour did he wish to retain it whenever he should be without that confidence.

#### SIMCOE DISTRICT.

TUESDAY, 1st February.

*To the Warden and Council of the District of Simcoe.*

GENTLEMEN,—In presenting this my first Annual Report, I much regret that it is not in my power to furnish any statistical information on the Common Schools of the District, as there are many of the School Reports not yet received; and of those which have been sent to me, several I have been obliged to return for the purpose of having their inaccuracies corrected. I hope at your next session to be able to present a complete view of the educational prospects of the District.

In visiting the various Schools<sup>1</sup> of the District, I have observed that the Teachers generally are deficient in system, and in the best methods of instruc-

tion, shewing the necessity of adopting some plan by which more uniformity might be obtained. The Normal School of Toronto furnishes at present the only means of perfecting our Teachers in this branch of knowledge. And while on this subject, it may not be amiss to suggest to the Council the propriety of selecting two or three young men of good attainments to be sent to the Normal School at the expense of the District; and on the completion of their course of education at that institution to be employed by the Council itself in visiting the schools of the District and giving instructions to the Teachers themselves as well as to the children, thus combining in a limited degree the advantages of both a Normal and a Model School. I have no doubt that much good might be effected in this way, and I have pleasure in saying that the generality of the Teachers of this District would give their utmost support to such a plan and receive with gratitude the instructions imparted to them at their own schools; indeed, I have frequently witnessed the great desire existing amongst many of our Teachers for the opportunity of improving themselves. I need scarcely add how much more effective and satisfactory to the public this method would prove than that proposed at the last session of the Council, of first educating a small number of youths and then stationing them in particular parts of the District, the benefits from which would be entirely local, thus causing much dissatisfaction to the greater part of the county.

I have received from the Chief Superintendent of Schools, a set of the books published under the auspices of the "Irish National Board of Education." They seem to be well adapted to the wants of our Common Schools, containing a great amount of useful knowledge and forming an easy introduction to the Sciences and Natural Philosophy. I certainly think, that were these books more generally introduced, many of the difficulties which Teachers have to contend with, would be removed, as they not only convey instruction to the pupil but frequently offer satisfactory explanations and advice to the Teacher himself.

I have much pleasure in stating that the Townships of West Gwillimbury and Tecumseth contain some very good schools. There is also an excellent one at Orillia, and many in other parts of the District doing credit to their Teachers and giving much satisfaction to their supporters. I have invariably found the success and usefulness of the Common School to be in direct ratio to the intelligence, enterprize and activity of the Trustees; wherever they do their duty the Common School is flourishing and well attended. I cannot help remarking that much of the success and correct working of our Common School system depends upon the efficiency and capability of the Trustees, and did parents only reflect that the best interests of their children, of society, and of the country at large, are all deeply concerned in the successful establishment of our Common School system, they would exercise more discretion in the election of their Trustees.

At present, conflicting interests of various kinds have their sway at these elections; and politics, sectarianism, and national prejudices exert a more important influence in directing the choice of the people, than either morality, education, or piety.

I have observed that many of the old school-houses in the District are in a most wretched and dilapidated state, being furnished neither with desks or seats, or any convenience for the comfort of the children. There are, however, others of a very opposite character, and generally where new ones have been

built they are sufficiently large and commodious, though far from containing all the requisites of a well conducted Common School.

The Chief Superintendent in his late Lecture very conclusively advocated the principle of providing for the expenses of the Common Schools by an assessment upon all the rateable property of the section. Many arguments might be advanced to prove the benefits to be derived and the inconveniences to be avoided from the adoption of such a plan, but I will not urge the matter upon the attention of the Council at this time, further than to request, that should application be made to them for such a purpose, that they will give the plan their most attentive consideration.\* I would not wish that the people should be forced into any measure of the kind, but I certainly think that should it be adopted in only a single school section, much time would not elapse before others would adopt the same principle.

I have to request, gentlemen, that you will audit the accounts presented herewith, as the Chief Superintendent has stated that it will be unnecessary to forward my vouchers to the Inspector-General if you certify to their correctness.

I am, Gentlemen, your most obedient servant,

HENRY A. CLIFFORD,  
S. C. S. District of Simcoe.

#### BATHURST DISTRICT.

REPORT OF THE REV. JAMES PADFIELD, DISTRICT SUP'T OF COMMON SCHOOLS.

*To the Warden and Councillors of the Municipal Council of the District of Bathurst, in Council assembled.*

The District Superintendent of Common Schools for the Bathurst District having learned that he is expected to make a report of his proceedings in his official capacity, embracing the several subjects connected with his duties, begs leave to report as follows :—

In the first place he would observe, that not being aware that any such Report would be required from him, he will not be able to enter so minutely into particulars as he otherwise would have done, and as the importance of the subject so justly merits. His remarks will necessarily be brief and of a very general character, as he does not, at present, consider himself confident to give expression to any very decided opinions on the subject of Common School Education in the Bathurst District. This arises, first, from his recent appointment to office; secondly, from his having been prevented by severe and protracted illness from making so full a visitation of the schools in the District as he could have wished; and thirdly, from the close confinement to which he has of late been subjected, in consequence of having to pay away the Legislative Grant of money for school purposes for the year 1845.

Having made these prefatory remarks, he will at once enter into the subject upon which he was requested to report, and confine his observations :—1. To Common School Education generally throughout the District. 2. To particular Townships. 3. To individual Schools. 4. To Female Schools. 5. To School Libraries. 6. To Associations of School Teachers for mutual improve-

\* The Schools in the town of Barrie are now supported on this principle.—Ed. J. of E.

ment. 7. To Money matters, the School Assessment. 8. Moneys received and disbursed. 9. Moneys still due to the District by late Township Superintendents, &c.

1. The subject of Common School Education generally is one of the utmost importance, since the future welfare of this splendid and fertile country must greatly depend upon the well directed efforts of the rising generation ; and the rising generation must obtain their knowledge and imbibe their principles for the most part in the Common Schools of the land. As this subject demands the close attention and the strict regard of the well informed among all ; of the friends of virtue, and learning, and progressive improvement everywhere ; so the District Superintendent believes that the inhabitants of the Bathurst District generally, who are heads of families or guardians of youth, are to a great extent very deeply and very properly influenced by a constant concern for the instruction of the youth of the District in sound learning and good principles. True it is that in too many instances such Teachers cannot be procured as the urgent wants of different neighbourhoods require ; and though individual instances occur in which both Trustees and parents seem not unwilling to sacrifice the welfare of the young for the sordid consideration of a few pounds saved in the salary of the Teacher, yet, in general, in most of the School Sections that have come under my notice, there has been no want of a desire to procure the services of the best instructors their circumstances would afford. Against the accomplishment of this desire, the cutting up of Townships into School Sections, much smaller than need requires, militates most grievously. This indeed is a subject which merits the wise and careful consideration of the Council ; and must receive it, if the Common School Act is to have its desired influence amongst us. But this I need hardly mention, as almost every one is aware of its necessity. Judging more from what I have heard than from any opinion I can form myself at present, I should say that Common School instruction is becoming from year to year better and more efficient throughout the District. In the more remote Townships this is of course less observable than in the larger settled localities. But even in them the most laudable efforts are made and the best endeavours used, with some exceptions, to secure the services of efficient Teachers.

2. In regard to particular Townships, a few might be named which stand foremost in the District in respect to Common School instruction. But as I do not consider myself to have obtained sufficient knowledge on this point to speak with much certainty, I shall defer making any further remarks on this head till a more intimate knowledge of the District shall enable me to speak with less hesitation.

3. In like manner, though I could report most favourably of three or four individual schools as being well managed and admirably conducted on the whole ; yet, I trust, I shall not be considered as exercising too much caution if I forbear at present to make especial mention of them.

4. There are several Female Schools in the District, and in general they are well conducted and attentively managed. In thickly peopled neighbourhoods I should like to see their number increased and all their Teachers authorized to participate in the benefits of the School Fund.

5. The subject of School Libraries is one of deep importance. The judicious establishment of such sources of improvement in all the well settled

Townships would be fraught with the highest advantages to the rising generation. It is a subject in which I feel a deep and lively interest, and which I have not failed to recommend wherever I have thought it likely that such recommendation would be regarded. Time, however, must be allowed for the accomplishment of so desirable an end. The commencement is the great point; and this being entered into with vigor and discretion, I trust that, at no very distant period, there will be many of these useful institutions in the various Townships of the District.

6. I have also recommended Township Associations of Teachers for mutual improvement in several Townships. My recommendations on this subject have been generally well received; but I am not aware that they have yet been acted on in any one instance. I am fully persuaded that great good would arise to the Teachers by their meeting together monthly or oftener, as circumstances might seem to justify, for conversation on the duties of their profession, for mutual improvement, for explaining their several methods of instruction to each other, and thus increasing their professional knowledge for practical ends, and rendering their labours more efficient in their several individual spheres.

7. In regard to the money matters of the department, I have to remark, that the want of correct and accurate School Reports has occasioned, in some instances, considerable confusion and embarrassment, and in a few instances has led to the apportionment of sums of money in different Townships which could not be disbursed as apportioned; which sums still remain unpaid and subject to the orders of the Chief Superintendent. While on this subject, perhaps it would not be out of place to observe, that with regard to the apportionment of the money arising from the School Assessment, great dissatisfaction seems to prevail in almost every part of the District. This dissatisfaction does not seem to arise so much from the fact of an assessment being levied for school purposes, as to the mode of its apportionment and disbursement. It appears to be a very general opinion that the burden of payment of the rates assessed, and the benefits accruing to the School Sections paid, bear but a very partial proportion to each other. Several methods have been mentioned to me for remedying this grievance by different individuals, only two of which I shall at present notice. The one is, it has been supposed that if the amount raised in each School Section were repaid (the necessary deductions being made) each to its own School Section, general satisfaction would be given. The other is the supposition that if the usual sums collected for school purposes in all the Townships of the District were thrown into one total sum, (the necessary deductions being made,) and that total divided by the number of schools actually in operation, under the provisions of the Act, and the amount indicated by the quotient paid to each School Section, that thus a more equitable and satisfactory division of the money would be made. On the propriety or the merits of either of these two plans, I do not pretend to make any lengthened remarks; but at the same time I must admit, that if the latter mode be one which the law will sanction, it appears to me to be very simple in its nature and likely to be beneficial and acceptable in its consequences. Weak School Sections would be much benefited by it, and the Schools in remote and less wealthy neighbourhoods strengthened and rendered more efficient. With respect to the suggestion that has been made to me for the payment of the School tax to the several Townships in like proportion with the Legislative grant to those Townships, I have to observe, that there are two or three Townships towards

which the carrying out of this principle would, as it appears to me, be manifestly unjust, and would certainly be vexations and unpopular. For example, to the Township of Westmeath the apportionment of the Legislative grant for 1847 is only £5 1s 0½d; the amount assessed upon the Township is £32 3s 8d; again, the amount assessed upon the Township of Pembroke is £21 19s 9d, and upon Stafford £8 0s 3½d, making together £30 0s 0½d—whereas the amount of the Legislative grant for both these Townships united is only £5 1s 0½d. It appears to me that in these instances, the necessary deductions being made, the full amount of the remaining balance should be paid to the School Sections in those Townships.

8. From the time of my appointment to office till the present date, I have received, of School money, independent of the Legislative grant for 1845, the sum of £239 19s 5d; School assessment and other moneys for 1846, for the Townships of Dalhousie and Drummond, the sum of £899 17s 4d; and of the former sum I have paid away £238 4s 3½d, leaving a balance thereof of £1 12s 1½d; of the latter I have paid away the sum of £845 7s 2½d, leaving a balance in my hands at present unpaid, because uncalled for, of £54 10s 2½d. Of the sum of £882 12s 9d, the Legislative grant for 1845, I have paid away to the present date upwards of £600. Of the School assessment, I have as yet received the amounts collected from only five or six collectors, and have paid the Teachers of only two or three Townships, so that the accounts still remain in so open a state as to prevent my rendering a more detailed statement.

9. In looking over the District Superintendent's Report for 1846, I find several persons named as still retaining school moneys in their hands, due the District from them as Township Superintendents under the late Act: a statement of the several sums thus due has been prepared and is ready to be submitted as the Council may direct. Several complaints also have reached me with reference to sums of money held by Collectors of Townships, which have either not been paid by them, or not paid to persons duly authorized to receive them.

Earnestly requesting every allowance may be made for the obvious deficiencies of these unexpectedly required and hastily written remarks, the District Superintendent begs leave to submit them with due respect to the Council.

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## EDITORIAL DEPARTMENT.

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### THE FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLE OF UNIVERSAL EDUCATION.

We solicit the attention of the Press and every friend of the universal education of the people of Upper Canada, to the first and leading article in this number, headed "*System of Free Schools in the New-England States*,"—reprinted from the second volume of the *London Quarterly Journal of Education*, 1831—a periodical issued under the direction of the *Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge*, and at a time when Lord BROUGHAM was Chairman, and Lord JOHN RUSSELL, Vice-Chairman of the Committee.



The New England States are the only states in the world where education may be said to be universal among the people in connexion with popular institutions; and education is becoming universal among the people in the State of New-York and in other States of America, just in proportion as the New England system of supporting Common Schools according to property is recognized and acted upon. The Superintendent of Common Schools for the State of New-York, in his last Annual Report, dated January 5, 1848, remarks on this subject, that,—

“The extension of Free Schools in the State is progressing moderately; and laws are passed nearly every Session of the Legislature, providing for their establishment in populous and wealthy villages; while the poorer and less populous School Districts in the same towns (townships) are left to struggle on, year after year, the best way they can,—sustaining the School long enough each year to secure the next apportionment of the public moneys. Is this policy just? Is it right to discriminate in this manner between the children of the State? This great and essential question turns simply on the *mode* of taxation; by

changing this and requiring the Boards of Supervisors (our District Councils) to raise upon the counties respectively, a sum equal to the amount apportioned from the Treasury to each county for the support of Schools; and upon the *towns* (our townships) another sum equal to the apportionment to such town (township) from the *School Fund*,—which would increase the local taxation upon the counties, not to exceed five-tenths of a mill on the valuation in any county. and our Schools might be rendered nearly *free* to every child in the State.” (p. 56.)

The suggestions here made are precisely those which were submitted by the Superintendent of Schools for Upper Canada in March 1846—in the first communication which he made to the Government respecting the Canadian School System, after entering upon the duties of his office. (See *Journal of Education*, No. 2, p. 41.) The only difference is, that School Sections were referred to instead of Townships, as we have no Township School Authorities or Committees in Upper Canada.

The inhabitants of the New England States are not wealthy, and their soil is not as fertile, nor is their climate as mild as that of Upper Canada. The principle on which their Common Schools are supported is, in every respect, equally applicable to Upper Canada. The elaborate article to which we have referred will exhibit, historically and practically, the nature and effects of that system of supporting Common Schools which we have explained in previous numbers of this journal, which, upon economical, moral, and social grounds, we have for the last two years sought to get established in this country, and, without which, we are persuaded, the people of Upper Canada will never be an universally educated people. The District, City, and Town Councils being authorized by law to apply the property-principle of supporting Common Schools, it is only necessary to have it fairly and fully brought before the country by the Press, in order to secure to the rising and future generations of Upper Canada the unspeakable benefits of its adoption.

**SYSTEM OF COMMON SCHOOLS IN CITIES AND INCORPORATED TOWNS IN THE UNITED STATES AND UPPER CANADA.**

We have, in previous numbers of this Journal, shown that the system of Schools provided for by the last School Act, in our Cities and Towns, was similar to that which exists in the principal Cities and Towns of the neighbouring States. We are gratified to see some of the first fruits of it beginning to appear in the proposed erection of new and suitable School-houses. We understand that the Corporation of the Town of London has resolved to erect two School-houses—the one in the eastern and the other in the western part of the Town—large enough to accommodate all the children of the Town—each having different apartments, and occupied by a Head Master and one or two assistants. We learn from the *Hamilton Gazette*, that the Corporation of that City has procured sites for four School-houses, which it intends to erect forthwith, in a style and with conveniencies adapted to the wants of that rapidly improving City, and appropriate to so noble and truly patriotic an undertaking.

We will now present to the public some statistics illustrative of the operation of the free system of Schools; that is Schools open to all, and supported by all, according to property. We copy the following Table from the Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools in the City of Rochester for the year 1846. The author of the Report remarks:—

“The following tables show the comparative cost of Free Schools, in other Cities. They have been prepared with much care, and, it is thought, contain valuable information on the subject. Most of the facts from which they were compiled were ob-

tained by direct correspondence with those having charge of the schools in the respective places named, and those not so obtained were taken from published documents and reports, and other reliable sources:”

NAMES OF CITIES.	Population	No. Children of School Age	No. on School Lists	Average Attendance	Amount of Public Money received from the State Fund	Amount raised by Tax	Amount received on Rate Bills	Tax on each Inhabitant	Annual Cost per Pupil on average Attendance	Value of School Property	Cost per Pupil on average Attendance including interest on value of School Property	
Boston .....	114,366	25,731	17,306	13,203	\$4,492	\$194,127 49	....	\$1 69	\$14 66	\$800,000	\$17 66	
Charlestown	14,500	3,500	2,696	2,069	579 69	16,300	....	1 13	8 33	32,550	9 58	
Lowell .....	35,000	7,722	7,500	3,279	804 64	27,000	....	78	8 40	100,000	10 00	
Salem .....	18,000	4,200	2,691	2,500	632 76	30, 00	....	1 66	10 88	50,000	11 88	
New Bedford	16, 30	3,866	2,365	1,886	536 03	21,225	....	1 32	11 54	60,000	12 07	
Cincinnati	65,000	15,278	9,635	4,480	4,237 90	28,647 19	....	24	6 14	125,000	8 73	
Detroit .....	15,000	3,506	2,470	424	1,252 09	3,506	....	44	11 22	6,041	11 92	
New-York .....	390,000	81,000	76,985	28,075	39,183 58	159,959 78	....	41	7 10	825,000	8 70	
Brooklyn	70,000	4,344	5,804	2,611	4,091 92	16,495 55	....	23	7 89	60,000	9 03	
Rochester .....	30,000	6,796	5,984	2,467	2,666 83	11,300	....	37	5 66	42,900	6 49	
Buffalo .....	35,000	7,558	7,236	3,277	3,142 60	14,055	....	40	5 98	50,000	6 85	
Albany .....	41,139	8,918	5,159	2,045	4,341 50	8,683	....	23	6 70	45,000	7 60	
Troy .....	25,000	4,326	99	850	3,487 37	2,449 11	....	850	13	7 98	20,000	9 16
Hudson .....	6,000	1,804	600	480	640	2,832	....	200	50	7 65	8,000	8 49
Utica .....	12,000	3,291	1,715	1,032	1,286 70	6,141 17	....	388	51	7 57	13,400	8 22

Respecting the above table, it is proper to remark, School-house property is not included; that in each of the Cities and Towns mentioned, there is but one Board of Trustees—sometimes consisting of the Corporation of such City or Town, sometimes of persons appointed by the Corporation, and in two or three instances of persons elected as School Commissioners in the same manner as are members of the Corporation. In the next place, let it be observed that the system of Schools in those Cities and Towns is the same as that which is provided for by the last School Act for Cities and Towns in Upper Canada. It will also be observed, that in the last of the Towns mentioned, the Rate-bill system to a very small amount was still continued in 1846. We understand that in Albany the Rate-bill system is now discontinued altogether. It will be seen that in 1846, it only amounted to £166 for the whole City—all the rest being raised by assessment.

The above table shows farthermore how small is the amount of aid received from the State, in comparison of that raised by the inhabitants of the several Cities and Towns by local voluntary assessment; and that in those Cities and Towns where the Rate-bill system had not yet been abandoned, the average expense of Schools was not less than where the true system of universal education obtains. We find the defective and poor apology for a system of Schools (for a system it could not be called) which has hitherto existed in our Cities and Towns is as expensive as the complete one established in the Cities and Towns above mentioned. In the City of Toronto, for example, there were in 1846, 4450 children of School age; of whom the names of only 1221 were on the School lists. The average attendance at School is reported to have been 1000. The amount of Legislative Grant apportioned was £473 17s.; the amount raised by Assessment was £473 17s.; the amount raised by Rate-bill was £309 11s. 7d; making a total of £1757 5s. 6d., and an average expense of each child in attendance at School of about £1 15s.; an expense equal to that which is incurred in several American Cities and Towns where a good system of Schools is in efficient operation. Under the operations of a proper system, the number of Schools in a City or Town will be reduced, and much useless expense thus saved, while the character of the Schools may be diversified to the several ages of children and their efficiency be proportionably increased.

In a future number we will give extracts from reports of Schools in various Cities and Towns where our new system of Town Schools is in full operation—showing that the objections and apprehensions which existed at the time of its establishment, as to its expensiveness, have been entirely removed by actual experiment, and have been succeeded by the most lively satisfaction and the most cordial and universal support.

In the New England Cities and Towns, the support of School-masters is on a more liberal scale than in the Cities and Towns of other States—an indication of greater intelligence in the New England States. Indeed, in these States, the profession of School-teaching, as a general rule, takes the precedence of the profession of law—as it did among the ancients. The following table of salaries of School Teachers in the Cities mentioned in the foregoing table, will be interesting:—

NAMES OF CITIES.	No. of Male Teachers	No Female Teachers	Amount paid for Teachers' Salaries Annually	Highest Salary paid Male Teacher	Highest Salary paid Female Teacher	Average Salary paid Male Teacher	Average Salary paid Female Teacher	Average No. of Pupils taught by each Teacher
Boston .....	56	221	\$149,426 00	\$2,400	\$325 00	\$1,260 00	\$315 72	47
Charlestown	7	35	14,000 00	900	255 00	900 00	206 00	49
Lowell .....	18	62	22,205 00	1,100	600 00	800 00	375 00	41
Salem .....	8	50	14,711 00	1,200	350 00	812 00	165 00	43
New Bedford	5	49	14,500 00	1,200	400 00	810 00	215 00	35
Cincinnati..	23	69	25,020 35	540	300 00	408 00	212 00	39
Detroit .....	4	10	3,350 00	400	200 00	400 00	200 00	30
Brooklyn ...	17	74	15,950 00	700	300 00	700 00	250 00	29
New-York ..	..	..	78,221 55	1,500	500 00	1,000 00	250 00	..
Rochester ..	16	32	10,297 00	480	240 00	385 00	171 00	52
Buffalo .....	16	49	13,650 59	700	300 00	.....	.....	44
Troy .....	4	12	4,788 33	650	275 00	650 00	175 00	53
Albany .....	11	21	10,180 00	650	180 00	692 00	150 00	60
Utica .....	3	12	3,392 93	550	225 00	450 00	134 00	68
Hudson .....	4	4	2,740 00	700	300 00	450 00	200 00	60

We will conclude with two extracts from American newspapers—the first from the *Albany Argus*—then edited by the present American Ambassador to Russia, and published shortly before the total abandonment of the Rate-bill system in the City of Albany; the second relative to Town Schools in Texas. We are sure that no intelligent lover of the honour and social advancement of Canada can endure that the Texians (a name replete with strange associations) should distance us in patriotism and intelligence in the education of all the children of the country.

FREE SCHOOLS IN ALBANY.

We find in the *Argus* a report from the Commissioners of the District Schools of this city, by which it is shown that about 2,200 scholars attend at 9 schools, besides 117 at a coloured children's or Wilberforce School. The expense of their education, for a year, all things included, is over \$12,000, or nearly \$6 a child, and it is asserted that the system requires to be enlarged. We think it does. Why should there be a paltry charge of \$1 a quarter from some, while others are entered on the report as "indigent pupils?" Why this distinction in the capital of New York? It appears that, of the school

rates, only \$1,000 or \$1,200 are collected from about 2,400 children in the course of a year. Why not abolish these school rates, and collect the trifling difference by assessment on the 50,000 citizens of Albany, than whom a more opulent and liberal community cannot be found?

Albany is highly privileged as the seat of government, advantageously situated for acquiring wealth, and ought to take the lead in liberality, and afford an example to our legislators with reference to a free, useful, practical system of common school education. Education is the vital principle of representative government, and why should the wealthy city of Albany, incorporated as it was in the 17th century, be as far behind the village of Williamsburgh, on Long Island, in regard to Common-schools, as the 17th century was behind the 19th in enlightenment and mental progress? In the report of School District No. 1, Williamsburgh, no mention is made of *INDIGENT* scholars—there are no school fees—the village supplies all the children with books, paper, pens, slates, &c. ; and the poorest child in the village sits down to the mental repast, on the most perfect equality with the most purse-proud citizen's heir. The only distinction made is with reference to acquirement and behaviour. Why should the rich and childless citizen, the opulent absentee, house or lot owner, not be required to pay his full share towards strengthening the props and pillars upon which our great social and political edifice rests? The writer has paid some attention to the condition of the District Schools at Rochester and Williamsburgh, and they appear, to him, to be placed on a far more equitable and efficient footing than anything he has seen of the kind in the city of Albany.—*Albany Patriot*.

#### GALVESTON FREE SCHOOLS.

About a year since we apprised our readers of the interesting fact that the citizens of Galveston, Texas, were making efforts to establish a Free-school system. We felt confident that there were not a small number of the graduates of the Massachusetts Free-schools in that city, and that they would infuse the real New-England educational spirit into its inhabitants. They know how to appreciate the benefits of a Free-school system, and wherever Providence may direct their path, will be felt the influence of their early education.

The measures for a system of Free-schools, as in some of the cities of this State have been successful. An active interest has been awakened, and the people are beginning to feel the need of universal education as a basis for universal suffrage. The northern educational spirit exists in Texas; it concentrates in Galveston, and will work its way towards the north, dispensing its blessings throughout the dark plains over which it is destined to pass. Let the north be faithful and meet it before it shall have passed the meridian of southern apathy, on this important subject.

We give, as an indication of what is now being done in Galveston, an extract from a circular of invitation under date of Dec. 4th:—"On the 25th of December, the building designed for the use of the Public-schools of this city, will be dedicated, agreeably to a resolution, passed by the Board of Trustees, by an address and other appropriate exercises." The Committee state that they believe it "will be gratifying to every friend of education to witness the commencement of a system, which, we trust, is destined to extend through the

length and breadth of our State, and afford to all the means of obtaining that inestimable blessing—a thorough education, free and universal.”

The programme of the exercises evinces that the citizens are deeply interested in the public schools of the city. The occasion should awaken the noblest sympathies and encourage the highest hopes of the whole fraternity of Teachers. All the friends of human advancement can read in facts like these, the speedy approach of a more equal bestowment of a nation's blessings in the elevation of the mass. Here is, indeed, the triumph of the true educational principle.—  
*Teachers' Advocate.*

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### FIRST PUBLIC EXAMINATION OF THE STUDENTS IN THE PROVINCIAL NORMAL SCHOOL.

The First (five months) Session of this important Institution closed on Thursday the 13th inst., by a public examination, which gave the highest satisfaction both as to the large amount of varied and useful knowledge imparted, and the intellectual and thorough method of imparting it. The matter for this number having been in type before the examination, we must defer an account of it until the next number, and in the mean time, we beg to refer to the account given in some of city papers; with this single remark, that the examination exceeded the most sanguine expectations of the warmest friends of the Normal School. We must, however, exclude other matter in type, to make room for the following Address, which was signed by all the Students, and presented at the close of the exercises, and to which the Head Master made an appropriate extemporaneous reply :—

*T. JAFFRAY ROBERTSON, Head Master, Normal School, and H. YOULE HIND, Mathematical Master and Lecturer in Chemistry and Natural Philosophy, Esquires :*

GENTLEMEN,

At the termination of the First Session of the Provincial Normal School, we, Students in that Institution, being impressed with a sense of the advantage to the cause of Education in this Province that we hope will result from this our public act, as well as bound in gratitude to you, our learned and worthy Instructors, spontaneously come forward to bear our testimony to your merits and to the value of the Institution which has been so fortunate as to secure your services.

In so doing, we wish particularly to direct the attention of others, who, like most of ourselves, have been engaged in the duties of Teachers of Common Schools, to the advantage which they would derive from an attendance at the Provincial Normal School as soon as they can severally find it convenient to do so. It must be obvious to every person who attentively considers the intentions of our Legislature and the sentiments of the enlightened and patriotic

part of the community at the present day that the scanty amount of knowledge in Teachers of Common Schools which has hitherto been deemed sufficient, can and will no longer be tolerated, and that such Teachers as will not embrace the opportunity of becoming qualified to rise to the standard of Education at present being introduced, must resign all pretensions to so important an office. To meet their wants the Normal School has been instituted. We, who are its first fruits, feel particular pleasure from our experience of the extent of knowledge and other advantages therein attainable, and the ability of its Masters and Teachers, in recommending it to the favourable consideration of our compeers—the Teachers of Common Schools throughout this Province. When we inform them, as we now do, that the course of Education in this Institution embraces a thorough analysis of the English Language, with Exercises in Composition—Geography, with all the aids that the best Globes and Maps can afford—History, Ancient and Modern—Logic—the Theory of Arithmetic—Algebra—the Elements of Geometry—the more important branches of the Mathematics and Natural Philosophy—a valuable course of Agricultural Chemistry—a scientific knowledge of Sacred Music under the instruction of a Professor of experience and skill specially engaged—Instruction and experience in Teaching in the Model School Department, according to that system, which, having met with general approbation in the Mother Country, is now to be universally adopted in the Common Schools of this Province.

When we inform them that here may be had, by candidates for the office of Teachers of Common Schools, what can be obtained by them nowhere else in this Province, viz :—the benefit of extensive and costly apparatus and drawings, and access to the volumes of a well selected Library. When we further inform them, Gentlemen, of your erudition, talent, and diligence, and of your urbanity and kind attention, which *we* have good reason, and that we hope that very many of *them* will also have good reason, ever gratefully to acknowledge, we shall utter but the language of truth and justice.

To the Teachers of the Model School—Gentlemen well acquainted with their duties, it becomes us to make our grateful acknowledgments for the civility and attention which they have shown us during our intercourse with that Department.

In conclusion, Gentlemen, we anticipate that under the continued superintendence of Doctor RYERSON, whose able advocacy of the rights and interests of the Teachers of Common Schools, as well as of measures of paramount importance to Education generally in his invaluable *Journal of Education*, we should ever remember—under the management of the Honourable and efficient BOARD OF EDUCATION for Upper Canada, to whom with the Reverend Provincial Superintendent of Schools, so many of us are indebted for material aid towards our support while attending this Institution—and under your learned labours in the Normal School, we hope and anticipate, that under these circumstances the cause of Education in this noble Province will henceforth advance with such rapid strides as it never did before; and we hope, that in the part which you are destined to act in the desirable Educational Reform, you will continue to bring lasting honour to yourselves and benefit to our country.

We are, Gentlemen, your obedient and grateful servants.

[Signed by Fifty Students.]

## A GOOD EXAMPLE—DISTRICT VISITATION.

We have much pleasure in being allowed to insert the following extract of a letter, addressed to the Chief Superintendent of Schools, by the Rev. W. H. LANDON, the able and excellent Superintendent of Common Schools in the Brock District :—

“ WOODSTOCK, 29th March, 1848.

“ SIR,—I am intending, as soon as the state of the roads will admit of travelling, to commence a general visitation of my District, and as I am anxious to do what I can to promote the great cause of Education, by allaying complaints, answering objections, removing difficulties, and enlightening, and giving a right direction to public opinion, I propose, in addition to the duties prescribed by law, to lecture on the subject in each Township.

“ At present I intend to prepare two lectures for this purpose. In the first, I shall discuss the question of popular Education in a general way ; as, for instance, by showing the importance of it to individuals and the community at large ; explaining what a right Education is ; enquiring to what extent it is possible to diffuse the blessings of it among the people ; and how much of this work may be effected by Common Schools ; the best methods of Teaching, and generally, the means of improving our Schools to the highest extent possible, &c. &c.

“ My second lecture, I propose to confine to the discussion of our own School System, in which I shall endeavour to defend what is good, explain what is obscure, and point out such amendments as are really necessary ; and I hope, with the blessing of God, to be able to do something towards enlightening the people on this most important subject, and something towards uniting them in an effort honestly to carry out the intentions of the Legislature.”

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*The Worst Starvation of Children.*—The man who would deprive his child of a proper allowance of food, or of necessary clothing, when he has abundant means to provide both, would do him an essential wrong, and would not fail to receive the public indignation. But the man who from cupidity, or to suit his own convenience, debars his children from education and starves their souls, thereby producing effects which they must bitterly feel through life, does a greater injury than the other ; and yet public sentiment, in many places, brands him not as an evil-doer. We conceive that this apathy on the part of parents is the principal reason why our schools do no more good, and why so many children go out from them starvelings in mind—prepared to take a low stand as intellectual beings, and ready to inflict the same injuries upon others that were inflicted on themselves, and thus to perpetuate the evil.—*Massachusetts School Report.*

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*Against frequent changes of School Teachers.*—The benefits resulting from the arrangement by which the same Teachers are continued in charge of the same Schools for a course of years, are such as recommend, with increasing force, the adoption of that plan wherever it can be done with propriety.—*Ib.*



*Advantages of the Normal School to the People.*—The advantages arising from improved methods of teaching, which have been introduced by instructors from the Normal School, have attracted our attention, more particularly the last Session, and are such as must commend themselves to every friend of youth. Whatever helps the learner to clearer apprehension of the principles he is called to apply, and abridges the labour, while it adds to the interests of his various operations in study, is a most valuable attainment.—*ib.*

## NOTICES.

The space occupied by the annual statements of three District Superintendents (including all that we have seen) compels us to omit our own remarks on some of the difficulties and the remuneration of their office.

The Second Session of the Provincial Normal School will commence on Monday, the 15th May. As heretofore intimated, the School will be open to both Male and Female Teachers. All Candidates should be present at the commencement of the Session.

### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS—To 14th April, inclusive.

Supt. Niagara District, rem. and subs.; rem. from Rev. J. Ryerson, W. H. White, Esq., J. C. Prince, Esq., Mr. R. Pennington, Hon Judge Macaulay, Mr. L. Barberree, Mr. Thos. Allen, Robert Lewis, Esq., Mr. George Brown, Supt. Wellington District, Mr. William Meston, Mr. C. Lowey, Rev. Wm. Haw, John Kilborn, Esq., Rev. S. Brownell, Mr. Daniel Wright, Mechanics' Institute, Toronto, Mr. Thos. Gammy; Supt. Gore District, rem. and subs.; Supt. Midland District, rem. and subs.; Supt. Simcoe District, rem. and subs.; Supt. Newcastle District, rem. and subs.; Clerk Huron District, subs., ordered by Municipal Councillors, Rev. S. Waldron, rem. and sub.; Mr. Isaac Crane, rem.

N.B.—The back Nos. of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION will be sent to all new subscribers.

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