

Technical and Bibliographic Notes / Notes techniques et bibliographiques

The Institute has attempted to obtain the best original copy available for scanning. Features of this copy which may be bibliographically unique, which may alter any of the images in the reproduction, or which may significantly change the usual method of scanning are checked below.

L'Institut a numérisé le meilleur exemplaire qu'il lui a été possible de se procurer. Les détails de cet exemplaire qui sont peut-être uniques du point de vue bibliographique, qui peuvent modifier une image reproduite, ou qui peuvent exiger une modification dans la méthode normale de numérisation sont indiqués ci-dessous.

- | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Coloured covers /
Couverture de couleur | <input type="checkbox"/> | Coloured pages / Pages de couleur |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Covers damaged /
Couverture endommagée | <input type="checkbox"/> | Pages damaged / Pages endommagées |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Covers restored and/or laminated /
Couverture restaurée et/ou pelliculée | <input type="checkbox"/> | Pages restored and/or laminated /
Pages restaurées et/ou pelliculées |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Cover title missing /
Le titre de couverture manque | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Pages discoloured, stained or foxed/
Pages décolorées, tachetées ou piquées |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Coloured maps /
Cartes géographiques en couleur | <input type="checkbox"/> | Pages detached / Pages détachées |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Coloured ink (i.e. other than blue or black) /
Encre de couleur (i.e. autre que bleue ou noire) | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Showthrough / Transparence |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Coloured plates and/or illustrations /
Planches et/ou illustrations en couleur | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Quality of print varies /
Qualité inégale de l'impression |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Bound with other material /
Relié avec d'autres documents | <input type="checkbox"/> | Includes supplementary materials /
Comprend du matériel supplémentaire |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Only edition available /
Seule édition disponible | <input type="checkbox"/> | Blank leaves added during restorations may
appear within the text. Whenever possible, these
have been omitted from scanning / Il se peut que
certaines pages blanches ajoutées lors d'une
restauration apparaissent dans le texte, mais,
lorsque cela était possible, ces pages n'ont pas
été numérisées. |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Tight binding may cause shadows or distortion
along interior margin / La reliure serrée peut
causer de l'ombre ou de la distorsion le long de la
marge intérieure. | | |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Additional comments /
Commentaires supplémentaires: | | Continuous pagination. |

JOURNAL OF

Upper



EDUCATION,

Canada.

VOL. XVIII.

TORONTO: APRIL, 1865.

No. 4.

CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER:

PAGE

I. OFFICIAL CIRCULAR FROM THE CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS TO THE BOARDS OF TRUSTEES OF GRAMMAR SCHOOLS THROUGHOUT UPPER CANADA	49
II. PAPERS ON CLASSICAL SUBJECTS.—(1) English Royal Grammar School Bill. (2) Thoughts on the use to be made of Greek and Latin in the Education of the Higher Classes. (3) Importance of Classical Studies. (4) Verdict in favour of Classics in the English Schools. (5) Graphic description of Caesar	54
III. CORRESPONDENCE OF THE JOURNAL.—(1) Our Language	53
IV. SELECTIONS FROM THE PRESS.—(1) Commercial Colleges in Canada. (2) Nationality and Uniformity of School books	59
V. PAPERS ON PRACTICAL EDUCATION.—(1) How to teach Spelling. (2) Map Drawing in teaching Geography. (3) Lord Palmerston on Writing. (4) Writing from Copy Books. (5) The Value of a Comma. (6) Drill at School	61
VI. BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.—No. 22. The Hon. James Gordon, M.L.C. 23. E. W. Thompson, Esq. 24. President Lincoln. 25. Rev. William L. Thornton, M.A.	61
VII. PAPERS ON NATURAL HISTORY.—(1) Protection of Birds. (2) "Blest Harbingers of Spring." (3) The Singing Birds	63
VIII. MISCELLANEOUS.—(1) Irish Sea Weed. (2) A Letter addressed to Heaven. (3) Things Worth Knowing	63
IX. EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE	63
X. DEPARTMENTAL NOTICES	64

The Council, after quoting this clause of the Act, defining the duty of Grammar Schools, remarked: "From these provisions of the law, it is clear that the object and function of Grammar Schools, is not to teach the elementary branches of English, but to teach the higher branches alone, and especially to teach the subjects necessary for matriculation into the University."

3. Such is the object of the law, and such was the object of the regulations and programme as adopted by the Council of Public Instruction in 1855, and approved by the Governor General in Council. But from the inefficiency of the common schools at that time the grammar schools were still suffered to do common school work; and the evil to the grammar schools has increased rather than diminished. In the mean time the common schools have so improved in character and efficiency as to be decidedly in advance of most of the grammar schools in teaching all the subjects of an ordinary English education; and to allow the grammar schools still to do common school work is not only at variance with the object of the grammar school fund, but is an infringement on the province of common schools, a very serious injury to them in many cases, is doing poorly work which the common schools do well, and is destroying the efficiency of grammar schools in their own legitimate work. This remark does not, of course, apply to the few grammar schools which strictly observe the Regulations established by law and confine their teaching to the subjects of the prescribed programme of studies. But in a large proportion of the grammar schools, the legitimate work of the grammar school constitutes the smallest part of their teaching—in some instances it is not done at all; while they are chiefly, and in some instances wholly, occupied in teaching the very same subjects that are prescribed and are better taught in the common schools. The Inspectors in their reports from year to year have pointed out these evils both to the Grammar and Common Schools; and the time has now come when the Common Schools should be protected in the work which they are nobly doing, and the Grammar Schools should be made to do the work, and that alone, which is prescribed for them by law, and for which alone the Grammar School Fund was created. And as every Common School is required to perform a certain amount of prescribed work in order to share in the Common School fund, so no Grammar School should be recognized as such, and as such receive public aid, unless it has at least an average attendance of ten classical pupils, and unless it devotes its whole strength to teaching the subjects of a classical educa-

OFFICIAL CIRCULAR FROM THE CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS TO THE BOARDS OF TRUSTEES OF GRAMMAR SCHOOLS THROUGHOUT UPPER CANADA.

GENTLEMEN,—In February 1855, I had the honour to address you a circular, transmitting to you the Regulations, which, after careful consideration, had then been adopted by the Council of Public Instruction, and approved by the Governor General in Council, for the better organization and government of Grammar Schools in Upper Canada—including rules as to the qualifications for admission of pupils to each Grammar School, the exercises and discipline to be observed, the course of studies to be pursued, and the text books to be used.

2. Those regulations have remained unchanged for ten years up to the present time; but the primary object of them, as stated in the prefatory explanation to them, has been only very partially accomplished. The 12th Section of the Grammar School Act provides as follows: "In each County Grammar School provision shall be made for giving, by a Teacher or Teachers of competent ability and good morals, instruction in all the higher branches of a practical English and Commercial Education, including the Elements of Natural Philosophy and Mechanics, and also in the Latin and Greek Languages, and Mathematics as far as to prepare students for University College or any College affiliated to the University of Toronto,—according to a programme of studies and general rules and regulations to be prescribed by the Council of Public Instruction for Upper Canada, and approved by the Governor in Council, and no Grammar School shall be entitled to receive any part of the Grammar School Fund, which is not conducted according to such programme, rules and regulations."

tion. This is essential to the creation and maintenance of good Grammar Schools, and to the due advancement of sound classical education, as well as for the due protection and encouragement of Common Schools and of sound Common School education.

4. Impressed with the importance of this duty and of those interests, the following additional regulations have, after much consideration, been adopted by the Council of Public Instruction, and have been approved by the Governor General in Council:

I. *Basis of Apportionment of the Grammar School Fund.*—As far as the law will permit, the apportionment of the Grammar School Fund, payable half-yearly to the Grammar Schools, shall (as in the case of Common Schools) be made according to the average attendance at each Grammar School of pupils learning the Greek or Latin language; and such attendance shall be certified by the Head Master and Trustees, and verified by the Inspector of Grammar Schools.

II. *Conditions of Apportionment.*—After the first day of January, 1866, no Grammar School shall be entitled to receive any thing from the Grammar School Fund, unless suitable accommodations shall be provided for it, and unless it shall have a daily average attendance (times of epidemic excepted) of at least ten pupils learning Greek or Latin; nor shall any other than pupils learning the Greek or Latin language be admitted or continued in any Grammar School.

III. *Examination and Temporary Admission of Pupils into the Grammar Schools.*—The examinations and admissions of pupils by the Head Master of any Grammar School, shall be regarded as preliminary and provisional until the visit of the Inspector, who shall finally examine and admit all pupils to the Grammar Schools.

IV. *Final admission of Pupils.*—It shall be the duty of the Inspector, not only to examine the Grammar Schools as heretofore, but to examine and finally to admit all pupils into the schools, according to the entrance examination prescribed, and to ascertain by careful investigation, how far each Grammar School is fulfilling the conditions of the law and is conducted as the law and general regulations require, and to report forthwith to the Chief Superintendent any case of failure or delinquency in these respects.

V. *Queen's Birth Day a Holiday.*—The anniversary of the Queen's birth day shall be a holiday in all the Grammar and Common Schools of Upper Canada.

VI. *Teachers may visit each others' Schools.*—Any teacher of a Grammar or Common School shall be entitled to five of the ordinary school-teaching days of each year to be selected by such teacher, for the purpose of visiting and observing the methods of classification, teaching and discipline practised in other schools than that in which he or she teaches.*

NOTE.—Union Grammar and Common Schools are subject to the regulations affecting holidays and vacations in Grammar Schools.

5. The whole of the regulations for the organization and government of Grammar Schools, as finally revised, have been reprinted in connection with these additional regulations; and they are herewith transmitted for the guidance of Trustees and Masters of Grammar Schools. The programme of studies has been simplified and made more practical; the list of text books will also be revised in the course of a few months, and it is expected the Grammar School Act will be materially amended,—so that at the commencement of 1866 the Grammar Schools may enter upon a new and appropriate course of labour from which may be anticipated the happiest results to the interests of superior education in Upper Canada.

6. I need not here repeat or enlarge upon the practical suggestions which, in my circular of 1855, I offered for the consideration of Trustees and Masters of Grammar Schools in re-

* Each Grammar and Common School Master and Teacher must give at least one week's notice to the Trustees, and, in addition, the Grammar School Master must communicate with the Educational Department, in order that he may not be absent during the visits of the Inspector to his School.

gard to the principles and mode of teaching the various subjects of the prescribed programme of studies. The Council of Public Instruction has been fortunate in securing the services of the Rev. George Paxton Young, A.M., as Inspector of Grammar Schools, who, from his solid learning, great experience and ability, in connection with sound judgment and true kindness of heart, will afford to both Trustees and Masters of Grammar Schools the best counsels for the promotion of the important interests entrusted to them.

I have the honour to be, Gentlemen,

Your obedient servant,

E. RYERSON.

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
Toronto, 1st May, 1865.

REVISED PROGRAMME OF STUDIES, AND GENERAL RULES AND REGULATIONS FOR THE GOVERNMENT OF GRAMMAR SCHOOLS IN UPPER CANADA.

Prescribed under the authority of the Consolidated Grammar School Act, 22 Vict. cap. 63.

PREFATORY EXPLANATION.

The twelfth section of the Upper Canada Consolidated Grammar School Act requires that, "In each County Grammar School provision shall be made for giving, by a teacher or teachers of competent ability and good morals, instruction in all the higher branches of a practical English and commercial education, including the Elements of Natural Philosophy and Mechanics, and also in the Greek and Latin languages, and Mathematics, so far as to prepare students for University College, or for any College affiliated to the University of Toronto,—according to a Programme of Studies, and General Rules and Regulations, to be prescribed by the Council of Public Instruction for Upper Canada, and approved by the Governor General in Council. And no Grammar School shall be entitled to receive any part of the Grammar School Fund, which is not conducted according to such Programme, Rules and Regulations." In the seventh clause of the twenty-fifth section of the Act (after providing for the union of the Grammar and one or more Common Schools in any Municipality) it is provided that "no such union shall take place without ample provision being made for giving instruction to the pupils in the elementary English branches, by duly qualified English teachers."

2. From these provisions of the law, it is clearly the object and function of Grammar Schools, not to teach the elementary branches of English, but to teach the higher branches alone, and especially to teach the subjects necessary for matriculation into the University. With a view to the promotion of these objects, and for the greater efficiency of the Grammar Schools, the Council of Public Instruction for Upper Canada, after mature deliberation, have adopted the following Regulations, which, according to the twelfth section, and the eighth clause of the twenty-fifth section of the Consolidated Grammar School Act, 22 Victoria, chapter 63, are binding upon all Boards of Trustees and officers of Grammar Schools throughout Upper Canada, with the exception of the Regulation in Section VII., which is discretionary with the Head Master and Trustees.

SECTION I.—BASIS AND CONDITIONS OF APPORTIONMENT OF THE GRAMMAR SCHOOL FUND.

1. As far as the law will permit, the apportionment of the Grammar School Fund, payable half-yearly to the Grammar Schools, shall (as in the case of Common Schools) be made

according to the average attendance at each Grammar School of pupils learning the Greek or Latin language; and such attendance shall be certified by the Head Master and Trustees, and verified by the Inspector of Grammar Schools.

2. After the first day of January, 1866, no Grammar School shall be entitled to receive any thing from the Grammar School Fund, unless suitable accommodations shall be provided for it, and unless it shall have a daily average attendance (times of epidemic excepted) of at least ten pupils learning Greek or Latin; nor shall any other than pupils learning the Greek or Latin language be admitted or continued in any Grammar School.

SECTION II.—QUALIFICATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF PUPILS INTO THE GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

1. The examinations and admissions of pupils by the Head Master of any Grammar School, shall be regarded as preliminary and provisional until the visit of the Inspector, who shall finally examine and admit all pupils to the Grammar Schools.

2. The regular periods for the admission of pupils commencing classical studies, shall be immediately after the Christmas

and after the Summer Vacations; but the admission of those pupils who have already commenced the study of the Latin language, may take place at the commencement of each Term. The preliminary examinations for the admission of pupils shall be conducted by the Head Master; as also examinations for such Scholarships, Exhibitions and Prizes as may have been instituted by Municipal Councils as authorized by law, (a) or by other corporate bodies, or by private individuals. But the Board of Trustees may, if they shall think proper, associate other persons with the Head Master in the examinations for such Scholarships, Exhibitions or Prizes.

3. Pupils in order to be admitted to the Grammar School, must be able, 1. To read intelligibly a passage from any common reading book. 2. To spell correctly the words of an ordinary sentence. 3. To write a fair hand. 4. To work questions in the four simple rules of arithmetic. 5. Must know the rudiments of English Grammar, so as to be able to parse any easy sentence.

SECTION III.—PROGRAMME OF STUDIES IN THE GRAMMAR SCHOOLS OF UPPER CANADA.

CLASS.	I. LATIN.	II. GREEK.	III. FRENCH.	IV. ENGLISH.	V. ARITHMETIC AND MATHEMATICS.	VI. GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.	VII. PHYSICAL SCIENCE.	VIII. MISCELLANEOUS.
FIRST, OR LOWEST.	Latin Grammar commenced. Arnold's 1st Latin Book.	None.	None.	Elements of English Grammar.	Arithmetic. Revise the four simple rules. Reduction and Decimal Currency. Begin Simple Proportion.	Outlines of Geography.	None.	Writing. Drawing. Vocal Music.
SECOND.	Latin Grammar continued. Arnold's 2nd Latin Book Cæsar commenced.	Greek Grammar commenced. Harkness' Arnold.	None.	Reading and Spelling.	Arithmetic. Revise previous work. Simple Proportion. Vulgar and Decimal Fractions. *Algebra. First four rules.	English History. Modern and Ancient Geography	None.	Writing. Drawing. Vocal Music.
THIRD.	Cæsar continued. Virgil. Æneid, B. II. commenced. Latin Prose Composition Prosody commenced.	Greek Grammar continued. Harkness continued Lucian. Charon.	Grammar and Exercises (DeFivas').	Grammar. Elements of Composition.	Arithmetic continued. Algebra. Fractions. Greatest Common Measure & Least Common Multiple. Simple Equations. †Euclid, B. I.	English History continued. Ancient History. Modern and Ancient Geography	Elements of Natural History.	Drawing. Vocal Music.
FOURTH.	Virgil. Æneid, B. II. completed. Livy. B. II., ch. 1 to 15 inclusive. Latin Prose Composition Prosody continued.	Lucian. Life. Xenophon. Anabasis, B. I. ch. 7, 8. Homer. Iliad, B. I.	Grammar and Exercises contin'd. Voltaire. Charles XII., B. I., II., III.	Grammar. Composition. Christian Morals and Elements of Civil Government.	*Algebra. Involution and Evolution. Theory of Indices and Surds; Equations, Simple, Quadratic, and Indeterminate. †Euclid. Bb. I, II.	English History continued. History of Canada. Ancient Geography and History	Elements of Natural Philosophy and Geology.	Drawing. Book keeping. Vocal Music.
FIFTH.	Cicero (for the Manilian law.) Ovid. Heroides, I. and XIII. Horace. Odes, B. I. Composition in Prose and Verse.	Xenophon. Anabasis, B. I, ch. 9, 10. Homer. Odyssey, B. IX. Previous subjects reviewed.	Corneille. Horace, Act IV. Review of previous subjects.		*Algebra. Progression and Proportion, with revision of previous work. †Euclid, Bb. III, IV.	Revise previous subjects.	Elements of Physiology & Chemistry.	Drawing. Vocal Music.

Explanatory Memoranda to the foregoing Programme.

1. The above Programme is to be regarded as the model upon which each school is to be organized, as far as practicable, and no departure from it can be allowed, unless sanctioned by the Council of Public Instruction, on the recommendation of the Inspector.

2. Pupils shall be arranged in classes corresponding to their respective degrees of proficiency. There may be two or more divisions in each class; and each pupil shall be advanced from one class or division to another, according to attainments in scholarship, without reference to time.

3. The subjects of the seventh and eighth columns are optional, except writing and book-keeping.

* Todhunter's or Sangster's.

† Potts' or Todhunter's.

(a) The *Upper Canada Consolidated Municipal Institutions Act*, 22 Vict., chap. 54, section 286, enacts that the Municipal Council of each County, City and Town separated, may pass By-laws for the following purposes:

1. *Lands for Grammar Schools.*—For obtaining in such part of the County, or of any City or Town separated within the County, as the wants of the people may most require, the real property requisite for erecting County Grammar School Houses thereon, and for other Grammar School purposes, and for preserving, improving and repairing such School Houses, and for disposing of such property when no longer required.

2. *Aiding Grammar Schools.*—For making provision in aid of such Grammar Schools as may be deemed expedient.

3. *Pupils competing for University Prizes.*—For making permanent provision for defraying the expense of the attendance at the University of Toronto, and at the Upper Canada College and Royal Grammar School

there, of such of the pupils of the Public Grammar Schools of the County as are unable to incur the expense but are desirous of, and, in the opinion of the respective Masters of such Grammar Schools, possess competent attainments for competing for any Scholarship, Exhibition, or other similar Prize, offered by such University or College.

4. For making similar provision for the attendance at any County Grammar School, for like purposes, of pupils of the Common Schools of the County.

5. *Endowing Fellowships.*—For endowing such Fellowships, Scholarships or Exhibitions, and other similar prizes, in the University of Toronto, and in the Upper Canada College and Royal Grammar School there, for competition among the pupils of the Public Grammar Schools of the County, as the Council deems expedient for the encouragement of learning amongst the youth thereof.

SECTION IV.—DUTIES OF THE HEAD MASTER AND TEACHERS.

1. Each Head Master and Teacher of a Grammar School shall punctually observe the hours for opening and dismissing the School; shall, during school hours, faithfully devote himself to the public service; shall see that the exercises of the school are conducted as stated in the preceding section; shall daily exert his best endeavours, by example and precept, to impress upon the minds of the pupils the principles and morals of the Christian Religion, especially those virtues of piety, truth, patriotism and humanity, which are the basis of law and freedom, and the cement and ornament of society.

2. Every Head Master shall keep the daily, weekly and quarterly register of his school, according to the forms and instructions authorized by law. The Head Master of every Senior County Grammar School shall also make the observations and keep the Meteorological Journal required by the 26th section of the Consolidated Grammar School Act, 22 Vict. chap. 63, in addition to which every Head Master shall keep, or cause to be kept, a class register in which are to be noted the class exercises of each pupil, so as to exhibit a view of the advancement and standing of such pupil in each subject of his studies. The Head Master shall also prepare the annual and semi-annual returns of his school required according to law.

3. The Head Master shall practise such discipline in his school as would be exercised by a judicious parent in his family; avoiding corporal punishment, except when it shall appear to him to be imperatively required; and in all such cases, he shall keep a record of the offences and punishments, for the inspection of the trustees at or before the next public examination, when said record shall be destroyed.

4. For gross misconduct, or a violent or wilful opposition to his authority, the Head Master may suspend a pupil from attending at the school, forthwith informing the parent or guardian of the fact, and the reason of it, and communicating the same to the Chairman of the Board of Trustees. But no boy shall be expelled without the authority of the Board of Trustees.

5. When the example of any pupil is very hurtful to the school, and in all cases where reformation appears hopeless, it shall be the duty of the Head Master, with the approbation of the Board of Trustees, to suspend or expel such pupil from the school. But any pupil under this public censure, who shall express to the Head Master his regret for such course of conduct, as openly and as explicitly as the case may require, shall, with the approbation of the Board and Head Master, be re-admitted to the school.

6. The Trustees having made such provisions relative to the school house and its appendages, as are required by the fifth clause of the twenty-fifth section of the Consolidated Grammar School Act, 22 Vict., cap. 63, it shall be the duty of the Head Master to give strict attention to the proper ventilation and temperature, as well as to the cleanliness of the school house; he shall also prescribe such rules for the use of the yard and out-buildings connected with the school house, as will ensure their being kept in a neat and proper condition; and he shall be held responsible for any want of neatness and cleanliness about the premises.

7. Care shall be taken to have the school house ready for the reception of pupils at least *fifteen minutes* before the time prescribed for opening the school, in order to afford shelter to those that may arrive before the appointed hour.

SECTION V.—DUTIES OF PUPILS.

1. Pupils must come to the school clean in their persons and clothes.

2. Tardiness on the part of pupils shall be considered a violation of the rules of the school, and shall subject the delinquents to such penalty as the nature of the case may require, at the discretion of the Head Master.

3. No pupil shall be allowed to depart before the hour appointed for closing school, except in case of sickness or some pressing emergency; and then the Head Master's consent must first be obtained.

4. A pupil absenting himself from school, except on account of sickness, or other urgent reason satisfactory to the Head Master, forfeits his standing in his class and his right to attend the school for the term.

5. No pupil shall be allowed to remain in the school, unless he is furnished with the books and requisites required to be used by him in the school; but in case of a pupil being in danger of losing the advantages of the school by reason of his inability to obtain the necessary books or requisites through the poverty of his parent or guardian, the Board of Trustees have power to procure and supply such pupil with the books and requisites needed.

6. The tuition fees, as fixed by the Board of Trustees, whether monthly or quarterly, shall be payable in advance; and no pupil shall have a right to enter or continue in the school or class until he shall have paid the appointed fee.

SECTION VI.—TERMS, VACATIONS, DAILY EXERCISES AND HOLIDAYS.

1. There shall be four Terms each year, to be designated, the Winter, Spring, Summer and Autumn Terms. The Winter Term shall begin the seventh of January, and end the Tuesday next before Easter; the Spring Term shall begin the Wednesday after Easter, and close the last Friday in June; the Summer Term shall begin the second Monday in August, and end the Friday next before the fifteenth of October; the Autumn Term shall begin the Monday following the close of the Summer Term, and shall end the twenty-second of December.

2. The Exercises of each day shall not commence later than 9 o'clock, a.m., and shall not exceed six hours in duration, exclusive of all the time allowed at noon for recreation, and of not more than ten minutes during each forenoon and each afternoon. Nevertheless, a less number of hours for daily teaching may be determined upon in any Grammar School, at the option of the Board of Trustees.

3. Every Saturday shall be a holiday; or if preferred by the Board of Trustees and Head Master of any Grammar School, the afternoons of Wednesday and Saturday in each week shall be half holidays. The anniversary of the Queen's birth day shall be a holiday in all the Grammar and Common Schools of Upper Canada.

4. The public half-yearly examinations required to be held in each Grammar School by the eighth clause of the twenty-fifth section of the Consolidated Grammar School Act, 22 Vict., cap. 63, shall take place, the one immediately before the Christmas Holidays, and the other immediately before the Summer vacation.

5. [Union Grammar and Common Schools are subject to the regulations affecting holidays and vacations in Grammar Schools.]

6. Any teacher of a Grammar or Common School shall be entitled to five of the ordinary school-teaching days of each year to be selected by such teacher, for the purpose of visiting and

observing the methods of classification, teaching and discipline practised in other schools than that in which he or she teaches.*

SECTION VII.—OPENING AND CLOSING EXERCISES OF EACH DAY.

1. With a view to secure the Divine blessing, and to impress upon the pupils the importance of religious duties, and their entire dependence on their Maker, the Council of Public Instruction recommend that the daily exercises of each Grammar School be opened and closed by reading a portion of Scripture and by Prayer. The Lord's Prayer, alone, or the Forms of Prayer hereto annexed, may be used, or any other prayer preferred by the Board of Trustees and Head Master of each Grammar School. But it is suggested that the Lord's Prayer form a part of the opening exercises; and the Ten Commandments be taught to all the pupils, and be repeated at least once a week. But no pupil should be compelled to be present at these exercises against the wish of his parent or guardian, expressed in writing to the Head Master of the School.

FORMS OF PRAYER RECOMMENDED.

I. BEFORE ENTERING UPON THE BUSINESS OF THE DAY.

Let us pray.

O Lord, our Heavenly Father, Almighty and Everlasting God, who hast safely brought us to the beginning of this day, defend us in the same by Thy mighty power; and grant, that this day we fall into no sin, neither run into any kind of danger, but that all our doings may be ordered by Thy governance, to do always that is righteous in Thy sight, through Jesus Christ our Lord. *Amen.*

O Almighty God, the giver of every good and perfect gift, the fountain of all wisdom, enlighten, we beseech Thee, our understandings by Thy Holy Spirit, and grant, that whilst with all diligence and sincerity we apply ourselves to the attainment of human knowledge, we fail not constantly to strive after that wisdom which maketh wise unto salvation; that so, through Thy mercy, we may daily be advanced both in learning and godliness, to the honor and praise of Thy name, through Jesus Christ our Lord. *Amen.*

Our Father, which art in Heaven, hallowed be Thy Name, Thy Kingdom come, Thy will be done in Earth, as it is in Heaven; give us this day our daily bread; and forgive us our trespasses, as we forgive them that trespass against us; and lead us not into temptation; but deliver us from evil; for Thine is the Kingdom, the Power, and the Glory, for ever and ever. *Amen.*

The Grace of Our Lord Jesus Christ, and the Love of God, and the Fellowship of the Holy Ghost, be with us all evermore. *Amen.*

II. AT THE CLOSE OF THE BUSINESS OF THE DAY.

Let us pray.

Most Merciful God, we yield Thee our humble and hearty thanks, for Thy Fatherly care and preservation of us this day, and for the progress which Thou hast enabled us to make in useful learning: we pray Thee to imprint upon our minds whatever good instructions we have received, and to bless them to the advancement of our temporal and eternal welfare; and pardon, we implore Thee, all that Thou hast seen amiss in our thoughts, words and actions. May Thy good Providence still guide and keep us during the approaching interval of rest and relaxation, so that we may be thereby prepared to enter on the duties of the morrow, with renewed vigor, both of body and mind; and preserve us, we beseech Thee, now and ever, both outwardly in our bodies, and inwardly in our souls, for the sake of Jesus Christ, Thy Son, Our Lord. *Amen.*

Lighten our darkness, we beseech Thee, O Lord; and by Thy great mercy, defend us from all perils and dangers of this night, for the love of Thine only Son, Our Saviour, Jesus Christ. *Amen.*

Our Father, which art in Heaven, hallowed be Thy Name, Thy Kingdom come, Thy will be done in Earth, as it is in Heaven; give us this day our daily bread; and forgive us our trespasses, as we forgive them that trespass against us; and lead us not into temptation; but deliver us from evil; for Thine is the Kingdom, the Power, and the Glory, for ever and ever. *Amen.*

The Grace of our Lord Jesus Christ, and the Love of God, and the Fellowship of the Holy Ghost, be with us all evermore. *Amen.*

SECTION VIII.—DUTIES OF INSPECTOR OF GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

1. *Admission of Pupils.*—It shall be the duty of the Inspector, not only to examine the Grammar Schools as heretofore, but to examine and finally to admit all pupils into the schools, according to the entrance examination prescribed, and to ascertain by careful investigation, how far each Grammar School is fulfilling the conditions of the law and is conducted as the law and general regulations require, and to report forthwith to the Chief Superintendent, any case of failure or delinquency in these respects.

2. *Inquiries of Inspector.*—It shall also be the duty of the Inspector of Grammar Schools to visit each Grammar School in the course of the year, and to make enquiry and examination in such manner as he shall think proper, into all matters affecting the character and operations of the school, and especially in regard to the following things:

3. *Mechanical Arrangements.*—The tenure of the property; the materials, plans and dimensions of the buildings; when erected and with what funds built; neighbourhood; how lighted, warmed and ventilated; if any class rooms are provided for the separate instruction of part of the pupils; if there is a lobby or closet for hats, cloaks, book-presses, &c.; how the desks and seats are arranged and constructed, and with what conveniences; what arrangements for the teacher; what play-ground is provided; what gymnastic apparatus, if any; whether there be a well and proper conveniences for private purposes.

4. *Means of Instruction.*—The books used in the several classes, under the heads of Latin, Greek, English, Arithmetic, Geography, &c.; the apparatus provided, as maps, globes, blackboards, models, cabinets, library, &c.

5. *Organization.*—Arrangement of classes; whether each pupil is taught by the same teacher; if any assistant or assistants are employed; to what extent; how remunerated; how qualified.

6. *Discipline.*—Hours of attendance; usual ages of pupils admitted; if the pupils change places in their several classes; or whether they are marked at each lesson or exercise, according to their relative merits; if distinction depends on intellectual proficiency and moral conduct, or on moral conduct only; what rewards, if any; whether corporal punishments are employed; if so, their nature, and whether inflicted publicly or privately; what other punishments are used; management in play hours; whether attendance is regular; what religious exercises are observed; and what religious instruction is given, if any.

7. *Method of Instruction.*—Whether mutual, or simultaneous, or individual, or mixed; if mutual, the number of monitors, their attainments, how appointed, how employed; if simultaneous, that is by classes, in what subjects of instruction; whether the simultaneous method is not more or less mingled with individual teaching, and on what subjects; to what extent the intellectual, or the mere rote method is pursued, and on what subjects; how far the interrogative method only is used; whether the suggestive method is employed; whether the elliptical method is resorted to; how the attainments in the various lessons are tested—by individual oral interrogation—by requiring written answers to written questions, or by requiring an abstract of the lesson to be written from memory.

8. *Attainments of Pupils.*—1. *Reading and Spelling;* whether they can read with ordinary facility only, or with ease and expression. Art of reading, as prescribed in the programme—meaning and derivation of words; whether they can spell correctly. 2. *Writing;* whether they can write with ordinary

* Each Grammar and Common School Master and Teacher must give at least one week's notice to the Trustees, and, in addition, the Grammar School Master must communicate with the Educational Department, in order that he may not be absent during the visits of the Inspector to his School.

correctness, or with ease and elegance. 3. *Drawing*; linear, ornamental, architectural, geometrical; whether taught, and in what manner. 4. *Arithmetic*; whether acquainted with the simple rules, and skilful in them; whether acquainted with the tables of moneys, weights, measures, and skilful in them; whether acquainted with the compound rules and skilful in them; whether acquainted with the higher rules and skilful in them; 5. *Book-keeping*. 6. *English Grammar and Composition*; whether acquainted with the rules of orthography, parts of speech, their nature and modifications, parsing, composition; whether acquainted with the grammatical structure and excellencies of the language by frequent composition in writing, and the critical reading and analysis of the English classic authors, in both prose and poetry. 7. *Geography and History*; whether taught as prescribed in the official programme, and by questions suggested by the nature of the subject. 8. *Christian Moral and Elements of Civil Government*; how far taught, and in what manner. 9. *The Languages*—Latin, Greek and French; how many pupils in each of these languages; whether well grounded in an accurate knowledge of their grammatical forms and principles; their proper pronunciation, peculiar structure and idioms, and whether taught by oral and written exercises and compositions in these languages as well as by accurate and free translations of the standard authors. 10. *Algebra and Geometry*; how many pupils and how far advanced in; whether they are familiar with the definitions, and perfectly understand the reason, as well as practice, of each step in the process of solving each problem and demonstrating each proposition. 11. *Elements of Natural Philosophy and Chemistry*, as prescribed in the programme; whether taught; what apparatus for teaching them; how many pupils in each. 12. *Vocal Music*; whether taught, and in what manner.

9. *Miscellaneous*.—How many pupils have been sent from the school to, and how many are preparing for matriculation in, some University. 2. Whether a register and visitor's book is kept, as required by the regulations, and whether the trustees visit the school. 3. Whether the pupils have been examined before being admitted to the school, and arranged in forms and divisions, as prescribed by the regulations; and whether the required public examinations have been held. 4. What prizes or other means are offered to excite pupils to competition and study. 5. How far the course of studies and method of discipline prescribed according to law, have been introduced, and are pursued in the school; and such other information in regard to the condition of the schools as may be useful in promoting the interests of Grammar Schools generally.

EDUCATION OFFICE,
Toronto, 1st May, 1865.

II. Papers on Classical and kindred Subjects.

1. ENGLISH ROYAL GRAMMAR SCHOOL BILL.

The Public Schools Bill, which is presented to Parliament by the Earl of Clarendon, has just been printed. The following summary of the more important of its provisions is taken from the *Times*:—With a few slight exceptions, the alteration of statutes and the framing of regulations are entirely committed to the governing bodies. At Eton, in place of the present provost, vice provost, and six fellows, the governing body is for the future to be composed of a provost and fourteen fellows, of whom nine are to be honorary and five stipendiary. All shall be members of the Established Church, but shall not necessarily have been educated at Eton. The provost shall be nominated by the Crown, shall be a graduate of Oxford or Cambridge, of not less than 35 years of age, and not necessarily in holy orders.

He shall be required to reside during the whole of every school term. Of the other eight, who shall receive no emoluments and shall not be required to reside, three shall be nominated by the Crown, and shall be graduates of Oxford or Cambridge, and the other five shall be elected by the governing body. The five stipendiary fellows shall also be elected by the governing body. They must all be either distinguished for literary or scientific attainments, or have done eminent service to the school as head or assistant masters. Three of them at least shall be in holy orders. They shall receive £700 a year and a house, and shall be required to reside three months in every year. A similar change is proposed at Winchester, though the number of fellows is not so largely increased. At Harrow, Charter House, and Rugby the proposed change consists merely in an addition to the number of trustees or governors, with the provision that one-fourth of the whole governing body shall be persons distinguished for their literary and scientific attainments. At Westminster, Shrewsbury, and St. Paul's the change is more complicated, but is of the same character. To the governing bodies thus constituted, all the "property, rights, powers, privileges, and obligations" of the existing bodies will be transferred, subject, of course, to the provisions of the bill; and in the case of Westminster and St. Paul's some change will be necessary in respect to the tenure of the school property. The times and places of their meeting, and the management of their business, are to be under the entire control of the governing bodies; a majority of members present is to decide any question, the chairman is to have a casting vote, and there is, of course, a fixed quorum. Lastly, their reasonable expenses are to be defrayed out of the school funds. The matters which will come under their control are of two kinds—first, the statutes affecting the foundation and the constitution of the school; and secondly, the general regulations as to its management. With regard to the former, their provisions will be subject to the control of Parliament and of the Queen in Council; with regard to the latter, their authority is unrestricted. The bill specially provides that no candidate for the foundation at Eton shall be entitled to preference by reason of his place of birth or abode, and that neither illegitimacy nor bodily imperfection shall be a disqualification. In the case of Shrewsbury, the rights of the burgesses are to cease in 1880, and after that date there will be 40 free scholarships absolutely open. At Harrow and Rugby, the privileges of free education possessed by persons residing within the parishes or neighborhoods shall cease, except in the case of children born within ten years from the passing of the act. The governing bodies of these schools, moreover, are to prepare schemes for appropriating a suitable part of their revenues to the promotion of education in their neighbourhoods—as, for example, by establishing schools, regard being had to the local objects of their founders and to the altered circumstances of the present time. Besides this, the restrictions under which the governing bodies will make these statutes, and the conditions of their validity, are as follows:—No statute made by the governing body of one school shall affect the interest of another in endowments common to the two without the consent of the governing body of the second school, and where a statute would affect any college in either of the two Universities, sufficient notice is to be given to the head of such a college. A statute shall be valid after it has been approved by her Majesty in Council. It is also specially provided that "no candidate for any mastership shall be entitled to preference by reason of his having been educated at the school of which he desires to be master." The head master will be subject to the general regulations of the governing body on all the points we have enumerated, but he will be otherwise independent, and will be supreme over all the other masters. The Dean and Chapter of Westminster are, in conjunction with the Ecclesiastical Commissioners, to vest in the governing body and their successors the fee simple of such an estate as shall be adequate to the due maintenance of the school, and also to make over to them the buildings at present in use; but these are to revert to the dean and chapter in case of the removal of the school elsewhere. Power is given to the governing body of any school to prepare a scheme for raising money upon mortgage for the purpose of altering or enlarging the school buildings, in obedience to the recommendations of the commissioners; and such a scheme is to be subject to the same conditions of validity as the statutes before-mentioned. Further, the governing bodies of Westminster, Charter House, and St. Paul's may lay schemes before her Majesty for the removal of their schools from their present sites, providing for the sale or mortgage of their existing property, and these schemes will also be subject to the same conditions as a new statute.

2. THOUGHTS ON THE USE TO BE MADE OF GREEK AND LATIN IN THE EDUCATION OF THE HIGHER CLASSES.

Among the various reactions, pretended or real, for which the age is famous, there is one, at all events, the fact of which must to a very great extent be admitted. It is that which restores to the

Greek and Latin languages their ancient prestige as the true foundation of a liberal education. After enjoying for nearly three centuries an unchallenged monopoly in our public schools, these languages found themselves rudely assailed and unequivocally condemned, as instruments of higher education, by those who professed to represent the progressive and utilitarian spirit of the time. The arguments which these reformers or innovators made use of were not without speciousness and force. There was indeed a certain amount of absolute truth in them, and they were so far effective as to create a numerous and influential party, eager to revolutionise the whole system of education, and to invest the modern languages and the physical and moral sciences with the prerogatives so long monopolised by the literature and speech of Ancient Greece and of Rome. But though the assailants of "former use and wont" had some reason on their side, yet they did not make the most of it. The line of argument adopted by them was generally one which seemed to resolve the controversy into the question, whether education or instruction should be the chief aim in the training of youth; whether the efforts of the teacher should mainly be directed to the development of the powers of thinking, or to the provision of materials for thought? It was a case of Useful Knowledge *versus* Cultivated Intelligence. When the dispute was allowed to take this form, it was obvious enough how it must end. If classical studies were to be accepted as the types of a process of mental discipline, on the one hand, and the rival curriculum was to stand simply as the representative of miscellaneous information and acquaintance with things practically useful, on the other, it was certain that the verdict of mature and enlightened public opinion would be in favour of classical studies. For this and other reasons, there certainly has for some little time been a tendency to seek again the old paths, and, while giving to other branches of study a subordinate position in the work of education, to preserve for Greek and Latin the highest place and the largest share of honour. The published opinion on this subject of the Public Schools Commissioners has given further impulse to this re-action, and it seems probable that for years to come the sons of the higher classes in this country will receive their intellectual training to a very great extent through the medium of the classical languages.

On the whole, we are prepared to accept this conclusion as the best and soundest that the directors of education could have arrived at. But we cannot by any means make this admission without important qualifications and reservations.

We do not indeed forget Dr. Arnold's observation, that "even where the results of a classical education are least tangible and least appreciated even by the individual himself, still the mind often retains much of the effect of its early studies in the general liberality of its tastes and comparative comprehensiveness of its views and notions."

Now the insufficiency of classics to meet the requirement of the age in an educational point of view, has been practically conceded by the additions which have been made to the course of studies adopted in every successful school. The introduction of modern languages and modern history, of elementary mathematics and elementary science, is a concession to the opponents of the ancient regime. It has indeed been fully enough characterised as a compromise between the two rival systems effected by their amalgamation.

We admit then, as we have already admitted, the superiority of Greek and Latin as a basis of education. Language being the very vehicle of thought and the outward form of reason, the study of it must, we think, be the best process that can be hit upon for training the mind to reason and to think. Such are the conditions of Greek and Latin that they are undoubtedly the best types of language for this purpose. We at once, therefore, concede the employment of them in this way. But they should not be used generally as if the final cause of learning them was to obtain a knowledge of them for practical purposes. They are not wanted, except by very few, either for speaking or writing. Nor again should they be taught as if the great end of education was simply to make young Englishmen profound classical scholars.

We assert, on the other hand, that even in our public schools the study of the dead languages should be auxiliary to other aims. These languages, indeed, deserve the attention of all who are so fortunate as to possess leisure and taste enough for a protracted study of them, purely on their own merits, and for the sake of the rich and varied literature embodied in them. But to the majority of young Englishmen who are receiving a liberal education, they should be taught chiefly in their relation to English language and literature, and just so far as they are necessary for understanding the structure and genius of our native tongue, for gaining an insight into the principles of language in the abstract, and for appreciating the spirit of our national literature, the forms it has assumed, and the allusions that are scattered through it.

We maintain that, as far as regards the literary department of

education, a thorough mastery of the English language, and a thorough acquaintance with classical English writers, is the great end to be kept in view. If it can be accompanied, it is indeed well that a man should be conversant both with Homer and Milton. But if it is only possible for him to become intimately acquainted with one of them, we should say that, in the case of an Englishman, that one should be Milton. An Englishman, again, who has not studied Sophocles, is a loser of much that is exalted in poetry, graphic in description, philosophical in sentiment. But an Englishman who is not well read in Shakespeare, is not only a loser of all this in a higher degree, but he incurs the discredit of being ignorant of works that are the boast and glory of his native land, and that are steeped in the richest colours of the national life.

As far, then, as the mass of students are concerned, we think that the use to be made of the dead languages in education, should have reference to the following objects:—

1. The practical exemplification of the laws of language, and the general principle of grammar.
2. The investigation and elucidation of the origin, structure, development, and affinities of our native tongue.
3. The illustration of the various references and allusions to be found in our national literature, and of the relation and obligation to the literature of Greece and Rome.

If we are not mistaken, the recognition of these conclusions would lead to something like a revolution in the method of teaching Greek and Latin.

But to make this enunciation of our views intelligible and useful, we must enter into details, and describe more exactly the process of instruction which we would substitute for prevailing methods.

In the first place, then, we would teach Latin grammar and English grammar simultaneously. Our first step would be to explain simply and briefly the nature of the different parts of speech, and as far as boyish understanding could take it in, the principles of the classification.

Passing from grammar vocabulary, a leading point would be to explain the laws of transition, in obedience to which a Greek or Latin word has passed into the English language, and become naturalised there. Thus not only would the attention of the student be called to the fact that our language has been greatly enriched by contributions from the Latin, but he would also be led to see the processes through which such contributions have been made. Thus it might be pointed out that the change of the termination *tas* into *ty* has been sufficient to Anglicise (if one may use the word) a great many Latin nouns, as, for example, *dignitas*, *majestas*, *pietas*, &c. So again, the Latin verb has been a contributor to English through two of its conditions. The infinitive mood, stripped of its conjugational suffix, has in very many cases wakened up to find itself at home in England. Such words as *attend*, *discern*, *solicit*, *consider*, are illustrations. On the other hand we have just as freely taken the supine as the basis of our borrowed stock in trade. By way of examples we may mention *accept*, *exempt*, *prevent*, *conduct*.

Now to trace out the laws which govern this emigration of words, to accumulate examples, and to follow each word down to its original condition, is not only an exercise in the science of language in the abstract, but an exercise also which will, at one and the same time, teach the pupil a good deal of Latin, and make him more thoroughly intimate, more scientifically conversant, with his mother tongue.

Once more, the student's introduction to Syntax would be brought about by setting before him an easy passage of a Latin author. The teacher might call his attention to this, and lead him, through the knowledge already acquired of the inflections, to pick out the nouns and verbs.

As we contend for the simultaneous teaching of English and of Latin grammar, so we argue that English authors and Latin authors should be read together. As soon as the pupil has mastered the elements of grammar in the two languages, let him begin to study an easy Latin reading book. At the same time place in his hands an English author, adapted to his age and capacity, of good tone, and pure, graceful style. The two books should be studied very much in the same way, and should be made to act and react on each other. Thus all Latin words that have supplied English derivations should be noticed, the words derived from them should be written down, and the meaning and use of those words ascertained and illustrated. So also all words derived from the Latin occurring in the English author, should be pointed out, and traced to their original, and these originals should be collected into a vocabulary, and committed to memory. By this double process the scholar would at once increase his stock of Latin words, and make himself accurately acquainted with the exact force and meaning of a great many words in his own language. In like manner, by applying the process of analysis to both authors, and by careful observation of the various syntactical relations, mastery would be obtained over

the structure of the two languages, and the points of difference between them would be vividly apprehended. To this end peculiarities of idioms and special phrases should be marked, and to promote thoroughness and accuracy, as well as to assist the memory, free use should be made of manuscript note-books. As the pupil advanced in knowledge and intelligence, he would be competent to undertake this contemporaneous and parallel study of two authors of the highest class. It would then obviously be expedient to observe certain rules and principles of association in selecting the books to be read in unison. Thus, for example, there would be a natural fitness in taking together a book of Virgil's "Georgics" and a book of Thompson's "Seasons." Many parallel passages would occur, many corresponding images would be met with, many cognate phrases and idioms would strike the reader. The English poet has indeed drunk deep at the fountains of his Roman predecessor. On the same principle, an oration of Cicero would yoke well with a speech of Burke, a book of Tacitus or Livy with a book of Clarendon or Robertson; Horace and Pope would prove cater-cousins and good comrades at the feast of reason; and the simple style and gentle ethics of Addison would harmonise very happily with the sober and practical philosophy, and the "temperatum dicendi genus," of the "De Officiis."

From the point of view in which we regard classical studies, as adapted to the circumstances and requirements of the great majority of those into whose education they must enter, we do not make much account of the practice of Greek or Latin composition. But we insist strongly on the pressing importance of composition in English, and we urge that frequent exercises of this kind should be incorporated into the system of instruction recommended. Translation from Latin into English, though generally regarded only in its bearing on the study of Latin, might be made a very effective lesson in writing English. But to this end it is not enough that an accurate literal translation of a Latin passage should be produced. That literal translation should, so to speak, be re-translated into pure, free idiomatic English. And this double process will be found highly conducive to improvement in both languages.

And here we cannot, in passing, withhold the tribute of commendation due to the admirable directions for teaching Latin to be found in Roger Ascham's "Schoolmaster." Dr. Johnson went so far as to say that nothing to them had ever been suggested or adopted, and we can, from experience, vouch for their practical usefulness. In conjunction with this, however, the careful analysis of the sentences, and the noting and extraction of idioms and phrases, is strongly recommended and enforced. Ascham is, moreover, the avowed opponent of those tedious mechanical methods, those dry grinding processes, which are in favour with many instructors of youth. He plainly denounces the fashion of learning by rote huge collections of formularies and rules, as "tedious for the master, hard for the scholar, cold and uncomfortable for them both." We may, therefore, in some sort claim him as being, if not in letter, yet in spirit, an upholder of such views as we have ventured to put forth in this article. In his day an English literature did not exist. The languages of Greece and Rome included in themselves the sum of polite learning. Had old Ascham been living to see Shakespeare, Jonson, and Massinger, standing on a platform of equality with Æschylus, Aristophanes, and their fellows; Milton established as a worthy rival of Homer; Bacon, Locke, Berkeley, expounding philosophic theories as sublimely as Plato and Aristotle themselves; had he fallen on days when England could shew a long catalogue of historians before whose profound research, comprehensive vision, and graphic powers of narration, even Thucydides and Tacitus can scarcely maintain their long supremacy; he would not, we presume to think,—while acknowledging the unquestionable value of the classics in the work of education,—have claimed for them that undivided authority and dominion over the youthful mind, between the ages of nine and nineteen, which they have hitherto possessed, and are likely, with some trifling abatements, to possess for some time longer. It will, doubtless, be remarked, that in setting forth the views of which this paper is the exponent, our observations and suggestions have turned chiefly on one of the two great languages which form the staple of higher mental culture. Much, however, that has been said about Latin, will apply, *mutatis mutandis*, to Greek. The latter, indeed, though, on its own merits, and for the sake of the literature of which it is the vehicle, more deserving of study than even Latin, has less immediate connection with our own language, and is, as a rule, more imperfectly learnt by ordinary school-boys.—*Abridged from the Museum.*

3. IMPORTANCE OF CLASSICAL STUDIES.

Who could be better qualified to judge of the comparative worth of different studies than Dr. Arnold, the former head master of

Rugby, a great scholar, a great teacher, a great historian, and withal the most practical of men.

"That classical studies," says his biographer, Stanley, "should be the basis of intellectual teaching, he maintained from the first. 'The study of language, he said, 'seems to me as if it was given for the very purpose of forming the human mind in youth; and the Greek and Latin languages, in themselves so perfect, and at the same time freed from the insuperable difficulty which must attend any attempt to teach boys philology through the medium of their own spoken language, seem the very instruments by which this is to be effected.' But a comparison of his earlier and later letters will show how much this opinion was strengthened in later years."

I am tempted to remark that Dr. Arnold himself was a great living embodiment of the value of classical culture. No one who is at all familiar with the character of that great man, but will admit that no such Dr. Arnold as the world knows would have been possible without the languages of Greece and Rome.

Our next witness is Lord Macaulay, who in his critique on the Athenian Orators says, speaking of Grecian literature:

"The celebrity of the great classical writers is confined within no limits except those which separate civilized from savage men. Their works are the common property of every polished nation. In the minds of the educated classes throughout Europe, their names are indissolubly associated with the endearing recollections of childhood—the old school room, the dog-eared grammar, the tears so often shed and so quickly dried."

In what more forcible words can a man acknowledge his indebtedness to those studies which the common testimony of the wise has pronounced the most fertile source of instruction possessed by the schools.

Burke, the greatest of English orators and statesmen, says in respect to æsthetic culture:

"I am persuaded that understanding Homer well would contribute more towards perfecting taste than all the metaphysical treatises upon the arts that ever have or can be written; because such treatises upon the arts can only tell what true taste is, but Homer every where shows it."

Sydney Smith, in one of his educational essays, while condemning the almost exclusive study of the classics in English Universities in his day, yet admits that this is only an abuse of what is in itself good. He says:

"To go through the grammar of one language thoroughly is of great use for the mastery of every other grammar; because there obtains through all languages a certain analogy to each other in their grammatical construction. Latin and Greek have now mixed themselves etymologically with all the languages of modern Europe—and with none more than our own; so that it is necessary to read these two tongues for other objects than themselves." Again: "There are quite sufficient reasons why the classics should be studied for the beauties of language. Compared to them merely as vehicles of thought and passion, all modern languages are dull, ill contrived and barbarous."

He also argues that the classics should be studied for cultivation of style, and finally says "that vast advantages, then, may be derived from classical learning, there can be no doubt."

Madame de Staël, whose work on Germany Sir James Mackintosh regarded as the greatest production of feminine genius, says in her chapter on German Universities:

"The study of languages, which, in Germany constitutes the basis of Education, is much more favourable to the evolution of the faculties, in the earlier age, than that of mathematics or of the physical sciences. Pascal, that great geometer, whose profound thought hovered over the sciences which he peculiarly cultivated, as every other, has himself acknowledged the insuperable defects of those minds which owe their first formation to mathematics."

After some admirable remarks on the infirmity of the training of mathematics and of the natural sciences, she adds:

"It is not, therefore, without reason that the study of the ancient and modern languages has been made the basis of all the establishments of education which have formed the most able men throughout Europe."

For some of the most logical and luminous thought I have ever read on this subject, I can but refer to the whole of this most interesting and philosophical essay.

Milton, in his celebrated tractate on Education, in mapping out a course of liberal study, gives a most conspicuous place to the study of the classical languages. No teacher, especially, should fail to read that brief but remarkable letter, in which the poet's ideal of an educational course is delineated, somewhat extravagantly, it may seem, but most characteristically.

In Sir William Hamilton's essay "On the Study of Mathematics," which is probably the most profound and exhaustive treatise on the subject to be found in our language, the following words may be taken as the key note of his conclusions:

"If we consult reason, experience, and the common testimony of ancient and modern times, none of our intellectual studies tend to cultivate a smaller number of the faculties in a more partial or feeble manner than Mathematics. This is acknowledged by every writer on Education of the least pretension to judgment and experience; nor is it denied, even by those who are most decidedly opposed to their total banishment from the sphere of a liberal instruction."

In the same author's essay, "On the Conditions of Classical Learning," in alluding to some opposition raised in Scotland to classical training, the great philosopher says:

"Indeed the only melancholy manifestation in the opposition now raised to the established course of classical instruction is not the fact of such opposition; but that arguments in themselves so futile—arguments which, in other countries, would have been treated with neglect, should in Scotland not have been wholly harmless. If such attacks have had their influence on the public, this affords only another proof, not that ancient literature is with us studied too much, but that it is studied far too little. Where classical learning has been vigorously cultivated, the most powerful attacks have only ended in a purification and improvement of its study."

Further on is the statement that "classical study, if properly directed, is absolutely the best means toward an harmonious development of the faculties—the one end of all liberal education."

I have placed these quotations together, because the mathematics are the only rival in this country which the classics can properly be said to have.

Says Gibbon, in speaking of the influence of classic literature at the revival of learning in the West:

"The students of the more perfect idioms of Rome and Greece were introduced to a new world of light and science; to the society of the free and polished nations of antiquity; and to a familiar converse with those immortal men who spoke the sublime language of eloquence and reason. Such an intercourse must tend to refine the taste, and to elevate the genius of the moderns."

The most sagacious commentator on our institutions, De Tocqueville, shows that the study of Greek and Latin literature is peculiarly useful in democratic communities:

"No literature," he says, "places those fine qualities, in which the writers of democracies are naturally deficient, in bolder relief than that of the ancients; no literature, therefore, ought to be more studied in democratic ages."

Mr. Dwight, in his *Modern Philology*, has the following remarks:

"And in no way as a matter of general experience and of general testimony, can all the higher faculties of the mind be so well trained to lofty, vigorous, sustained action, as by the study of language; its analytic, philosophic, artistic, study. Classical discipline is, accordingly, the palestra in which, throughout Christendom, the rising generation is everywhere prepared, and for ages has been, to wrestle manfully with the difficulties of after life, in whatever profession or calling. From Latin and Greek fountains, the living waters have been drawn, from which the intellectual thirst of great minds in all nations has been slaked."

Prof. Porter, of Yale College, in the course of some remarks at the inauguration of the Norwich Free Academy, a few years since, said:

"I rejoice that in the course of study prescribed by the founders of this Academy, so great prominence is given to the classics. Of the importance of classical study, the views of many persons are vague and unsettled. Most men are taught to esteem them valuable, though they cannot see how. They submit themselves passively to the necessity which forces them or others to go through the study of Greek or Latin, because they are made a part of liberal education, but farther than this, they neither judge nor are they convinced. To such it may be suggested that the study of a language must be the study of thought, and in it are recorded the processes and operations of human thinking, even the most subtle and refined. To follow and trace these by the study of any language is an invaluable discipline. To do it in such languages as the Greek and Latin, which are so peculiarly and especially adapted to call out and enforce this discriminating and close analysis, is a discipline which cannot be too highly esteemed."

Mr. Marsh, the accomplished author of "Lectures on the English Language," who is probably as well qualified to judge on this subject as any man living, shall be our last witness. He says:

"I do but echo the universal opinion of all persons competent to pronounce on the subject, in expressing my own conviction that the language and literature of ancient Greece constitute the most efficient instrument of mental training ever enjoyed by man; and that a familiarity with that wonderful speech, its poetry, its philosophy, its eloquence, and the history it embalms, is incomparably the most valuable of intellectual possessions."

Again, he says:

"While the Latin trains us to be good grammarians, the Greek

elevates us to the highest dignity of manhood, by making us acute and powerful thinkers."

Quotations from men, who, it must be admitted, are best qualified to judge respecting the subject, might thus be added indefinitely, but sufficient have been presented to sustain my proposition—That in the opinion of those competent to judge, the classical languages constitute the best source of general mental culture known among men.

No such array of authority can be presented in opposition to classical training. Those who have denied its high value have generally been men who, in the language of Sir William Hamilton, "are inclined to sooth their vanity with the belief that what they do not themselves know is not worth knowing." And he adds "that they should find it easy to convert others, who are equally ignorant, to the same opinion, is what might also confidently be presumed."—*S. in Wisconsin Journal of Education.*

4. VERDICT IN FAVOUR OF CLASSICS IN THE ENGLISH SCHOOLS.

It may not be generally known to the readers of the Journal that the past year is one peculiarly marked in the educational history of England. Some three or four years ago a Royal Commission was appointed by Parliament to inquire into the "administration and management" of the great Public Schools, and into "the system and course of studies respectively pursued therein, as well as into the Methods, Subjects, and Extent of the Instruction given to the students of said Colleges, Schools, and Foundations."

The Commission, says the *Edinburg Review*, comprised "a list of names happily combining academical and scholastic knowledge with that of the cultivated man of the world, and calculated in every way to secure public confidence."

After a most minute and thorough investigation, extending through something like two years and a half, and embracing nine of the principal public schools of England, the Report was completed and published during the past summer.

After a full discussion of the subject of classical education in the Schools,—the best, probably, to which the friends of classical instruction can refer,—the Commissioners employ these words:

"We are of the opinion that the classical languages and literature should continue to hold, as they do now, the principal place in public school education."

Says *Blackwood's Magazine*, in commenting on this decision, "It would be wholly out of place to reproduce the arguments on which the Commissioners have founded this sound and wise conclusion. * * * There are at least two remarkable testimonies from men whose studies and habits of thought have lain in quite a different direction, and whose names give authority to their words, which deserve to be weighed carefully by all who are inclined to question 'the use of so much Latin and Greek.' The first is from Professor Airy, the Astronomer-Royal.

"Question.—You would not on any account disturb the classics, as the basis of English education at our great public schools?"

"Answer.—I would not, on any account; and perhaps more importance may be attached to my opinion in that respect, as being professionally, as I may say, a mathematician, and having made my strong points in that science, I still cannot sufficiently express the importance I attach to the study of the classics."

"The other is from Dr. Hooker, of the Kew Botanical Gardens, and is brought out rather unwillingly, the witness being a warm advocate for the introduction into schools of the natural sciences.

"Q.—As a matter of fact, it is the case that the classical education is becoming more valued? You may say that generally?"

"A.—I think so, decidedly."

"Q.—Than twenty years ago?"

"A.—Yes."

"Q.—You do not know the grounds on which account chiefly it is valued, whether for the sake of the medical literature contained in the classical languages, or for the sake of the discipline?"

"A.—It is for the sake of the discipline chiefly, and for the proof that a man has had so much mental culture."

Taken as a whole this Report is probably the most conclusive evidence extant of the pre eminent value of classical studies. In fact, from the prominence given in it to this particular subject, it would seem that one of the main objects of the Commission was to decide authoritatively, after the fullest investigation, respecting this long vexed question. But besides this, there are many other things of great importance discussed in the Report; and while it may be difficult or impossible for teachers in this country to procure this in its original form, I most heartily recommend to the perusal of all thoughtful minds the able and interesting reviews thereof to be found in the last July number of the *London Quarterly*, the *Westminster*, and the *Edinburg Reviews*, and, above all, in the

June number of Blackwoods's Magazine.—S. in *Wisconsin Journal of Education*.

5. GRAPHIC DESCRIPTION OF CÆSAR.

"To these natural gifts, developed by a brilliant education, were joined physical advantages. His lofty stature, and his finely moulded and well proportioned limbs, imparted to his person a grace which distinguished him from all others. His eyes were dark, his glance penetrating, his complexion colorless, and his nose straight and somewhat thick. His mouth was small and regular, and his lips, rather full, gave to the lower part of his face an expression of kindness, while his breadth of forehead indicated the development of the intellectual faculties. His face was full at least, in his youth; but in the busts that were made towards the close of his life his features are thinner, and bare the traces of fatigue. His voice was sonorous and vibrating; his gesture noble, and an air of dignity pervaded his person. His constitution, which at first was delicate, grew robust by sober living, and by his habit of exposing himself to the inclemency of the seasons. Accustomed from his early youth to manly exercise he was a bold horseman; and he supported with ease privations and fatigues. Habitually abstemious, his health was not weakened by excess of labor, nor by excess of pleasure. Nevertheless, on two occasions, one at Cordova and then at Thapsus, he had a nervous attack, which was erroneously thought to be epilepsy. He paid particular attention to his person, shaved with care, or had the hairs plucked out; he brought forward artistically his hair to the front of his head, and this in his more advanced age served to conceal his baldness. He was reproached with the affectation of scratching his head with only one finger for fear of deranging his hair. His dress was arranged with exquisite taste. His gown was generally bordered with laticlam, ornamented with fringes to the hand, and was bound round the loins by a sash loosely knotted—a fashion which distinguished the elegant and effeminate youth of the period. But Sylla was not deceived by this show of frivolity, and he was wont to recommend that people should have an eye on that young man with the flowing sash. He had a taste for pictures, statues, and gems; and he always wore on his finger, in memory of his origin, a ring, on which was engraved the figure of an armed Venus. To sum up, there were found in Cæsar, physically and morally, two natures which are rarely combined in the same person. He joined aristocratic fastidiousness of person to the vigorous temperament of the soldier; the graces of mind to the profundity of thought; the love of luxury and of the arts to a passion for military life in all its simplicity and rudeness. In a word, he joined the elegance of manner which seduces to the energy of character which commands. Such was Cæsar at the age of 18, when Sylla possessed himself of the Dictatorship. He had already attracted the attention of the Romans by his name, his wit, his engaging manners, which were so pleasing to men, and, still more so, perhaps, to women."—*From Napoleon's Life of Julius Cæsar.*

III. Correspondence of the Journal.

OUR LANGUAGE.

PART II.—ITS WRITTEN FORM, ORTHOGRAPHIC ANOMALIES, PHONOGRAPHY.

The object of the present paper is to give a brief history of the art of writing from the earliest ages of antiquity to the present time, to evolve a few of the glaring anomalies which exist in the construction of our written language, and to explain somewhat scantily, the use and advantages of Phonography. Histories of the Art of Writing are numerous; varied in theory and ability, and easily commatable, yet the following short and necessarily imperfect record of its most salient points may not prove void of interest:

As language commenced in ejaculatory and impassioned monosyllables, so writing first emerged from the realms of nothingness in a crude imperfect form. Its antiquity must be very great as has been often proved by the discoveries made by travellers in China and Asia Minor, but especially in Egypt, for Mr. Humphreys, who adopts Hale's computation of the age of the world, informs us that inscriptions are yet visible on the pyramids of Memphis, bearing convincing proof of their having been written 5000 B. C. Dwelling on such an hypothesis it is not probable that calligraphy was much practised prior to that time. Some writers maintain that, like language, it was divinely imparted; for when the Almighty condescended to write the decologue on two tablets of stone, it is not a little significant that all the letters in the Hebrew alphabet, one excepted, were therein contained. The Penteteuch admits of no proof of the existence of writing. When Abraham despatched a messenger to adjust the marriage articles between Isaac and Rebekah there is no mention of any written documents, nor yet

when Joseph sent down to Egypt for his beloved brother Benjamin. Leaving the origin of writing, like that of language, for controversialists, we proceed to the next stage in its history, and one which we may term its beginning proper. The most natural representation of objects was sure to be the method first employed—that of picture writing. This, we are informed, was used by the three once great nations: Egypt, China, and Mexico; yet it must have been but a very imperfect and circuitous representation, and it is not surprising that it should soon develop itself into hieroglyphic writing. Hieroglyphe served a double purpose—object expression and idea expression, the latter qualification being an important step in the advancement of the art. This is simply allegorical writing, comprehending in an adopted figure the symbol of some virtue, vice, or passion. The next stage in the development of writing was the invention, (by whom, it is not known) of words based on the phonetic principle. The honour of the origin of words is divided between the Egyptians and the Chinese, both apparently having equal rights to the discovery, indeed the latter people still continue their use of words or syllables arbitrarily, and, in consequence of the multiplicity of these fixed signs for the expression of ideas, objects and feelings, a proficiency in the language is the work of a life-time. From words these pioneers of civilization got to syllables, and from syllables to letters, and thus reached the climax of our composite literature. Letters, we are informed, were introduced into Greece by Cadmus, a Phœnician, at what time it is variously stated, though it must have been very early, as Herodotus, the first Grecian historian, mentions it. A poet couples it thus:

"'Twas Cadmus first found out the plan
Of wafting thought from man to man."

The Phœnicians were a merchant people; they bartered, bought and sold along the shores of Britain and Gaul, yet we have no account of them grafting the art on those distant lands. The Cadmean alphabet contained only sixteen letters and was of course inadequate to the expression of all the sounds in language, wherein our own alphabet which has twenty-six letters is so deficient. Yet, on the authority of Dr. Blair, we can trace our alphabet back through rolls of ages and revolutions of nations to that of Cadmus. People seldom interrogate themselves or others about the antiquity of letters, which is doubtless owing to our familiarity with them. In the same manner some of our most common utensils in daily use are overlooked; and, while acres of printed matter appear monthly, the segments of the circle, the fractions of the whole, escape our attention. Yet what power they wield, what influence they exert! They photograph our utterances and thoughts, and in the ratio of the increase or decrease of public demand are the negatives duplicated. All the tragic effects of Sophocles and Eschylus, communicated by withered generations, would not rouse us to an impassioned admiration of their immortal works, did we not possess them on our shelves. Language and volition were the medicines for the gratification of their auditory, and writing embalmed what they said to gratify the human race. But, returning to the thread of history, we find that different countries originated different methods of communication; as, for instance, the Peruvians who "wrote" to each other by cords, a variety of meanings being conveyed by an ingenious plan of tying knots, and the Arabians who employed the figures inherited by us for a similar purpose. Indeed, every nation appears to have been making out a literary course of its own until foiled in its purpose by the ravages of conquest or the milder influence of immigration. The Roman (English) alphabet, like Rome herself, overran civilization, but unlike Rome did not decline and fall. The mistress led the child afar off among the people, but failed to gather him again beneath her protecting folds. Even after writing to some extent became established the manner or order of it underwent many changes; the Arabians, Hebrews and Greeks, writing from left to right and subsequently alternately from right to left and from left to right, but eventually finding the motion from left to right the most natural it was generally adopted. According to Dr. Blair the alternate system terminated in the time of Solon the Athenian legislator. The Chinese, however, are an exception, having retained their peculiar perpendicular from right to left system of writing. What legendary lore and Confucian theory must be hidden in that great library of Emperor Kieulong, the printed catalogue of which fills 122 vols., and what a singular spectacle of hieroglyphic perpendicularity it must present.

The antiquity of letters has been somewhat explained and their history briefly followed down to the time when letters, the smallest part of distinct speech, were grouped so as to form syllables and words. We, with the experience of the ancients before us and an enlightened common sense, create words by a combination of the component parts of words. The Ancients—superstitious and benighted—commenced with words and dissected them to find their elements. We have seen that Cadmus, supposed to be contemporary with Moses, introduced an alphabet of sixteen letters into

Greece, and how they took root in the fertile intellects of that garden of sciences, and along with the tide of conquest, or prior to it, went the Grecian alphabet, then so termed, to Rome and so on down to the present time. It is the same alphabet all through, being inverted, transposed, and anagramatized in its application as national distinctions deposed or the caprice of the learned dictated. The cuneiform inscriptions of Assyria, the figures of Arabia, the Peruvian knots, and the Egyptian hieroglyphics with which the hundred gates of Ancient Thebes were marked, have all done much in constituting a medium for the communication of thought and constructing a chain of history, but their circumlocution circumscribed their extension and influence, and they exist now only in history. It is the Phœnician alphabet enlarged that has extended beyond a parallel, penetrated primeval forests and fearlessly entered the Indian's wigwam, witnessed the world's progress and painted its most graphic scenes for our edification.

Such then is our language, in a written form, apparently a gradual formation exclusively designed for humanity, for the brutes, though they commune with each other by incoherent sounds, are denied the art—by instinct or otherwise—of preserving the vague emissions. Seeing that written is but the reflex of spoken language and its fixed type, to facilitate the conversion of the latter into the former, it would seem that the execution of the one should be equivalent to the utterances of the other. In other words, that in the disposition of an Omniscient Creator, speaking and writing were specially bestowed on man to be used in consort, and that this can not be effectually done while speaking preponderates over writing in facility of execution in the ratio of six to one. This is in the main attributable to the circuitous method adopted to accomplish it. We will commence at the root of the evil. It is a well known fact that the greatest obstacle which foreigners have to surmount in the acquisition of the English language is its incongruous orthography. They soon learn the words and their meanings, but they are loth to commit themselves by hazarding the pronunciation. Imagine a Spaniard attempting to pronounce such words as *nature*, *subtle*, *hiccough*, and these are not exceptional words. He is told that m-a-t-u-r-e spells mature, and why not nature be pronounced similarly. In the English language are twenty-six letters, three of which, g, c and x, are redundant, to represent thirty-four distinct sounds, so that eleven sounds either go unrepresented or two or more letters are combined to supply the deficiency. Presuming all words to have but one way of pronunciation, the discrepancy between the number of signs and the number of sounds is laudable enough, but when we find that out of the 80,000 words in the dictionary there are 364 homonyms—words of double orthography—it makes the language more a problem than ever. The license used in spelling is owing to the license in pronunciation, there being no fixed principles, repeated changes are inevitable. Worcester has over a dozen ways of spelling *mosquito*, a word that, instead of engaging the learned attentions of lexicographers and orthoepists, might be correctly spelled and pronounced by any school boy were the phonetic element recognised. The important vowels *a* and *e* instead of having one sound each are expressed in sixteen and seventeen sounds respectively, and a similar absurdity is apparent more or less throughout the alphabet. "It is not a discovery of to-day," Ben. Franklin said, referring to the introduction of phonetic spelling, sooner or later it must be done or our writing will become the same as the Chinese, as to the difficulty of learning and using it, and Sheridan in 1780 issued a dictionary with a view to establish a plain and permanent standard of pronunciation. Lindley Murray says, in his grammar, that a perfect alphabet would contain just the same number of signs as there are articulate sounds in the language. A very high authority, Dr. Latham, lays down six admirable rules for spelling and pronunciation, recognising the spelling by sound in its entirety, any not to use *a* one way in hat and another way in hate, or *b* as in bed and otherwise as in dumb. Dr. Trench, who rejects the admission of the principle, says: "Custom is lord;" well, custom has run counter to common sense, and excessive familiarity has created a film over our reforming vision; but because our fathers traversed the lakes in sloops and the land in coaches and canal boats is no reason why we should refuse to avail ourselves of steam locomotion. To animadvert upon an evil for which there is no remedy would be futile and unsatisfactory. The remedy is extant, but a bigoted conservatism is in the way. Rapid strides have been effected and improbable results ensued since the supplanting of the Platonic by the Baconian philosophy in everything but the relations of writing to speech. St. Paul wrote to the Corinthians, and Sir John Mandeville transcribed his travels as facile as the majority of the people of the 19th century do their correspondence. This dogged observance and blind reverence for the past is incompatible with our ingenious progressive nature, as is also our adherence to what is incompetent to fulfil the requirements of business and society. The remedy referred to lies in the adoption of short-hand or phonography, by which every sound framed by the mouth for the expression of

words or syllables has its representative symbol—firm and unmistakable, a knowledge of which symbol once acquired indexes its pronunciation. The phonographic alphabet contains 34 signs composed of dots and the smallest geometrical forms—straight lines, curves and circles—to represent an equal number of sounds. This number embraces all the sounds in the English language, and hence a combination of signs represents a combination of sounds, and a single sign a single sound. Phonography originated with Isaac Pitman of Bath, England, in 1837, and since that time has spread with unexampled rapidity throughout Anglo-Saxondom, notwithstanding there is still but a mere tithe of the writing population employ it. Its use has been almost confined to professionals, who, by making a virtue of necessity, have adopted it in preference to any other system. Shorter methods of writing than our ordinary long-hand are numerous both anterior as well as posterior to Pitman. He did not emerge from the cradle a perfect author of a perfect system, but labored, like other mortals, over systems before him, analysing, comparing and arranging for years until he deemed his work of sufficient utility to warrant a successful reception at the hands of the public. We have accounts of over 200 systems having been in use at various times, but all more or less founded on our imperfect alphabet, and consequently ambiguous and circuitous. His system has the three cardinal advantages of brevity, facility and legibility, a trio of qualities that would have ensured the success of any system. But none of his antecedents had embodied these indispensable qualifications in their methods. If they secured brevity they endangered legibility and *vice versa*.

And now, in conclusion, as there are thousands of living testimonials to the efficiency, the beauty and adaptiveness of Pitman's short-hand in Great Britain and America, it recommends itself to the attention of those interested in the diffusion of letters—to those self-applying persevering youths who would strike out a path to eminence for themselves, and to those parents anxious for the success of their children. Many men of influence and position in the neighboring Union have made phonography their passport, and a list might be enumerated containing many names of Senators, Judges, &c. The desire to write fast is natural, and the necessity to write fast is imperative and the ability to read what is written completes the science. Who has not listened with rapture to some brilliant soul-stirring sentence or some glowing panegyric—some beautiful sentiment or some seathing invective, and wished for the means of arresting it from oblivion? Who does not resolve every new year to keep a diary, but the tediousness of the operation overcomes the interest and the record expires with the first month? The limits of this notice forbid anything like an exposition of its advantages. To the merchant, the lawyer and the divine, it is of incalculable benefit, while it is not less so to anybody and everybody employing our common long-hand. This is unquestionably an age of progress, when the refulgent beams of the sun of true philosophy scatter the accumulated mist of servile ages and awaken the nations to a sense of their power. Old customs now live only on their merits. Their ancestral potency is found to be an illusion when tried by the standard of practical ability. A great man once said: "To save time is to lengthen life;" What better exemplification of the aphorism could be had than in the acquisition of short-hand? It is a great art designed for a great purpose, and whether the tardiness in regard to it dies with the present generation or not phonography will eventually find its level among the sciences, become a branch of scholastic education, and, as it grows in age and extent, deserve and elicit the admiration of an intelligent humanity. J. T.

IV. Selections from the Press.

1. COMMERCIAL COLLEGES IN CANADA.

We have no desire to disparage any really useful institution, nor to interfere in any way with the working of the educational establishments lately established in some cities of Canada under the above title. Everything that will help young men to the acquisition of knowledge is desirable, and any means that can be devised whereby the *raw edge*, so to speak, can be taken off the lads who enter mercantile or banking offices, will, no doubt, be welcomed by those who have the subsequent training of them.

We have nothing, therefore, to say against the system, still less have we fault to find with any particular college.

But we have a word to say about the work they propose to do, and the time they propose to do it in, and we wish particularly to address our observations to the young men of our country districts, many of whom get a dislike to the hard work of farming, and cast a longing eye to the towns, the mercantile life of which seems to them an Elysium.

The work the colleges propose to do, is to teach book-keeping and business correspondence, and this in several and distinct

methods, as adapted to the business of a general merchant, a banker, a commission agent, and a railroad or steamboat company. In addition, some, if not all, profess to train specially for banking business, by passing young men through all the forms of a banking office, providing them with apparatus even to the extent of engraved bills, as if for circulation. To this is added an inkling of commercial law, and of the technical business of telegraphing.

The time required for the acquirement of their knowledge is supposed to be about six months.

Now, in the case of young lads who have previously enjoyed a good education, there can be nothing better, as a preparation for mercantile life, than to pass through one of these colleges and learn something of mercantile forms and methods. It will save their future principle, or senior clerks a good deal of trouble, and will put them a few months forward in the practical work of the office they enter.

But for young men, farmer's sons, for example, whose education has been deficient, and who have had nothing like mercantile experience before—for these to imagine that by a six months' course of training in a commercial college they can fit themselves for a Book-keeper's place in a bank or mercantile office is a gross delusion. Many, no doubt, have imagined it could be done, and have gone to merchants and bankers with confident faces, fully believing, in their simplicity, that their college diploma would be a sure passport to a place. Having, in their own judgment, their profession, they are much astonished to find that, in the eyes of practical men, they are reckoned only to have learned its A. B. C. This is, indeed, the real truth,—as one and another, to our knowledge, have found out by painful experience. The fact is: to become a skilful book-keeper, to understand how to conduct business correspondence, and to be able to fill a place in an office where a rapid style of work has to be kept up day after day and week after week all the year round, is not a thing to be learned in six months, or, for that matter, in twelve months either. Years of practice and steady application are required for it, and however much the training of a commercial college may do towards laying the foundation, it is sheer folly to think that anything but the foundation can be laid.

We make these remarks, as we observed before, principally for the benefit of our country readers. Farmers' sons, it is well known, flock into the towns in search of mercantile employment. The training of a college they fancy will fit them for it. Tempting inducements are held out in the shape of statements as to how many months it will take to give them a complete insight into business. They enter the college and get through their course—in some instances probably with credit—but are disgusted and astonished to find themselves, when practical work begins, placed on a level with lads many years their juniors, but who have had the advantage of a good education. They find they have almost everything to learn; and more than that, they have the *habits* of a man of business to acquire. Their previous occupation has been of so totally different a nature, that the steady routine of an office, with its many hours a day of confinement and close employment, is extremely distasteful to them. Their employers, on the other hand, find them very dull and very slow, and far inferior to lads who began their business training at an early age. The result is that after a few months of unsatisfactory probation, the unfortunate candidate for mercantile pursuits has to abandon them, and, as he does so, he curses the day when he was tempted by the hope of an easy preparation to make the venture. His time and money thrown away, he returns to the country, a sadder and a wiser man, unless, indeed, he can turn his knowledge of book-keeping to account in a sphere where it is much needed—viz., in farming.

We believe there is not one farmer in ten who can tell with any approach to accuracy how much he has made or lost in any given year. The rough and ready rule of thumb style of calculating may do well enough in the early years of a farmer, when the gradual progress of his clearing affords a pretty fair index as to his progress in general. Even then, however, there may be a gradual growth of indebtedness, which a farmer is too apt to overlook, and which he will be sure to underestimate so long as he keeps no account. But when the farm gets clear, and the work requires to be done in a business-like style, when he has a variety of crops, with pasturage for sheep and cattle, a farmer cannot carry on his business in an intelligent manner without keeping accounts. Now if our farmer's sons, intending to follow farming, enter a commercial college to learn something of book-keeping, we believe a few months' application in that direction would well repay them, and it would well repay the College in Western Canada at all events, to devise a system of book-keeping for farmers, as they have already done for merchants, bankers, and railroad companies. If this were of a simple and practical character, young men from the country would learn it without trouble. The college would then render a valuable service to the farming community, and help the development of the country, instead of as now fostering a miserable delusion, and

drawing young men from a sphere for which they are suited to another where they can be only a burden.

While giving them this hint, they will, perhaps, pardon us adding another. The bank book-keeping they teach, is generally, we believe, founded on some system in vogue in the United States. Now, some little experience enables us to say that the system now practised by most of the banks in Canada with its elaborate apparatus of checks and counter checks is as superior to the other in thoroughness and scientific accuracy as the book-keeping of a wholesale merchant is to that of a petty grocery. The style of book-keeping in vogue in the banks of our neighbors is altogether behind the age. It has been improved upon again and again, until now, it is at least twenty years out of date. A lad might as well learn farming from one of our *habitants*, as bank book-keeping for Canada from a system prevalent in New York.—*Montreal Witness*.

2. NATIONALITY AND UNIFORMITY OF SCHOOL BOOKS.

The most obvious and the chief defect in the common and the higher schools of Upper Canada, is the want of uniformity and nationality in the text books which they use. This defect is no doubt becoming less prevalent within the last few years, but it is still sufficiently observable to call forth a few remarks on the subject. First, then, as regards the nationality or rather un-nationality of School Books; we are obliged to confess that many of the text-books used in the Upper Canada schools are anything and everything but Canadian. In the Readers we find speeches of Webster, Clay, and Patrick Henry, glowing descriptions of our Southern neighbours, notices of their prominent men, and pictures of their natural scenery and wonders of art; but what of Canada, what of her worthies, her institutions, her progress, her beauties of nature, absolutely nothing. Our Geographies are generally of the same nature; full particulars relative to any State and Territory in the Union—usually occupying a third or more of the book—while the whole of the British Provinces in North America are hastily and carelessly summed up in the compass of four or five pages. Our histories and many others of the books still in use are just as faulty as those named.

Now we do not pretend to say that a child cannot just as well be taught the art of reading from a book made up of foreign miscellany as from any other, but what we do say is that a book adapted to Canadian scholars would not be used in the United States, nor would a book intended for Republicans be allowed in the public schools of any of the Monarchies of Europe. In all countries where a complete system of education has been developed the nationality of a text-book has been considered an essential point, and is one of its greatest elements of success. Book makers, book sellers, and book buyers, equally well understand this; we wish the principle was as well understood and as strictly acted upon in Canada.

What, then, is the tendency of this system of using un-national text-books in our public schools? Is it not—either by presenting to the minds of our youth foreign models of excellence, or by excluding them from that which is most essential for them to know—to make them foreign in their taste and predilections, and admirers of everything abroad—and, we might add, despisers of everything at home. We have been led to these remarks from an examination of a series of school books exhibited at the show by Mr. John Lovell of Montreal. Many of these books have been repeatedly noticed by us, but we have never before had an opportunity of noticing the whole series. We have always spoke in terms of high approval of the publications of this our chief British American publisher, and a careful examination of the manner in which he has carried out the patriotic design of furnishing teachers with a truly national and complete series of text books has not lessened either himself or his work in our esteem. We are much pleased to learn by the reports of the Educational Department that many of these books of Lovell's are rapidly taking the place of those which they were intended to supersede. But what we complain of is that the whole series—all of which have been specially prepared for, and are admirably adapted to the use of our schools, is not permanently introduced into the public schools, by which course uniformity in our text books would be secured, and parents relieved from the annoyance and expense consequent upon frequent changes. If we would see those that are to come after us, and to inherit our birthrights, worthy to enjoy, and fitted to promote, that high destiny which awaits our country, we must put into their hands purely Canadian books to be read and studied at school. When this is done, prosperity is in store for ourselves and our country; for as we sow so also shall we reap.—*Hamilton Spectator*.

V. Papers on Practical Education.

1. HOW TO TEACH SPELLING.

I. Special attention should be given to the shorter words, because (1) They are in more frequent use than the longer words. (2) They form the basis of the longer words. (3) They are often more difficult and irregular than the longer words.

II. By a systematic classification of the words in common use according to their peculiar difficulties, the principle of association should be brought to bear upon the teaching of spelling to a greater extent than is usual in schools. Perplexing as are the anomalies of English orthography, there is yet "some method in this madness;" the irregularities are reducible to classes, while the words that are quite irregular are comparatively few; thus, as regards the monosyllable in the language, which numbers about 3,000, the number of words which defy all classification—those that form a "sui generis"—are less than 100, of which *do, been, said, shoe,* are examples. Now the committing to memory by frequently *writing* them, would be no formidable task to a child; then the regular words might be learnt in classes.

Dictation is generally considered the only remedy for bad spelling. Now dictation *alone* has the following inconveniences:—In large classes it is difficult to correct all the exercises. Then there is the risk of confirming the pupil in error. It is a needless waste of time to dictate *every word*, especially in the more advanced stages.

Dictation is an admirable *test* of spelling, but it should be accompanied by *direct teaching*.—*E. J. in London Educational Record.*

2. MAP DRAWING IN TEACHING GEOGRAPHY.

Most teachers have become convinced that the method of teaching Geography generally practised in our Common schools, is by no means satisfactory. The pupils appear to recite their lessons well enough, but the teacher soon observes that they seldom retain that which they so readily recite. To remedy this defect, and to more durably imprint upon their minds the relative positions of countries, and the location of cities, etc., I have adopted the following course:

Each day a short lesson is assigned to the class to be learned from the Geography; but in addition to this they are required to draw upon the blackboard a map of the country, or part of country, under consideration, delineating the larger rivers, and locating the principal towns. After they have drawn their maps, one is sent to the board and points out the cities, giving their names, and also describes the rivers. The next gives the area in square miles of each state or division of country which they have drawn. The next bounds the several divisions, and so on through the lesson, assigning some part to each member of the class.

I generally feel satisfied that if a scholar can draw a good map of a country in the manner indicated without the aid of a copy, he has a tolerably fair knowledge of the geography of that country; and it is my candid opinion that if teachers would generally adopt the plan of having their pupils draw maps upon the blackboard, their endeavours to teach Geography would much more generally prove successful.—*TEACHER, in Wisconsin Journal of Education.*

3. LORD PALMERSTON ON WRITING.

Lord Palmerston took a little recreation the other day by presiding at the Romsey Labourer's Association. In the course of his address to them he spoke of hand writing as follows: Writing is almost as important as speaking, because every man whatever his station in life may be, must have constant occasion to convey his thoughts, his wishes, his complaints, his desires, in writing, and unless that writing be legible and easily read, with the letters well formed, so that a person can read that writing without trouble or delay, it fails by disgusting the person to whom it is addressed (Cheers). I must say that in the present day I do not think that instruction in writing is given in that way which would render it most useful. Children who are taught to write are taught to make up strokes fine and down strokes bold—the consequence of which is that writing often looks like a railing, a little laying on one side, so that it is difficult for the eye to make out the letters of which that writing professes to be composed. Children should be taught to write a large hand, to form each letter well, and never to mind whether it looks beautiful or not. If it answers the purpose of being easily read, that is the thing which ought to be aimed at.

4. WRITING FROM COPY BOOKS.

All masters know the trouble and expense of using and providing copy-slips or writing-models for the children of their school—the

results arising therefrom being, generally speaking, unsatisfactory, unless the child's writing a stiff formal hand, commonly called copper-plate, be considered the acme of this branch of its education. Copy-books with headlines, though they save trouble, are equally as expensive, the child having to pay extra for such books, and in my opinion inferior as models, the imitation of which is to lead to the formation of a business hand. If models are to be used, I certainly prefer Mulhauser's, the small-hand of which contain useful and instructive sentences, which fix the attention of the child much more readily than a few dry words, meaningless unless explained, such being rarely done. A good plain, readable hand, appears to me to be the great desideratum to be attained in the caligraphy of our schools; and to that end I adopt the following plan:—None but plain ruled copy-books are used, viz., text, round, and mixed hands; the former for the 1st and 2nd, the round hand for the 3rd, and the latter for the three higher grades. Every morning, before my arrival in the school-room, each teacher has a copy written on the black-boards of their respective classes suitable to each grade. On the boards before the classes writing mixed hands, two sentences are written, one in round hand, the other in small—the former likewise sufficing for the text-hand—sufficient to occupy two or three lines of its copy. By this method the ceaseless trouble and expense of copy-slips disappear; and from the evidence of numerous visitors such a similarity in writing is the result, in all parts of a large school, as is rarely seen. For a young beginner, the copy is pencilled in its book for a few times, which is discontinued as soon as possible. Should the copy be unfinished at the close of the lesson, the child commences the next writing lesson where it finished the preceding. Often has it been said that "Necessity is the mother of invention." This has been perfectly true in my case, for taking charge of a large school, in a very poor district, I was obliged to hit upon the most inexpensive means which would conduce to rapid improvement in knowledge and discipline; and in this instance I consider myself successful. A plain, round, readable hand from dictation is the happy result, with no trouble in finding models or monitors to serve out and gather in the same; no time wasted in attempting to discover some poor delinquent who has purposely or accidentally torn, blotted, or otherwise disfigured the model; yet with the same, at least, if not with far better, results.—*EDWIN LUCAS in Monthly Paper.*

5. THE VALUE OF A COMMA.

Mr. Edward About, wrote, in report of the Fine Arts Exhibition, "M. Lapere is skilful, educated, more than intelligent." M. Lapere inquired, by note, of the writer, what he meant, "What do you mean to say, sir? I am very much afraid you mean to say that I am better educated than intelligent, and that the comma signifies nothing. And even if it is there, it might not have been there." M. About replied, "the comma proves, sir, that I look upon you as a man who is educated, and more than intelligent." M. Lapere was not satisfied and appealed to the law to redress his grievance. M. About answered, "I am challenged to explain and say that if that comma is a serious, solid, established, intentional comma, and if I meant to say that M. Lapere was both an educated man and a man of remarkable intelligence. I hasten to declare that I was still under that impression when I wrote my article, that is to say a fortnight ago.—*Publisher's Circular.*

6. DRILL AT SCHOOL.*

The opinion is very generally expressed that a law should be introduced making it imperative that the scholars of every school and institution receiving a Government grant should be trained and drilled. In ten years, if this scheme be carried out, the country would be as powerful as any on this continent, independent of foreign influence, and indisposed to play the ignominious part it has been dragged through during the past few years.—*Montreal Gazette.*

VI. Biographical Sketches.

No. 22.—THE HON. JAMES GORDON, M.L.C.

In our obituary column yesterday was announced the death of Lieutenant Colonel the Hon. James Gordon, member of the Legislative Council of Canada. Lieutenant Colonel Gordon was the son of the late Rev. Alexander Gordon, minister of Daviot, Inverness-

* We are happy to state that His Excellency the Governor General has been pleased to appoint Major Goodwin (so long and so favourably known in Toronto for his activity and zeal in militia affairs), to be Drill Instructor to the pupils and students at the Upper Canada College and the Normal and Model Schools.—*Ed. J. of Ed.*

shire, Scotland, in which place Mr. Gordon was born on the 26th of August, 1786. He was educated at the Inverness Royal Academy, emigrated to Canada in the beginning of the present century, and settled in Amherstburg, in Canada West. In 1805, Mr. Gordon received his commission as ensign in the first regiment of Essex Militia, and served as lieutenant and paymaster during the War of 1812. He was present at the capture of Detroit on the 16th of August, 1812, with the force under General Brock, and had the distinguished honour of being the first to hoist the British flag on that memorable occasion. He was also engaged in the action at Frenchtown, on the 22nd of January, 1813, where he was seriously wounded. Mr. Gordon was returned to the Legislative Assembly of Upper Canada, as a member for the county of Kent, in 1820, which constituency he represented until 1828. He was then appointed a member of the Legislative Council of Upper Canada, and was, after the union of Upper and Lower Canada, called to the Legislative Council of Canada by royal mandamus, on the 4th of November, 1845. He was Lieutenant Colonel (retired list) of the first battalion of the Essex militia. Mr. Gordon, for many years, carried on business at Amherstburg, as a merchant, where he was noted for ability, industry, and integrity. Mr. Gordon, while the companion-in-arms, in the war of 1812, of the late Sir John Beverley Robinson, Sir J. B. Macaulay, Hon. William Hamilton Merritt, Chief Justice Maclean, the late Mr. Justice Jones, and others, became their intimate friend; and their subsequent association in the Legislature of Upper Canada brought them still more together, and cemented that friendship. During recent years Mr. Gordon's advanced age prevented him from taking a very active part in the business of legislation, but his admirable business habits and sound judgment always commanded weight, while those who differed from him could not fail to respect him. Like some of those whom we have named, he has been removed from amongst us by death, full of years and well-earned honours.—*Leader*.

No. 23.—E. W. THOMSON, ESQ.

We regret to learn that Colonel E. W. Thomson, of Toronto, died suddenly at Toronto, on the 20th inst. He was born at Kingston in 1794. He was a member of the last Parliament of Upper Canada, having beaten W. L. Mackenzie as candidate for York. He ran unsuccessfully as Conservative candidate for one of the ridings of that county in 1851 and 1863. He served in the Militia in 1812 and in 1837, and has always since held rank in it. He has been for some years commandant of his district. Colonel Thomson was known in Lower as well as Upper Canada as a zealous promoter of agricultural improvement, and his loss will be much regretted here. In early life Colonel Thomson was engaged as a contractor, in connection with the Hon. George Crawford, in the building of the locks of the canals on the St. Lawrence. He afterwards was, at a more recent date, similarly engaged in the widening of the locks of the Welland Canal; but his chief pursuits have been agricultural. He was one of two or three who founded the Provincial Agricultural Association, about twenty years ago. Before that he had been an active promoter of the Home District Societies. He was Chairman of the Board of the Agricultural Association from its first formation, and was re-elected only a few weeks ago in London, C. W., to the same position. He was an extensive farmer in York and Peel during the greater part of his life. He was a representative of Canada at the World's Fair in London, England, and acted his part most satisfactorily. Colonel Thomson belonged to the old Kirk of Scotland, of which he was an elder. Although 71 years of age, he had walked in from his farm, some miles, on Wednesday, to attend a meeting of the Council of the Agricultural Association, and had exulted in the strength which enabled him to do so. He was hurrying into town again on Thursday morning to keep a similar appointment, when some blood vessel or internal structure was ruptured by the exertion, and he fell dead beside the road.—*Montreal Gazette*.

No. 24.—PRESIDENT LINCOLN.

In common with the whole press in Canada and the British Provinces, we give expression to our profound and heartfelt regret at the tragic events at Washington, which has suddenly deprived a great nation of its chief ruler. An act so base and dastardly will be reprobated by every right minded man. To our British feelings, a blow aimed at the Sovereign head of a State, combines in itself not only the crime of the regicide and parricide, but it is one which cannot but be regarded with the utmost horror. If we are not even to speak evil concerning the ruler, much less should we hold his person sacred from physical violence. In the case of Mr. Lincoln we fear his death to be a public loss at this crisis.

Mr. Lincoln was born in a part of Hardin county, Ky., which is now included in Laura county, February 12, 1809. His ancestors, who were Quakers, went from Berks county, Penn., to Rockingham county, Va., and from there his grandfather, Abraham, removed with his family to Kentucky about 1782, and was killed by Indians in 1784. Thomas Lincoln, the father of Abraham, was born in Virginia, and in 1806 married Nancy Hanks, also a Virginian. In 1816 he removed with his family to what is now Spencer county, Ind., where Abraham, being large for his age, was put to work with an axe to assist in clearing away the forest, and for the next ten years was mostly occupied in hard labour on his father's farm. He went to school at intervals, amounting in the aggregate to about a year, which was all the school education he ever received. At the age of nineteen he made a trip to New Orleans as a hired hand upon a flat boat. In March, 1830, he removed with his father from Indiana, and settled in Macon county, Ill., where he helped to build a log cabin for the family home, and to make enough rails to fence ten acres of land. In the following year he hired himself at \$12 a month to assist in building a flat boat, and afterwards in taking the boat to New Orleans. On his return from this voyage his employer put him in charge as a clerk of a store and mill at New Salem, then in Sangamon, now in Monard county, Ill. On the breaking out of the Black Hawk war in 1832, he joined a volunteer company, and to his surprise was elected captain of it, a promotion which, he says, gave him more pleasure than any subsequent success in life. He served for three months in the campaign and on his return was in the same year nominated a whig candidate for the legislature. He next opened a country store, which was not prosperous, was appointed postmaster of New Salem, and now began to study law by borrowing from a neighboring lawyer books in the evening and returned in the morning. The surveyor of Sangamon county offering to depute to him that portion of his work which was in his part of the country, Mr. Lincoln procured a compass and chain and a treatise on surveying, and did the work. In 1834 he was elected to the legislature, and was re-elected in 1836, 1838, and 1840. In 1836 he obtained a license to practise law, and in April, 1836, removed to Springfield, and opened an office in partnership with Major John F. Stuart. He rose rapidly to distinction in his profession, and was especially eminent as an advocate in jury trials. He did not, however, withdraw from politics, but continued for many years a prominent leader of the whig party in Illinois. He was presidential elector in behalf of Henry Clay. In 1836 he was elected a representative in congress from the central district of Illinois, and took his seat on the first Monday in December, 1847. On Jan. 16, 1849, he offered to the house a scheme for abolishing slavery in the district by compensating the slave owners from the treasury of the United States, provided a majority of citizens of the district should vote for the acceptance of the proposed act. He opposed the annexation of Texas, but voted for the loan bill to enable the government to defray the expenses of the Mexican war. He was a member of the whig national convention of 1848, and advocated the nomination of Gen. Taylor. After the expiration of his congressional term Mr. Lincoln applied himself to his profession till the repeal of the Missouri compromise called him again into the political arena. At the republican national convention in 1856, by which Col. Fremont was nominated for president, the Illinois delegation ineffectually urged Mr. Lincoln's nomination for the vice-presidency. On June 2, 1858, the republican State convention met at Springfield, and unanimously nominated him as candidate for U. S. senator in opposition to Mr. Douglas. The two candidates canvassed the state together, speaking on the same day at the same place. The debate was conducted with eminent ability on both sides, and excited universal interest. Mr. Lincoln had a majority of more than 4,000 on the popular vote over Mr. Douglas; but the latter was elected senator by the legislature. On May 16, 1860 the republican national convention met at Chicago, and on May 18 began to ballot for a candidate for president. On the first ballot Mr. Seward received 173½, Mr. Lincoln 102, Mr. Cameron 50½, and Mr. Bates 48. On the second ballot Mr. Seward had 184½, and Mr. Lincoln 181. On the third ballot Mr. Lincoln had 354 and Mr. Seward 110½. Mr. Lincoln was subsequently elected President of the United States and served his term of four years, when he was again elected in opposition to Gen. McClellan. His career since his first election is so well known that we need not enlarge upon it. His tragical death in Ford's Theatre, Washington, might well form an era in the history of the American Republic.

No. 25.—REV. WILLIAM L. THORNTON, M.A.

We regret to announce the unexpected death of the Rev. Wm. L. Thornton, President of the Wesleyan Conference, on Sunday, 10th March. Born of highly respectable parents in Huddersfield, and brought up with strong hereditary attachment to Wesleyan Metho-

dism, he discovered at a very early age a predilection towards its ministry, and having received an admirable education, he began at an early age to call sinners to repentance. His ministry commenced in the year 1830, and after eleven years spent in important charges in the usual pastoral and Circuit duty, he was appointed, in 1841, Classical and Mathematical Tutor in connection with the Theological Institution, a position which he filled for eight years. In 1849 he was transferred to the Conference Office as junior Editor. On the death of Mr. Cubitt, which occurred in less than two years after this appointment, Mr. Thornton became senior Editor, a position which he continued to occupy till his death. His appointment to visit the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church in Philadelphia, and to preside over the Conferences of Canada and of Eastern British America, as well as his recent election to the Presidency of the British Conference for the current year, completed and crowned the list of honours and responsibilities which he was destined to receive and to fulfil before passing away to his endless reward. Notwithstanding the great strain upon his physical and mental powers to which the late President had been subjected during the last twelve months, he was never known to complain seriously of fatigue. Three Sundays previously to his death, he preached twice at Liverpool-road Chapel. It was evident on that occasion that he was suffering from indisposition, but it was remarked that there was a special excellence in the sermons, and that they were accompanied by a peculiarly gracious and heavenly influence. "Never did I seem to feel myself more near to heaven under any sermon than under that of this evening," was the remark of one of his hearers returning from the chapel. The text was, "Mine eyes have seen the King, the Lord of Hosts," Isaiah vi. 5. No subject could have been more appropriate to the close of a ministry always evangelical and richly expository, and most elevating to the experience and hope of Christian believers. From that day's services Mr. Thornton retired to his home, where he remained under the tenderest care that affection could devise until his death. He does not appear to have apprehended a fatal termination to his illness; he was cheerful to the last, and never relaxed his attention to business. On Sunday morning, March 6th, when he awoke, he said he felt better, and that it was the beginning of a good day. To a friend who called to inquire he sent a kind and cheerful answer, closing with the words, "My mercies abound." These were perhaps his last words, for he was immediately seized by the hand of death, and before he could reply, except by a gentle motion of the head, to the anxious inquiry of Mrs. Thornton whether he did not feel better, he breathed his last.—*Methodist Recorder*.

VII. Papers on Natural History.

1. PROTECTION OF BIRDS.

It may not be generally known to juvenile sportsmen that from the first of March to the first of August it is contrary to law to kill any kind of insect-eating birds.

We copy the following from the Act of 1864, "For the Protection of Insectivorous and other Birds beneficial to Agriculture."

Sec. No. 1.—"It shall not be lawful to shoot, destroy, kill, wound, or injure, or to attempt to shoot, destroy, kill, wound, or injure any bird whatsoever, save and except eagles, falcons, hawks, and other birds of the eagle kind, wild pigeons, rice-birds, kingfishers, crows, and ravens, between the first day of March and the first day of August in any year."

The same act also prohibits the buying or selling, trapping or snaring of any insectivorous birds during the close season. It also prohibits the taking of the nests or eggs; and authorizes the destruction by any person of nets, snares or trap cages set for insectivorous birds. It also authorizes any person to seize upon view any birds, dead or alive, taken in contravention of its provisions, and carry the same before a magistrate for confiscation.

The penalty for any breach of the Act is from one dollar to ten dollars, all of which is awarded to the prosecutor or informant.

This Act is likely to prove most beneficial in its working, if stringently enforced, and we trust it will be. It has, we regret to say, been too common a practice for men and boys, for lack of larger game, to destroy large numbers of robins, blackbirds, and other small birds which feed upon insects, and thereby destroy many of the kinds destructive to growing crops.

Independent of the benefit done to the country by insect-eating birds, among which may be ranked the greater number of our song birds, their presence in large numbers add to the interest and beauty of the woods in the summer season.

We trust that every one will take an interest in the endeavour to carry into effect the provisions of the Act above referred to; and that parents in particular, who allow guns to be used by young people, will strictly caution them against killing any of the kinds of birds protected by the statute.—*Ottawa Citizen*.

2. "BLEST HARBINGERS OF SPRING."

The advent of the glorious spring time has been joyously proclaimed for a few mornings past by those popular favorites, the Robin and the little Song Sparrow. We never listen to the sweet notes of the latter little fellow without wishing that he had power to sustain them longer, for they are really delightful.—*Prescott Telegraph*.

3. THE SINGING BIRDS.

The time of the singing birds has come earlier, we think, this year than in former years. There are two or three kinds of small birds chirping and warbling in the gardens, and we hear that a robin was seen three or four days ago. The crows have been flying about noisily for weeks. Would some of our naturalists describe in a popular manner, and name the little birds, as they arrive in spring, after the manner of White, the natural-historian of Selburne?

VIII. Miscellaneous.

1. IRISH SEA WEED.

"Oh call us not weeds, but flowers of the sea;
For lovely and bright and gay tinted are we,
Our blush is as deep as the Rose of thy bowers,
Then call us not weeds, we are Ocean's gay flowers.

Not nursed like the plants of a summer parterre,
Whose gales are but sighs of an evening air;
Our exquisite, fragile and beautiful forms
Are nursed by the Ocean, and rocked by the storms."

2. A LETTER ADDRESSED TO HEAVEN.

At the Vienna Post Office a few days ago, a letter was found in the box bearing the remarkable address, "To the dear little infant Jesus: to be delivered in Heaven." As the latter address is not contained in the beat of the Austrian letter-carriers, there was nothing for it but to send the note to the dead letter-office. Here it was opened, and was found to have been written by two little boys, respectively eight and six years of age—Rudolph and Carl X.—, residing in one of the suburbs of the capital. In the letter the youngsters had made the promise "to be very diligent with their lessons and to be very good boys indeed after the holidays;" and they therefore begged "das liebe Christ-kind" (the infant Jesus, who, according to the tradition of all German nurseries, sends children all the presents they get at Christmas) "to send them very nice things this Christmas."

3. THINGS WORTH KNOWING.

I know—that my Redeemer liveth. (Job xix. 25.)

I know—in whom I have believed, and am persuaded that he is able to keep that which I have committed unto him against that day. (2 Tim. i. 12.)

Ye know—that he was manifested to take away our sins. (1 John iii. 5.)

We know—that ALL things work together for good to them that love God. (Romans viii. 28.)

We know—that if our earthly house of this tabernacle were dissolved, we have a building of God, a house not made with hands eternal in the heavens. (2 Cor. v. 1.)

We know—that when he shall appear, we shall be like him; for we shall see him as he is. (1 John iii. 2.)

IX. Educational Intelligence.

—CORBOURG GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—Happening to go into Mr. Salisbury's bookstore, we were much pleased with an inspection of two pen and ink maps there, the work of two of the pupils, Master W. H. Benson, and Master H. Ruttan. The map of Germany, by the former, is 24 by 36 inches in size, and shows in detail the various territorial divisions, the natural features of the country, such as mountains and rivers, and the positions of all places of importance, the whole very beautifully colored, and the lettering and general finish almost equal to an engraving. The other is a map of Holland and Belgium, smaller in size, and not colored, but, at the same time, showing a good degree of proficiency and accuracy, and highly creditable to Master Ruttan. Mr. Barron, the principal, must be highly gratified at the success of his pupils, which, while reflecting great credit upon himself as a teacher, at the same time shows the close

attention paid to his instructions, and affords him that encouragement which tends to lighten to some extent the very arduous duties he is called upon to perform.—*Cobourg Star*.

— UNIVERSITY COLLEGE LITERARY CONVERSAZIONE.—The conversation by the University College Literary and Scientific Society took place on the 20th ultimo. When the hour named had arrived, the halls and corridors of the noble building were filled to excess with visitors; so that during the exercises the great part of the audience were compelled to stand; and even sufficient standing room could not be obtained. The library and museum were thrown open to the visitors, and every opportunity was afforded them of spending a pleasant and profitable evening. The proceedings commenced with "Selections from *Traviata*" by the band of the 16th regiment, the services of which were kindly tendered the society for the occasion, and which contributed much to the pleasure of the visitors. After the singing of "The winds are hushed to rest" by the members of the society, Mr. J. E. Croley delivered a short address on "Recreation." Mr. H. P. Hill played "La Favorita" very creditably, and was followed by Mr. A. C. Tyner in a reading from Shakspeare's "Coriolanus." The spirit of the piece was fully entered into by the reader, and he was quite successful in retaining the ear of his audience. It is impossible for us to particularize farther; but the remaining part of the programme was probably more interesting than that which we have already noticed. We cannot omit to mention an essay by Mr. J. A. Paterson, on "The grandeur and beauty of nature," in which the essayist availed himself of the wide scope afforded by his subject to collect a good many beautiful and even sublime ideas, and which was read in a clear and distinct manner. Mr. J. D. Humphreys presided at the piano with his usual ability, and sang a duett in connection with Mr. E. P. Crawford, who displayed the powers of a good voice on several pieces during the evening. At the conclusion Dr. McCaul returned thanks on behalf of the society for the liberality with which its efforts to afford a literary entertainment were met by the citizens, and also for the valuable aid afforded by the band to make the occasion so pleasant and gratifying to all as it evidently had been. Frequent and warm applause was liberally and deservedly bestowed on the various performers by the audience.—*Leader*.

X. Departmental Notices.

USE OF AMERICAN GEOGRAPHIES NOT SANCTIONED.

According to previous notice, the Council of Public Instruction has withdrawn its sanction to the use of Morse's Geography in any of the public schools of Upper Canada. Hereafter it will not be lawful (after the copies now in actual use in any school are worn out) to use either Morse's or any other American geography in either the Grammar or Common Schools of Upper Canada. A violation of this order in any case, will subject the school concerned to the loss of its share in the Grammar School Fund or Legislative School grant, as the case may be.

THE QUEEN'S BIRTH DAY A HOLIDAY.

As will be seen by reference to page 52 of this number of the *Journal*, the anniversary of the birth day of Her Most Gracious Majesty the Queen is hereafter to be observed as a regular holiday in all the public schools of Upper Canada.

NOTICE TO CANDIDATES FOR GRAMMAR SCHOOL MASTERSHIPS.

The Committee of Examiners appointed by the Council of Public Instruction for Upper Canada, meets in the Normal School Buildings, Toronto, on the last Monday in June and the first Monday in January of each year. Candidates are required to send in their names to the Chairman of the Committee one week previous to the day of examination.

POSTAGE REGULATION IN REGARD TO GRAMMAR AND COMMON SCHOOL RETURNS.

All official returns which are required by law to be for-

warded to the Chief Superintendent, or a Local Superintendent, and which are made upon the printed blank forms furnished by the Educational Department, *must be pre-paid*, at the rate of one cent, *and be open to inspection*, so as to entitle them to pass through the post as printed papers. No letters should be enclosed with such returns. A neglect to observe this regulation has repeatedly subjected this Department to an unnecessary charge of 14 cts. and 21 cts. on each package, including the Post-office fine of nearly *fifty per cent.* for non-payment.

Canadian School Maps and Apparatus.

Sets of the two new series of maps of Canadian manufacture are now ready, and can be had, by school authorities, at the Educational Depository, Toronto, either singly, in wall cases, or on rotary stands, embracing Maps of the World; Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, of two sizes; the British Isles, Canaan and Palestine, and British North America.

Terrestrial and Celestial Globes, of Canadian manufacture, of the following sizes: *three* (hemisphere), *six*, *twelve*, and *eighteen* inches in diameter, and on various kinds of frames.

The Canadian School Apparatus embrace, among other things, Planetariums, Telluriums, Lunarians, Celestial Spheres, Numeral Frames, Geometrical Forms and Solids, &c. Also, a great variety of Object Lessons, Diagrams, Charts, and Sheets. Magic Lanterns, with suitable slides, from \$2.40 to \$1.20 with objects, Telescopes, Barometers, Chemical Laboratories, beautiful Geological Cabinets, and various other Philosophical Apparatus in great variety. Catalogues, and printed Forms of Application, may be had at the Depository.

NEW SCHOOL HISTORY OF CANADA.—GEOGRAPHIES.

JUST PUBLISHED: *An Illustrated School History of Canada, and of the other British North American Provinces.* By J. GEORGE HODGINS, LL.B., F.R.G.S. With sixty engravings on wood. Price 50 cents. The usual discount to teachers.

The publisher would call attention to the GREATLY REDUCED RATES at which the following works, by the same author, are now offered by the booksellers:

Lovell's General Geography, with 51 coloured maps, 118 beautiful engravings, and a table of clocks of the world—price reduced from \$1 to 70 cents. This book is especially adapted for introduction into every College, Academy, and School in the British Provinces. Parents should see that it is in their children's hands.

Easy Lessons in General Geography; with maps and illustrations; being introductory to *Lovell's General Geography*—price reduced from 60 cents to 45 cents.

In Preparation, by the same author: *Introductory Sketches and Stories*, for Junior Classes, taken from the History of Canada and of the other Provinces of British North America, for the use of schools. With numerous illustrations.

ADAM MILLER,

Upper Canada School Book Depot, 62 King St. East, Toronto.
Toronto, April, 1865. [3in. n. p.]

COLBORNE CIRCUIT BOARD OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

To the Common School Trustees in the Colborne Grammar School Circuit:

GENTLEMEN,—I am instructed to intimate to you, that at the recent meeting of the Board of Public Instruction for this Grammar School Circuit, the Board resolved, "That, in the future, no Third Class Certificates would be issued to Teachers within their jurisdiction; excepting upon the petition of the Trustees, setting forth the pecuniary inability of their section to employ a higher grade Teacher; the said petition to be presented to the Board on or before the first Friday in June next." It is desirable that the Trustees, generally, should attend the Annual Examination of School Teachers in this Circuit, which takes place on the first Friday and Saturday in June.—I have the honor to be, Gentlemen, your obedient servant, CHAS. UNDERHILL, Sec. of Board of Pub. Inst'n.
Colborne, April 20th, 1865. 1in. grat.

ADVERTISEMENTS inserted in the *Journal of Education* for 20 cents per line, which may be remitted in postage stamps, or otherwise.

TERMS: For a single copy of the *Journal of Education*, \$1 per annum, back vols., neatly stitched, supplied on the same terms. All subscriptions to commence with the January Number, and payment in advance must in all cases accompany the order. Single numbers, 10 cents each.

All communications to be addressed to J. GEORGE HODGINS LL.B. Education Office, Toronto.