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## I. English Educational Speeches.

### 1. RIGHT HON. W. E. GLADSTONE ON EDUCATION.

MR. GLADSTONE, on distributing prizes to the successful pupils of the Science and Art School at Oldham, took occasion to say :—The very interesting duty in which I have just been engaged reminds me that it is but one portion of a very great subject which it opens to our view. We all feel that the circumstances of the time tend to bring almost to our minds, with an augmented force, that which undoubtedly we ought at all times to have felt—namely, the necessity of considering what are the means of acting upon the great bulk of this community, so as to enable it to perform more effectually the duties to which Englishmen are called. I don't mean, in speaking of this necessity, to draw any distinction, and far less any invidious distinction, between one portion of the community and another; but you are very well aware the attention of the public bodies has been directed with great correctness and with some effect to the means of educating and training in a more efficient manner those whose eminence places them in circumstances of the greatest ease and affluence.

#### RECENT PARLIAMENTARY PROCEEDINGS ON EDUCATION.

Thirteen years ago and eleven years ago, Parliament legislated on the subjects of our two ancient universities. Since that time, inquiries have been directed into the conditions of the public schools, commonly so-called, at which the higher classes are for the most part located, and latterly into the

condition of the middle classes and grammar schools throughout the country, with respect to which, there is generally the conviction that these institutions, admirably as they were intended by the persons who founded them, have not in these late years, with some most honourable exceptions, produced that amount of benefit to the community which might have been fairly expected from them. Much has also been done within the last thirty years with respect to popular education, but much likewise remains to be done. And, in a community like this, it appears to me most fitting, where the people are in the habit of reducing to practice the doctrines of self-help and self-reliance, that we should consider what has been done, what remains to be done, what are the main influences affecting the condition of the great artisan and operative population, the country, and the instruments that are in action, or likely to be in action, for the improvement of their means, both of culture and of effective labour.

#### VARIOUS ASPECTS OF EDUCATION.

The subject of education presents itself to us in more aspects than one; it presents itself to us with reference to what we understand as technical education, with regard to which much yet remains unperformed, but more has been done in this and some of the neighbouring towns than in almost any other part of the country. With regard to professional or technical education—for the two things mean the same—I think sounder judgments are well convinced that there must be a good general training, and consequently it implies that there should go through the country a system of sound and efficient education, whereby the young shall be taught those things which it is most desirable for all to know, in order that upon that basis may afterwards be erected another fabric, consisting of the knowledge not so requisite for all to know, but requisite for different persons to know, each according to their several callings. With respects to general or popular education, primary education, as it is commonly called, although considerable progress has been made, yet, from many circumstances, from recent political events of great importance, and likewise from many other causes, we feel that a great effort must be made for a further and early advance.

#### THE NECESSITY OF FRIENDLY CO-OPERATION.

It is necessary to make attempts to give consistency and

unity throughout the country to the means and agencies which have been brought into operation within the last thirty years, with great benefit and advantage, but notwithstanding in a manner unequal, and, unfortunately, in many cases on the principle of giving the most help to those who are in the greatest need. The people of this country would not be disposed to swear away at a stroke that vast mass of educational organization which not only the general benevolence, but the Christian benevolence of the country in particular has put in action. Whilst we feel it most desirable to bring out the animating influences of religious zeal and love in aid of the cause of general culture, we feel that it is not less imperative to open, if we can, the advantage of general knowledge to the whole population without imposing a religious difficulty. The mode which has been suggested of effecting that object has been by what is commonly termed the conscience clause; and I am sanguine enough to hope that that provision is in itself, so reasonably founded as it is upon a double liberty—the perfect liberty of unimpaired religious teaching on the one side, and the perfect liberty of withdrawal to those who do not belong to a religious community on the other—I cannot help thinking that such a provision is so reasonable, and has so much of a primitive character, that it may be the means of solving in a great degree the difficulty, and enabling us to offer secular advantages of education to those to whom we are not able to give the advantages of Christian teaching. If that be so, I think I am bound to say that there is another change that ought to be made in the system of teaching as it now prevails. Schools, which are called secular schools, ought not to be proscribed. Undoubtedly, if you ask me, I prefer a school where religion is taught to one where it is not taught. But if there be benevolent individuals who are disposed to give, or assist in giving to their own families or the families of others, the advantages, not only the positive knowledge of a school, but the moral habits of a well-conducted school, I do not think it a sufficient reason for withholding public aid from the school, and placing it under a ban, that religious instruction does not form part of the system of that school. Because, after all, it is to be recollected that the very many persons who may wish to found a school simply secular in its character may limit the sphere of that school, not out of disrespect to religion, not from undervaluing its inestimable blessings, but because they feel afraid of its becoming a source of discord in the school, and think it better therefore to leave that to the pastors and the parents. Whether we adopt that opinion or not, it is fair to keep that possibility in mind; and I own it would not be altogether equitable and fair—on the contrary, it would be decidedly inequitable and unfair—if we were to say that because a school conveys secular knowledge only, that therefore it is to be regarded as unworthy of public assistance. Next to that comes the question of technical education, with respect to which Oldham appears to have taken already a very distinguished position. I do not doubt that the attention of public authority has been directed, in an increasing degree, to subjects of this class, but on the other hand, I would venture to say that your main reliance on such subjects must be upon yourselves. The Governments of other European countries are, for the most part, constituted upon principles different from ours—upon principles on which the Government assumes to itself a great deal more, and allows to the people a great deal less. When that relation of things is established, and it becomes habitual in a country, it is much easier for the Government to assume and to exercise the office and the influence of teacher.

## 2. RIGHT HON. H. A. BRUCE'S EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

### FUTILE EFFORTS TO FOUND A SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

After thirty years of discussion and controversy in the press, in Parliament, in every diocese, in every town, almost in every parish in England and Wales, it seems a bold thing to say that the subject of national education has never thoroughly possessed itself of the public mind, has never occupied that place in the heart and conscience of the nation to which its vast and pressing importance entitles it. Books and pamphlets, sermons and lectures in abundance have been published and delivered; there have been many debates in Parliament, and innumerable public meetings; many millions of money, public and private, have been freely given and spent, and great individual exertions and sacrifices have been made. The Church has founded its central and diocesan societies, and its clergy have, as a rule, displayed an energy and self-devotion above all praise; the Nonconformists have shown an ever-increasing zeal and activity; yet after all said and done, it cannot be denied that the subject has never been grappled with in that earnest and vigorous spirit which is the fruit of a strong conviction of a great evil to be removed, and a great good to be won. Education, instead of being discussed on its own merits, has been made the battlefield of religious parties; and the adoption of a real and effectual

national system has been kept subordinate to the interests, or supposed interests, of Churchmen or Dissenters. The first modest efforts of Government to promote it were received with distrust and opposition. The advocates of our existing voluntary system point to the great increase in the number of our schools, to the improvement in their character, to the growing intelligence and zeal of our people, who, they affirm, will, as they awaken to a sense of their wants, take measures to supply them. With the aid of time, and by a relaxation of the conditions on which the Government grant is dispensed, they indulge a diffident, hesitating hope of seeing the wants of the people ultimately supplied. The advocates of a more comprehensive and systematic scheme, on the other hand, point to the fact that a large portion of our population is still allowed to grow up ignorant and untrained. Admitting, for the sake of argument, that in process of time, and with some improvement in our existing machinery, education might gradually permeate our whole population, in how many generations, they ask, may this hope reasonably be expected to be fulfilled? and whether this sort of patience is really a virtue which Christian men ought to practise? While we wait for a millennium, which may never come, are tens of thousands of innocent children to be allowed to grow up in ignorance and vice, in that intellectual and moral debasement which those only know who, like Howard, "have surveyed the mansions of sorrow and pain, have taken the gauge and dimensions of misery, depression, and contempt, have remembered the forgotten, attended to the neglected, and visited the forsaken?" Under no system, they urge, which could possibly be adopted in this country could voluntary effort or religious zeal be dispensed with. The rate levied to erect or maintain a school would they acknowledge, be of little use if good and earnest men ceased to devote themselves to the management of its affairs, and they ask whether the compulsory provision of educational funds has damped voluntary ardour in the United States, or whether, as a matter of fact, the very highest examples of well-directed, voluntary devotion may not be found in the managing committees of the schools of New England, New York, and Pennsylvania? They do not deny that the denominational system affords a stimulus which would be wanting to an education supplied by means of a public rate. That is an unfortunate result of our religious divisions; but an imperfect education is better than the heathenism of utter ignorance; and zealous ministers would find means to supply the deficiency of dogmatic teaching in our schools. Such is a brief and meagre outline of the arguments employed on either side of this great and difficult controversy.

### THE QUESTION OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION—EXAMPLE.

Dependent upon its decision is another question of great importance and equal difficulty. When a sufficient supply of schools has been secured, shall the attendance of children of a certain age be voluntary or compulsory? Are we to rely upon the parents' sense of duty, or are we to call in the aid of the law in order to compel those who neglect their duty to perform it? That excellent institution, the Manchester and Salford Education Aid Society (an institution which affords an example for imitation in every town of the kingdom), have taken steps for a systematic canvass of the town, and have found that everywhere a majority of the children between the ages of three and twelve are found to be neither at school nor at work. This was not owing to the poverty of the parents, for "in many districts" (I quote from the report of this year) "the number of children who are not sent to school, but whose parents are able to pay school fees if they were willing, approaches very nearly to the number of those who are neglected on account of poverty." In one district, out of 142 children not at school, only 31 were found to belong to parents too poor to pay for their education. In the districts already examined, of 5,787 children, neither at school nor at work, 2,175 had parents able to pay for them, 3,612 were the children of parents unable to afford this expenditure. In other words, out of every 19 children absent from school, 7 were so by the wilful negligence, 12 by the poverty, of their parents. Their latest returns show that while they have made 24,000 grants to enable these latter children to attend school, only half of that number, or 12,000, have availed themselves of this aid. And this fact is attributed to the apathy of the parents. It is clear—and this fact is one which must never be forgotten during the discussion of this subject—that it is not the employer of labour who is the competitor of the schoolmaster. Of the children between three and twelve years of age, less than one in fourteen is at work, while out of every twenty-two of such children only nine are at school.

### EDUCATIONAL CONDITION OF ENGLISH CITIES AND TOWNS.

Miserable as this is, it seems to be hardly as bad as that which remains to be revealed. The committee has hitherto shrunk from visiting some of the worst and most populous districts in Manchester and Salford, because so large a proportion were below the reach of their influence. There is a lower depth yet to be sounded. While

we await the revelation of these dismal researches, let us take a general view of the state of education in Manchester and Salford. In these towns there are 104,000 children between the ages of three and twelve. A minute inquiry has established the fact that the numbers on the books of all the day schools of every class in Manchester and Salford in 1865 was 55,000. Add to these 7,000 who may, judging by the sample already examined, be assumed to be at work, and there yet remain 42,000 neither at school nor at work. It is not, of course, to be assumed that none of these children get any schooling, but after making every allowance for a short and occasional attendance at school of a portion of this vast horde of neglected children—equal in numbers to the population of a considerable town,—what a picture of the state of our urban fellow-countrymen does it present! And let us not solace ourselves with the hope that Manchester, which has thus manfully laid bare her sore places, and thrown light into her darkest lairs, stands alone in educational destitution. I know that the enormous population of such a city as Manchester imposes a task of peculiar difficulty upon those who devote themselves to supply and keep pace with its religious and intellectual wants. But have we no other great cities in England? And if the state of things in Liverpool, Birmingham, Leeds, Sheffield, Newcastle, were depicted with equal honesty and skill, have we any reason to hope that they would exhibit different results? Are their merchants more liberal, their ministers of religion more zealous, their missionaries of good more numerous or devoted than those of Manchester and Salford? An inquiry less minute and exhaustive than that made at Manchester, but sufficiently careful to deserve confidence, has, at the instigation of the Bishop of London, been made under the auspices of the Committee of the Diocesan Board of Education into the state of education in the metropolis. Already, in 1861, the Royal Commission, presided over by the late Duke of Newcastle, had proclaimed the fact that, whereas the proportion of the population of all classes receiving some sort of education in England and Wales was one in seven, or fourteen per cent., the proportion in Middlesex was one in thirteen, or eight per cent. The inquiry just made shows no improvement in the interval. The most that has been done has been to keep things at their level, and prevent retrogression. The committee reports that the means of education are wanting in the diocese of London (which, be it remembered, does not include all the metropolis, a considerable portion of which is in the diocese of Winchester) for from 150,000 to 200,000 children. Add to this statement the fact that the average increase of the metropolis calls for an annual increase of school accommodation for 5,000 children of all classes every year, and what stronger demonstration could be furnished of the necessity of devising some elastic machinery capable of adapting itself to these tremendous numbers, this gigantic growth? But the want of accommodation is not the only, nor even the most pressing evil. The Committee of the Education Aid Society, on whose information I have so largely drawn, assert their belief that more valuable than the aid they have extended to 7,000 or 8,000 perishing children, more than the knowledge of their social wants which they have revealed to their fellow-citizens, is the proof they have supplied "that no voluntary or private effort can reach the depths of this evil in the social constitution, and that further legislation is urgently needed, such legislation as shall boldly seek to provide for, and, as far as possible, secure the primary education of every child in our great community."

#### WHAT THE LEGISLATURE HAS DONE, AND WILL NOT DO.

The demand of the advocates of a national system is, that the legislature should provide machinery by which schools should be built and maintained wherever they were wanted. To this demand Parliament has declined to accede. However urgent the need, however absolute the destitution, Parliament refuses to supply, or to enforce the supply, of a single school. It contributes with no reluctant or niggard hand towards the erection and maintenance of schools which have received a certain amount of local support, and give certain guarantees of good management and efficiency. But it initiates nothing. That the grant voted by Parliament, and dispensed under the superintendence of the Committee of Council on Education, has done immense good, and has not reached the limit of its useful operation, I should be the last to deny. I doubt whether any nine millions of our vast expenditure have been ever so beneficially applied as those devoted to the promotion of education. The annual grant has provided for the inspection, and largely contributed to the maintenance of schools in England and Wales, at which some 1,200,000 are receiving an excellent elementary education. These schools are taught by upwards of 11,500 certificated teachers, probably the best of their kind that any country contains, the cost of whose training has been mainly contributed by the State. It has greatly improved our school buildings and apparatus, and everywhere, even where it gives no direct aid, it has tended greatly to raise the stand-

ard of education. It has, indeed, improved in a far greater degree than it has extended education. I do not deny that the £1,600,000 it has contributed towards the erection and enlargement of school buildings, have added something to their numbers and still more to their convenience. But the real substantial work done by the parliamentary grant has been to give us better masters and mistresses, and to test their work by the instrumentality of inspection. And the value of the work thus done it is hardly possible to exaggerate. But beneficial as is this work of improvement, it must not be forgotten that other work has to be done, and that to provide schools where there are none, and to secure the attendance of our youthful population, are matters well deserving the attention of our legislature.

#### NECESSITY OF BOLDLY MEETING THE EDUCATION DIFFICULTY.

We must, instead of having recourse to petty and mischievous makeshifts, boldly face our difficulties, and by enlightening the public mind and awakening the public conscience, enable Parliament to supply us with the machinery which will impose on all alike the duty of providing education for our whole population. I know the objections to such a proposition, I appreciate the difficulties of carrying it; I foresee the religious controversies to which it will give rise; I admit that we run the risk of losing some considerable advantages connected with the present system; but it is my deep conviction that the balance of good lies on the side I advocate. Briefly and generally stated, my proposition would be to maintain the present system where it works well, but wherever satisfactory evidence is given that the provision of education falls short of the wants of the population, to supply the deficiency by an education rate. It is affirmed that even this partial introduction of the rating system would be the death-blow to all voluntary effort. I have no doubt that many schools now maintained with difficulty by the voluntary sacrifice of a few over-weighted men would be devolved upon the rate. But I do not believe in the extinction of the voluntary system. It is too deeply fixed in the habits of a large portion of our people; its advantages are too strongly felt, both by Church and Dissent, to be easily uprooted or readily surrendered. Nevertheless, experience has proved that the voluntary spirit, in its full power and development, is the growth of certain favourable soils, and that there are wide ungenial regions in which it can find no sufficient nutriment. In districts like the principality of Wales where the population is not collected in overpowering masses, and the voluntary system is thoroughly organized; in many of our rural parishes, where the squire and clergyman work heartily together; in those portions of the country where the rich, poor, and middle classes co-exist in fair proportions; our present system has very nearly supplied the means of education, and may be trusted to make up the deficiency within reasonable time. But in the poorer districts of our larger cities, in parishes where the clergyman struggles in vain against the niggardliness of the landowner and the apathy or hostility of the farmer; in those places, in fine, which the voluntary system, after 30 years' trial, has failed to reach, some other means more stringent and peremptory, and independent of individual caprice or illiberality, must be found. The alternative is the growth of a vast population in ignorance and vice, with ever-increasing danger to the State, and to the reproach and scandal of a civilized and Christian people.

#### DISCUSSION OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION PREMATURE.

This settlement of the question, "whether we are to have a national system of education," must, it seems to me, precede the consideration of any measure of compulsory attendance; and I confess that I should regret to see the energies of the friends of education expended in that direction. Laws of compulsory attendance may almost be said to exist only where they are not needed, as in Prussia, in some of the Swiss cantons, in Massachusetts, where the conviction of the value of education is so deep and general that the only use of such enactment is the formal recognition of the duty of parents to their children. I am satisfied that among ourselves such a law would simply be inoperative, that it would not and could not be enforced; and I would therefore venture to recommend that, placing our chief confidence in the growth of a better spirit among our people, and sparing no effort to evoke and cherish it, we should exert ourselves to obtain such indirect aid from the legislature as is suggested by the precedent of the Factory Acts. The last extension of the principle of these Acts in the Pottery districts, and to some five or six new trades, has already had the most beneficial results, unalloyed by any of the predicted inconveniences. There can be little doubt that similar regulations will shortly be extended to many other occupations, in accordance with the suggestions of the Children's Employment Commission. When this great step has been taken, and one more proof afforded of the feasibility and advantage of such legislation, Parliament will, I hope, gain courage to make one general law that no child under

twelve or thirteen years of age shall be allowed to work without producing a certificate that he is able to read and write. Such a law, accompanied by an adequate provision of schools, would not be long in conveying, even to the most ignorant and degraded of our population, that sense of the value of education which is the truest indication, as it is the fairest fruit, for advancing civilization. I will leave to others who are, I believe, prepared to address you on the subject, the task of suggesting the best means of superintending and utilizing our educational endowments. I fully recognize the importance of the subject, and the good which may result from its discussion. But it has always appeared to me doubtful whether these endowments could be made as largely and generally available for the education of the poor as some sanguine persons have supposed. Whatever changes in their administration may be effected; to whatever extent the smaller charities may be consolidated, and useless or mischievous ones devoted to the purposes of education, the present local distribution will, I apprehend, be virtually preserved. That distribution is so uneven, so widely different from the distribution of our population, that it seems inevitable that the best arrangements which can be made will only work a partial good.

#### NECESSITY FOR FEMALE EDUCATION.

There is, I am satisfied, no more crying want in our age than that of a sound and solid education for our women. I need not insist upon the immediate bearing of this subject upon that now under discussion. Education is like the cloud,—

“Which moveth altogether, if it move at all.”

Any substantial improvement in the education of our middle-classes will tell directly and powerfully on those immediately below them in the social scale. Again, one of the difficulties which retards the progress of education is the demand for male labour, sensibly limiting the supply of masters, except at rates of payment beyond the means of many of our schools. I look with hope to a remedy for this evil in the example of a country which has outstripped all others in the extent and completeness of its public system of education. In the United States of America, the work of education, not only in the elementary, but even in the more advanced classes of schools, may be said, almost without exaggeration, to be carried on by women. In the schools of Massachusetts there are 9,340 females employed as against 1,544 male teachers; and the proportions in many other states are nearly similar. The great subject, however, for our consideration is how to give to our fellow-countrymen that indispensable minimum of education which is, in the language of M. Guizot, the author of the greatest and most successful scheme of national education in our days, “the bare debt of a country towards its offspring.” “sufficient to make him who receives it a human being, and at the same time so limited that it may be everywhere realized.” The demand is so reasonable and moderate, that in a country like ours, so full of good and conscientious men, lovers of the public weal, and impatient of all recognized evils, it would seem only necessary to proclaim and prove the necessity for a remedy in order to secure its application. But, alas! the forces combined against the adoption of any comprehensive system are many and powerful. Once more we shall find arrayed against us the fears, the jealousies, and what is more formidable, the deep-seated convictions of religious bodies. Once more we shall encounter the enthusiasts of voluntary effort. And I greatly fear that the majority of our ruling classes are as yet rather inclined to self-complacent congratulation on the progress we have made than to acknowledge the necessity for renewed and more systematic exertions. It would almost seem that nothing less than one of those providential calamities which have so often roused our fellow-countrymen into wise and strenuous action will awaken them from their pleasant delusion. Fear of an Irish rebellion brought us Catholic Emancipation; an Irish famine was the death-warrant of the corn-laws; the terrible mutiny in India became, we may hope, the starting-point of a happier era for our greatest dependency; and, if I may borrow a minute example from your recent experience, I can testify to the improved perception of sanitary evils, and the alacrity and vigour infused into our sanitary legislation by the presence of the cholera. We can hardly hope for any such impulse to the cause of national education. To many the misery and debasement of so large a part of our fellow-countrymen are either unknown, or, at any rate, they do not interfere with the daily comforts and sense of security of our educated classes. The thunder-clap from Manchester, repeated, as I earnestly hope it will be, by similar investigations in our other great cities, may alarm their fears, or, better still, may touch their hearts and consciences, and rouse them into vigorous action. And I cannot doubt but that, stirred by this unexpected and appalling revelation of widespread ignorance and hopeless apathy, a younger generation of public men, some of whom perhaps now honour me with their presence and attention, will aspire worthily to complete the work of national education, so nobly begun by those

veterans of a glorious war—Lord Brougham, Lord Russell, Lord Shaftesbury, and Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth.

#### 3. EARL RUSSELL ON RELIGIOUS TEACHING.

At the Borough-road Schools, the sixty-fourth general meeting of the British and Foreign School Society was lately held. Earl Russell as usual presided.

The President, in the course of a long speech, said that he considered it a great misfortune that at the beginning of its school career, now more than 60 years ago, the Established Church did not consent to proceed on the same principle—viz., to give that religious instruction which they thought right according to the doctrines of the Church of England, but omitting all distinctive religious teaching in the schools, and combining all in their schools through the teaching of the Bible. It was a great misfortune that she then established a system of her own, but that cannot be now repaired, and we must look to other means to supply the wants of the present generation. He trusted that religious instruction would not be lost sight of in any plan of education which the Government might think fit to introduce to Parliament, and that while systematic education should pervade the land, and while schools should be established throughout it, we should be permitted to give that instruction in the Bible which had always been the mark and distinction of that society. He hoped that those who had hitherto been taxed unduly to maintain schools would no longer be called upon to bear the burden alone, but that those who have shown themselves unwilling, and yet have plenty of means, would be rated fairly to provide and maintain schools. Lord Lyveden, in moving the adoption of the report expressed a hope that in any scheme of education Government might propose, nothing would be done to damp voluntary education, believing as he did that any system of compulsory education carried out by means of rates and taxes would cramp the object instead of promoting it.

#### 4. LORD LITTLETON ON UNIVERSITY LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.

Lord Littleton presided at a public meeting held at the London University for the distribution of the certificates and prizes obtained at the last examination of students in the London centre, not members of the University. The noble Chairman in opening the business, remarked that the Oxford and Cambridge local examinations were important features in the movement in favour of what was popularly called middle-class education. Glancing at the efforts made of late years to promote education, the institution of the system of public examinations at the two ancient Universities, its recent extension to the middle-classes, and its advantages, he turned to the report of the Royal Inquiry Commissioners, which he said had placed the whole subject of national education upon a footing altogether different from that on which it formerly stood, and added that if their recommendation should receive effect it would render it impossible that the important question of the education of the people should depend any longer upon mere voluntary effort, one of the proposals being that the whole of the endowed and the private schools of the country should be placed under some general management, which should embrace the whole country. He hoped that these local examinations would receive permanent establishment in any general measure that might be adopted, because nothing could compete with the *prestige* which the high character, the antiquity, and acknowledged authority of the two great Universities of Oxford and Cambridge necessarily conferred in their certificates and honours. He recommended, in order to test the efficiency of the instruction, that in future whole classes should be sent up for examination, instead of a few prominent boys from each school. He claimed credit for the University of Cambridge, in having been the first to introduce an examination for girls, whose capacity for dealing with almost all educational subjects was, he believed, quite equal to that of boys. He deprecated the system of cramming, and quoted from the report of the Syndicate to show that in too many instances the pupils sent up from some of the private schools were little better than parrot-taught, knowing nothing really of the subjects in which they were examined, while in respect to some of the girls it was astonishing how ingenious they proved themselves in filling whole sheets of paper with well and grammatically written sentences having no meaning whatever.

#### 5. PROF. FAWCETT, M.P., ON PRACTICAL EDUCATION.

Professor Fawcett, in the course of a speech at a meeting held at Brighton, to witness the distribution of the prizes and certificates gained at the last University Local Examinations, said:—“There is a school growing up—if more prominently represented by one man than another it is by the present Chancellor of the Exchequer—”



whose tone of thought is to esteem knowledge by its practical worth; and I know it is sometimes said to a boy or a young man who distinguishes himself in mathematics, in Greek, or in Latin, what will be the use of mathematics, or of Greek, or of Latin to you in after life? Now, I think it is most important steadily to keep in view the practical use of knowledge; but what I should venture to say would be this, that after all the highest and the greatest aim of education is to train the mind. You cannot say that this boy ought to be taught certain things, and another boy ought to be taught the same things. But the great mistake that is made in education—it has been made by the universities—is to make every boy and every young man go through the same stereotyped system, based on the assumption that what is good for some must be good for all. Now, it seems to me, that the great end and aim of the teacher should be to discover the mental character and the intellectual capacity of the boy and the girl, and then to devote his chief attention to teaching that boy or girl those branches of knowledge which will develop the reasoning powers of the mind, and give a completeness and harmony to the mental faculties. Do not ever commit the fatal mistake of estimating knowledge by simply what is said to be its practical use. I remember the speech which was made by Mr. Lowe at Edinburgh. It was one of the most dangerous and mischievous speeches I ever read in my life. Mr. Lowe is an accomplished man; he is a learned man; and when he spoke to an audience of working men who had not enjoyed the same blessings of mental cultivation that he had, he ought to have raised them up to the desire of obtaining mental cultivation and obtaining more knowledge; but instead of doing this he tried to sneer at knowledge and throw contempt upon it. He said, "What is the use of mathematics?" or he said, "How very few there are who use mathematics in after life?" He said, "What is the use of Greek and Latin? how very few people in after life will be required to translate Greek or Latin, or read Greek and Latin prose." That is perfectly true; but, then, he ought to have mentioned this further fact, that to some minds there is no branch of knowledge that acts one quarter so effectively in training the mental faculty as mathematics, and Greek and Latin. Then, again, although they have no practical use—perhaps you cannot turn them to pounds, shillings, and pence—they have this practical advantage, that they give you an amount of pleasure and happiness in after life that no amount of wealth can possibly secure. How can you place a pecuniary estimate upon that knowledge, which is derived from mathematics, which will enable you to contemplate some of the hidden mysteries and marvels of the heavenly bodies? How can you place a pecuniary price upon having your mind cultivated to such an extent as to enable you to comprehend the exquisite beauty of those laws by which the motion of every star and every planet is governed? How can you set a monetary value upon that knowledge of a language which will bring you in contact with the life of one of the most remarkable civilizations that ever existed in the world, and bring you into intellectual harmony and unison with the thoughts and words of some of the greatest writers, poets, and orators who ever thought or spoke? No; all knowledge has a practical value. If you are brought up to some trade, you may not be able to use that particular knowledge. But whatever may be your future walk in life you cannot occupy a position in which a well-trained mind and a development of the reasoning powers are not of the utmost possible advantage to you. Again, I would say when you are going through the drudgery of learning the rudiments of some branch of knowledge, you may think you shall never be adequately repaid for your trouble; but however great a man's wealth may be in after life, however deeply he may have drunk of all worldly enjoyments, if he is an honest man he will tell you that the greatest pleasure which he has ever enjoyed is the pleasure which he has derived from intellectual cultivation. It will bring you an amount of pleasure which it is impossible now adequately to estimate; and you will find, year after year as you live, that one of the greatest truths to keep steadily in view is this—that knowledge ought to be loved for knowledge sake.

#### 6. MR. W. E. FORSTER, M.P., ON EDUCATION.

At a meeting held at Bradford, to unveil the monument erected to the memory of the late Mr. Oastler, Right Hon. W. E. Forster, in the course of his speech, remarked that the great evils to be dealt with at present were gross ignorance and intoxication. Something could be done by law to remove both, but much more could be done by the people themselves, and the factory system as now administered did to a great extent leave it in the power of the heads of families to do much for the education of their children, and to do much to put down the dreadful evil of intoxication. It was his place now, connected with the Government, to consider what legislation could do for the teaching of the children. The little connection he had had with the Education office did not make him one whit

the less determined that the State should do its duty in bringing means of education to all children in the country, and if the parent either could not, or would not, do his duty, and if the neighbours did not, or would not, do their duty, then he would say that the State should step in and do it for them; and so far as it was possible and just, make them pay their share of the cost. But it was very little that he could do, or that Parliament could do, or any Government could do, compared with what parents themselves could do. He adverted to the fact, notwithstanding the Factory Acts gave powers to parents to extend education to children, there was a great neglect of children before they were sent to mills, and warned parents as to the solemn duty imposed upon them to avail themselves of all opportunities for giving education to their children. He urged that they had the same power within themselves to put down and remove intoxication, and that Parliament could not relieve them from the duty of self-help in these matters.

Mr. Forster also presided on May 19th, at a great educational meeting in Leeds. He spoke at great length on the position of the education question. He said it was as impossible for the State to interfere in the matter of education as in the relief of the poor, without some degree of danger, which must be instantly guarded against. A poor man must be made to understand that education was not given as a matter of charity, but a work of co-operation. It was the duty of Government, when dealing with education, to consider the question as a great whole, and it was the business of the State to turn the universities and the endowed schools into great national institutions, to which all parties and all creeds had access. Grammar Schools had been too much forgetful of the poor, and there had been too much aping of the education of Eton. If that departure from the necessities of these days had not occurred, those secondary schools would have better answered their purposes. Speaking of the universities, he said a man could not obtain his degree until he was 22, and he complained that the time was so much longer than it used to be. Boarding schools, he considered, had arisen from the secondary classes imitating the ways of those above them. It was said they must be very careful how they changed the standard of education, that it would be disadvantageous to those who were born with silver spoons in their mouths. He believed the day was gone by when men were born rulers, and no arrangement would be more unjust to the gentlemen of England than to give them educational establishments exclusively to themselves. The more efficient the education of great schools was made, the more efficient would be the education in the schools for the poorer classes. It had been his duty to inquire into the education of the working classes, and he found unless they made these grammar schools the teachers of what was wanted, they would be no longer the schools of the greatest use—schools in which the cleverest boys of the working classes could be brought up. The great feature of his bill was to make use of these endowments for the development of talent wherever it could be found. At present, there was very little chance for a clever boy of working parents. If they were to keep pace with other countries, they could not afford to let any talent lie dormant, and they must call it out, and give it an opportunity to rise. He hoped to see every large town in the country rating itself to have one of these reformed grammar schools, because they would see how good they were; and the time would come in all elementary, national, and British Schools, when there would be exhibitions, by means of which the cleverest boys would be able to ascend to the greatest position. He was glad to find that at Birmingham, Feversham, and at other places, including Doncaster, the main provision of his bill had been anticipated. In his bill, there were two ideas—one a reform of the Endowed Schools by a temporary Commission, and the other a good system of examination, and the means of raising the educational profession by means of an Educational Council. This last idea had attracted a good deal of attention in Yorkshire. His first object was to provide some means by which the Endowed Schools, when reformed, might be kept good. He had wished to provide some machinery which should show the trustees how the masters were teaching, and also that there should be a sort of guarantee, by the granting of certificates, that the master appointed was fit for teaching. Schoolmasters were not considered, as they ought to be, as a profession—as one of the noblest professions. He sought to appoint an Educational Council, and the idea was a new one; and he thought the more schoolmasters and parents looked at it, the more they would like it. Asking what mechanics' institutions had to do with all this, he said they would be the means of providing bridges from one class of schools to another; so that the poor child should have the chance if he had the faculty, of becoming a scholar for the benefit of his country. Ignorance was weakness, and weakness meant pauperism and crime. There never was a time when people in England were more proud of the glory of their country—and he

wished to maintain it, but that could only be done by helping to make each individual stronger and increasing his culture. He would not admit secular teaching being on a par with religion, but the greater faculty you can give a boy, the better he was for the clergyman to deal with.

#### 7. REV. DR. VAUGHAN ON CLASSICS.

The Rev. Dr. Vaughan, presiding at the distribution of prizes at the Doncaster Grammar School, on Wednesday, defended classical studies in this fashion:—There was this about the study of the dead languages, that they could not change, whereas the living did. Why, if they taught a boy English to-day, it would probably be American to-morrow. There was no fixity in the living languages, whilst in the dead there was, and at the same time in the latter were the works of genius, which all the centuries that had rolled by since had not been able to arrive at. He went in for the classics thoroughly, then, and had no sympathy whatever with the modern notion that they ought to “excuse verses.” It might be an old-fashioned idea, but still he considered that the man who could not write a “verse” had not yet acquired that extraordinary nicety of language which proved him a master. But having formed the staple subjects, he would open out in all directions other branches for those who, from conformation of mind, to use a nice word, or idleness, or any other word they might adopt, were incapable of this particular study. There were boys who, if they lived a thousand years, would never be able to write a verse, and there were some heads which could never hold a sum. Indeed, he himself had known one person whom it would have taken a long time to say how many two and two made. What he objected to was this, leaving boys, because they could not do classics or mathematics, to do nothing.

#### 8. NATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS.

Earl Russell, in calling attention to some returns for which he had moved, criticised, at some length, the measures which had been taken since 1839, for improving popular education. He pronounced that our system had not been a success, inasmuch as it had failed to spread education generally and universally, though he admitted that very much good had been effected. He believed, also, that it most unfairly laid a heavy burden on the clergy, who had done their part admirably. He was persuaded that next year it would be necessary to establish a good general system. He also believed that if the rating for certain objects, such as gaols and police, should be greatly diminished, a fresh rate for education might be imposed and accepted.

Earl De Grey agreed that the present system was not altogether satisfactory; but declined to forestall the statement which the Government would, at the proper time, make of their views. Still, he thought Earl Russell had unduly depreciated the merits of the present system. The latest returns showed that it was year by year extending its usefulness. The number of schools inspected in 1868, was 15,572, being an increase on the previous year of 881; the number of children presented at inspection was 1,527,665, being an increase of 136,565; the average annual number attending was 1,241,780, which shows an increase of 94,317; the number of certificated teachers was 13,387, showing an increase of 774; the number of assistant-teachers was 1,279, being an increase of 76; and the number of pupil-teachers was 13,185, being an increase of 1,666.\* A system which provides education under the stringent regulations of the Privy Council, and under strict inspection, for an average attendance of 1,241,780 children, was a system, he thought, which was doing a good work in the country, and which, whatever arrangements might ultimately be made, we ought not hastily or rashly to interfere with.

The Duke of Marlborough observed that there was an enormous amount of work done by persons who did not bring themselves at all under the control of the Government, and whose exertions were seldom adequately appreciated. The decennial return, which resulted from the labours of the National Society, and which had only recently been printed, showed that out of a total of £8,991,000 expended in England and Wales, in the course of ten years, upon education, no less than £4,554,333 had been the result of voluntary subscription. It appeared also that from a total of 11,261 Church of England Schools, which are included in the return of those paid by the National Society, the number of those receiving aid from Parliamentary grants, was 4,690, and the number that are not receiving Parliamentary aid is 6,571. This represented an enormous amount of voluntary effort existing in the Church of England.

The Marquis of Salisbury warned the House against the dangers that would be incurred by the imposition of a general education

rate. Five-sixths of the wealth of the country, owing to the want of uniformity in our system, now escaped taxation; and if the land had to bear the additional expense of National Education, it would create a spirit of resistance, which would secure for the system an amount of unpopularity, which no improvement in education would suffice to counterbalance. He also reminded the House, that the moment an appeal was made to rates, voluntary subscriptions would be killed.

The Bishop of London upheld the statement of the Duke of Marlborough, with regard to the number of satisfactory schools that were beyond the cognizance of the Privy Council.

#### 9. NATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Mr. Melly calls the attention of the House to the number of young children in our large towns who are growing up without any education, unaffected either by the educational clauses of the Factory Act or by voluntary efforts. He contended that the information necessary for framing a large measure of education was not in the hands of the Government. They were still without any information with respect to the condition of the large class of children to be found in the streets of our large towns. In such towns the parochial system had broken down, and had not been supplemented by any municipal system.

He would take the case of the three greatest cities in the empire, Liverpool, Manchester, and Birmingham, which contained an aggregate population of 1,219,000. In those towns, private charity and voluntary effort, as well as public action prevailed to a remarkable degree. The time and money expended on education was considerable; and yet he could state, from trustworthy information given to him, that of 94,000 children lately visited in those three towns, 25,000 were at school, 29,000 were neither at work nor at school, and 12,000 were at work. The returns furnished by the Registrar-General showed that in these three towns there were 252,000 children of school age. Of these, 56,000 were receiving education in schools which were aided by grants from the Privy Council. Not more than 122,000 could be said to attend any school whatever, and from 65,000 to 75,000 were growing up without any education whatever, being entirely unaffected by education clauses, the Industrial Schools Act, or voluntary effort. This was the result of the *laissez faire* policy of leaving almost everything to voluntary effort. The lesser kinds of crime were on the increase among the juvenile population in these towns. The number of juveniles apprehended in 1861 was only 1,549; in 1868 it was 3,728. He believed that judicious expenditure on schools would increase the wealth of the nation.

There were in England 80 Industrial Schools, containing 5,465 children, the expense to the State being £68,000 a year. These schools were, in fact, boarding-schools, costing £18 a head. In an economical point of view such schools were indefeasible, and he believed they produced the most inimical effects on the honest and industrial poor. Education should not be entirely separated from maintenance. The State could well afford the one, but to give the other would pauperise the nation. Nor could the object be effected through such a Bill as that of the Home Secretary or the Vice-President of the Council, compelling the erection of rated schools. That would be a step in the right direction, but it would not go far enough.

This was illustrated by the experience of the Manchester and Birmingham Education Aid Societies. Those societies had tried the experiment of free schools, and what was the result? The Manchester Society issued 35,000 tickets for their free school, but such was the apathy and indifference, that 9,000 of the tickets were not used. In the first year only 74 per cent. of the tickets were used; in the second year, only 54 per cent.; in the third, 45 per cent.; in the fourth, 37 per cent.; and in the fifth, when the operations of the society had become much restricted, the proportion was 60 per cent. Moreover, the great number of tickets issued only increased the gross school attendance by 2,875 children. In Birmingham, out of 4,729 tickets issued only 3,000 were used, and the school attendance was increased by 2,800.

The Committee of the Birmingham Society said in their report that, having fairly tested the matter, they found that there were two classes of poor—one who could not afford to send their children to school, and another who cared nothing at all about education, and they were forced to the conclusion that the children belonging to the last class could only be brought under education by a compulsory law. He would now proceed to the principal point, which he wished to argue. He believed that the only legislation by which they could meet the evil was legislation which would enforce the attendance of children at school in our great cities. There were ample precedents for such interference on the part of Parliament. If the Legislature enforced vaccination, why should it not enforce

education? As regarded the Factory Act, there was this extraordinary state of things, that while children who were learning habits of obedience, order, and industry, were obliged to go to school, those who were in the streets learning all sorts of vice were left to themselves.

The head of the Poor Law Board had remarked that making education compulsory would be only a natural consequence of the law that made the maintenance of children compulsory on the community. In this year's reports from the Inspectors of Schools, no less than eleven out of twenty-eight Inspectors advocated compulsory attendance at schools.

He would, in the first place, buy or build free municipal schools, and plant them like Martello towers against intemperance and pauperism, and he would support them to the extent of two-thirds by a rate, and to the extent of one-third by a grant from the Privy Council-office, but this third should only be paid on condition that the schools came up to the standard of efficiency stipulated for by the Privy Council. He would also have school beaules appointed by the schoolmasters or by the Town Council, and they should have power to summon any child found in the streets between nine and twelve in the morning and two and five in the afternoon, and he would do nothing more.

He believed that by giving such powers to the municipalities of the great cities, and by compelling them to erect schools and rate the inhabitants for their support, they would sweep the streets of hundreds of thousands of children, and accomplish the object he had in view. He admitted that we had a magnificent system of denominational schools, in which 1,500,000 of our population were instructed, but as regarded the poorest classes they were not affected by these schools; the children who were at present being educated in them were rather those of the poorer portion of the middle class and the artisans. It was a great mistake to suppose that the working class consisted of only one class. He believed that a system of free secular schools with compulsory attendance would give a great impetus to education, and parents would send their children in larger numbers than they did at present.

Mr. Dixon stated that in Birmingham there were 55,000 children of the working class of school age, that about 20,000 were in schools, and 35,000 attending no school whatever; that the parish authorities had failed to enforce the Denison Act; and that the Factory Act had emptied the factories without filling the schools. He argued that our school system must base itself on taxation, and that our schools must be unsectarian and free.

Mr. Fawcett agreed with the conclusion of the Duke of Newcastle's Committee that the Privy Council Grant could never be expended in a thoroughly National system of Education. What was wanted was a compulsory rate and a compulsory attendance, the latter because there was actually at present more school accommodation than there were children. This want of education resulted from a combination of motives, including the ignorance, poverty, and selfishness of the parents. Some parents were too ignorant to appreciate the advantages of education for their children. Others were too poor, and a third class too selfish. Surely if they could compel working children to go to school, they had tenfold more right to coerce the idle. Enforce attendance, and there was an end of the principal argument against compulsory rating, for he could not for one moment accept the doctrine, that there was no connection between the spread of education and the diminution of crime. If, then, the taxpayer complained, they would be enabled to reply, 'Bear this additional burden for a few years, and you will see a great reduction in the rates, which are now swelled by pauperism and crime.' He thought that education as well as pauperism and crime should be partly a local and partly an imperial charge, for in that way they would secure local administration, with its attendant economy, and they would make a large portion of the wealth of the country which now escaped local taxation contribute its share.

As to the religious difficulty, he did not think that it was insurmountable. At all events the country was beginning to resolve that sectarian rivalry should no longer stand in the way of the education of the people. He did not wish to introduce irreligious education; but, as practical men, they must see that schools supported by rates must be made entirely undenominational. If, however, any one liked to have denominational schools, they might escape the school rate, for it need not be levied in any district which the Government Inspector reported to be sufficiently provided; and so he saw no reason why the two systems should not work side by side. We should only require compulsory instruction for a single generation.

Mr. M. Pattison, one of the Commissioners of 1861, said, in his report on education in Germany, that the school was compulsory there only in name—it had become so deeply rooted in the social habits of the German people, that, if the law were repealed to-morrow, the schools would continue to be as full as they now were, yet

the Home Secretary last year, after citing these words, went on to say that those who demanded compulsory education were striving for what was Quixotic and impracticable.

Mr. Alderley admitted that in the great towns which had been referred to there was no lack of school accommodation; so that what we really wanted seemed to be merely increased police powers. As to enquiry, there had certainly been enough of that. He believed, however, that the subject would best be dealt with by further minutes of the Privy Council, for he did not think the present system had been fairly tried, and he had a great objection to embark in new remedies till the old ones had been exhausted. He should be glad to see the denominational system carried out. He thought that even now a hybrid bill enabling large towns to rate themselves for educational purposes would confer a great benefit.

Mr. Buxton said that the real question was whether the machinery proposed could be carried out. The proposition that the police should catch all the idlers, and send them to school every day seemed to him to be absurd, because it would occupy all their time. He was opposed to the revolutionary measure of the hon. member for Brighton, and thought that there was great force in the objection that unless the parents consented to send their children to school the compulsory system would fail.

The next proposal was to get rid of the voluntary system, and make the schools public institutions, supported by the rates. There might have been some jealousy of the Church obtaining the leading part in the management of the schools, but the clergy had shown so liberal and unsectarian a spirit in the education of the people that there was no ground for such jealousy, and in his opinion the nation owed a debt of gratitude to the clergy for their self-sacrifice and devotion to the cause of education. What really was the present state of this educational question? They already had a gigantic machinery at work with the full concurrence of the country, and which though not so fruitful as they had hoped, yet had wrought effects of infinite value. Already one in 7.7 of the whole population was on the school books, while in the best educated countries in the world the proportion did not exceed 6.25. Nor was it for want of the machinery that the proportion was not far larger. It was only in a limited degree that the still existing lack of education was owing to the want of school accommodation and appliances, but to the apathy of the parents of children. At Manchester, for instance, the Education Aid Society issued tickets to the children of the poor, which would have furnished them with schooling had the parents cared to use them. And yet in December, 1866, out of 21,000 children who had received such tickets less than 10,000 were found to be at school, and he saw no reason for believing that the proposed change from voluntary support to a general system of education rates would have any marked effect in curing this great evil.

It would be rash to sweep away a great system which had been long established, which had rather grown of itself as it were from natural roots, in the conscientious benevolence of the people, than been forced upon them from without, and which, though not perfect, had at any rate worked marvellously well, and was becoming every day more efficient. As Lord de Grey showed the other evening, in last year the number of schools inspected had increased by a thousand; the number of children present at inspection was more than a million and a half, being an increase of 136,000; the average nominal number attending was 1,241,000, being an increase of little less than an hundred thousand; while the numbers of certified teachers, of assistant-teachers, and of pupil-teachers were all largely increased.

The system then was not a decaying one, nor a stationary one, it was a growing, a vigorous, a flourishing system, it was one really adapted to the feelings and the wishes of the people. Another difficulty really must be taken into account. The pressure of rates was really a crushing burden on the people, and was producing very disastrous effects. It was causing great suffering; was sinking many into pauperism; and greatly discouraging the building of houses for the poor. It would be a serious thing to increase this distressing burden, and he could not but think it somewhat rash to throw the weight of supporting our schools upon this precarious and painful source of income, and thus to extinguish, as they certainly would, the voluntary contributions, amounting, at the present time, to half a million per annum.

He would not now touch upon the religious difficulty beyond observing that it did not arise, as many seemed to think, from a mere sectarian bigotry; the people in this country had a profound conviction, which ought not to be treated with contempt, that their children ought to be brought up in the fear of God, and with a knowledge of their Christian duty, and no system could flourish that did not fully recognise and respect that feeling. Upon the whole, he thought that the country was not at all prepared for the radical change indicated in the amendment of his hon. friend.



Lord Sandon argued that the accounts with regard to destitute children were so diverse that before affecting any great change in the educational system it would be well to have more accurate returns. He did not believe the country was prepared for a great change, or that the artisan class would be content with an education that was not distinctively religious.

Mr. W. E. Forster thanked Mr. Melly for the great pains he had taken in the cause of education. He also agreed that the class of children of which he had spoken ought to be considered apart from other classes. These children escaped education because there was no co-operation by the parents. The consequence was that they were ready to become members of the dangerous classes.

The time for comprehensive measure was come. It would have been quite impossible, however, to introduce now a measure which would occupy almost the entire session. He believed, it would be impossible to deal with the question by any mere alteration in the present minutes of the Revised Code, for the House would not, he thought, consent to make such changes as would be necessary to turn the present system into a national one. It was one of the hardest problems any Government could have to solve, how to change the present partial denominational system into a national system without injuring the present system. They wanted to touch those who were not reached by voluntary efforts. He confesses he had lost hope that the present system could do much more than keep pace with the increase of population among that class who frequented the schools. The hard-working artisan who cared about education took advantage of the present system; the man who could be persuaded by religious bodies to entrust them with the care of his children availed himself of it; but those whom they had to deal with were neither of these classes, and the danger arose from that cause.

There was another important branch of the subject. Although neither the House nor the country would consent to one religious denomination being aided more than another, or to the public money being given for religious teaching, yet there was a strong feeling in the country that they should in no way interfere with or discourage religious teaching. A very large number of working-men care about religious teaching, and he did not believe any measure would be popular which tended in any way to check it.

There was many other difficulties. There was the difficulty of rating; the difficulty of giving aid from the Consolidated Fund; and the difficulty as to the securities which should be given for good teaching. Then they came to the two questions, whether schools ought to be free or not, and whether they should look forward to compulsory attendance. The time had not come for expressing an opinion on either of these points; but he must say he believed that the establishment of free schools in large towns would, to a large extent, have the effect of swallowing up all the other schools, or making it necessary that they should be free also. As to the question of compulsory attendance, he thought the argument that it would be un-English was an absurd one, and it was an argument the force of which was destroyed by the Legislature's having compelled the parents of children who were at work to send them for education. But while he was of that opinion, he must say that he thought there would be great difficulty, considering the English mode of government and English ideas, in putting the machinery for compulsory education in operation, and making the law anything more than a *brutum fulmen*. The experience of Germany had often been cited. In that country compulsion was not necessary now, because every parent sent his child without any compulsion; but he believed that if compulsion had not been provided for, the same result would not have been witnessed. America was rather more in point, and the experience of New England in this matter was rather curious. The Rev. Mr. Fraser, who was sent out as an education commissioner to the United States, made a most able report, in which he stated that there were compulsory laws in New England for the attendance of children at school. This was afterwards denied by Mr. Elihu Burritt, and Mr. Adams declared that Mr. Burritt was right and Mr. Fraser wrong. When Mr. Fraser was asked how he came to make such a statement, he proved that such an Act was in existence; but it afterwards turned out that though the Act existed, it was so contrary to American feeling that it had not been made use of for so long a period, that its existence was forgotten. He believed that attempts had recently been made to put an Act in operation, but he did not know with what success.

Allusion had been made to the number of Bills that had been brought forward on the subject of education. The year before last his right hon. friend the Home Secretary and himself tried their hand at legislation, and their experience showed the difficulties which surrounded the question. Public opinion made marked progress between that period and last year. Whereas, the year before last the measure was only for permissive rating, it afterwards contained a power of compulsory rating in those districts in which it

could be proved that there was no other mode of providing schools. They discovered that the converts they obtained were, generally speaking, a few months later than the time at which it would have been possible to pass the Bill proposed. Very powerful support was given to the Bill of 1867, when they found it necessary to bring in the Bill of 1868. That only showed that not only had they to deal with a difficult subject, but with a changing and a progressive opinion. It was the duty of Government to take up the question, and it must be dealt with in a comprehensive manner.

Mr. Mundella said Germany had been spoken of as a country that was governed by centralisation, but it could not be said that Switzerland was so governed. He was familiar with Switzerland and Saxony. He had gone through Saxony, where he had been an employer of labour, and he had never, in the city, in the fields, or in the mountains there, met a child ten years of age who could not read and write with facility. More than that, he was borne out by a return which was made to this House last year. Lord Stanley, who was then Foreign Secretary, requested the Secretary of Legation at Berne to prepare a return. That return was of a remarkable character, and it completely upset all the theories that had been advanced against compulsory education. Mr. Rumble in that report said that in Switzerland the people were proud of their institutions, and convinced that the only sound and lasting basis of them was to be found in as widespread a scheme of public education as possible; and he went on to show that after little more than thirty years the state of education was such that they could state in sober truth that hardly a child in the Confederation was incapable of reading and writing with facility, unless physically and mentally incapable. Mr. Rumble attributed this to compulsory education; and showed that although only thirty years had elapsed since it was established, compulsion was no longer necessary. He himself had examined large schools in Saxony, and conversed with the heads of schools, and they had assured him over and over again that the idea that we had that it would be necessary to call in the aid of the police was absurd. In Switzerland, in the canton of Zurich, they had an Educational Board. The children were all registered, and every house was registered, and every child of six years of age was required to attend school, and continue at school until it was twelve. If the parent did not send the child the schoolmaster reported him to the Educational Board, who fined him a franc or two, and it was considered there to be as disgraceful for a man to refuse education to his child as to refuse it food or clothing.

He could never realise to his mind that we could not accomplish the same thing as was accomplished in Switzerland by the will of the people. He believed there was no public opinion so growing in this country as that which was favourable to compulsory education. He believed that if the people were educated the cost would be amply compensated for by the decrease of pauperism and crime, and by the absence of that squalor and misery which they now saw in their large towns.

He had taken the statistics of 12,000 persons employed in labour, and not 20 per cent. could write a letter decently, and he did not think that 50 per cent. of them could write at all. That was a disgrace to the country, and he hoped they would soon agree on a measure to give education not only to the children in large towns, but to every child in the country.

Mr. Jacob Bright remarked that in his intercourse with working-men he always found that they cared very little about theological teaching, and he believed they would always send their children where they could get the best secular instruction.

Sir John Pakington believed that two things were necessary to secure a satisfactory solution of this question. The first was that there should be a strong Government, and the second was that that Government should be determined to settle the question. Now the first of these requirements they already had, and the only thing that remained was to see whether they would grapple in a determined spirit with this matter. It could scarcely be expected that they should bring forward a measure this session, because there was already sufficient business to occupy their entire attention; but he hoped that next year they would see their way to dealing with it. He had changed the opinion which he had often expressed, which was that the present system of education had been tried enough, and that what they wanted was a better one.

Mr. Alderman Carter, thought that all the ignorance of the country was not concentrated, as some hon. members seemed to suppose, in the large towns, but the rural districts had their full share. He knew well the feeling of the working classes, and he had no hesitation in saying that in the large towns the people were almost unanimously in favour of the compulsory system. They were satisfied that the present denominational system had failed to reach and educate the great masses, and therefore they must have a system which would not merely take hold of the pauper, the criminal, and those who were connected with them, but would

reach that class which happened to be between these, and thus prevent them from becoming criminals.

## II. Papers on Practical Education.

### 1. HINTS ON THE MANAGEMENT OF SCHOOLS.

1. *Stop Disorder at its Outset.*—I cannot begin with a more important maxim than the Latin adage, *Obsta principiis*. Take your stand against the beginnings of evil. We are all so much the creatures of habit that any disposition of long standing is well-nigh unalterable, however slight and tractable it may have been at the first. Applying this principle, then, to matters of government, we see that the slightest inclination to disorder in any boy, if not corrected at the first, will become a confirmed aversion to the restraints of authority. Nor is this all. The leaven of confusion which entered at one point in the person of a single boy, if not removed at once, spreads with no tardy motion through the whole mass; so that, whereas you had at the first only one erring spirit to be guided back into the right path, you have now a whole flock scattered hither and thither over the deserts of anarchy and disorder.

2. *Punishments.*—Be careful to provide yourself with legitimate means of enforcing your orders, and do not give way to any mawkish sentimentality which may seek to deprive you of the needful resources of discipline. If proper modes of punishment be disallowed, the ruler, disarmed of his proper implements, is apt to use such as are improper, and thus at once impair his own authority, and occasion far greater suffering (or even downright injury) to the governed. Deprive the schoolmaster of his cane, and he will be in danger of using his hands in a way that may seriously hurt the children. Besides, the mere presence of such a resource imparts at once a confidence to the one side, and a wholesome awe at the other; so that all occasion for punishment is commonly prevented. So nearly are subjects concerned in the maintenance of a proper armoury at the right hand of the throne.

3. *General Confusion.*—Should any general confusion arise—a most improbable contingency in a well-governed school—it becomes needful to strike a blow which shall be felt by each individually. A punishment affecting all, as detaining all till order be restored, will not work with large bodies in a high state of disorder, because the ferment is great, and there is a sympathetic force capable of sustaining a blow aimed at the body collective. Therefore you must affect each scholar individually, as by denouncing a punishment to be inflicted in case of continued confusion on an individual out of every class, &c., to be reported by the several monitors.

4. *Threats.*—Avoid threatening, particularly public threatening. It is an avowal that you cannot govern without punishment. If a boy disobeys you, require him to come to your desk, or to speak with you privately after school. So your authority will be more felt by the school. When you find it needful to give a warning, this warning must be to the individual privately. But the great support of authority is to adjudge punishment without any previous threat upon the commission of a known offence.

5. *Avoid Needless Collision.*—There is not in the whole art of government a more important principle than this. Many rules, like medicines, are for the curing of disease; this is for preventing them. Inexperienced rulers are commonly on the look-out for every trifling thing which may bear even the semblance of a slight on their authority. Thus it often happens that a frame of mind in a scholar perfectly natural and innocent, as a sense of disappointment at some failure in his work, a momentary inattention, or a smile at some playful thought, being crossed by the needless interference of the ruler, is raised into a tumult of antagonism. Make it a rule never to interfere without necessity, and remember that though there must be restraints in the background, the less they are felt the better. You will never give an order unnecessarily, nor make it needlessly difficult of execution.

6. *No Vindictive Feeling in Punishment.*—I need hardly say that all punishment must be administered more in sorrow than in anger—nay, if possible, without anger at all. To be effective, punishment must be felt as the voice of reason quelling the disorders of our passions; but how can this be so if the very source from which the punishment springs be a vindictive passion in the ruler? In such a case, will not the evil passions of the boy rather gain strength by conflict with those of the master, and like a stream pent up for a while by opposing force, ultimately burst its barriers, and spread ruin and desolation before it?

7. *Treatment of New Comers.*—It often happens that too much is expected of children newly entered in a school. They cannot all at once become pliant to a system of government to which they are strangers. The best course is to start a school with a small number of scholars. These are soon brought into training by firmness

and gentleness on the part of the master. When this has been accomplished, admit more, but do so very gradually. Thus the new comers, being a small body as compared with the children who have been under training, will conform to the conduct of the latter (the larger mass), and, by a process easy, healthful, and expeditious, will acquire their tone and character.

8. *Signals.*—It is deserving of notice that signals are of great use in the conveyance of orders; indeed, it may be laid down as a general rule that, wherever you can express your will in this way as clearly as by words, a signal is to be preferred. When given with ease and calmness, it is an eminently dignified mode of expression; it exercises the eye of those to whom it is addressed, and it prevents the voice of the master from becoming a hackneyed and wearisome sound in the ears of the children.

9. *Silence.*—There is one more point so conducive both to discipline and teaching that it may serve at once as a conclusion to this part of our treatise, and an introduction to the next. It is the importance of guarding against noise, of maintaining a general hush, and introducing occasionally a short period of perfect silence. As regards discipline, it is obvious that the practice here recommended is peculiarly humanizing in its effects; room is given for serious thoughts, the beauty of order is felt, humility is insensibly instilled, and every one is made to feel that he is a member of a society, and must curb his own selfish emotions by a regard for the comfort and good of others. And in teaching, it is equally obvious that in proportion as the mind of the scholar is kept free from the prepossession of other sounds, the gentle voice of instruction will find a ready entrance.—*English Educational Record.*

### 2. OBJECT TEACHING.

#### A VISIT TO THE FIRST OBJECT SCHOOL, ESTABLISHED IN PHILADELPHIA SEVEN OR EIGHT YEARS SINCE.

Whatever difference of opinion there may be among educators in regard to the efficiency of schools of this class, there can be little or none as respects their influence in primary teaching. In the present instance, having been an observer of the progress of this school during a period of four or five years, I have come to the conclusion that the plan of teaching by objects, pictures and familiar illustrations, is not only vastly more attractive to youth, as exciting interest in scholastic studies, by producing habits of observation, but that it affords the greatest aid to progress in such studies.

Such suggestions as the above will be at once appreciated by visiting the school-room of Anna Dickson, at No. 112 South Eighth street, Philadelphia, where the walls of the room are literally covered with diagrams in attractive colors, representing geometrical truths; objects in natural history, such as beasts, birds, fish and insects; varieties of the most valuable maps representing physical features of continents and countries; also, many illustrations of orthography, &c.—all of which are adapted to lay the foundation of a thorough system of instruction. From a few of the rudimentary exercises, it will be seen that considerable proficiency in the elements of school learning has been obtained, when the ages of the pupils are taken into consideration.

When I entered the school-room the pupils were about being exercised in examples of rather a novel form in division. A certain number of dollars was expressed in figures, as, for instance, 242, 324. From this it was required to determine how many three-dollar, five-dollar, ten-dollar, fifty-dollar and five-hundred-dollar bills could be obtained; the pupils being required, in the same connection, to give the surplus dollars. Very soon they manifested an appreciation of the question, although, from the enunciation of it, the *modus operandi* was somewhat disguised.

The next performance was an exercise in *phonetic spelling*, I was informed by the teacher that such exercises were now becoming frequent in the public schools of the city. The members of the class acquitted themselves very intelligently, as was often evinced by their criticism, shown by the raising of hands when a failure was obvious to them.

On more than one occasion in this school, I have remarked, the proficiency of the pupils in natural history, they distinguishing readily the classes and orders without hesitation, the habits being given of any particular domestic or wild animal. I have also been equally gratified with remarking their readiness in physical geography, history, &c.

As I have been indulged in considerable privileges in this seminary, I gave, on the occasion of this visit, a few exercises, a specimen of which will be given. In the first place, I was anxious to obtain an average of the pupils' ages. The question was addressed to the teacher, but she referred it to her scholars—having ascertained, first, that the respective ages stood, omitting fractional parts, nearly as follows: two of six, four of seven, one of eight, four of nine, six of ten, two of eleven, and two of twelve—making

in all twenty-one pupils, and altogether embracing an amount of 190 years. Several of the class suggested the dividing of this number (190) by 21—giving a result a little more than nine years for each pupil.

Another problem was assigned them. I gave the following, viz: The time-pieces of Italy are represented to run on to 24 o'clock; it is required to find how many strokes one of their clocks will make in a week? When the class understood the question definitely, that is, that the strokes of the next hour after 12 would be 13, the problem was soon solved, as the whole number, up to 24, inclusive, were added, which would give the number in the 24 hours, or day and night. This, having been multiplied by 7, gave the number of strokes in a week.

This being done, I told the class there was a shorter way of working the problem, which I would perform, and ask them to explain the operation. I added the first and last of the 24 numbers together, and then multiplied the sum by 12, this giving the first result of 300. It was plain to be seen that the answer was the same they had wrought out, but they did not exactly see the relation of the 12 to the numbers used, or comprehend why it was taken as a multiplier. As no member of the class had even studied arithmetical progression, I did not attempt to explain the principle of the operation, except by employing its application, to numbers similarly related; but when they found that by taking such a series as 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7, and adding the first and last of these, and multiply by half the number of terms, the same result was attained as when the series was added, they were delighted with the experiment, and asked for more problems of the same kind.—*Humanitas, in Pennsylvania School Journal.*

### 3. PROFESSOR DANA ON PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

The following extract, from Dana's Manual of Geology, will be interesting, probably, to some of our readers, who may be glad to have their attention called to the matter of the extract, while others may like to be introduced to what is, we believe, considered to be the standard American work on Geology.

It is, of course, impossible to give an accurate knowledge of any of the Phenomena of Physical Geography to those who have not previously acquired a knowledge of the effects of heat, and we suppose the time will come when it will be recognised as essential that all schools should supply instructions on such subjects. Perhaps a statement of some of the results of scientific research may excite a desire for further information.

#### DISTRIBUTION OF FOREST-REGIONS, PRAIRIES, AND DESERTS.

The laws of the winds are the basis of the distribution of sterility and fertility.

1. The warm tropical winds, or trades, are moist winds; and, blowing against cooler land, or meeting cooler currents of air, they drop the moisture in rain or snow. Consequently, the side of the continents or of an island struck by them, that is the eastern, is the moister side.

2. The cool extra tropical winds from the westward and high latitudes are only moderately moist (for the capacity for moisture depends on the temperature); blowing against a coast, and bending towards the equator, they become warmer, and continue to take up more moisture as they heat up; and hence they are drying winds. Consequently, the side of a continent struck by these westerly currents, that is the western, is the drier side.

There is, therefore, double reason for the difference in moisture between the opposite sides of a continent.

Consequently, the annual amount of rain falling in tropical South America is 116 inches, while on the opposite side of the Atlantic it is 76 inches. In the temperate zone of the United States, east of the Mississippi, the average fall is about 44 inches, in Europe only 32. America is hence, as styled by Professor Guyot, the Forest Continent; and where the moisture is not quite sufficient for forests, she has her great prairies or pampas.

For particular latitudes of western coasts most affected by the drying westerly winds, those between 28° and 32° are sometimes excessively arid, and sometimes true deserts.

The desert of Atacama, between Chili and Peru, the semi-desert of California, the desert of Sahara, and the arid plains of Australia lie in these latitudes. The aridity on the North American coast is felt even beyond Oregon through half the year. The snowy peak of Mount St. Helen's, 16,000 feet high, in latitude 43°, stands for weeks together without a cloud. The region of the Sacramento has rain ordinarily only during three or four months of the year.

As the first high lands struck by moist winds usually take away the moisture, these winds afterwards have little or none for the lands beyond. Here is the second great resource of desert regions. For this reason, the region of the eastern Rocky Mountains slope,

and the summits of these mountains are dry and barren; and, on the same principle, an island like Hawaii has its wet side and its excessively dry side.

Under the influence of the two causes, Sahara is continued in an arid country across from Africa over Arabia and Persia to Mongolia, or the Desert of Gobi, in Central Asia.

It is well for America that her great mountains stand in the far west, instead of on her eastern borders, to intercept the atmospheric moisture, and pour it immediately back into the ocean. The waters of the great Gulf of Mexico (which has almost the area of the United States east of the Mississippi), and those of the Mediterranean, are a provision against drought for the continents adjoining. It is bad for Africa that her loftiest mountains are on her eastern border.

It is thus seen that prairies, forest regions, and deserts are located by the winds and temperature in connection with the general configuration of the land.

The movements of the atmosphere and oceans' waters, and the surface arrangements of heat and cold, drought and moisture, sand plains and verdure, have a comprehensive disposing cause in the simple rotation of the earth. Besides giving an east and west to the globe, and zones from the poles to the equator, this rotation has made an east and west to the atmospheric and oceanic movements, and thence to the continents, causing the eastern borders of the oceans and land to differ in various ways from the western, and producing corresponding peculiarities over their broad surface. The continents, though in nearly the same latitudes on the same sphere, have thence derived many of those diversities of climate and surface which, through all epochs to the present, have impressed on each an individual character, an individuality apparent even in its plants and animals. The study of the existing fauna and flora of the earth brings out this distinctive character of each with great force; but the review of geological history makes it still more evident, by exhibiting the truth in a continued succession of faunas and floras, giving this individuality a history looking back to "the beginning."

The great truth is taught by the air and waters, as well as by the lands, that the diversity about us, which seems endless and without order, is an exhibition of perfect system under law. If the earth has its barren ice fields about the poles, and its deserts, no less barren, towards the equator, they are not accidents in the making, but results involved in the scheme from its foundation.—*English Papers for the Schoolmaster.*

## III. Papers on Farming and Agriculture.

### I. INFLUENCES AGAINST INDUCING BOYS TO FARM.

I live, when I can, in the country, though most of my sleeping, and nearly all my waking hours, are given to work which calls me to the city. My neighbours are mainly farmers, generally in fair circumstances, whose children are fairly educated, or may be if they will. I regret to say that a majority of them prefer not to follow their father's vocation, but want to live by trade, by office, or something else than farming. And the reason to my mind, is clear: *their education and their whole intellectual culture lead away from the farm. Their school-books contain nothing calculated to make them love agriculture, or qualify them to excel in it; their fireside reading is not of chemistry, geology, and the related sciences, but of knights and fairies, troubadours and tournaments—in short, all things calculated to make them detest farming as a coarse, plodding, hum-drum pursuit, fit only for inveterate dunces and illiterate boors. I protest against this as false, and pernicious, and demand an education and a literature which should win our farmer's sons to prize and honor the calling of their fathers.*

A political economist has observed that labour, unless used at the moment of production, is lost forever. In most vocations, it is impossible to produce beyond the day's needs. The doctor can only cure diseases as they manifest themselves; the best lawyer cannot anticipate next year's legal business; the carpenter and mason cannot build houses except as they are wanted. The farmer, on the contrary, may grow corn or cattle, flax, wool, or cotton in excess of the current demand, and store it against the time of need. Better still, he may drain, and subsoil, and fertilize; may plant trees, and graft, and prune, so as to double his product in the future by a judicious expenditure of effort in the present. If a hundred thousand additional lawyers and doctors were let loose upon the community, I do not feel sure that the net result would be more justice or less disease and death, while I am quite sure that the national wealth would not be increased thereby; but a hundred thousand enlightened, efficient farmers, added to those we already have, could hardly fail to add one hundred millions per annum to the property which shall be the heritage of our children.

My countrymen! let us each do his best to increase the proportion of useful workers to pestilent idlers in the community. Nay, more, let us try to increase the proportion of producers to exchangers or distributors of wealth. Fences, and padlocks, and policemen, and revenue officers, may be necessities of our present condition—I presume them to be so; but we might have our country so well fenced, and padlocked, and policed, that we should all starve to death. There is no shadow of danger that too few will seek to live by law, physic, trade, etc., etc., while there is great danger that trade and the professions will be overcrowded, to the neglect and detriment of productive industry. Let us face the foe that menaces our position, and defeat him if we can.—*Horace Greeley, in "Hearth and Home."*

## 2. WHY DO NOT FARMERS' BOYS STAY AT HOME?

Four-fifths of the country-born boys of to-day are planning to leave home just as soon as the law releases them from parental obligation. They propose to go into the insurance business, be clerks or book-keepers in some village or city store, conductors or drivers of street railroad cars, baggage-masters, freight-checkers, or brakemen—in short to be one of the million scramblers for some place that they deem preferable to a life on a farm.

Why is this? We attribute it mainly to the unattractiveness of our country homes, and the endless toil and meagre pay that the business of farming seems to involve.

Your restless boy of sixteen occasionally goes to the village or city. He sees in both neat, well-painted, well-kept houses, made more or less attractive and beautiful by a surrounding of fruit and ornamental trees, with here and there a patch of flowers. He sees men that begin their work for the day at seven o'clock and end at six, reading their daily paper, or chatting on the street, neatly dressed, and apparently in the full enjoyment of a happy and hopeful life. More than this, he sees other boys of his own age, and those older grown, that supply from pockets full of money all the little needs that boys as well as men always have.

At home all is different. The house, inside and out, is unattractive. The parlour has the furniture in it that was a part of his mother's dower, placed there twenty or thirty years ago. Nothing has been added or changed, and, dismal as it is, it is never opened more than two or three times a year. The sitting-room is a poor edition of the parlour. Half-a-dozen stiff, wood-bottomed chairs, standing in exactly the same position, hold silent court on the rag carpet-covered floor three hundred and sixty-five days in the year. The kitchen, usually the living-room, where the meals are all and always taken, is dingy with smoke and redolent of the fumes of burnt grease or boiled cabbage, and hot from the heat of a cooking stove and the steam of boiling kettles. His sleeping-room is uncarpeted, unadorned, and utterly unattractive; his bedstead one that his great-great-grandmother had given her out of her great-great-grandfather's portion, that came to him from the division of the household stuff that came over in the "Mayflower." There is not a picture, or a pleasant attractive, or beautiful thing in the whole house.

Outside, the look is little, if any better. There are few, if any trees; no flowers except marigolds and hollyhocks; no neat door, yard, fence, or spacious lawn—in fact, nothing inside or out to attract the boy, born with more or less of the nineteenth century in him, to his country home.

Generally at break of day he is called up. Milking and other chores fill up his time till the breakfast hour—probably before six—and then stern, relentless work till milking and chores again, and then night, with its brief and burdened rest.

If all this toil purchased respite by and by, or the means to gratify some healthy desire or taste, it could be cheerfully endured; but usually the work is all but endless, and when he has some little wants of his own that it would take but a few shillings, or a few dollars to satisfy, he is many and most times forced to forego the good or pleasure for lack of funds.

Why should the boy remain at home? What is there among its belongings or its surroundings to call forth his love? What gratification to-day or hope for to-morrow does it bring him? The truth is, he would be a fool if he did not go.

How can he be kept at home? By giving him there all and more than he can find elsewhere. Begin with the inside of the house. Make the parlour a place of beauty. Paint and whitewash, and wall-paper, and bordering, and a pretty carpet, and a few chairs, with a few fancy things, and here and there a picture well hung—costing, in all, but a few dollars—will make your stiff and unattractive room something that has about it a cheerful, pleasant look; and when it is thus fixed, at the risk of letting in a particle of dust, let the door sometimes stand ajar, and if your boy occasionally looks in or walks in to read a book for a minute, or look at the pic-

tures, with his dirty boots even, let him. It will not hurt the carpet as much as it will him if he is kept out. And so of the other rooms; give them an air of something above—at least different—from a prison or a dead-house.

And, then, in the matter of eating. Unless your kitchen is large and suitable, and inviting, set your meals always elsewhere. We know of a family that set their table, for at least five months in the year, on an ample veranda, shielded only from the outside world by honeysuckles and running roses, and other climbing plants. If you have no veranda appropriate, the shade of your nearest tree, when the weather is inviting, for your dinner, if for no other meal; and if you sit at the table or roll on the grass for an hour or two hours in the middle of a hot day, the time will not be lost. It is these rays of sunshine, shot into the gloom, that make life anywhere endurable, much more to be coveted. As to your child's sleeping-room, make it as pleasant as possible, not with any lavish expenditure of money, but a liberal expenditure of taste.

And then as to work. We of the farm do not give ourselves the leisure that the body (and the mind none the less) demands. Ten hours wisely appropriated in field labour, in this era of labour-saving machines, is all that is ever needed, and as much as should be ever given; and the week's work, when it can be, should be finished by Saturday noon at that. One thing about our houses that we lack is fish-poles, and the last afternoon in the week is a good time to use them.

And, then, in the domain of money. There are better places for it than the savings' bank, as much of it, at least, as can be wisely appropriated in satisfying every rational and proper desire. A farmer's boy should have as good clothes as the son of the merchant or mechanic wears. His hands and face will be darker, but they should be, and will be, his glory rather than his shame, if he is his superior in other respects. He should have money, always have it, and be taught its wise and appropriate use.

All this is practical, but it needs thought and plan, and sometimes sacrifice on the part of parents, who, seeing the good in the future, should be content with the present evil. It were better to take a few extra steps now, than to be obliged to follow the shadow of an irreparable loss for a lifetime.

To do all this, the farm must be made to yield a better return than it ever has. And that time is coming. The best counsel for to-day is, let every farmer do what he can with the help of his family, and let what they cannot do go undone. Plant fewer acres, and manure them better. Raise grain that does not need so much work with the hoe. Set out fruit trees. Stock your farm-yard with hens and turkeys, things that are pretty as well as profitable.

Pursuing this plan, you will not be compelled to ceaseless work in order to make your hired man "earn his money," and, what is better, that which you sell will be yours, and not his. Thus, with beauty and comfort in-doors and out, leisure for reading, and plenty of papers and books to read, a good and reliable return for labour done, why should your boy desire to make an exchange that can bring him no greater good or joy, and may involve him in remediless ruin?—*H. L. Reade.*

## 3. FARM SCENERY IN GERMANY.

In travelling from village to village, one of the first things that strikes the eye, is the total absence of fences or hedges. The fields lie immediately contiguous to the road. There is usually a narrow and shallow ditch intervening, but this is seldom wide enough to offer any obstruction to man or beast in crossing; and this is no part of the service for which they were made. Of course stock is not permitted to run at large. Our German friends thus save much expense in not having to fence their fields. In addition to the saving of time and money, the beauty of the landscape is much increased by the absence of fences, uninteresting objects that only serve to hide some of Nature's living greens by their ugly forms. One might think that it would be a difficulty to drive cattle in droves along roads that are thus open to the fields. But I do not recollect of ever seeing a single infraction of this order in this respect. They walk along the straight and narrow way, turning neither to the right hand nor the left with a consistency that human mortals would do well to imitate in another sense.

The fields of grain will compare well as regards size, with an ordinary city lot. Indeed many of them are much smaller. Perhaps two by eight rods would be their average size. This of course, refers to the fertile plains, where the entire surface is under cultivation, and not the highlands that are appropriated to raising timber or to pasturage. Little corner stones mark the boundaries of these little farms and lots.

I think that the object of thus dividing into such small lots is, to secure a better opportunity for a regular and systematic rotation of crops. Side by side, with only a deep furrow between, one sees



there little patches of oats, wheat, barley, peas, potatoes, &c. When one can overlook a large tract of country, the different tints given by the various little fields, give the landscape the appearance of huge chess-board.

The work in the fields is done largely by women. The military service is a great drawback to the industrial energies of the nation, and must continue to be so for many years.

The agricultural implements are of the rudest description. An observer might imagine that some of them were the results of Father Adam's early inventive genius, and that after weathering the flood, they had been in use ever since. Harvest is done mainly with the sickle. One of our reapers would create a sensation in a German harvest field. The grain is generally threshed by the hand, although I saw one threshing machine driven by steam. However, necessity produces a demand for any commodity; and labor being abundant and cheap there, there has been little demand for this kind of inventive genius and hence little progress has been made in this direction. In other fields of labor, German investigation has no equal among other nations.

The roadsides are usually lined with a row of shade or fruit trees. The traveller seems to be thus riding through a long and beautiful lawn. In our country, it would be somewhat unsafe to plant our orchards on the roadside, on account of the appreciation which our people, and especially our boys, have for fruit. From the fact that the fruit upon the lower limbs of the trees in question seldom ripens, I conclude that the Germans also possess this kind of appreciation.

Not unfrequently, a rustic seat appears by the roadside, occupying some rocky elevation that is nearly worthless for industrial purposes, but which has thus been converted at a slight expense into a most welcome resting place, by the taste of some hard working peasant.—*Cor. Iowa Homestead.*

#### IV. Papers on Statistics and Moneys.

##### 1. POPULATION OF THE GLOBE.

There are about 1,288,000,000 souls of which 360,000,000 are of the Caucasian race.

552,000,000 are of the Mongol race.

100,000,000 are of the Ethiopian race.

176,000,000 are of the Malay race.

1,000,000 are of the Indo-American race.

There are 3642 languages spoken, and 1000 different religions.

The yearly mortality of the globe is 333,333,333 persons. This at the rate of 91554 per day, 3736 per hour, 60 per minute. So every pulsation of our heart marks the decease of some human creature.

The average of human life is 33 years.

One-fourth of the population dies at or before the age of 7 years.

One-half at or before 16 years.

Among 10,000 persons, one arrives at the age of 100 years, one in 500 attains the age of 90, and one in 100 lives to the age of 60.

Married men live longer than single ones. In 1000 persons 65 marry, and more marriages occur in June and December than in any other months of the year.

One eighth of the whole population is military. Professions exercise a great influence on longevity. In 1000 individuals who arrive at the age of 70 years, 42 are priests, orators or public speakers; 40 are agriculturists, 33 are workmen, 32 soldiers or military employees, 27 professors, and 24 doctors. Those who devote their lives to the prolongation of that of others die the soonest.

There are 335,000,000 Christians.

There are 5,000,000 Israelites.

There are 60,000,000 Asiatic religions.

There are 160,000,000 Mahommedans.

There are 200,000,000 Pagans.

In the Christian Churches:

170,000,000 profess the Roman Catholic.

75,000,000 profess the Greek faith.

80,000,000 profess the Protestant.

##### 2. WHAT CAN BE DONE WITH THE FIGURE FIVE?

Any number of figures you may wish to multiply by 5 will give the same result if divided by 2, a much quicker operation; but you must remember to annex a cipher to the answer when there is no remainder, and when there is a remainder, whatever it may be, annex a 5 to the answer. Multiply 464 by 5, and the answer will be 2320; divide the same number by 2, and you have 232, and as

there is no remainder, you add a cipher. Now, take 357, and multiply by 5, the answer is 1785. On dividing this by 2, there is 178 and a remainder; you therefore place a 5 at the end of the line the result is again 1785.

##### 3. THE ORIGIN OF MONEY TERMS.

The term "money" is derived from the temple of Juno Moneta, in which money was first coined. "Farthing" is a corruption of "fourthing," or the fourth part of a penny. "Groat," a corruption of "grosses," or great pieces. It was made of silver, and of the value of four pennies, and was first coined by Edward III. "Penny" comes from a Saxon word signifying money. Originally it was a silver coin, but now made of copper. "Pound sterling." The pound never was a coin. The term was originally employed to signify a pound weight of silver; but afterwards it was applied to mean twenty shillings in tale or counting. Of the original of "sterling" there are several accounts. One is that it is derived from Sterling Castle, where Edward I., having penetrated so far into Scotland, caused a coin to be struck which he called "Sterling." Another has asserted that it was derived from "Starling," the bird so called, which appears about the cross in the ancient arms of England. But the most probable derivation is from "Esterling," for in the time of Henry III. it was called "Moneta Esterlingorum," the money of the Easterlings, or people of the East—the term of the German merchants who settled in England, and whose money was of the purest kind, as their honesty and fairness in business transactions were of the highest order, as is asserted by some; or who went to England to refine the silver for coinage, and which enhanced its value over other coin. Sterling, as expressive of probity of character, is no doubt from the same source. "Shilling" is of Saxon origin—from scill or scilling; while "guinea" gets its name from that portion of Africa whence the gold was brought of which that coin was first made.

#### V. Miscellaneous.

##### 1. THE POOR MAN'S JEWELS.

My home it is a poor one  
To all who pass it by;  
They cannot see its beauty,  
And neither faith, can I,—  
That is, in paint or timber,  
In doorway or in roof,—  
But that it has its beauties,  
I'll quickly give ye proof.

Come hither young ones, hither,  
Your father's steps are near—  
That's Bet with hair so yellow,  
That's Sue with eye so clear;  
That's Will with tawny trowsers  
Tucked in his stocking leg;  
And yonder two wee darlings  
Are beauty Jean and Meg.

A cluster of fair jewels,  
Five in the rugged set;  
If any man has brighter,  
I have to learn it yet;  
And Tom, when I am swinging,  
Those arms with weary strain,  
Their blessed faces cheer me,  
And make me strong again.

I sometimes sit and wonder  
"What will their future be,"  
If they must delve and patter  
A treadmill round like me.  
And scarcely, at the year's end,  
Have half a groat to spare—  
And see bad men put over them,  
'Twill be too hard to bear.

But then, I think as nations  
Rise in the scale of might,  
God puts the poor man forward,  
And gives him power and light;  
And learning, Tom, will do it—  
And Christian truth will show  
That heaven makes no distinction  
Between the high and low.

So, though my home's a poor one,  
To all who pass it by,  
And none can see its beauty  
Save mother, God and I;  
The future may be grander  
For some great glory won—  
Some gem set in the ages  
By even a poor man's son.



## 2. LET US HELP ONE ANOTHER.

This little sentence should be written on every heart, and stamped on every memory. It should be the golden rule not only practiced in every household, but throughout the world. By helping one another, we not only remove thorns from the pathway, and anxiety from the mind, but we feel a sense of pleasure in our own hearts, knowing we are doing a duty to a fellow creature. A helping hand, or an encouraging word is no loss to us, yet a benefit to others. Who has not felt the power of this little sentence? Who has not needed the encouragement and aid of a kind friend? How soothing, when perplexed with some task that is mysterious and burdensome, to feel a hand on the shoulder and to hear a kind voice whisper: "Do not be discouraged—I see your trouble—let me help you." What strength is inspired—what hope created—what sweet gratitude is felt, and the great difficulty is dissolved as dew beneath the sunshine. Yes, let us help one another by endeavoring to strengthen and encourage the weak, and lifting the burden of care from the weary and oppressed, that life may glide smoothly on, and the fount of bitterness yield sweet waters; and He whose willing hand is ever ready to aid us, will reward our humble endeavors and every good deed will be as "bread cast upon the waters, to return after many days," if not to us, to those we love.

## 3. DAYLIGHT, ITS USES AND BLESSINGS.

The established doctrine is that heat and light are propelled from the solar orb equally into all parts of surrounding space, and fall upon the earth and other planets just as (and no more than) they do upon any waste part of the sky. And these rays of heat and light, we are told, decrease rapidly alike in number and in power, diminishing with the square of the distance from their source, the sun. But is it so? Ascend in a balloon, and what do we find? Do heat and light increase in intensity as we rise in the air nearer to the sun? By no means. Six miles up, all heat is gone. The thermometer is at zero, and hoar-frost gathers on every cord of the rigging of the air-ship. How can this be, if heat comes down on us in diminishing force from the sun? If that were true, heat ought to increase rapidly as we ascend nearer to the sun, the source of it. Even light, though exceedingly pure,—the air being there free from the aqueous element,—is less intense in those airy altitudes. Look up from the car of the balloon into the abyss of sky above, and what do we see? A bright dazzle comes from the spot in the heavens where the sun is; but he is shorn of his rays.

All around, the sky overhead is of a deep azure, like the color of Prussian blue,—a well known sign of light imperfectly developed; just as seen in the flame of a candle or gas jet, at the part of imperfect combustion,—or, to take a better example, just as the blue flash of the electric machine becomes yellow or white light; when the power of the machine is increased. There is light in the air at those altitudes; the moment the prism, by gyrations of the car, is inclined away from the direct rays of the sun, there is no spectrum at all.

Manifestly, then, neither heat nor light comes to us from the sun in the manner supposed,—namely, travelling down to us through the empty waste of space, and decreasing with the square of the distance. For, if this were the fact, both heat and light would increase rapidly with the lessening distance as we ascend, whereas light diminishes, and heat wholly disappears!

Calmly considered, these facts of themselves not only upset the common theory, but suggest the true one. Heat and light are generated, spring into existence, within the sphere of our own planet. No heat or light in the wastes of space. Heat there can be none, seeing that the thermometer falls to zero only six miles above the earth's surface. And light, too, evidently fades away into a thin blue luminosity in those upper regions where the terrestrial gases, the exhalations of the solid earth, become attenuated, where probably they gradually merge into pure hydrogen, and into that most subtle sublimation of matter which we call ether, which is present even in a vacuum of an air-pump.

The daylight, I say, is the offspring of our own planet impregnated (so to speak) by the great solar orb. Our heat and light are generated within the domain of earth itself. A cosmical force, which we call gravitation or attraction, and which is more or less inherent in all matter,—comes from the sun; and that force or influence becomes light and heat when it enters and acts upon the atmosphere—the gaseous and ethereal envelope which surrounds the planets.—*Belgravia*.

## 4. MR. PEABODY'S MUNIFICENCE IN EDUCATION.

With all the selfishness common to human nature, there are occasional instances of disinterested generosity which prove that the divine element is not entirely extinguished, and that some amongst us are wishful to use their wealth not for mere personal gratification, but for the relief of distress, and the elevation of

humanity. We noticed the other day that an English merchant had just given £26,000 sterling for the erection of almshouses for the accommodation of a number of indigent widows; and we are pleased to be able to record another of those magnificent donations which have already rendered the name of Mr. George Peabody universal and immortal. In addition to his munificent contributions in England, Mr. Peabody has given very largely for charitable purposes in his own country; and only so far back as 1867 he presented the sum of \$1,111,000 for the promotion of education in the Southern States. The results of that effort have been so satisfactory that Mr. Peabody has just resolved upon supplementing the original sum by another \$1,000,000. This pleasing fact was communicated by Mr. Peabody in a letter to the Board of Trustees a few days ago, and was appropriately acknowledged by them. He has thus by his single unaided efforts established a fund which, if properly managed, will be available in all time to come for educational purposes. The interest alone upon the two contributions will amount to about \$130,000 annually. By the wise expenditure of this money an educational agency may be provided which will tell immensely upon the future character and condition of the rising generation of the South. In this way Mr. Peabody has wisely chosen to expend a portion of the wealth which Providence has placed at his disposal; and by the adoption of these means, without ostentation, he is proving himself a benefactor of both his country and his race.

We cannot but commend the example of Mr. Peabody to the imitation of other wealthy men in both our own and other countries. There are numbers who can do something in proportion to this, if they cannot equal the munificent gifts of Mr. Peabody. A vast amount of wealth lies unemployed, literally buried, of no earthly use to its possessors, nor to anybody else. Why should it not be brought into active service for the benefit of humanity? Wealth is a talent which should be employed for useful purposes as much as any other gifts of Providence. There is often an inexpressible luxury in giving; and by more generous contributions an untold amount of good could be done. We forbear to specify the various ways in which Mr. Peabody's example may be imitated. Each person disposed to be generous may soon find out for himself an appropriate demand for the diffusion of his generosity. We urge the principle itself; and in doing this we may mention with especial gratification the scholarships recently formed in connection with our Grammar School here by a number of our own citizens. It is a worthy beginning of a good work, and should be earnestly followed up.—*Hamilton Spectator*.

## THE QUEEN AND MR. PEABODY.

It would be difficult, says the *Boston Post*, for any one to pay a more delicate or graceful compliment than that which Queen Victoria has just paid to our munificent countryman, Geo. Peabody. Mr. Peabody, as is well understood, left England very unexpectedly, and without allowing his departure to be known beyond a narrow circle of his friends. But the fact of his embarkation, and of his extremely feeble health, found its way into the English journals, and soon came to the knowledge of Her Majesty, who, with that goodness of heart which has always characterized her, and which Americans have never failed to appreciate and admire, gave immediate expression to her feelings in the following autograph note, which, we learn, has been received by Mr. Peabody within a few days past, and of which we have been fortunate enough to obtain a copy:—

“WINDSOR CASTLE, June 20, 1869.

“The Queen is very sorry that Mr. Peabody's sudden departure has made it impossible for her to see him before he left England, and she is concerned to hear that he is gone in bad health.

“She now writes him a line to express her hope that he may return to this country quite recovered, and that she may then have the opportunity, of which she is now been deprived, of seeing him and offering him her personal thanks for all he has done for the people.”

The note was transmitted by Mr. Arthur Helps, the Clerk of the Privy Council, who adds that the Queen also commanded him “to be sure and charge Mr. Peabody to report himself on his return to England.”

How much there is in such an act of consideration and kindness on the part of Queen Victoria, toward one whom all Americans are proud of, to soften the asperities growing out of public controversies between the two nations! The exquisite portrait of her Majesty, which she sent to Mr. Peabody two or three years ago, is now in the Danvers' Institute in the same apartment with the beautiful gold medal presented to him by Congress in the name of the people of the United States. But a little note like this, coming so plainly from the Queen's heart, as well as from her own hand, has a significance and a value far above any mere material gifts, however costly.

VI. Monthly Report on Meteorology of the Province of Ontario.

I. ABSTRACT OF MONTHLY METEOROLOGICAL RESULTS, compiled from the Returns of the daily observations at ten Grammar School Stations, for JUNE, 1869.

OBSERVERS:—Barrie—H. B. Spotton, Esq., M.A.; Belleville—A. Burdon, Esq.; Cornwall—J. L. Bradbury, Esq., M.A.; Goderich—James Preston, Esq., B.A.; Hamilton—A. Macallum, Esq., M.A.; Pembroke—J. W. Connor, Esq., B.A.; Peterborough—Ivan O'Beirne, Esq.; Simcoe—James W. Wadsworth, Esq., M.A.; Stratford—C. J. Macgregor, Esq., M.A.; Windsor—J. Johnson, Esq., B.A.

Table with columns: STATION, ELEVATION, BAROMETER AT TEMPERATURE OF 32° FAHRENHEIT, TEMPERATURE OF THE AIR, TENSION OF VAPOUR. Includes data for Barrie, Belleville, Cornwall, Goderich, Hamilton, Pembroke, Peterborough, Simcoe, Stratford, Windsor.

Table with columns: STATION, HUMIDITY OF AIR, WINDS, NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS, ESTIMATED VELOCITY OF WIND, AMOUNT OF CLOUDINESS, RAIN, SNOW, AURORAS, WHEN OBSERVED. Includes data for Barrie, Belleville, Cornwall, Goderich, Hamilton, Pembroke, Peterborough, Simcoe, Stratford, Windsor.

\* The Barometer at Cornwall was not in working order this month.
a Where the clouds have contrary motions, the higher current is entered here.
b Velocity is estimated, 0 denoting calm or light air; 10 denoting very heavy hurricane.
REMARKS:—On 10th, very heavy thunder storm with hail. 22nd, very heavy thunder storm with rain. Frost, 6th and 7th. Rain, 4th, 7th, 10th—20th, 22nd, 27th, 30th. The rainfall this month is the greatest recorded for a number of years. BELLEVILLE.—On 9th, fog. 10th, thunder. 23rd, wind storm. Rain on 4th, 5th, 7th, 10th, 11th, 13th, 14th, 18th, 20th, 26th, 27th, 28th, 30th. An unusually cold June. Rain frequent, but gentle and most favorable to the crops, which promise great abundance. GODERICH.—(On 4th, thunder. 10th, squall from SW at 3 P.M., for 15 minutes (wind 7) with rain, very rapid motion of clouds and variable barometer; rainbow at 3.30 P.M. 15th, some apple trees still in blossom. 19th, thunder with lightning and rain; rainbow at 5 P.M. 23rd, rainbow at 7 P.M. and at 7.30, and two concentric arcs, 27th, after 30 hours rain, ending at 1 P.M., a very heavy storm of rain, accompanied by thunder and lightning ensued, beginning at 4 P.M., and lasting till late at night; more than 2 inches of rain fell in the first 2 1/2 hours of this storm; fences, bridges, &c., washed away by the flood, crops on low ground covered and very great damage done.

29th, lightning with thunder and rain. Wind storms, 4th, 9th, 10th, 11th, 13th, 14th. Fogs, 1st, 4th, 10th, 20th, 21st, 22nd, 28th, 30th. Rain, 4th, 5th, 7th, 9th—14th, 16th, 17th, 19th, 22nd, 23rd, 26th—30th. Month very cold, wet and unfavorable to vegetation, though the hardier plants do not seem to have suffered. The late heavy rains have injured the low lying lands.

HAMILTON.—On 2nd, horse chestnuts and lilac in bloom; a very brilliant meteor at 9 P.M. in NW, 45° high, fell NW, trail much more brilliant than usual. 19th, lightning with thunder and rain. 22nd, roses in bloom. 27th, storm of lightning, thunder and rain passed over this city in the evening; the rain fell in torrents, the streets were deluged, and the extraordinary depth of 3.5008 inches was indicated by the rain gauge. At Woodstock, 47 miles west of this station, the storm came in hail, the stones of which were not all melted at noon the next day. The observer was informed that one piece measured 9 inches in length, 7 in breadth and 1½ inch thickness; over 50,000 panes of glass were broken in that town. 29th, field potatoes in bloom. 30th, grapes in bloom, but the season too cold, wet and cloudy for them. Very slight frost on 7th, temperature being just 32°. High winds, 10th—18th, 22nd—24th, 28th. Rain, 1st, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 7th, 10th—14th, 17th, 19th, 20th, 24th, 26th, 27th, 29th—30th.

PREMBROKE.—On 5th, two shooting stars a little SE of Z, between 10 and 11 P.M. 10th, fog. 13th, thunder. 14th, thunder with rain. 22nd and 23rd, lightning and thunder with rain. Wind storms, 4th, 5th, 11th, 13th, 14th, 15th, 23rd, 30th. Rain, 4th—7th, 10th, 11th, 13th—15th, 18th, 20th, 22nd—24th, 27th—29th. Month remarkable for the large amount of rain, exceeding that of any previous month. During the thunder storm of the 22nd, which lasted but 25 minutes, 1.0585 inch of rain fell, and the observer never before witnessed so heavy a fall. The mean temperature was remarkably low, and the ranges less than usual.

PETERBOROUGH.—On 16th, a high current SW, lower W, and a surface current SW; at night a narrow rim of auroral light over NH; immediately before and after sunset a remarkable band of coloured haze along E and SEH, about 10° high, deep blue, with an upper edging of pink. 18th, at 11 A.M. temperature rose quite suddenly, cold objects in houses becoming moist, and mucilage on stamps dissolving; at 7 P.M. temperature fell as suddenly on the appearance of some small dark, low nimbi at NWH, which rose quickly and scattered over the sky, the atmosphere immediately became quite chilly. 29th, at 10.20 P.M. a few light streamers appeared for a short time, but no auroral light. 30th, distant rumbling of thunder about 2 A.M., no lightning. Month cold and vegetation slow, the surface saturated with moisture. Two phenomena are mentioned as distinguishing this month:—1st. The prevalence of two strata of clouds. 2nd. The sky, during almost the whole month, covered with haze, sometimes very dense. Frost, 7th and 9th. Fog, 9th. Rain, 4th, 5th, 7th, 10th, 13th, 14th, 16th, 19th, 20th, 27th—30th.

STRATFORD.—On 1st, forest trees in leaf. 10th, a succession of light thunder storms from 1.15 till 4 P.M. On Sunday, 27th, thunder storm; 4.15 P.M., thunder in W nimbi, moving SW—NE, wind E (2); 4.45 P.M., lightning; 4.50 P.M., rain; 5.50 P.M., wind E (4); 5.55 P.M., wind SW (2), rain very heavy; 6 P.M., wind W (6), rain so heavy that objects 400 feet away were not visible; 6.30 P.M., heavy rain and thunder ceased; 7.40 P.M., wind NW (3); 9.30 P.M., rain ceased; depth 1.4321, nearly all of which fell between 5.55 and 6.30 P.M. Lightning with rain, 19th; and with thunder and rain, 29th.

Comparative Statement of Rain Fall in June for Nine Years.

| Year.     | No. of days. | Duration in hours. | Depth in inches. |
|-----------|--------------|--------------------|------------------|
| 1861..... | 11           | 42.40              | 2.3068           |
| 1862..... | 8            | 31.55              | 3.8408           |
| 1863..... | 9            | 42.25              | 1.4627           |
| 1864..... | 4            | 13.45              | 0.3781           |
| 1865..... | 12           | 39.20              | 2.8159           |
| 1866..... | 16           | 87.05              | 3.7162           |
| 1867..... | 8            | 32.40              | 3.2271           |
| 1868..... | 11           | 56.35              | 5.8559           |
| 1869..... | 22           | 151.50             | 8.9111           |

Frost, 6th, 7th, 12th. Wind storms, 10th, 13th, 14th, 27th. Rain, 1st, 4th, 5th, 7th, 9th—15th, 17th, 19th—22nd, 24th, 26th—30th.

## VII. Educational Intelligence.

—QUEEN'S COLLEGE.—The Kingston News says:—"The Board of Trustees has appointed the Rev. George Ferguson, B.A., of L'Original, to be Professor of History and English Literature and Lecturer on Modern Languages. This we deem a most important step towards increasing the efficiency of the Arts Department, while we are led to understand that there is but one opinion among those who know Professor Ferguson most intimately, and are most competent to judge of his qualifications as to his peculiar fitness for the teaching of these subjects. We hear from Hamilton that a gentleman in Montreal has given \$7,000 towards the supplementary endowment of \$50,000, which it is now proposed to raise specially for the support of new chairs. We also learn that Dr. Bethune, of Glanford, a distinguished graduate of Queen's, has been elected to represent the University at the Medical Council of Ontario for the next three years, and that the Rev. Donald Ross, M.A., B.D., of Chatham, Quebec, has been elected a trustee in the room of the Rev. George D. Ferguson, appointed to the new professorship."

—HELLMUTH'S LADIES' COLLEGE, LONDON.—This College, to be opened on the 1st of September next. The buildings, which are of a very

picturesque and substantial kind, have been erected at a cost from thirty-five to forty thousand dollars; the land upon which they stand is 140 acres. The main building is 117 feet in length, by 60 feet in depth, having spacious corridors on each floor. It contains a chapel, spacious classrooms, dining-hall, library, drawing-rooms, parlours, and bed-rooms, a sanatorium, bath-rooms supplied with hot and cold water on each floor, together with all suitable conveniences. Especial care has been devoted to the proper heating and ample ventilation of all the apartments, and nothing seems to have been omitted in order to make it a pleasant home and a perfect educational establishment. We gather from the prospectus issued that the object of this Institution, as contemplated by its founder, Dean Hellmuth, is to provide a thorough, liberal, and useful education for young ladies, adapted to their wants in life, and based upon the soundest Christian principles, as the only solid basis for the right formation of character. During his recent visit to Europe, Dean Hellmuth had the opportunity of selecting a staff of experienced European teachers, and secured the services of Mrs. Mills (late Lady Principal of Queen's College, London, England), as its Principal. It is seldom that it falls to the lot of one man to be the instrument of so much good within a single community, and the public spirit and worthy object which we see associated with the name of Dean Hellmuth are certainly deserving of wide appreciation and especial commendation. We wish him all success.—Globe.

—ALBERT COLLEGE.—The third Annual Convocation of this Institution was held on Tuesday, 29th ult., in the hall of the College, which was crowded to excess by an attentive and deeply interested audience. The proceedings excited a high degree of interest, which was well sustained throughout, and which answers well for the future utility and prosperity of the College. After prayer by the venerable Bishop Richardson, of the M. E. Church, Mr. H. F. Gardiner delivered an excellent oration on "Superstition," being his thesis for the degree of Bachelor of Arts. Mr. D. Macintyre read his essay on "Attila," to which was awarded the prize for English Composition; and Mr. R. C. Clute read his prize poem on the subject of "Dante." Both these compositions were highly creditable to their respective authors, and were loudly applauded by the audience. Next in order was the admission to degrees. The degree of Master of Arts was conferred upon Mr. J. H. Bell, and Mr. H. F. Gardiner was admitted to the degree of Bachelor of Arts. Certificates of Honor were given to various students. On delivering each certificate and prize, the President, Rev. A. Carman, addressed a few words of advice and encouragement to the several recipients; and, at the close of the proceedings, addressed the assembly in a short, but highly effective and patriotic speech, setting forth the advantages of a higher standard of education, both in letters, art and science, and the manifold blessings we enjoy under the rule of our Most Gracious Queen, and the shadow of the British Constitution. On Wednesday, Prof. J. T. Bell communicated to the Board of Management the action of the County Council of Hastings, in endowing a chair of Mines and Agriculture in the College; and the conditions accompanying the grant, which were accepted by the Board, and Professor Bell appointed on the regular staff of the Institution. The Professor also informed the Board, that he was commissioned by a gentleman of the town to offer for competition among the students of the ensuing year, an elegant copy of the works of one of the first poets, as a prize for the best composition in English verse, to be used at the Convocation of 1870.—Belleville Intelligence.

—LORETTO CONVENT.—The examination and distribution of prizes in Loretto Convent took place on the 3rd and 5th inst., in the Bond street house. The stage was very tastefully arranged. Several splendid specimens of the young ladies' skill in embroidery, fancy work, drawing and painting, were displayed around the rooms. Six pianos and two harps were provided for the musical part of the programme. His Lordship the Bishop of Toronto presided. Their Lordships the Bishops of Sandwich, Hamilton and Buffalo, were also present. A large crowd of ladies and gentlemen, including some of our prominent citizens, com-

pletely filled the halls. The appearance of the pupils, numbering more than one hundred, in their graceful white costumes, elicited general admiration. The proficiency—nay, perfection—in music and the other varied accomplishments of a useful and polished education, so successfully imparted by the ladies of Loretto, was manifested by the pupils in every class, to the marked satisfaction of all present. We would be only repeating what we have so often said in former years, were we to enter into any description. The reputation acquired by the community of Loretto in the matter of superior education is world-wide. We are happy to say the high status which the order has elsewhere attained, is fully upheld in the various houses founded in Canada.—*Canadian Freeman*.

—**HALDIMAND TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.**—At the last meeting of the Teachers' Association for the County of Haldimand, a resolution was introduced and carried to the effect, that, "Whereas, all graduates in law, medicine, &c., who have received diplomas are not again subjected to an examination, it is the opinion of this Association, that Teachers holding unlimited first-class County Certificates, and who have had lengthened experience in teaching, should receive Provincial Certificates without being subjected to periodical examinations." The subjects which had been previously appointed for discussion were now taken up. The first was, "By what means can we get parents of children to take more interest in the work of teaching?" Mr. Wood, who had been appointed to lead in the discussion, being absent, Mr. Moore took his place. Remarks were made by most of the members present. Public examinations, entertainments for the children, pic-nics, and such like, were mentioned as means of bringing the parents and children together. Visiting the children at their homes was also recommended. But all the speakers agreed, first, gaining the attachment and interest of the children, which can only be done by the teachers showing, at all times, an interest in them and their studies. Then, this having been accomplished, the interest of the parents will be pretty sure to follow. The substance of the remarks is embodied in the following resolution, which was carried, viz. :—"That the best means of eliciting the interest of parents is by teachers' showing that they are in themselves, their work and that of their brother-teachers; endeavouring, by first securing the confidence, interest and affection of the children, to reach the parents through the medium of them; encouraging the giving of prizes to the pupils, and striving to get parents and guardians to attend the public examinations." The next subject, viz. :—"The best method of teaching Reading," was introduced by Mr. Rennelson, and afterwards discussed in a spirited manner by the members. The substance of the debate is embodied in the following resolution, which was carried, viz. :—"That the best method of teaching reading is to require from the pupils a proper position of the body, especially of the organs of speech; the most exact pronunciation of all the elementary sounds of the language; the combining of letters into words by the method of sound and not of sight; the distinct enunciation of each and every sound contained in the word; the thorough understanding of each sentence, (of which these words are the component parts), the proper accent, tone of voice, emphasis, and expression of the sentiment of the writer, in order to a correct and intelligible enunciation of the sentence." The third subject :—"The best method of teaching Spelling," was introduced by Mr. Priest in an essay, which was full of information. After a thorough discussion, a resolution was carried in accordance with the sentiments of the essay.—*Sachem*.

### VIII. Departmental Notices.

#### PUBLIC LIBRARY BOOKS, MAPS, APPARATUS, AND SCHOOL PRIZE BOOKS.

The Chief Superintendent will add *one hundred per cent.*, to any sum or sums, *not less than five dollars*, transmitted to the Department by Municipal and School Corporations, on behalf of Grammar and Common Schools; and forward Public Library

Books, Prize Books, Maps, Apparatus, Charts and Diagrams, to the value of the amount thus augmented, upon receiving a list of the articles required. In all cases it will be necessary for any person acting on behalf of the Municipal or Trustee Corporation, to enclose or present a written authority to do so, verified by the corporate seal of the Corporation. A selection of Maps, Apparatus, Library and Prize Books, &c., to be sent, can always be made by the Department, when so deserved.

☞ Catalogues and forms of Application furnished to School authorities on their application.

\* \* If Library and Prize Books be ordered, in addition to Maps and Apparatus, it will be NECESSARY for the TRUSTEES to SEND NOT LESS THAN *five dollars additional* for each class of books, &c., with the proper forms of application for each class

#### SUNDAY SCHOOL BOOKS AND REQUISITES.

Application having been frequently made to the Department for the supply from its Depository of Sunday School Library and Prize Books, Maps and other requisites, it is deemed advisable to insert the following information on the subject.

1. The Department has no authority to grant the one hundred per cent. upon any remittance for Library or Prize Books, Maps or Requisites, except on such as are received from Municipal or Public School Corporations in Upper Canada. Books, Maps and other Requisites suitable for Sunday Schools, or for Library or other similar Associations, can however, on receipt of the necessary amount, be supplied from the Depository at the net prices, that is about twenty-five or thirty per cent. less than the usual current retail prices.

2. The admirable books published in England by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, and by the London Religious Tract Society, are furnished from the Societies' catalogues at currency for sterling prices (i. e. a shilling sterling book is furnished for twenty cents Canadian currency, and so on in proportion.) These two catalogues will, as far as possible, be furnished to parties applying for them. Books suitable for Sunday Schools are received from the other large religious societies, Presbyterian and Methodists, and from the various extensive publishers in Britain and the United States, but the list would be too extensive to publish separately.

3. On receiving the necessary instructions, a suitable selection can be made at the Department, subject to the approval of the parties sending the order. Any books, maps, &c., not desired which may be sent from the Depository, will be exchanged for others, if returned promptly and in good order.

#### TRUSTEES' SCHOOL MANUAL.

In reply to numerous applications for the Trustees' School Manual, we desire to intimate that a new edition of the School Acts is now ready. Single copies, 35 cents, including postage. New School Sections will be supplied gratuitously.

#### TABLET READING LESSONS.

The new Tablet Reading Lessons, consisting of thirty-three large sheets, can be obtained at the Depository at 75 cts. per set; at \$1.00, free of postage; or \$4.50, mounted on cardboard. The 100 per cent. is allowed on these lessons when ordered with maps and apparatus, &c.

#### EXAMINATION OF COMMON SCHOOL TEACHERS, COUNTY OF YORK,

NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN, that an Examination of Common School Teachers, and others, will take place on

WEDNESDAY, THE FIRST DAY OF SEPTEMBER, 1869,

At the Court House, in the City of Toronto, at Richmond Hill, and at Newmarket, at 9 A.M.

Candidates will be required to produce certificates of moral character from their respective Ministers, and if Teachers before, also from their respective Trustees.

J. JENNINGS, D.D.,  
Chairman.

CITY OF TORONTO, 27th July, 1869.

HUNTER, ROSE & Co., PRINTERS, 86 KING ST. WEST, TORONTO.