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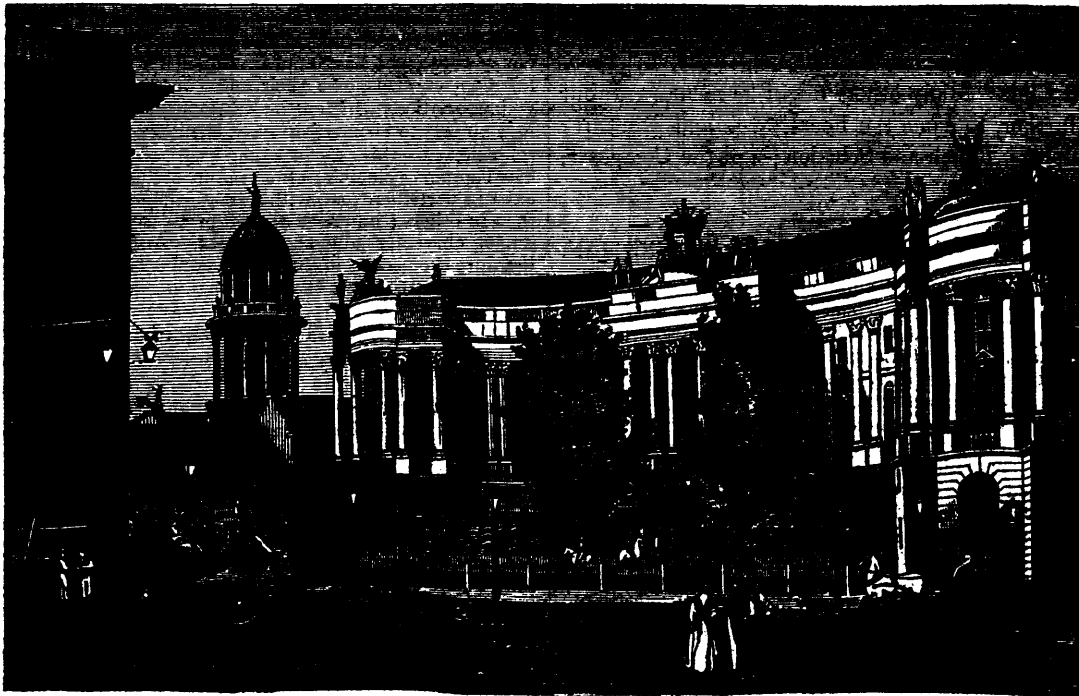
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The Royal Library was founded in 1661. At present a yearly appropriation of 10,000 thalers has been made by the Government for its support, and it is estimated, that 9,000 volumes are annually added to it. The other expenses of the library, amount to 15,000 thalers annually, and are borne by the state.

Among its curiosities are—Luther's Hebrew Bible, the copy from which he made his translation, with marginal notes in his own hand. The MS. of his translation of the psalms, with his corrections in red ink. The bible and prayer-book which Charles I. carried to the scaffold, and gave before his death to Bishop Juxon: Gutemberg's bible of forty-two lines, (on parchment, date 1450-55,) the first book on which moveable type was used. A consular dyptich of ivory, with reliefs, date 416, one of the earliest known. The codex Wittekindii, a MS. of the four Gospels, given, it is said by Charlemagne to Wittekind; it is of the ninth or tenth century, and the ivory carvings in the binding are in the style called Byzantine. An



THE ROYAL LIBRARY OF BERLIN.

The Royal Library of Berlin, which owes its shape, it is said, to a whim of Frederick the Great, who desired the architect to take a chest of drawers for his model, stands near the Opera House, and contains about 500,000 vols. and nearly 5,000 MSS.

Album, with six beautiful miniature portraits by Luke Cranach; among them are his friends, Luther, Malancthon, and the Elector John Frederick of Saxony. Thirty-six volumes of engraved portraits of distinguished men of various times and countries, accompanied by autographs in alphabetical order.

Two hemispheres of metal, with which Otto Guericke made the experiments which led him to discover the air pump, are also preserved here. When he had exhausted the air between them, he found that the force of thirty horses was unable to separate them.

There is a public and private reading room connected with the library in which the new books and principal journals of Europe are deposited. The public reading room is open to the citizens and resident strangers properly recommended, who are allowed to take books home with them. To the private reading room, admission is had by ticket.

In addition to the Royal Library, the University of Berlin has a library of 35,000 volumes. There are, also, four public libraries in different parts of the City, for popular reading. Thus there are six great public libraries in Berlin, with a population of 400,000 inhabitants.

The City of Berlin itself, is the literary and scientific metropolis of Germany, and in the various walks of literature, philosophy, science, and art, and can show a galaxy of names, such as few Cities can equal. Since the time of Frederick the Great, it has been the policy of Prussian kings to attract to their capital, either through professorships in the university, or otherwise, learned men in every department of knowledge. Consequently, though but a city almost of yesterday, the number of eminent men who have labored, or who still labor, within the walls of Berlin is very great. Of those who are world-renowned, may be named:—Leibnitz, who founded the Academy of Sciences, in 1700, and became its first president; the pious Spener, the Historian Puffendorf; the Philosophers Fichtè, Schleiermacher, F.A. Wolf, and Hegel; the Theologians—Neander, Twetsten, and Hengstenberg; the Historians—Rankè and Von Raumer; the Geographers—Ritter, and Leipsius; the linguists Bopp, Zumpt, the brothers Grimm, and many others. In the natural sciences, stands unrivalled in the present or any other age:—Alexander Von Humboldt; and after him are many brilliant names, as Poggendorf, Ermann, Mitscherlich, Rose, Erichson, Ehrenberg, and Link. Many others might be mentioned; but it may suffice, further, to name the Poets Tieck and Rückert; the famous Sculptors, Rauch and Schadon; and the Composer, Felix Mendelssohn.

THE INFLUENCE OF CHILDHOOD UPON THE FUTURE MAN.

Those who deny the influence of childhood upon the future man greatly misunderstand their being. Those who think that early ideas and associations have little or nothing to do with the ultimate character, ignore altogether the effect of thought and habit upon it; and by such a theory cut off, as it were, their childhood from the history of their being and endeavour to place the first formation of character in a period of that history which could never have been attained had they not first thought and felt as a child. At each successive period of man's history this influence affects him in a greater or less degree; since that history is one continued chain of unbroken links. "As the morning shews the day, so the child bespeaks the man."

But in making these remarks, it is not forgotten that there are many points at which the character receives additional biases which, while they by no means materially alter, effectually direct in a particular or given course; and these points may be found in the accidental circumstances of life, or turns of fortune, from the influence of which no mind is altogether free. But what is contended for, is simply that the fundamental principles or cardinal outlines of character, which were received in childhood, remain unaltered either by the vicissitudes of fortune or the experience of age. These may modify and mould the man, so that apparently, to the eye on the superficies, some difference may seem to exist between the boy and him; but to those better acquainted with him, no real difference will be evident. The surface, from motives of interest, or the peculiarity of events, may indeed have the appearance of change in its aspect; yet in regard to the deep recesses or substratum of character, where live the first principles imbibed in childhood,

no real change has happened. The manifestation in the one state may be diverse from the other, while the reality continues untransformed. How often has it been remarked by persons who have some skill in estimating character, that there exist no new features in the early manhood of their friend, no particular distinction between it and his childhood, except the unfoldings and improvements resulting from a long course of education, and other attendant causes, and so they express themselves when speaking of him in the short but comprehensive and truthful sentence—"he was the same from a child." The influence of childhood on the ideas and associations from whence it emanates, is something like the incision made in the young tree, which will abide and be apparent in the oak after the growth of centuries; or similar to the waves of the ocean, which gradually approach and burst upon the shore with all their accumulated weight and force. The lives of great men may furnish many illustrations of our point. Of Sir Joshua Reynolds, the great painter, it is said, that at an early age he formed a taste for his art, in which he afterwards attained so great eminence. And of Robert Hall, who for pulpit oratory and exalted piety and learning stands pre-eminent in the list of modern divines, that when quite a child he evinced an inveterate tendency for books. Often would his nurse find him away in some solitary place, with his pinafore loaded with them, and his mind wholly engaged in conning them over; and when he subsequently became the charge of a tutor, he so rapidly acquired his lessons, that his tutor was often obliged to sit up nights to prepare new ones for him. And if in another department we look at the early boyhood of Napoleon the Great, our point receives still further illustration. We see him at that period practising, with his little brass cannon, those first principles of artillery, for which he afterwards became so memorable at the siege of Toulon and elsewhere. The artillery was his charm in boyhood, and his profession when he served in the army of the Republic. Those little solitary exercises which he performed on the shores of Corsica, deeply impressed upon his mind the principles of gunnery, and determined his choice of a regiment when his commission was granted. And again, it is said of Sir William Jones, the great linguist, that his habits of thought and reflection were early formed under the educating and judicious care of his good mother. The plan she adopted was a simple one, but in his case very salutary and effectual. She habitually gave him a portion of the Bible to read every day, and then required of him, though young as he was, an account of the facts it related or the doctrines it taught. Sometimes he came to a difficulty; he immediately sought the aid of his mother, but this aid she uniformly refused, telling him he must think it out for himself; and when he had made every effort, and failed in doing so, she would give her exposition, and not till then: and thus she succeeded in forming the reflective habits of her son—the celebrated master of about one hundred and twenty different languages. In these few instances we have bright examples of the influence of childhood upon the character and pursuits of the future man; and not a few of those who have appeared upon the stage of life, eminent in arts, learning, or arms, owe their eminence to that influence, to the ideas and associations which attended their early years. But these examples may be said to be extraordinary, or rather the exception than the general rule. In this, as in other cases, the exception proves the rule. The common principles of our nature are uniformly the same, only they exist in particular men with a greater degree of strength and perfection than in others; and so never fail in those particular instances in producing characters able and eminent. And these principles first begin to evince themselves in childhood, and become stronger with the growth of years, as "Streams their channels deeper wear."

THE DIGNITY OF THE TEACHER'S WORK.

It is a pleasant fancy of Swedenborg, that angels in heaven are employed in teaching the youthful spirits that enter prematurely the sphere of immortality. It is no childish fancy that would assign the teacher's work to the choicest spirits of earth, and exalt this work to the rank of the most angelic of human employments. A proper idea of the dignity of his work is needful to the teacher as a motive to fidelity, in his perplexing, and often ill-requited labor; and especially to reconcile him to an employment, which by some strange mistake has come to be generally rated immeasurably below its proper rank. It is not easy to account for the fact, that the calling of the teacher is generally ranked, not only below the other professions, but even below some of the more common industrial pursuits. The origin of this preposterous notion may be found far back in some barbarous feudal age, when all peaceful occupations were held in contempt: when the office of *chaplain* and *king's fool* were interchangeable, and when some "Dominie Sampson" or "Ichabod Crane" was the impersonation of pedagogical dignity. But such a preposterous idea does not belong to an age of refinement. Public sentiment has considerably improved, of late years, and the employment of teachers has received a much more generous consideration.*

* Macaulay in his unrivalled History of England draws a graphic picture of the inferior position of clergymen two centuries ago. Were his facts not matters of history, they could scarcely be believed.—Ed. *Journal of Education*.

The correction of public sentiment when it has once taken a wrong direction, is a work of time; years must elapse before the subject will be viewed in its true light; in the mean while, much will depend upon the character and qualifications of those who are engaged in this work. If they resort to teaching from merely mercenary motives, as a last resort, or to pass an idle winter, it will be a long time before the profession will enjoy a very large share of public favor; the teacher will be merely tolerated as a sort of necessary evil.

In the want of suitable encouragement from other sources, the teacher may find ample motive to fidelity in the dignity of his calling.

An employment is elevated in dignity in proportion to the importance of its subject, or the materials with which it has to do. The magistrate, or the commander of an army, ranks above the herdsman, for the one governs brutes, the other, men. The maker of chronometers takes rank above the blacksmith, because he is employed with more costly and delicate materials. Upon this principle, the work of teaching, especially if we include in this term the work of the ministry, surpasses all other occupations in point of dignity. The farmer, the mechanic, the merchant, are employed with material and perishable things. The legal profession is busied with forms and precedents, with crimes and penalties, and, with the exception of its pleading, it has but little to do directly with mind. Medical skill is employed almost exclusively upon the outer man, the temporary habitation of the soul. But the subject of the teachers work is mind, the masterpiece of the great Architect, delicate in structure, transcendent in value, immortal in destiny.

The employment of teaching, if rightly pursued tends strongly to develop the better principles of our nature. This may be seen by contrasting the work of the teacher with other employments. The merchant or the stock-jobber, in every individual transaction in the routine of his daily occupation, has an eye to "Profit and Loss." This is his business. Such employment tends strongly to develop a covetous disposition. But the teacher is subject to no such sordid tendency. His daily duties are made up of efforts to cultivate and adorn the minds of his pupils, and to fit them for their high destiny. He must be bad indeed who does not improve under the influence of such an employment.

The triumphs of art over nature are the more easily achieved, since they are the conquest of *mind* over *matter*. But in the work of teaching, *mind* acts upon *mind*, and achieves its victories by the force of truth and reason upon intelligent, thinking beings. To curb the waywardness and rouse the flagging energies of the pupil, to awaken a thirst for knowledge, and set the timid and retiring on a career of improvement, is a work possessing all the elements of true dignity.

Philosophers tell us that thought is imperishable; that the faintest mental impressions are securely treasured up in the storehouse of the soul, and need only a favourable condition to be distinctly reproduced upon the table of memory. If this be true, we have in this fact a thrilling illustration of the importance of the teacher's work. He is tracing the lines of thought upon the susceptible mind of childhood, which "Time's effacing fingers" cannot erase. "I paint for futurity" said the old Grecian artist, when blamed for the tardiness of his work. The teacher's work is not to rescue from oblivion the changing lineaments of the countenance, and to give immortality to the transient beauties of the human face divine, but to impress upon the deathless spirit, the features of intellectual and moral beauty.

The Daguerrean artist places the polished metallic plate in the focus of his "Camera," and forthwith, as by magic, there starts to view a perfect and unalterable impression of the original. Whether the countenance be radiant with smiles or clouded with sadness, beautiful or ugly, the magic pencil of nature draws it with unerring accuracy, and no art can improve the picture.

Let the teacher consider well what lines he traces upon the susceptible minds committed to his care, for the light of eternity will give distinctness and permanence to the image.

High moral principles and sincere piety are indispensable qualifications of the model teacher.—*Massachusetts Teacher*.

COPIOUS KNOWLEDGE NECESSARY TO GOOD INSTRUCTION.

[We copy the following excellent remarks from an address delivered before the students of the Merrimack Normal Institute, by Prof. John S. Woodman, of Dartmouth College, and published in the *Massachusetts Teacher*. Prof. Woodman has held the office of Secretary of the Board of Education for New Hampshire, and is at present President of that body.]

Copious knowledge is necessary to good instruction. A long-experienced and distinguished teacher declares that copious knowledge lies at the foundation of all good instruction.

It is sometimes said that tact and skill in teaching will go a great way and make up for a deficiency of knowledge. There is no doubt these qualities will do a great deal with a little material. But if so, how much more usefulness and efficacy will they add to abundant

knowledge. It is very rare to find a man of such peculiar temper of mind that he will not prove an acceptable and profitable teacher of that subject in which he is thoroughly versed and liberally informed. It is of consequence that the teacher should be above the standard to which he is expected to elevate his class. The business of instruction is no heedless pastime. In all subjects the scholar must be watched with a quick perception, and checked with a prompt and ready hand, from his constant tendency to deviate to the right hand and the left, and kept in the middle highway of his pursuit. Who can do this easily but the teacher of copious knowledge? And who knows best where the middle highway lies? he who has only travelled through it, or he who, besides that experience, has also surveyed all the surrounding country, and contemplated the journey from all the overlooking hills? With such a guide every step is progress in the right direction. For instance, in teaching the subject of Arithmetic, some may suppose it will answer very well to know the rules and be able to work the examples. But in such a case it generally happens that both teacher and scholar move carelessly and without much interest over the simple rules and fractions and all the more useful parts of the book, and come down with great zeal upon the Progressions, Positions, and Almanac questions in the last part, and finally close the book with a kind of triumph at having discovered its mysteries and got possession of its jewels. Such instruction is liable to two very serious objections. The simple and most useful rules are never well learned, and although the student may solve the difficult problems with considerable skill, yet he even cannot write figures so that others may read them with tolerable convenience, or cast the interest on a note with sufficient promptness to encourage his friends to request such a favour a second time. What he ought to know from the book is not well enough understood to be of much practical utility. The next objection is, that the student becomes impressed with the idea that the point of the subject lies in the difficult problems and more complicated rules, that are often feebly demonstrated, and injudiciously placed in the arithmetic when they belong more properly to some other subject. He looks upon the subject as a kind of collection of Hobb's locks to be picked for the exercise of his skill.* And this is not all the disadvantage. The student often carries the same idea into other matters and looks for the point and substance of everything else in some cunning riddle or mysterious puzzle. False views of many things will stand in the way of his success and usefulness. In the ordinary business of life men will not seem to succeed so much from upright conduct and industrious habits as from lucky thoughts and out-of-the-way expedients. But the well-taught pupil is made to place more importance upon the elements of the subject, and to spend the time which others devote to the difficult problems upon higher subjects where the difficulties properly belong and are easily overcome.

A teacher also wants copious knowledge so as to furnish abundant illustration. Different minds are differently affected by the same view of a subject, and that teacher has a great advantage who can furnish the illustrations which suit the occasion. Some subjects need to be expanded and enlivened so that the barren meagreness with which they first strike the learner shall be covered with some degree of life and interest. Others appear complicated and confused, and are to be condensed and thrown into a single sentence or a single word. How can the teacher of narrow knowledge do this well? Suppose a class are reciting in geography. The lesson in the book may be interesting, but how much more so if the teacher's extensive knowledge of the history of the region and of travellers' accounts of the appearance and manners and customs enable him to add some pleasing information of his own. How much such assistance would add to the ordinary lessons on the geography of Holland, Italy, or Switzerland. There is another reason why the teacher ought to be liberally informed. It is that the knowledge is eloquent. Whatever a man is full of will be impressed upon others in many ways. It will seem to clothe him like a garment. How much the trades, professions and pursuits of men contribute to give them character. The farmer, the clergyman, and the trader, cannot meet you without recalling to your mind much that belongs to their various pursuits. They may not speak of them, but the engrossing subject of the mind will speak through the dress, the countenance, the gait, the language, and almost every motion. So is the copious knowledge of the good teacher. It is eloquent, though he may not be upon that subject. Every anecdote and illustration has some turn or allusion that calls it to mind. This is true in regard to the branches commonly taught in the school, but it is especially important in regard to manners and propriety, and in regard to moral and religious instruction. Copious knowledge on these important subjects cannot well be supposed to exist without a practical illustration of them in the life and conduct of the teacher. And it will be found that the most valuable instruction in these things, which do more than all besides in forming a truly excellent character, is given more by the example, intercourse, and silent eloquence of worthy and respected men, than by all the books and lessons recited ever so much.

* The reference is to the celebrated American door and safe locks, exhibited at the London Exhibition of 1851.—Ed. *Journal of Education*.

The influence of correct and copious knowledge cannot be concealed. It will exert its power though its possessor may be unconscious of it.

Again, copious knowledge is useful to show the perfection of a subject and make it attractive. Almost every subject when seen in its higher perfection becomes so beautiful and fascinating that it immediately enkindles a desire to comprehend and partake of its excellencies. Even the severe subject of geometry, when seen in all its simplicity and completeness, when the absence of everything but what is strictly essential, and the absolute certainty of the demonstration are observed, becomes interesting and admirable in itself, as in many respects the most perfect human science and the standard model which all others may emulate, but can never equal. So it is with Music. It has a degree of interest in itself. But when a Paganini or a Jenny Lind shows its highest perfections, everybody is in raptures, and feels an impulse towards the art. The boys will bring into use again their old abandoned instruments, and all the children about the streets will try to sing and repeat the rapturous strains, and never give up their efforts till the remembrance of the divine perfection has faded from their memory and ceased to excite them. So it is with Painting and Sculpture. Artists visit Florence and Rome that they may look upon the master-works of Titian, Raphael and Michael Angelo, and there they see such expression and such execution as they had no conception of before. It is like a discovery. They feel themselves raised at the sight to a higher world, and at once agitated by new impressions and driven by new impulses. So is the perfection of all subjects. I might make the attempt to teach good reading and good speaking with a very limited knowledge of the subject of elocution. I might go through most of the instruction and gain moderate success but when the subject appears in its perfection in the hands of a proficient in the science, when all that is mirthful, gay, grand or terrible in human expression is made to pass in review at the hands of a master, you, ladies and gentlemen, will bear me witness that the subject itself becomes irresistible, and there is nothing, for the time being, that we feel such a strong desire to gain for ourselves. One such view as this of almost any subject, is a guarantee of very considerable success.

For these reasons it is that good instruction requires copious knowledge, that the teacher may have a quick perception of the precise course the scholar ought to pursue, that he may abound in various illustration, that the subject may be eloquent in his hands, and that he may show somewhat of that perfection of it which is always enchanting to the view. But the teacher will ask, how is it possible at first to gain this copious knowledge on all the subjects taught? It will be impossible, and the teacher may well say that he feels embarrassed on those he is most familiar with. It is here that lies the teacher's task. Here is his duty and labour, to improve himself by constant study, and never think the work done while there is anything before him to be learned. This disposition more than anything else will characterise the good teacher, whose reward will be great both in the gratitude which others will bestow, and in the knowledge which he will gain for himself.

DRAWING IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Drawing is the art wherewith we express our ideas of form on a flat surface. To cultivate it there is as much need of intellectual power and exercise as in solving problems in mathematics. Drawing is based on form; its elements are simple, its laws few, and easy to understand, its uses without limit. There is not a single branch of commercial enterprise in which it is not available. There is not a science in which it is not required. There is not a country that is entirely without it. It should be taught in our public schools, and taught in such a way, that when the pupils go forth into the busy scenes of life, they may be enabled to make use of it with ease and certainty. To the teacher, it is an indispensable power; it is needed often for illustrations in subjects that can only be given imperfectly without the use of it.

We often cry out about our want of taste, are very emphatic in blaming people for their want of appreciation of our own merits; buy all French furniture, or nearly so, or do something that is not quite so honorable,—borrow their designs; while if they were our own, and made the same use of by others, it would be stealing, and we should declare that they have no artistic talent. To some, this may appear truth. But for our own part, we declare that the children of this land, taken in the aggregate, have more refined innate artistic power, than those of any other country in the world. And we look forward to the day when Canada shall shine in Art, and shall glory in the sublime productions of her sons and daughters.

She has, however, much to do ere that time can come. She must introduce the study of Drawing into all her public schools, and have it taught in such a way as will bring out the powers of those who are instructed there. This necessity has been deeply felt in the mother country, and only within a few months has the work been put in active operation.

The causes that have led to the movement will be understood by the following extracts from a Report before a Committee of the House of Commons of some years since. "W. J. Smith, of the firm of Harding, Smith & Co., Pall Mall, says,—'There are many articles we are importing from France, which, were we in possession of designs, might be equally well manufactured here. I do not think a French article would sell without reference to its particular merit.' James Morrison, Esq., M.P., of the firm of Morrison & Co., says,—'I have been well acquainted with the manufactures of this country for more than twenty years. I have found, generally, that we have been much superior to foreign countries in the general manufacture, but greatly inferior in the arts of design. The great mass of the community in this country, not merely the lower and middle classes, but a great portion of the upper classes, have not had their taste cultivated in proportion to their education.' Another gentleman being asked to what cause he attributed the superiority of the manufacture of French gloves, replied,—'To the knowledge the manufacturer has of the shape of the hand.'"

This is as true of America as of England, and is a reproach to both countries. Let both strive to remedy this evil, beginning in the right place, at the foundation, and a few years will show mighty results.

For the first year there is not the least need of copy of any sort. Begin with the combination of form; perfect in that, go to perspective art, and afterwards either take nature for the model, or the rich prints of a well-cultivated imagination.

Wherever manufacture seeks to expand the sale of its productions, art will be needed to beautify, and the laborer, to produce the highest kind of beauty, must possess a knowledge of Drawing.

We complain of the want of native designers, but give them no chance to grow up among us. Let Drawing be introduced as a branch of instruction into all our public schools, and we shall no longer need to rely on other lands for our artistic designs.

GOVERNMENT IN SCHOOLS.

In every system of government, there must be a governor, and the governed. The same is true in relation to schools. The former is the teacher, and the latter, the taught. Every governor should have been well governed, and know well how to govern himself, in order that he may govern those under his care. He who would govern, should first learn obedience. Every teacher should bear in mind, that he is dealing with rational, thinking, reasoning beings, and should treat them as such. He should endeavor to make them clearly understand that it is their duty to do what he requires, and it will be cheerfully done. The *obligation of duty* is a much stronger incentive to do right than the prospect of a reward, and much more effectual than the fear of punishment, in securing obedience and respect. The principle of duty may be urged upon the young, by frequent appeals to their conscience. There is in every human being, a natural, inherent preponderance to do right, and the pendulum of every heart is inclined to gravitate towards virtue. The principle of right is surely fixed in every heart, and by proper culture, will germinate and grow into vigor and luxuriance. The willow-branch of childhood is easily bent, and made to assume any direction; but the oak that has approximated to maturity, is stubborn and refuses to yield to the hand of instruction.

Encouragement is another great element in the government of a school. Kind words and a little commendation, (not flattery,) are great stimulants in a school-room. They secure the good will of the scholars, and cause them to feel that their good conduct is approved. A teacher should always be ready to approbate the right, and disapprobate the wrong, though more forward to approve than condemn, and should always see the good actions of his scholars, if not all their bad ones. He should express his approval, not grudgingly as though it cost him an effort, but cheerfully, convincing his scholars that he appreciated and esteems their conduct.

A teacher should never *hire* his scholars. Rewards, and more especially *pecuniary* rewards, tend to make them labor solely for the reward, while the love of knowledge should itself be a sufficient lure, from the consideration that knowledge is the only proper reward. Knowledge should be sought for the benefit it bestows, and not for some other object held out as a reward.

Never punish a scholar by trying to degrade him. A teacher should not be given to fault-finding. The surest way to discourage scholars, is continually to find fault, and underrate their abilities. When the teacher has to correct, he should make his scholars all feel that it is right, and that he is doing his duty. If the offender feels this, he will need less punishment, and even feel grateful to his teacher for inflicting less than he imagines he really deserves. A twofold advantage is thus realized. The teacher retains the affection of the scholar, and secures his obedience in future. Corporal punishment should only be resorted to in extreme cases, after all other means have proved abortive; and the outlandish practice of compelling scholars to stand on one foot, hold up a billet of wood, lie on the floor, sit under the table, etc., can not be too severely reprehended.

Were I called upon to give in brief what the experience of several years in the school-room has taught me, and what I consider the best rules for governing a school, I would say, govern by appealing to the duties that conscience imposes, by approving whatever you see that is right, by bestowing no rewards of a pecuniary nature, by showing no partiality, by no scolding or threatening, by using the rod only as a dernier resort, and as the only means of corporal punishment; and, above all things, by setting an example before scholars, worthy of their imitation. A teacher who pursues this method, will be loved and esteemed by his scholars, and will certainly secure their obedience and respect.—*Ohio Journal of Education.*

THE INTELLECTUAL AND MORAL FACULTIES CONSIDERED IN RELATION TO TEACHING.

ON THE CULTIVATION OF IMAGINATION AND TASTE.

There is no faculty of the mind which requires more careful culture than that of the imagination. When properly regulated and directed, it may be made to contribute to the development of all that is noble and estimable in our nature. It forms an essential element of inventive genius. By imagination we are enabled, as it were, to place ourselves in the situation of others, and to sympathize with them in their distress, and to participate in their sorrows. A man deficient in imagination, however estimable he may be in his general conduct, is usually unsocial, illiberal, and selfish. On the other hand, a person with a wild misguided imagination, occupies his mind in the pursuit of idle dreams and delusions, to the neglect of all those pursuits which are calculated to ennoble a rational being. The imagination should always be kept under the control of reason, and it should never be allowed to wander too long at discretion, amid beautiful and fallacious scenes, so as to impair the judgment. The unrestrained indulgence of imagination often exercises an enfeebling influence over the other powers of the intellect; but a properly regulated imagination gives strength to all the other faculties, and adds a charm to existence.

"His the city's pomp:

The rural honors his. Whate'er adorns
The princely dome, the column, or the arch,
The breathing marbles, or the sculptur'd gold,
Beyond the proud possessor's narrow claim,
His tuneful breast enjoys. For him, the Spring
Distils her dews, and from the silken gem
Its lucid leaves unfolds: for him, the hand
Of Autumn tinges every fertile branch
With blooming gold, and blushes like the morn.
Each passing hour sheds tribute from her wings;
And still new beauties meet his lonely walk,
And loves unfelt attract him. Not a breeze
Flies o'er the meadow—not a cloud imbibes
The setting Sun's effulgence—not a strain
From all the tenants of the warbling shade
Ascends, but whence his bosom can partake
Fresh pleasure, unprov'd."

To cultivate the imagination, we should exercise it on legitimate objects, and this should be done in harmony with the development of the other powers of the mind. The imagination is exercised—(1) By narratives and stories; (2) By compositions of the poet and the orator, addressed to the passions; (3) By sallies of wit and humour; (4) By works of art addressed to the sense of the beautiful.

The man who excels in all, or any, of these productions of imagination, is said to have an inventive genius; but it is obvious that this must depend, quite as much, upon the strength of the faculty of reason, as upon that of imagination. Geometers and scientific discoverers are often much indebted to the fertility of their imagination. Persons of extraordinary power of imagination are not unfrequently deficient in judgment. Why? certainly not from any want of harmony between these faculties, but rather from the want of a proper education; for a man of philosophical intellect must have a vigorous imagination: the genius of the poet and that of the mathematician are more nearly allied, than people generally suppose.

I. *The picturing style of teaching is one of the best means of developing the imagination of children.*

Very few of our works of imagination are simple enough for the comprehension of a child,—the sentences in them are too long and involved, and the figures and analogical phrases are too far beyond the range of his experience. We cannot expect authors (who generally care more for their own fame than for the improvement of their readers) to put in print all the little and apparently trifling things which they would say to a child. An experienced teacher, on the other hand, naturally clothes his ideas in short pithy sentences, and draws his illustrations and figures of speech from the things with which his pupils are most familiar: he will frequently analyze the figures or analogies which he employs, so as to render their appositeness more vivid and apparent, and to show the difference between a metaphor and an analogical phrase; and, above all things, he will constantly endeavor to inspire his pupils with a love of nature, and to kindle within them the sentiment of beauty. When he has occasion to call

the attention of his pupils to the aspect of the morning sky, he speaks of "the blushing morn" or it may be "the rosy morn;" if anything comes suddenly into his mind, it "flashes" upon him; if he draws a picture of extensive forest, he speaks of "the trackless woods;" if he makes a comparison between imagination and reason, he speaks of fancy's *flash* and reason's *ray*. He speaks of reason as the *rudder* of the soul, which guides us through the stormy sea of life; of hope as the *anchor* of the soul; of religion as the *great pillar* of the state; of remorse as the *never dying worm* which gnaws the vitals of its victim; of crime as a *loathsome monster*, and virtue as a *lovely angel* clothed with light; of the *darkness* of ignorance, and the *light* of knowledge; of old age as the *autumn* of life, when all that is lovely withers and decays; and the *whisper* of the breeze, and the *roar* of the tempest.

II. *The imagination of children is cultivated by simple pieces of poetry, or by prose compositions of taste and feeling.*

Simple good poetry delights the ear of children, at the same time that it elevates their character; and even the harmony of elegant prose, if not beyond their comprehension, will melt their tender souls. The best books for children are those which contain simple phrases of beauty, which turn on figures that depend on points of harmony or analogy between the physical and the moral world. "Pilgrim's Progress" is one of the best books for children of ten or twelve years of age. Children should never be allowed to read poetry which they cannot understand, far less to commit it to memory. How matter-of-fact a poetical conception becomes after it has been profaned, day after day, by senseless repetitions! How many of our intellectual pleasures have been marred, by our having had the language of poetry impressed upon our memories, at a time when we could not realize their import! Rhetorical readings, in schools, are something like the exhibitions of the common phantasmagoria—things to laugh at. Teachers commit a gross mistake, when they attempt to bring the higher faculty of imagination too soon into play; just in the same way as many persons lose at chess, by moving their queen too early in the game. Every faculty must be fully developed before the infant soul can spread its wings and fly towards the higher heaven of poetry. True poetry is the holy of holies of the intellectual tabernacle, into which no one should enter until all his faculties are matured and consecrated.

III. *Fables and simple tales are amongst the best means of cultivating the imagination of children.*

Children must romance, whether we permit them or not,—it is one of the most uncontrollable laws of human nature. Good fables and tales always contain instruction,—they turn facts into poetry, and instruct the reason through the imagination. Some little stories contain, in an unobtrusive form, more practical wisdom than many learned homilies. Who would wish to forget the story about the fox and the grapes; or the dog and the shadow; or the shepherd boy and the wolf; or the dog in the manger; or the cock and the diamond; or the lion and the mouse; and so on? Nothing affords children a more sparkling entertainment, than to listen to the parley between the lion and the ass, or between the fox and crow; while each of them adheres to its character with dramatic strictness, each, at the same time, personates some moral quality. The perception of this analogy leads, in the most pleasurable manner, to the cultivation of abstraction and reason.

What child does not read the Arabian Nights' Entertainment with the most lively emotions? Children like to transport themselves, on the wings of imagination, from the cold and sober realities of our northern clime, to the warm and romantic scenes of oriental climes; with their glittering caverns and golden palaces; their genii and their wonderful lamps and rings; their brilliant skies and gorgeous flowers.

"Let Fiction come, upon her vagrant wings
Wafting ten thousand colors through the air,
Which, by the glances of her magic eye,
She blends and shifts at will, through countless forms,
Her wild creation."

Good tales contain nothing really deceptive; for a child, with a properly regulated mind, knows perfectly well when he passes the boundary line which separates the region of fiction from that of facts. We do not appear to have made any advance in this kind of literature, at least for the last quarter of a century. Hans Andersen's fairy stories of the Flying Trunk, the Wild Swans, &c., are very much inferior to our old oriental tales: what modern story of adventures can be placed by the side of our old and dear friend Robinson Crusoe?

IV. *The sentiment of the beautiful, in children, should be cultivated by drawing and music.*

Children should be taught drawing and music, almost as soon as they can speak. They should be early led to copy the most beautiful forms, and to sing the sweetest songs. Whatever is insipid, or deformed, should never be placed before them for imitation. The sentiment of taste should be constantly cultivated, by directing their attention to whatever is captivating in nature, or beautiful in art. The cultivation of taste not only affords us a refined source of pleasure, but also, some how or other, gives force and acuteness to the moral sense.

Miscellaneous.

A MOUND IS IN THE GRAVE YARD.

1.

A mound is in the grave yard,
A short and narrow bed ;
No grass is growing on it,
And no marble at its head :
Ye may go and weep beside it,
Ye may kneel, and kiss the sod,
But ye'll find no balm for sorrow,
In the cold and silent clod.

2.

There is anguish in the household,
It is desolate and lone,
For a fondly cherished nursing,
From the parent nest has flown :
A little form is missing,
A heart has ceased to beat ;
And the chain of love lies shattered,
At the desolator's feet.

3.

Remove the empty cradle,
His clothing put away :
And all his little play-things,
With your choicest treasures lay ;
Strive not to check the tear drops,
That fall like summer rain,
For the sun of hope shines through them !—
Ye shall see his face again !

4.

Oh ! think where rests your darling !
Not in his cradle bed ;
Not in the distant grave yard,
With the still and mouldering dead ;
But in a heavenly mansion,
Upon his Saviour's breast,—
With his "brother's" arms around him,
He takes his sainted rest !

5.

He has put on robes of glory,
For the little robes ye wrought ;
And he fingers golden harp strings,
For the toys his mother bought :
—Oh ! weep ! but with rejoicing ;
A heart-gem have ye given,
And behold its glorious setting,—
In the diadem of heaven.

MRS. JUDSON.

7th June, 1854.



THE CANADA BEAVER.

From an interesting episode in Mr. Thomas C. Keefer's recent Lecture on "The Ottawa," we extract the following sketch of the habits and instincts of that remarkable animal, the Beaver, which has long since been adopted in our heraldic shield, as emblematical of the industry and sagacity of the inhabitants of Canada.

One cannot fail to be struck with admiration and astonishment on visiting the haunts of the beaver, nor can we wonder that the red men should place him at the head of animal creation, or make a Manitou, of him, when Egypt, the mother of the Arts, worshipped such stupid and disgusting Deities. Whether you call it instinct, or whether it is to be called reason, one thing is certain, that if half of humanity were as intelligent, as provident, as laborious and as harmless as the beaver, ours would be a very different world from what it is.

The beaver is the original lumberman and the first of hydraulic engineers. Simple and unostentatious, his food is the bark of trees, and his dwelling—a mud cabin, the door of which, is always open, but

under water,—conditions which secure retirement and are favorable to cool contemplation. The single object of his existence being to secure bark enough for himself and family, one would suppose there would not be much difficulty in that ;—but as neither beaver nor any other animals, except man, are addicted to works of supererogation, we may be sure that the former in all his laborious arrangements—and those too which alter the face of nature to such an important degree—does no more than is absolutely necessary for him to do. Cast in an inhospitable climate, nearly the whole of his labor is for the purpose of laying in his necessary winter supplies, and water is the only medium by which he can procure and preserve these. Too highly civilized for a nomadic life, he builds permanently, and does not quit his habitation until driven from it, like other respectable emigrants, by stern necessity. We cannot better illustrate the habits of this interesting animal than by accompanying a beaver family, on some fine evening in May, in search of a new home. The papa beaver, with his sons and sons-in-law, wife, daughters and daughters-in-law, and it may be grand children, sallies forth "prospecting" the country for a good location—i. e. a stream of easy navigation, and having an abundant supply of their favorite food, the silver birch and poplar, growing as near the river as possible. Having selected these "limits," the next step is to place their dwelling so as to command the greatest amount of food. For this purpose they go as far below the supplies as the character of the stream will permit. A pond of deep still water being an indispensable adjunct to their dwelling: this is obtained by the construction of a dam, and few engineers could select a site to produce the required result so efficiently and economically. The dam and dwelling are forthwith commenced, the materials employed in both being sticks, roots, mud and stones, the two former being dragged by the teeth, the latter carried between the fore paws and the chin. If the dam is extensive, whole trees are gnawed down, the largest of which are of the diameter of an ordinary stove pipe, the stump being left standing about eighteen inches above the ground, and pointed like a crayon. Those trees which stand upon the bank of the stream they contrive to fall into the water as cleverly as the most experienced woodman: those which are more distant, are cut up by their teeth into pieces, which can be dragged to the water. These trees and branches are floated down to the site of the dam, where they are dragged ashore and placed so that the tops shall be borne down by the current, and thus arrest the descending *detritus* and form a strong and tight dam. Critical parts are built up "by hand," the sticks and mud when placed receiving a smart blow from the beaver's tail, just as a bricklayer settles his work with the handle of his trowel. The habitation or hut of the beaver is almost bomb-proof; rising like a dome from the ground on the margin of the pond, and sometimes six or eight feet in thickness in the crown. The only entrance is from a level of three or four feet under the water of the pond. These precautions are necessary, because, like all enterprising animals, the beaver is not without enemies. The wolverine, who is as fond of beaver tail as an old nor'wester, would walk into his hut if he could only get there,—but having the same distaste for water as the cat, he must forego the luxury. It is not, however, for safety that the beaver adopts the submarine communication with his dwelling, although it is for that he restricts himself to it. The same necessity which compels him to build a dam, and thus create a pond of water, obliges him to maintain communication with that pond when the ice is three feet thick upon its surface. Living upon the bark of trees, he is obliged to provide a comparatively great bulk for his winter's consumption; and he must secure it at the season when the new bark is formed and before it commences to dry; he must also store it up where it will not become frozen or dried up. He could not reasonably be expected to build a frost-proof house large enough to contain his family supply, but if he did, it would wither, and lose its nutriment; therefore he preserves it in water. But the most remarkable evidence of his instinct, sagacity, or reason, is one which I have not seen mentioned by naturalists. His pond we have seen must be deep, so that it will not freeze to the bottom, and so that he can communicate with his food and his dam, in case of any accidents to the latter requiring repairs: but how does he keep his food—which has been floated down to his pond—from floating, when in it, and thus becoming frozen in with the ice? I said that in gnawing down a tree the top of the stump was left pointed like a crayon:—the fallen tree has the same form—for the beaver cuts like the woodman, wide at the surface and meeting in an angle in the centre, with this distinction—the four-legged animal does his work more uniformly, cutting equally all around the log—while the two-legged one cuts only from two opposite sides. Thus every stick of provender cut by the animal is pointed at both ends, and when brought opposite his dwelling he thrusts the pointed ends into the mud bottom of his pond sufficiently firm to prevent their being floated out, at the same time placing them in a position in which the water has the least lift upon them; while he carefully apportions his different lengths of timber to the different depths of water in his pond, so that the upper point of none of them shall approach near enough to the surface to be caught by the winter ice.

When the family are in comfortable circumstances, the winter supply nicely cut and stored away, the dam tight, and no indications of a wolverine in the neighbourhood, the patriarch of the hut takes out the youthful greenhorns to give them lessons in topographical engineering; and in order to try the strength of their tails encourages them to indulge in amateur damming. The beaver works always by night, and to "work like a beaver" is a significant term for a man who not only works earnestly and understandingly—but one who works late and early.

From what has been said it will be readily seen that the maintenance of the dam is a matter of vital importance to the beaver. Some say that the pilot beaver sleeps with his tail in the water in order to be warned of the first mishap to the dam; but as there is no foundation for such a cool assertion it may be set down as a very improbable tale. The Indians avail themselves of this well known solicitude to catch them: having broken the dam, the risk is immediately perceived by the lowering of the water in the hut—and the beaver, sallying forth to repair the breach, are slaughtered in the trenches.

As the supply of food in the vicinity of the dam becomes diminished the beaver is obliged to go higher up the stream, and more distant from its banks, to procure his winter stores; and this necessity gives rise to fresh displays of his lumbering and engineering resources. In consequence of the distance, and the limited duration of the high water period favourable to transport, the wood is collected into a sort of raft, which, a lumberman asserts, is manned by the beaver and steered by their tails, in the same manner as Norway rats are known to cross streams of water. When the raft grounds, forthwith a temporary dam is thrown across the stream below the "jam," by which the waters are raised, and the raft floated off, and brought down to the dam, which is then torn suddenly away, and the small raft thereby flashed over the adjoining shallows."

YOUNG FOLKS AT SCHOOL.

We have a word of advice for parents who have children at school. Your little ones are dear to you—about as dear as the apple of your eye. Their success at school is near your heart. Of course you'll do nothing to interfere with it. You are anxious to help them along, provided helping them will not seriously tax you. Pardon us for refreshing your knowledge on the subject with a few hints.

Keep them regularly at school.—Absence of a day is bad. They lose one day's lessons. They drop a stitch by the means. It deranges the teacher's plans, and makes it easier for the absence to occur again. Better suffer a great inconvenience than to keep them home a day. Better spend several shillings and some hours, and do errands yourself, than to keep them home to run them.

Be sure they are punctual.—Ten minutes in the morning does you no good, and them much harm. Arrived at the school room ten minutes too late, they disturb the punctual, lose an exercise, provoke the teacher and cultivate a miserable habit of procrastination—The matter of habit is the great objection though. In after years it sticks to a body like a boy to a bare-backed horse, and the harder one runs to be clear of it, the closer it hugs him.

They have lessons to learn out of school.—Let it be held a religious duty that they *learn them well*. By this the teacher judges of your interest in their progress. If they always go prepared on these home lessons, he is careful that they get well on with their school lessons. He feels that he is watched; he is interested for your children; and whether he means it or not, knows it or not, he labours more faithfully for their advancement. If the evidences are that you pay no attention to them at home, he does his duty mechanically, and only hopes for the best.

Sometimes you are a little at leisure. Once in a great while you don't know what to do with yourself. Then, we pray you, bestir yourself, and give up an hour to *visit the school*—Make suddenly your appearance in the room where they are reciting. You will see whether the room is an ill-ventilated, close, stifed pen, or a room fit for a half fledged immortal to grow in; by whose side they sit; whether they look tired, weary and languid, or as if they were careful to learn, and doing well; whether they are associating with lads or lasses fit for their company, or breathing impurities, and contracting evil habits, unawares, daily.

Try it a month, if you are not now doing it, and accept our pledge that before the thirtieth day is up, you will see a most marked improvement in your little folks' scholarly habits and attainments, and that you will come to the conclusion that their teacher is one of the best in the world. If you have never paid much attention to such things, you will be surprised to see *how much the teachers are doing for you*; and *still* further, you will wonder how much more they will do if their efforts are RECOGNIZED AND APPRECIATED.—*N. Y. Times.*

THE TOWN OF ODESSA.

The town of Odessa was founded by Catherine II., after she had extended her dominions, in 1792, to the banks of the Dniester, and in sixty years has become the emporium of the trade of Southern Russia. Its population, exclusive of the garrison, exceeds 70,000, and the total amount of its export and import trade was valued in 1849 at about four millions and a half sterling. The town is built on cliffs, which rise to a considerable height above the sea, and form a sort of amphitheatre round the bay. It is fortified according to the modern principles of defence, and the citadel, on the east side of the town, commands the port. The port itself is formed by two large moles, one of which is regularly defended by a parapet, with embrasures for cannon. The anchorage in the bay is good, and the water so deep that vessels of the first class may lie within reach of the shore.

INCITEMENT TO PERSEVERANCE.

Nothing is impossible. Strike out a new path—court honor, fame, glory, wealth.—All shall be yours, if you so will. But with the will there must be energy, courage, foresight, prudence. The heart must be steeled either to bear the shafts of envy, or to hear unmoved the sigh of the widow and fatherless. In many cases the sweet joys of home must be foregone, and the wife considered an appendage, worth the money she saves; the children as only so many incentives to lay up the gold that perishes in the using.

Ask you for fame? Nothing is easier obtained. Turn your hat inside out, wear a shoe on one foot and a boot on the other; make yourself known by your oddities; get "posted up" about town; you are a marked man—the property of the public; you are famous do what you will.

Ask you for wealth? Begin your search early. Sleep on your pallet of straw—till after the midnight hour—breakfast on a crust—eat no dinners—never allow yourself the luxury of a warm supper. Tie yourself to a penny, and be the bond slave of a dollar.

Deny yourself the pleasure of a book—consider a newspaper a nuisance—forget that you have a soul; turn a deaf ear to distress—time for benevolence when you get rich; then you may sit down with the pious reflection that your deeds are honest—for, good man, have you ever demanded more than your due?

What if your brother perishes in destitution and misery—art thou thy brother's keeper? What if that poor debtor died in a prison-house—was not his debt a lawful one? Was your demand more than the strictest justice might warrant?

Then you can take your gilded bible, turn over its embellished pages, and lets its clear, beautiful print, rejoice the sight of thine eyes. But, what, if unthinkingly, they should rest upon the following passage:

"Thou hast sent widows away empty, and the arms of the fatherless have been broken. Therefore, snares are around about thee, and sudden fear troubleth thee"

Never think to get away from the justice of that sentence. Hedge thyself in with golden thorns as thou wilt, snares are round about thee, and sudden fear troubleth thee.—*Boston Olive Branch.*

THE LAZY BOY.

A lazy boy makes a lazy man, just as a crooked twig makes a crooked tree. Who ever yet saw a boy grow up in idleness that did not make a shiftless vagabond when he became a man, unless he had a fortune left him to keep up appearances? The great mass of thieves, paupers, and criminals that fill our penitentiaries and alms-houses, have come to what they are by being brought up in idleness. Those who constitute the business portion of the community, those who make our useful men, were trained up in their boyhood to be industrious.

When a boy is old enough to begin to play in the street, then he is old enough to be taught to work. Of course we would not deprive children of healthful, playful exercise, or the time they should spend in a study, but teach them to work, little by little, as the child is taught to learn at school. In this way he will acquire habits of industry that will not forsake him when he grows up.

Many parents who are poor, let their children grow up to fourteen or sixteen years of age, or till they can support them no longer, before they put them to labor. Such children, not having any idea of what work is, and having acquired habits of idleness, go forth to impose upon their employers with laziness. There is a repulsiveness in all labor set before them, and to get it done, no matter how, is their only aim. They are ambitious at play, but dull at work. The consequence is, they rove about the world, get into mischief, and finally find their way to the prison or almshouse.

With the habits of idleness, vice may generally, if not invariably be found. When the mind and hands are not occupied in some useful employment, an evil genius finds them enough to do. They are found in the street till late in the evening, learning the vulgar and profane habits of those older in vice; they may be seen hanging around groceries, bar rooms, and streets, where crowds, gather, but they are seldom found engaged in study.

A lazy boy is not only a bad boy, but a disgrace to his Parents, for it is through their neglect that he became thus. No parents, however poor, need let their children grow up in idleness. If they cannot be kept at manual labor, let their minds be kept at work; make them industrious scholars, and they will be industrious at any business they may undertake in after life.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION,

Upper  Canada.

TORONTO: JUNE, 1854.

Parties in correspondence with the Educational Department will please quote the number and date of any previous letters to which they may have occasion to refer, as it is extremely difficult for the Department to keep trace of isolated cases, where so many letters are received (upwards of 500 per month) on various subjects.

GRAMMAR SCHOOLS IN UPPER CANADA.

Numerous inquiries have been addressed to the Educational Department, in regard to the publication of the New Grammar School Act, together with the forms and regulations, and the authorised list of text books for Grammar Schools.—As yet, we have not been able to furnish the information desired. In the next number of the Journal, however, we hope to be able to insert a copy of the New Act itself, together with the first annual apportionment of the Legislative Grant in aid of Grammar Schools, made under the authority of the Act in question, and other necessary information. This done, the second great link in the chain of national education in Upper Canada will have been formed; and we ardently hope, that under the now popularised Grammar School Act, the promotion and success of so essential an auxiliary to the completeness of our educational system as Grammar Schools, will be as energetic and gratifying, as that which has marked the history of the common schools during the last four years.

DOCUMENTS SENT TO LOCAL SCHOOL OFFICERS.

During the present month, the following documents have been dispatched through the mail, from the educational department:—

1. The Chief Superintendent's annual report, for 1852-3; to Trustees, Superintendents, and other parties entitled to a copy, as in former years.
2. The Supplemental Catalogue of books for public libraries, in U. C.—to Trustees, Local Superintendents, &c.;
3. Common School Trustees' blank forms, of semi-annual returns, to Local Superintendents, for the six months, ending on the 30th instant. These were sent in last month's *Journal*.
4. Separate School Trustee forms of semi-annual returns, to the Local Superintendents for the same period. These have been sent in an envelope direct to the separate School Trustees.
5. Copies of the pamphlet, containing the law and regulations relating to public School libraries, to Local Superintendents and parties to whom library books have been forwarded from the department.

OFFICIAL ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS PROPOSED BY LOCAL SCHOOL AUTHORITIES.

(Continued from the *Journal of Education* for May, 1852, page 73.)

From the first day of January, 1854, up to the 30th of June, 3062 letters and documents, or upwards of 500 per month, were received at the Educational Department for Upper Canada. Very many of these letters contained questions from various parts of the Province involving precisely the same points of law—of prudential management, or of general educational interest. From the official replies transmitted by the Department to these various questions, we have selected, and shall continue to select, those applicable to the great majority of cases usually submitted:—

NUMBER 22.

Sub-apportionment of School moneys by a local Superintendent.

A local superintendent wishes to have an illustration of the principle upon which he shall proceed in distributing the School Fund. The Chief Superintendent's reply is as follows:—

"The standard by which all the schools are to be dealt with, for each half year, is six months, or six. If, therefore, there are two schools with an average attendance each of 50 pupils, the one kept open three months and the other six, the latter is entitled to twice as much as the former. When the School Fund is distributed according to the average attendance, *time* as well as *attendance* must be taken into account; when it is distributed according to length of time alone that schools are kept open (as provided in the 18th section of the Supplementary School Act) *attendance* is not taken into account. See my remarks on the subject in my Circular to local Superintendents in the *Journal of Education* for June 1853; also in the *Journal* for September, page 144."

NUMBER 23.

Refusal to honor a local Superintendent's check by a Sub-Treasurer.

A teacher, having presented a local superintendent's check to a sub-treasurer for payment, some time after the period allowed by law for the collection of the annual school assessment, was refused, on the plea that there were no school funds in the treasury. He applied to the Department for advice, and received the following:—

"Your only and sure resource is to *sue* the sub-treasurer for the amount of your check upon him, as the treasurer or sub-treasurer is required by law to pay all lawful orders of local superintendents for school moneys, whether he has school moneys in hand or not. See the 1st and 4th clauses of the 27th section of the Common School Act of 1850. You can sue and recover the amount of the check and the interest on it from the time you first presented it; and if the treasurer had no funds to pay it, he must look to the Council to compensate him for any losses he may have sustained by the suit or payment of the money."

NUMBER 24.

Numerous trustees, suffering under embarrassment, arising out of unnecessary interference on the part of their constituents and others in passing resolutions contrary to law, and those at a loss how to proceed in certain cases, having applied for advice received the following. The answers selected are samples of the replies sent to each class of cases submitted:

Illegal Resolution to compel parents to defray all the expenses of a School.—Liability of Trustees.

"In reference to the Resolution adopted at the annual school meeting, declaring that all the expenses of the school for the current year, should be provided for by rate-bill on parents sending their children to

the school, I have to remark that it is null and void, beyond the imposing of the highest rate-bill permitted by law,—namely, one shilling and threepence per month for each child attending the school. No additional or other rate-bill than this one shilling and threepence a month can be imposed by law upon any person for a child attending school. All the rest of the expenses of the school must be provided for by a rate on all the taxable property of the School Section. This is the requirement of the law, and does not depend upon the views of trustees, or the vote of a school meeting.

“If the trustees do not keep the school open six months of the year, and thus forfeit the apportionment of the School Fund, they become (according to the 9th section of the Supplementary School Act of 1853) personally liable for the amount thus forfeited and lost to their Section.

“I refer you to the *Journal of Education* for December 1853, where, in an article headed ‘Hints to Trustees,’ you will find the powers and responsibilities of trustees distinctly specified.”

NUMBER 25.

Attendance from other School Sections not lawful, except in certain cases.

“Trustees were under no obligations and, strictly speaking, have no authority to admit any other than pupils resident in their own Section, except in the case provided for in the 12th section of the Supplementary School Act of 1853. If other non-resident children are admitted to the school, the trustees must agree with their parents as to the sum they are to pay, or to lay down a condition that each non-resident pupil shall pay a certain sum per month or per quarter. But such fees can only be collected by suing, if the persons concerned do not pay voluntarily.

“No parents can be compelled to pay a *rate-bill* for a child whom he does not send to school. But he is liable to pay all other school rates of his Section except the *rate-bill*.”

NUMBER 26.

Tax-payer's right to a School.—Interference by a Township Council.—Inviolability of School moneys.

“1. A person has a right to send his child to the school of any Section in which he is taxed.

“2. The proceeds of all property taxed within the limits of a School Section must be paid to the Corporation of that Section, whether the owner of it resides in such Section or not. A Township Council has no authority to give any orders as to the disposal of any school moneys; much less has it authority to contravene the law of the land. The County Council alone has authority to levy the assessment part of the School Fund; a Township Council has no authority to levy a school rate in any School Section, except at the request of the trustees of a School Section, and subject to their order. The only tax for educational purposes that the School Law authorises the Township Council to levy, except at the request of the trustees of School Sections, are for a Township Library and a Township Model School, as provided for in the 2nd clause of the 18th section of the Common School Act of 1850.

“3. The trustees cannot apply for library purposes money raised for the payment of teachers. In your case, the trustees might, as it were, borrow the surplus money to which you refer for the purchase of a library, and refund it by rate, when required, for the payment of your teachers.”

NUMBER 27.

Assessor's Roll, the sole guide for Trustees in levying School Rates.

“The Assessor's Roll must be the guide of trustees as to what property, or portion of property, belonging to any person is liable to pay School Rates in their section. The 16th section of the Supplementary School Act of 1853, contains directions and requirements to assessors, as to the manner in which they must assess property. But whether that roll is correct or not, the trustees must be guided by it, in levying school rates, as required by the 8th clause of the 12th section of the School Act of 1850.”

NUMBER 28.

Meaning of the term “Lot” in the School Act.—Retrospective Assessments.

“The meaning of the term ‘lot’ in the proviso of the 16th section of the Supplementary School Act of 1853, depends upon the original survey of the Township. If in such survey the land was divided into portions of 200, or 100, or 50 acres each, then a ‘lot’ means the quantity of land; that is, provided the property does not consist of parts of two or more lots.

“An assessment may be levied and collected in 1854 for a house erected in 1853, or at any previous period.”

NUMBER 29.

Rates levied on Property, not on Individuals.—Law expenses incurred by Trustees to be borne by the Section.

“All rates are levied on *property*, not on individuals; and if the rates thus levied are not paid, when called for, by the persons resident on the property, then whatever goods or chattels may be found on it are first liable to be seized and sold for the payment of the rates. If no goods or chattels for the trustees to distrain can be found, a return is made to the Clerk of the Municipality, and the rates will be collected in the same manner as the arrears of other taxes. (See 22nd section of the Supplementary School Act of 1853.) It is for parties buying and selling landed and other property to settle between themselves in regard to the payment of taxes; with that the trustees having nothing to do—only with the property as they find it valued on the Assessment Roll, and as it exists.

“Any expenses which trustees may incur in law proceedings in the defence or enforcement of their authority, is a legitimate part of the expenses which they have a right to collect from the School Section on whose behalf they act,—and not gratuitously.”

NUMBER 30.

Union of Sections in adjoining Counties, how effected.

“The School Sections in adjoining Townships in different Counties can be united in the same way as School Sections in adjoining Townships in the same County, as provided in for the 5th proviso in the 4th clause of the 18th section of the School Act of 1850, but not in any other way. Two Sections in the same Township can be united as provided for in the first part of the clause referred to. But a mere vote of parties in School Sections is not sufficient to unite them legally, but is proper to prepare the way for parties authorised by law to do it. In an Union School Section there can be but three lawful trustees, elected in the same manner as trustees in any other Sections.”

To be continued.

THE ART OF EDUCATION.—PAST AND PRESENT.

From an elaborate and interesting paper in the *North British Review* for last month, (No. XLI.) entitled “the Art of Education,” we make the following extracts. The paper itself contains a minute analysis of the past and present systems of teaching. It severely criticises the pretensions of the Pestalozzian system, but thinks that its failure to produce its legitimate results, proceeds not from any want of philosophic adaptation to the end to be attained,—but rather to its indiscriminate use in unskilled hands.

Introductory to this analysis, the Writer proceeds to review the progress of the art of teaching during the last fifty-years. He asks:—

After fifty-years of discussion, experiment, and comparison of results, may we not expect a few steps toward the goal to be already made good? Some old methods must by this time have fallen out of use; some new ones must have become established; and many others must be in process of general abandonment or adoption. Probably we may see in these various changes when put side by side, similar characteristics—may find in them a common tendency; and so, by inference, may get a clue to the direction in which experience is

leading us, and gather hints how we may achieve yet further improvement. Let us, then, as a preliminary to a deeper consideration of the matter, glance at the leading contrasts between the education of the past and of the present.

The suppression of every error is commonly followed by a temporary ascendancy of the contrary one; and so it happened, that after the ages of physical development alone was aimed at, there came an age when culture of the mind was the sole solicitude—when children had lesson-books put before them at between two and three years old—when school hours were protracted, and the getting of knowledge was thought to be "the one thing needful." As, further, it commonly happens that after one of these reactions the next advance is achieved by co-ordinating the antagonist errors, and perceiving that they are opposite sides of one truth; so we are now coming to the conviction that body and mind must both be cared for, and the whole being unfolded. The forcing system has been more or less abandoned, and precocity is discouraged. People are beginning to see that the first requisite to success in life, is to be a good animal. The best brain is found of little service, if there be not enough vital energy to work it; and hence, to obtain the one by sacrificing the source of the other, is now considered a folly—a folly which the eventual failure of juvenile prodigies constantly illustrates. Thus we are beginning to appreciate the saying, that one secret in education is "to know how wisely to lose time."

The once universal practice of learning by rote, is daily falling into discredit. All modern authorities condemn the old mechanical way of teaching the alphabet. The multiplication table is now frequently taught experimentally. In the acquirement of languages, the grammar-school plan is being superseded by plans based on the spontaneous process followed by the child in gaining its mother's tongue. Describing the methods there used, the "Reports on the Training School Battersea," say:—"The instruction in the whole preparatory to the course is chiefly oral, and is illustrated as much as possible by appeals to nature." And so throughout. The rote system, like other systems of its age, made more of the forms and symbols than of the things symbolized. To repeat the words correctly was everything; to understand their meaning nothing; and thus the spirit was sacrificed to the letter. It is at length perceived, that in this case as in others, such a result is not accidental but necessary,—that in proportion as there is attention to the signs, there must be inattention to the things signified; or that, as Montaigne long ago said—*Savoir par cœur n'est pas savoir*.

Along with rote teaching, is declining also the nearly allied teaching by rules. The particulars first, and then the generalization, is the new method—a method, as the Battersea School Reports remark, which, though "the reverse of the method usually followed which consists in giving the pupil the rule first," is yet proved by experience to be the right one. Rule-teaching is now condemned as imparting a merely empirical knowledge—as producing an appearance of understanding without the reality. To give the net product of inquiry, without the inquiry that leads to it, is found to be both enervating and inefficient. General truths to be of due and permanent use, must be earned. "Easy come easy go," is a saying as applicable to knowledge as to wealth. Whilst rules, lying isolated in the mind—not joined to its other contents as outgrowths from them—are continually forgotten, the principles which those rules express piecemeal, become, when once reached by the understanding, enduring possessions. Whilst the rule-taught youth is at sea when beyond his rules, the youth instructed in principles solves a new case as readily as an old one. Between a mind of rules and a mind of principles, there exists a difference such as that between a confused heap of materials, and the same materials organized into complete whole, with all its parts bound together. Of which types this last has not only the advantage that its constituent parts are better retained, but the much greater advantage, that it forms an efficient agent for further inquiry, for independent thought, for discovery—ends for which the first is utterly useless. Nor let it be supposed that this is a simile only: it is the literal truth. The union of facts into generalizations is the organization of knowledge whether considered as an objective phenomenon, or a subjective one; and the mental grasp may be measured by the extent to which this organization is carried.

From the substitution of principles for rules, and the necessarily co-ordinate practice—the leaving abstractions untaught until the mind has been familiarized with the facts from which they are abstracted—has resulted the postponement of some once early studies to a late period. This is exemplified in the abandonment of that intensely stupid custom, the teaching of grammar to children. As M. Marcel* says:—"It may without hesitation be affirmed, that grammar is not the stepping-stone, but the finishing instrument." As Mr. Wyset†

argues:—"Grammar and Syntax are a collection of laws and rules. Rules are gathered from practice; they are the results of induction to which we come by long observation and comparison of facts. It is, in fine, the science, the philosophy of language. In following the process of nature, neither individuals nor nations ever arrive at the science *first*. A language is spoken, and poetry written, many years before either a grammar or prosody is even thought of. Men did not wait till Aristotle had constructed his logic, to reason." In short, as grammar was made after language, so ought it to be taught after language—an inference which all who recognise the relationship between the evolution of the race and of the individual, will see to be unavoidable.

Of the new practices which have grown up during the decline of the old ones, the most important is the systematic culture of the powers of observation. After long ages of blindness men are at last seeing that the spontaneous activity of the observing faculties in children has a meaning and a use. What was once thought mere purposeless action, or play, or mischief, as the case might be, is now recognised as the process of acquiring a knowledge on which all after-knowledge is to be based. Hence the well-conceived but ill-conducted system of *object-lessons*. The saying of Bacon, that physics is the mother of the sciences, has come to have a meaning in education. Without an accurate acquaintance with the visible and tangible properties of things our inferences must be erroneous, our operations unsuccessful, and our general conceptions more or less fallacious. "The education of the senses neglected, all after education partakes of a drowsiness, a haziness, an insufficiency which it is impossible to cure." Indeed, if we consider it, we shall find that exhaustive observation is an element in all great success. It is not to artists, naturalists, and men of science only, that it is needful; it is not only that the skilful physician depends on it for the correctness of his diagnosis, and that to the good engineer it is so important that some years in the workshop are prescribed for him; but we may see that the philosopher also is fundamentally one who *observes* relationships of things which others have overlooked, and that the poet, too, is one who *sees* the fine facts in nature which all recognize when pointed out, but did not before remark. Nothing requires more to be insisted on than that vivid and complete impressions are all essential. No sound fabric of wisdom can be woven out of a rotten raw-material.

Whilst the old method of presenting truths in the abstract has been falling out of use, there has been a corresponding adoption of the new method of presenting them in the concrete. The rudimentary facts of exact science are now being learnt by direct intuition, as textures and taste, and colours are learnt. The use of the ball frame for first lessons in arithmetic exemplifies this. It is well illustrated, too, in Professor De Morgan's mode of explaining the decimal notation. M. Marcel, rightly repudiating the old system of tables, teaches weights and measures by the use of the actual yard and foot, pound, and ounce, gallon and quart; and lets the discovery of their relationships be experimental. The use of geographical models and of models of the regular bodies, &c, as introductory to geography and geometry respectively, are facts of the same class. Manifestly a common characteristic of these methods is, that they carry each child's mind through the same process which the mind of humanity at large has gone through. The truths of number, of form, of relationship in position, were all originally drawn from objects; and to present these truths to the child in the concrete is to let him learn them as the race learned them. By and by, perhaps, it will be seen that he cannot possibly learn them in any other way; for that if he is made to learn them as abstractions, the abstractions can have no meaning for him, until he has of himself found that they are simply statements of what he intuitively discerns.

But of all the changes taking place, the most significant is the growing desire to make the acquirement of knowledge pleasurable rather than painful—a desire based on the more or less distinct perception that the intellectual action which a child at each age finds agreeable, is a healthful one for it; and conversely. There is a spreading opinion that the existence of an appetite for any kind of knowledge implies that the unfolding mind has become fit to assimilate it, and needs it for the purposes of growth: and that on the other hand, the disgust felt towards any kind of knowledge is an index either that it is prematurely presented, or that it is presented in an indigestible form. Hence the efforts to make early education amusing, and all education interesting. Hence the lectures on the value of play. Hence the defence of nursery rhymes, and fairy tales. Daily we more and more conform our plans to juvenile opinion. Does the child like this or that kind of teaching? does he take to it? we constantly ask. "His natural desire of variety should be indulged," says M. Marcel; "and the gratification of his curiosity should be combined with his improvement." "Lessons," he again remarks, "should cease before the child evinces symptoms of weariness." And so with later education. Short breaks during school-hour, excursions into the country, amusing lectures, choral songs,—in these and many like traits, the change may be discerned. Asceticism is disappearing out of education as out of

* A recent French writer on "Language as a means of mental culture and international communication."

† Author of "Educational Reform," and present British Minister to Greece.

life; and the usual test of political legislation—its tendency to promote happiness—is beginning to be, in a great degree, the test of legislation for the school and the nursery.

What now is the common characteristic of these several changes? Is it not an increasing conformity to the methods of nature? The relinquishment of early forcing against which nature ever rebels, and the leaving of the first years for exercise of the limbs and senses, show this. The superseding of rote-learned lessons by lessons orally and experimentally given, like those of the field and play-ground show this. The disuse of rule-teaching, and the adoption of teaching by principles—that is, the leaving of generalizations until there are particulars to base them on—show this. The system of object-lessons shows this. The teaching of the rudiments of science in the concrete instead of the abstract, shows this. And above all, this tendency is shown in the variously-directed efforts to present knowledge in attractive form, and so to make the acquirement of it pleasurable; for as it is the order of nature in all creatures that the gratification consequent on the fulfilment of needful functions serves as a stimulus to their fulfilment—as during the self-education of the young child, the delight taken in the biting of corals, and the pulling to pieces of toys, becomes the prompter to actions which teach it the properties of matter—it follows that, in choosing the succession of subjects and the modes of instruction which most interest the pupil, we are fulfilling nature's behests, and adjusting our proceeding to the laws of life.

Thus, then, we are in the highway towards the doctrine long ago enunciated by Pestalozzi, that alike in its order and its methods, education must conform itself to the natural process of mental evolution—that there is a certain sequence in which the faculties spontaneously develop, and a certain kind of knowledge which each requires during its development; and that it is for us to ascertain this sequence, and to supply this knowledge. All the improvements above alluded to are partial applications of this general principle. A nebulous perception of it now prevails amongst teachers; and it is daily more insisted on in educational works. "The method of nature is the archetype of all methods," says M. Marcel. "The vital principle in the pursuit is to enable the pupil rightly to instruct himself," writes Mr. Wyse. The more science familiarizes us with the constitution of things the more do we see in them an inherent self-sufficiency. A higher knowledge tends continually to limit our interference with the processes of life. As in medicine the old "heroic treatment" has given place to mild treatment, and often no treatment save a normal regimen—as we have found that it is not needful to mould the bodies of babes by bandaging them in papoose fashion or otherwise—as in gaols it is being discovered that no cunningly devised discipline of ours is so efficient in producing reformation as the natural discipline, the making prisoners maintain themselves by productive labor—so in education we are finding that success is to be achieved only by rendering our measures subservient to that spontaneous unfolding which all minds go through in their progress to maturity.

Of course this fundamental principle of tuition, that the arrangement of matter and method must correspond with the order of evolution and mode of activity of the faculties—a principle so obviously true, that once stated it seems almost self-evident—has never been wholly disregarded. Teachers have unavoidably made their school-courses coincide with it in some degree, for the simple reason, that education is possible only on that condition. Boys were never taught the rule of three until after they had learnt addition. They were not set to write exercises before they had got into their copy-books. Conic sections have always been preceded by Euclid. But the error of the old methods consists in this, that they do not recognize in detail what they are obliged to recognize in the general. Yet the principle applies as fully in the one case as in the other. If from the time when a child is able to conceive two things as related in position, years must elapse before it can form a true concept of the earth as a sphere, made up of land and sea, covered with mountains, forests, rivers, and cities, revolving on its axis, and sweeping round the sun—if it gets from the one concept to the other by degrees—if the intermediate concepts which it forms are consecutively larger and more complicated—is it not manifest that there is a general succession to which only it can pass; that each larger concept is made by the combination of smaller ones, and presupposes them; and that to present any of these compound concepts before the child is in possession of its constituent ones, is only less absurd than to present the final concept of the series before the initial one? In the mastering of every subject some course of increasingly complex ideas has to be gone through. The evolution of the corresponding faculties essentially consists in the assimilation of these; which in any true sense, is impossible, without they are put into the mind in the normal order. And when this order is not followed, the result is, that they are received with apathy or disgust; and that unless the pupil is intelligent enough to eventually fill up the gaps himself, they lie in his memory as dead facts, capable of being turned to little or no use.

ELOQUENT PASSAGES FROM DISTINGUISHED ORATORS.

GRATTAN.

In speaking of the Irish independence, he says:—"I sat by its cradle—I followed its hearse."

SHERIDAN.

Give them a corrupt House of Lords, give them a venal House of Commons; give them a tyrannical Prince, give them a truckling Court, and let me have but an unfeathered press, and I will defy them to encroach an hair's breadth upon the liberties of England.

CURRAN.

Liberty is commensurate with, and inseparable from British soil; British Law proclaims even to the stranger and the sojourner, the moment he sets his foot upon British earth, that the ground on which he treads is holy and consecrated by the genius of universal emancipation! No matter in what language his doom may have been pronounced; no matter what complexion incompatible with freedom,—an Indian or an African sun may have burnt upon him;—no matter in what disastrous battle his liberty may have been cloven down; no matter with what solemnities he may have been devoted upon the altar of slavery; the first moment he touches the sacred soil of Britain, the Altar and the God sink together in the dust; his soul walks abroad in her own majesty; his body swells beyond the measure of his chains that burst from around him; and he stands redeemed, regenerated, and disenthralled, by the irresistible genius of universal emancipation!

WEBSTER.

In his oration in honor of Adams and Jefferson, at Bunker's Hill, he says:—"Although no sculptured marble should rise to their memory, nor engraved stone bear record to their deeds, yet will their remembrance be as lasting as the land they honoured. Marble columns may indeed moulder into dust, time may erase all impress from the crumbling stone, but their fame remains; for with American liberty it rose and with American liberty only can it perish! It was the last swelling peal of yonder choir—'their bodies are buried in peace, but their name liveth evermore.' I catch the solemn song! I echo that lofty strain of funeral triumph!—'Their name liveth evermore!'"

Speaking of the American Revolution, and the greatness of England, he says:—"It was against the recital of an act of Parliament rather than against any suffering under its enactments, that they took up arms. They went to war against a preamble! They fought seven years against a declaration! They raised their flag against a power to which, for purposes of foreign conquest and subjugation, Rome in the height of her glory is not to be compared!—A power which is dotted over the surface of the whole globe with her possessions and military posts, whose morning drum-beat following the sun, and keeping company with the hours, circles the earth daily with one continuous and unbroken strain of the martial airs of England!

HON. WM. YOUNG, OF NOVA SCOTIA.

Our attachment to our Queen, our own Victoria, is mingled with a tenderness not inconsistent with the sterner sentiment, which it softens and embellishes without enervating. Let her legitimate authority as a constitutional Monarch; let her reputation as a Woman be assailed, and notwithstanding the lamentation of Burke that the age of chivalry was past, thousands of swords would leap from their scabbards to avenge her. Ay, and they would be drawn as freely, and wielded as vigorously and bravely in Canada or in Nova Scotia, as in England. Loyalty, love of British Institutions!—They are engrafted in our very nature; they are part and parcel of ourselves; and I can no more tear them from my heart (even if I would, and lacerate all its fibres), than I would sever a limb from my body.—*Speech at Toronto, 1844.*

M. QUARTERLY REVIEW. (*New York.*)

"The Orator must be rather the servant of sublimity; he must be the victim of its feeling; the agent of its power; he must lose himself in its swelling current, bury his language in its rolling wave, and retire till its dashing surges have passed over his audience and disappeared for ever. Vol. 25. p. 520. Rev. J. Floy. Oct. 1843.

STATE OF EDUCATION IN EUROPEAN CONTINENTAL COUNTRIES.

In 1844 the Senate of the University of Cambridge appointed Joseph Kay, Esq., as Travelling Bachelor of the University, and commissioned him to travel through Western Europe, in order to examine the social condition of the poorer classes of the different countries. In the performance of this important duty, he spent eight years, travelling in that time through Prussia, Saxony, the Austrian empire, Bavaria, Wirttemberg, the Duchy of Baden, Hanover, Oldenburg, Lomardy, Switzerland, France, Belgium, and Holland, as well as through England, Wales, and parts of Scotland and Ireland. Some of the information thus

collected, he published in a work in two volumes, containing respectively two great divisions, viz., "The peasant proprietors," and "The education of the people." Under the former head, he discusses the results of the education of the peasants, combined with the subdivision of land among them,—showing that it tends to strengthen their prudence, foresight, and economy—that it encourages virtuous and temperate habits among the people, fosters a respect for property, and tends greatly to improve the cultivation of the land, the character of their houses, and their villages, and so on. It is however, to the contents of the second volume of Mr. Kay's work that we would direct attention; and for the sake of the readers of the Journal, to whom the volumes may not be accessible, we propose, in a brief way, to lay before them some of the more interesting details regarding the state of education in Continental countries, as given by our author in his valuable work.

The following statement as to the great diffusion of education on the Continent, cannot but be interesting:—

"It is a great fact, however much we may be inclined to doubt it, that throughout Prussia, Saxony, Bavaria, Bohemia, Wirtemberg, Baden, Hesse Darmstadt, Hesse Cassel, Gotha, Nassau, Hanover, Denmark, Switzerland, Norway, and the Austrian empire; ALL the children are actually, at this present time, attending school, and receiving a careful, religious, moral, and intellectual education from highly educated and efficient teachers. ALL the youth of the greater part of these countries, below the age of twenty-one years, can read, write, and cipher, and know the Bible history, and the history of their own country. No children are left dirty and idle in the streets of the towns—there is no class of children to be compared, in any respect, to the children who frequent our "ragged schools"—all the children, even of the poorest parents, are, in a great part of these countries, in dress, appearance, cleanliness, and manners, as polished and civilised as the children of our middle classes—the children of the poor in Germany are so civilised that the rich often send their children to the schools intended for the poor; and, lastly, in a great part of Germany and Switzerland, the children of the poor are receiving a *better* education than that given in England to the children of the greater part of our middle classes! These facts deserve to be well considered."

The writer proceeds to argue that these great results have been attained in the face of obstacles, arising from religious differences and sectarianism, among the people of Continental countries. That likewise all the political difficulties of the question have been overcome, notwithstanding the various and most opposite forms of government existing in these countries:—

"I can give a traveller," says he, "who is desirous of comprehending at one short view the workings of the German and Swiss systems of popular education, no better advice, than to direct him to notice the state of the streets in any German or Swiss town which he happens to visit: no matter where it be, whether on the plains of Prussia or Bavaria, on the banks of the Rhine, in the small towns of the Black Forest, or in the mountainous cantons of Alpine Switzerland,—no matter where,—let him only walk through the streets of such a town in the morning or the afternoon, and count the number of children to be found there above the age of four or five; or let him stand in the same streets, when the children are going to or returning from the schools, and let him examine their cleanly appearance—the good quality, the excellent condition, and the cleanliness of their clothing, the condition of the lesson books they are carrying, the happiness and cheerfulness, and, at the same time, the politeness and ease of their manners; he will think he sees the children of the rich; but let him follow them home, and he will find that many of them are the offspring of the poorest artisans and labourers of the town. If that one spectacle does not convince him of the magnitude of the educational efforts of Germany, and of the happy results which they are producing, let him go no further, for nothing he can further see will teach him. Let him then come home, and rejoice in the condition of our poor; but should he start at this extraordinary spectacle, as I have seen English travellers do, to whom I have pointed out this sign of advanced and advancing civilisation, let him reflect, that this has been effected, spite of all the obstacles which impede ourselves."

In regard to the architecture of the School houses the author says that:—

"In Switzerland and South Germany, the village school is generally the finest erection of the neighbourhood. In the towns the expenditure on these monuments of a nation's progress is still more remarkable. Here the municipal authorities generally prefer to unite several schools for the sake of forming one complete one. This is generally erected on the following plan:—A large house is built of three or four stories in height, with commodious play-yards behind. The one or two upper stories are used as apartments for the teachers; the lower rooms are set apart for the different classes. A town school has generally from *eight to ten*, and sometimes twelve or fourteen, of these class-rooms, each of which is capable of containing from 80 to 100 children. An educated teacher is appointed to manage each class, so that there is

generally a staff of at least *eight* teachers connected with each town school of Germany; and I have seen schools with as many as twelve and fourteen teachers. The rooms are filled with desks, maps, and all the apparatus which the teachers can require for the purpose of instruction. I generally noticed, on entering a small German or Swiss town, that, next to the church, the finest building was the one set apart for the education of the children."

"It is impossible to estimate the enormous outlay which Germany has devoted to the erection and improvement of school-houses alone, during the last fifteen years. In the towns, hardly any of the old and inefficient buildings now remain, except where they have been improved and enlarged. In Munich, I directed my conductor to lead me to the worst school buildings in the city, and I found all the class-rooms measuring fourteen feet high, by about twenty five square, and ten of such class-rooms in each school-house, each of which rooms was under the constant direction of an educated teacher. In the Grand Duchy of Baden, I found that the Chambers had passed a law prohibiting any school-house being built, the rooms of which were not fourteen feet high."

ON THE STUDY OF LATIN AND GREEK IN GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

If we were asked why we study Latin and Greek, most of us would find it difficult to give an answer. One reason is, and the chief reason, that our fathers, and our fathers' fathers did so, and we do the same. There is something in this, but it is not all. The true reason why we ought to study the language, literature, and history of Greece and Rome, is that these things belong to us as much as to the Greeks and Romans. The civilization of Europe is not derived from the Chinese, or the Hindoos, or the Hottentots, nor from the ancient Germans, or Galli, or Britons. It came from Athens and from Rome. The Greeks are the parents of art, of science, of philosophy, and of composition, epic, lyric, dramatic, historical, and oratorical. The Romans learned much from the Greeks, and added something of their own. They taught law to the nations of Europe, and civil administration. They were the founders of municipal constitutions in the towns of western Europe. They maintained armies and fleets to conquer countries, and keep them in obedience. They practised the military art on a large scale; they governed countries as provinces, which are now great kingdoms; they taught the people obedience to law, and gave them rules for civil life. They were conquerors, masters, stern rulers, sometimes hard and cruel; but they were lovers of order, and they showed men how to live. Their agriculture was carried into Spain, France, and Britain. They built walls round the chief towns, bridged the rivers, cut roads, and placed milestones on them, and built convenient stations between towns, for the ease of travellers, and to maintain their own communications. They gave to every town of note, temples, baths, theatres, sewers, and an abundant supply of water. While they taught the Gaul and the Spaniard to live like a Roman, they also taught him their own vigorous and majestic language. All their works bear the stamp of grandeur and good sense. They worked for future time, and they laid the foundations of the social system in which we now live. Of all the nations that have established a great empire, they have been the most energetic, the most practical, and therefore the wisest. The only people of modern times who can be compared with them are the English, who in practical wisdom are certainly not superior to the Romans, and in the greatness of their conceptions far below them. Both have planted, and the English are still planting their language and manners wide over the globe. The language of the Romans in Italy, Gaul, and the Spanish peninsula has taken a new form, but it still shows its original. The English is in all the four quarters of the globe, or rather in the five; and its future condition is uncertain. Printing, and the facility of intercourse, will keep it uniform enough, perhaps, to be always intelligible, but it will be greatly corrupted. That which will do most towards maintaining it in a tolerable condition, is the possession of a common literature by all who use the English language; not our modern literature, but our old writers. A few good books appear from time to time in England and the United States which may become standard works; but nearly all that is written now-a-days in newspapers and periodical publications,—nearly all the light literature, or by whatever other name that is called which everybody reads,—will perish after it has amused for a time and done its mischief. Whatever shall live fifty years, must be good; and our children will know better than we do what has strength enough to hold out beyond the usual term of a book's existence. Certainly most books will not reach three score years and ten, the ordinary limit of human life.

It is the old books then which we possess and read, and the few books, now young, which will live to be old, that will do most towards keeping our language in a state of purity. Language is never fixed—it is always changing. Change may be improvement or corruption; and, in the present state of our history, it is hardly possible that our language will be improved. It is certainly changing very fast; and a

present all the change is for the worse. One cannot take up a pamphlet of any kind without finding something new, and something bad.

The languages of modern Europe which are of Roman origin, cannot derive much from the parent language for their improvement now. New ideas and new circumstances, the growth of modern times, work on language with irresistible force, and it must change under their influence. The nation that in modern times has done and suffered most, the French, has felt the effect of it in the language. The languages of Italy, Spain, and Portugal have changed little in comparison with the French, which seems to us to have had its share of the national misfortunes; for though there are many excellent French writers of the present century—some who are models of style—a monstrous amount of bad language has been put in circulation, some of which is now current coin.

The nations of Europe, and the descendants of Europeans all over the world, have common notions and opinions. They are in many ways one. They are less strangers to one another than the nations of antiquity, which is owing mainly to two causes, the having a common religion and a common literature. The common literature is the Greek and Roman, which is the study of all educated men in all countries during their youth. When the time of youth is over, this study is generally at an end, but it is not without its effect on the taste and judgment. The best modern writers, those whose works are made to last, still come back to their old books, and still find in them the best models; not models for servile imitation, but something on which the mind can repose with pleasure, and feel its vigour strengthened and its taste improved.

We cannot attain a clear notion of the value of Greek and Roman literature to us, unless we see also how it has a value for other nations. Every modern nation which has a literature, has something of its own, which makes it what it is; but every nation also has derived a great deal from ancient literature, and each has used it in its own way. England and Germany, for example, have a literature of their own; each has its character, and the character is very different. It is plain to every man who will give the matter a slight consideration, that the literature of modern Europe has derived much, both directly and indirectly, from the Greek and Roman; and that if a man would study the literature of any modern nation, he will not understand it well without a knowledge of ancient literature: for in France and Italy the modern literature is founded on the ancient; in England and Germany it is derived much from it.

Modern society is a much larger and more complicated system than ancient society. It has created new things, and has done wonders; it has new ideas and new wants; and, though man is still the same, a man of modern times is very different from a Greek or Roman. A great workman, whether he works with words or in stone, or paint on a surface, must produce something that belongs to his own time. What then is the real use of this study of antiquity, whether of marbles, or of books, of forms in stone or metal, or of thoughts in words? The use is plain to those who will take the pains to think. It is not the thing that a man produces which we admire: it is the form and the life that he gives to it. One thing is above another. The representation of the human form in all its beauty is above the representation of a beast. Praxiteles made a Venus, and Myron a calf; and all antiquity gazed with admiration on both.

It seems to be hardly understood,—many at least do not know it,—that the truth and beauty which we admire in the Greek artist, are the very things which we should learn to admire in their best writers.—truth and beauty in thought and in words. Truth is simple, whatever it speaks about; and beauty refuses all ornament. The best works of the Greeks were few. All that remain, with the exception of one whose mysterious birth is unknown, were produced within a very small number of years. For the poet, for the philosopher, for the historian, for the sculptor, and the man of pure taste, the Greek has left a legacy, small in amount, but above all price. The Roman is the practical man. He is the civilizer of Western Europe. We have built on the ruins of his work. All that he has done, both bad and good, is a lesson for us. He has left us an inheritance of great deeds, of lofty thoughts, and a language unequalled for clearness, dignity and force.

Educational Intelligence.

CANADA.

TRINITY COLLEGE, TORONTO.

The Hon. J. H. Cameron having lately founded two Divinity Scholarships in Trinity College, Toronto, his example has been followed by George W. Allan, Esq., who has generously founded three additional Scholarships—one in Divinity, one in Law, and one in Physic. During the last year there were fifty students in attendance at Trinity College, twenty-two of whom were preparing for the sacred ministry.

VICTORIA COLLEGE, COBURG.

Towards endowing this Institution nearly four hundred "Scholarships," of £25 each, (available for twenty-five years,) have been sold. The College has in consequence been attended by large numbers of pupils and students. It is proposed to make some additions to the College buildings, and to effect some necessary repairs in order to afford sufficient accommodation. To effect these objects an appeal to the Wesleyan public will be made. . . . Dr. Ryerson has recently resigned the presidency of the Institution; the Rev. S. S. Nelles, A.M., the principal, succeeds him.

New School House in Stratford.—The Corporation of Stratford have resolved to expend £1500 in the erection and furnishing of a new school house.

BRITISH AND FOREIGN.

MONTHLY SUMMARY.

While millions have, in a few months, been expended in the prosecution of the justifiable war against the despotic Czar, it appears that the total amount of public money, in support of popular education in England, granted from 1833 to 1850—a period of seventeen years—was only £1,000,000 sterling, only £750,000 of which were actually expended either in defraying the cost of buildings, the purchase of school apparatus, or in aid of efficient masters, mistresses and teachers. . . . From the tenth annual report of the Ragged School Union, (just published,) it appears that there are now in connection with the Union 129 Ragged Schools, attended by 13,100 children on Sundays, 900 on week days, and by 630 in the evening. The receipts during the year were £9858. . . . Professor E. Forbes succeeds the late Prof. Jameson in the chair of Natural History in the University of Edinburgh. . . . An University has been established at Melbourne, Australia; and notice has been given at Cambridge, England, that candidates for professorships are to send in their names. The salary proposed is £1000 per annum, with the use of a house, and £300 for an outfit. . . . The London Times of the 13th ult, in referring to the adverse vote of the House of Commons on the Scotch Parish School Bill, a night or two previous, uses the following striking language: "Here are children growing up to a state in which they cannot fail to be a prey to crime, superstition and fanaticism. They are literally perishing for lack of knowledge, and though all the knowledge in the world will not prevent a man from being a fool, a bigot, or a knave, if such be his nature and inclination, still it is among the ignorant that new outbreaks of wickedness, strange temptations, and monstrous delusions find their first victims. It may be asked triumphantly why we maintain a costly religious establishment, and invest a certain number of persons with immense authority and reverence in the eyes of their fellow citizens, if we simultaneously tolerate and perpetuate a state of things that provides abundant fuel to all kinds of error. * * * Some people tell us that the fearful spread of crime, and the success of new and degrading impostures in the nineteenth century rather prove the inutility of education than its power to counteract these errors. Nevertheless, there is a plain contradiction between these errors and truth—truth of knowledge, truth of sense, and truth of habits; so that the teaching of truth cannot but be some sort of prevention against those errors." . . . A parliamentary return shows that from the year 1846 to 1853, both inclusive, there was expended in criminal prosecutions in England alone the sum of one million two hundred and one thousand, six hundred and forty one pounds sterling. . . . A vote of £193,040 sterling is proposed in aid of public education in Ireland this year. . . . The item for teachers of national schools, amount to £92,000.

TRINITY COLLEGE, DUBLIN.

In making a motion in the House of Commons recently, in relation to this University, Mr. Fagan, M.P. for Cork, stated that—"It was perhaps the most richly endowed University in the whole world. It possessed no less than 200,000 acres of land in Ireland, valued to the poor-rate at upwards of £92,000 a year, and the income of the University amounted to £64,000 a year, which, under the act of enabling the authorities of the University to let the land in perpetuity, or for a long term of years without taking fines, would exceed £100,000 a year. How was this revenue spent? The provost of Trinity College received £3,500 a year, while the heads of the houses in the English Universities received not quite £800 a year. [Hear.] The seven senior fellows in Trinity College received £1,800 a year, on the average; the first-class junior fellows—six in number—received nearly £900 a year; the second-class fellows—also, he believed, six in number—over £600 a year; the third-class junior fellows—five in number—£400 a year; whereas the fellows in the Colleges of Oxford and Cambridge did not receive, upon

an average, £250 a year. The Provost of Trinity College, and 35 fellows, received £34,000 a year. The seventy scholars in the University of Dublin received an equivalent to £80 a year, making, in all, a sum of £5,600; and the professors, twenty-two in number, received £7,000 a year. The holders of the exhibitions receive £2,000 per annum, making altogether £48,000 out of the £64,000 a year.

STATISTICS OF POPULAR EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

The actual attendance in Day-schools, as ascertained by the Census, is rather more than one in eight and a half, or to speak exactly, is 1 in 8.36. There are, however, above a quarter of a million more Sunday scholars than Day scholars, the proportion of Sunday scholars to the population being 1 to 7.45; but it is scarcely possible to extract from these two data any certain conclusion as to the total number of children who, from one source or the other, receive some kind of instruction. To the following Table it is necessary to premise that the returns of 1818 and 1833 are known to have erred by deficiency, and that in comparing them with the more exact statistics of 1851 a considerable deduction ought, on that account, to be made from the apparent progress of recent years. Notwithstanding such allowance, the real improvement, though less than the apparent, is most gratifying. The table shows the figures of the three periods:—

Periods.	Population at each Period.	Number of Scholars at each Period.		Proportion of Scholars to Population at each Period.	
		Day Scholars.	Sunday Scholars.	Day Scholars.	Sunday Scholars.
1818	11,642,683	674,883	477,225	One in 17.25	One in 24.40
1833	14,386,415	1,276,947	1,548,890	11.27	9.28
1851	17,927,809	2,144,378	2,407,642	8.36	7.45

The element of time at once enters into the calculation, when the result to be ascertained is the opportunity which the rising generation possesses for obtaining a fair education. Now, the population in 1851 being eighteen millions, the number of children between the age of three and fifteen who ought to have been on the books of the Day Schools were three millions; but the actual number was only 2,046,848, and between the age of five and fifteen the number was but 1,768,231. For the children of the working classes the average term of instruction does not exceed four years.

Dividing the schools into Public and Private, it appears that there were in England and Wales 15,518 Public Schools with 1,422,982 scholars; and nearly twice as many Private Schools, namely, 30,524, but with the inferior number of 721,396 scholars. As to the quality of the instruction imparted, we find from the Tables that in the Public Schools writing is taught to about 65 per cent. of the scholars; not two-thirds of the boys, and not half the girls learn arithmetic; a quarter of the former and a fifth of the latter acquire something of grammar; geography is better appreciated; about 2½ per cent. of the boys, and one in a hundred of the girls learn some modern language; the classics are rather more commonly studied by the male scholars than the tongues of modern nations: mathematics are taught to one boy in forty, and just one girl in a thousand; drawing appears to have come more into favour; and music has charms for 12 per cent. of the male juveniles and 9 per cent. of their sisters. We have, besides the Tables, the following "rough attempt" to "classify according to efficiency" the 29,425 Private Schools which sent returns to the Registrar:—

1. SUPERIOR. (Classical, Boarding, Proprietary, Ladies, &c.)	4,956
2. MIDDLING. (Commercial, &c.; teaching arithmetic, English grammar, and geography)	7,095
3. INFERIOR. (Principally dame schools; only reading and writing taught, the latter not always)	13,879
Undescribed	3,495
Total	29,425

The compiler of these statistics makes a curious disclosure as to some of the third class of the above schools. He says that "in the case of 708 out of these 13,879, the returns were respectively signed by the master or mistress with a mark. The same is noticeable with respect to 35 Public Schools, most of which had small endowments."

The following is a classification of how the Public Day Schools are supported:—

Class.	Supported by	Schools.	Scholars.
1. General or Local Taxation	610	48,828
2. Endowments	3,126	206,279
3. Religious Bodies	10,595	1,048,851
4. Other Public Schools	1,081	109,214
Total	15,411	1,413,170

General Tables of Day Schools supported in 1851 by the various religious Denominations.

DAY SCHOOLS.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS AND SCHOLARS.			
	Excluding Schools in which the Endowment exceeds the Subscriptions of Religious Bodies.		Including all Schools receiving Support to any amount from Religious Bodies.	
	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.
Total	10,595	1,048,851	12,708	1,188,786
<i>Denominational.</i>				
Church of England	8,571	801,507	10,555	929,474
Church of Scotland	5	94	5	946
United Presbyterian	3	217	3	217
Presbyterian Church in England	25	2,447	26	2,723
Scotch Presbyterians*	1	345	1	345
Presbyterians*	7	1,321	13	2,030
Independents	431	47,406	453	50,186
Baptists	115	8,665	181	9,390
Society of Friends	23	2,247	33	3,026
Unitarians	30	3,736	39	4,306
Moravians	7	366	7	366
Wesleyan Methodists	363	39,764	381	41,144
New Connection Methodists	13	1,815	14	1,851
Primitive Methodists	25	1,297	26	1,342
Bible Christians	8	367	8	367
Wesleyan Association	10	1,112	11	1,176
Calvanistic Methodists	41	2,814	44	2,929
Lady Huntingdon's	9	644	10	714
New Church	9	1,551	9	1,551
Dissenters*	43	5,392	49	5,805
Isolated Congregations	14	1,144	14	1,144
Lutherans	1	157	2	221
French Protestants	1	15	1	15
German Mission	1	100	2	116
Roman Catholics	311	38,583	339	41,382
Jews	10	1,234	12	2,361
<i>Undenominational.</i>				
British†	514	82,597	514	82,597
Others	4	1,062	4	1,062

* Not otherwise defined.
 † This line represents only the British Schools which are not returned as being connected with any particular denomination. Many British Schools are included in this table amongst those belonging to specific religious bodies. The total number altogether is, on the first view, 852, containing 123,015 scholars, and, upon the second view, 837, containing 123,496 scholars.

UNITED STATES.

MONTHLY SUMMARY

Miss Caroline Plummer, who recently died at Salem, Mass., possessed of a fortune of \$100,000, has bequeathed \$15,000 to Harvard College "to found a Professorship of the Heart," i.e. Moral Philosophy; the sum of \$30,000 to the Salem Athenæum, and \$30,000 to found a Farm School at Salem.... S. S. Randall Esq. having accepted the appointment of Superintendent of Schools for the city of New York, in place of Joseph McKeen, Esq., resigned, Joseph J. Chalmers Esq. has succeeded Mr. Randall as Deputy Superintendent of Schools for the State of New York. . . . By a return recently published it appears that 41,000 of the adult population of the State of Georgia can neither read nor write. The return shows an increase of 11,000 of uneducated freemen within ten years, and a rapidity of increase more than the entire population.

Literary and Scientific Intelligence.

MONTHLY SUMMARY.

A discovery, valuable in the present day, has been made in Paris. A glass globe containing a certain liquid was thrown into the water and then broken. The liquid immediately spread itself over the surface of the water and inflamed and continued to burn with an intense flame for fifty-six seconds, throwing out a thick smoke. . . . Mr. Charles Dickens has accepted the office of president of the town of Reading Athenæum, vacant by the death of Judge Talfourd. . . . The University of Edinburgh has conferred the honorary degree of LL.D. on Mr. George Findlay, author of the well known work on Greek and Byzantine history and on Mr. William Freund author of the celebrated Latin Dictionary. . . . Forty-five new planets have been discovered

since the year 1608, a little before the telescope was invented and applied to the heavens. . . . It is stated that Cortes when he first visited lower California, found the weather so extremely warm that he called the country *calida fornax* (Latin for hot furnace), and these words have since been abbreviated into *California*. . . . There are in the United States 694 public libraries, containing an aggregate of 2,201,623 volumes. . . . A metrical version of the Psalms of David by the late Rev. Charles Wesley is about being published in England. . . . The Rt. Hon. T. B. Macaulay M. P. has been elected President of the Edinburgh Philosophical Institution in place of the late Professor Wilson. . . . Prince Albert suggests that instead of the proposed Statue to himself, for the success of the Great Exhibition, Scholarships for proficiency in certain branches of art and science be established. . . . The government have purchased Burlington House in London and its magnificent gardens for £140,000. They are shortly to be opened to the public for the purposes of art and science. . . . Certain inscriptions which have been found on some cylinders recently discovered at the ruins of Babylon clear up several difficulties with regard to the reign of Belshazzar, and reconcile the sacred and profane chronology in some points where they appeared to be hopelessly at variance. . . . Lawrence Oliphant, Esq. the present private Secretary to His Excellency the Earl of Elgin is the author of one or two interesting works of travel—one of which entitled "The Russian Shores of the Black Sea," has been recently re-printed in New York. . . . The French Government has decided that a periodical, containing the reports and papers of literary and scientific societies, accounts of missions, etc. shall henceforth be published under the title of "*Bulletin des Sociétés Savans*." . . . Hugh Miller the distinguished geological writer has been presented with a piece of plate by a few friends as an expression of their approval of his editorship of the *Edinburgh Witness*. . . . Several English and French Artists have accompanied the expedition to the East in order to sketch by pencil and photograph the scenes they may witness. . . . Lamartine proposes to write a series of Turkish Tales which he intends should form a companion volume to the celebrated "*Arabian Nights*." . . . The waters of the Lake of Zurich have become so low that the remains of some Celtic architecture have been discovered, the previous existence of which was never suspected. . . . The N. Y. Mercantile Library having been removed to its new home on the 8th inst. addresses were delivered on the occasion by the Governor of the State and other distinguished persons. The library contains nearly 50,000 Volumes. . . . The Earl of Carlisle has been elected President of the Royal Society of Literature for the ensuing year. . . . The annual meeting of the British Association is to be held, this year, at Liverpool—commencing on the 21st of September, and special pains have been taken to render it attractive and interesting. St. George's Hall—one of the finest buildings for public meetings in Europe—has been placed at the disposal of the Association. . . . The Institut Canadien, of Quebec, is offering three medals valued at \$60, each for the best French compositions on three specified subjects. The first is on "The Educational establishments, and literary and scientific institutions, of Canada, their history, their destiny, and their influence on French nationality."—The second, "the eulogy of Lake Champlain;" and the third, "the Commerce of Canada: what it has been; what it is; what it will be."—The prizes are to be delivered at a public sitting of the Institut.

HISTORY OF "UNCLE TOM'S CABIN."

The history of this remarkable book is thus told by the Boston correspondent of the N. Y. Literary Gazette of the 1st inst: "An editor of a public journal wanted a tale for his columns; a lady was engaged to prepare one, which she did; that tale was published, and thrown by with the thousand-and-one things that are read in newspapers and then forgotten. But there was, as it would seem, a 'divinity' 'shaping the end' of that newspaper story. Another lady, the wife of a publisher, remembered it, and it was much in her thoughts. She thought it ought to be made into a book, and she urged her husband to undertake its publication. He demurred, and did not wish to think of it; but after much importunity one evening, he promised that he would write to the authoress and ascertain her mind. And so, at a late hour of the night, and to redeem the pledge which he had somewhat incautiously made, he wrote his letter, which brought from the writer of the story the promise of an interview in a few days or weeks. The interview was had, the tale was to be published, and the writer to share in the profits of its sale. There was, however, little hope in regard to the enterprise, so little that the husband of the writer, when doing the business in his wife's behalf, embodied his expectations in words like these:—'If the profits of the work shall be sufficient to buy my wife a silk dress, that will do;' and afterwards. 'If we can only realize enough from the sale of the book, to purchase a

small cottage in which we may live, this is all I could ask; for we could then live upon my salary.' In due time, 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' sees the light, and its name is borne on every wind. It is, in one way or another, brought to the mind of almost every man and woman in the nation. And there is also genius in these volumes. The characters, many of them, are very exquisitely drawn. The book is exciting; it makes the nerves twitch, and the tears flow, and the heart burn, and the tongue mutter hasty, and sometimes vindictive words. And therefore it is read. And so 'Uncle Tom' goes over the land, and across the sea, and becomes over all the broad area of freedom, the popular idol. And this has been the history of the Book, till *three hundred and ten thousand* copies have been sold in this country, and unknown thousands beyond the sea, and the fortunate writer has realized from the home sale of the work, the pretty sum of *thirty thousand dollars*, and from the sale abroad, we know not how many thousands more."

IMPORTANT DISCOVERIES IN GALVANISM.—Professor Callan of St. Patrick's College, Maynooth, has recently made some valuable discoveries in Galvanism, in explaining which, he says:—"Soon after I had discovered the cast iron nitric acid battery, I commenced a series of experiments on the decomposition of water by the galvanic battery, with a view to obtain a steady and brilliant oxyhydrogen lime-light, such as might answer for light-houses. In a paper on our large galvanic battery, dated April 6, 1848, and published in the *London Philosophical Magazine* of the following July, I stated that 'I got the lime-light by igniting the mixed gases as they were produced by the decomposition of water, and throwing the flame on lime.' Although I succeeded to a certain extent in obtaining the light which I sought, much still remained to be done. I found that the instruments previously used were unfit for my purpose, and was therefore obliged to devise and make several new ones. My experiments ultimately led to the following results:—First, a new apparatus for safely employing the mixed gases to produce the oxyhydrogen flame and lime-light. Secondly, a new voltameter, to which a common jet may be screwed and the mixed gases inflamed as they issue from it, without the smallest risk of a dangerous explosion, and by which the full decomposing effect of a hundred, or of any number of cells arranged in one series, may be produced without exhausting the power of the battery more rapidly than if it contained only four cells. This voltameter is new in every respect; new in the material of the decomposing vessel, which is wrought iron, an inch thick, coated inside with an alloy of lead and tin, or of lead, tin, and antimony; new in the manner in which the decomposing plates are connected with the opposite ends of the battery, whilst the vessel remains air-tight; new in the material as well as the arrangement of these plates; new, finally, in the fluid through which the voltaic current is made to pass, in order to produce the mixed gases. I have found that with the common voltameter a battery of a hundred cast iron cells will not produce more than the 25th part, and that a battery of 500 cells will not produce the hundredth part of its full decomposing effect. The third result is a new negative element, cheaper, more durable, and one that may be made to act more powerfully, than the platinised silver used in Smee's battery. The fourth result is a new 'Means of protecting iron of every kind against the action of the weather, and of various corroding substances, so that iron, thus protected, will answer for roofing, cisterns, baths, gutters, window frames, telegraphic wires, for marine and various other purposes.' This is the title of the invention as set forth in the application for letters patent."

L'ECOLE DES BEAUX ARTS IN PARIS.—The Ecole des Beaux Arts is the great public school of France, corresponding to the English Royal Academy, and from a report published in 1845, by Mr. Townsend, we learn that the instruction is gratis, admission being obtained by competitions in the months of March and September. Here the educational system is the same, in reference to elementary studies, as that in the schools of the private professors, the most eminent of whom, indeed, also occupy chairs in this institution, and are paid by the government. The general tendency of the arrangement is to promote a spirit of emulation and consequent industry, among the élèves—this being, in fact, the distinguishing feature in the training of youth throughout the French metropolis. The competitors for admission are generally five hundred, of which number perhaps one hundred succeed. The "admitted" are divided into two classes, of odd and even numbers, and the studies of these two classes are conducted week by week, alternately, after the Antique and the Life, in the two great amphitheatres devoted to the purpose. The model sits six consecutive days. The proportion of sculptors is about twenty in a hundred. The professors attend in rotation, from five to seven in the evening. During the studentship there is a monthly competition, the decisions being given every quarter. One silver and two

bronze medals are distributed, for each month, the third class medal being worth no more than seven francs. The merits of the drawings, however, being rigidly scanned, much value is attached to success, particularly as the medallists are entitled to a choice of places, and to a prolonged right to academic study, while the non-medallists must contend again at the expiration of six months. In this Palais des Beaux Arts the very building itself inspires a consciousness of the respect willingly accorded to the avocation to which it is devoted. On every side, incorporated with the edifice, are mementoes of the past, appealing either to the feeling of beauty or to reverence for the great predecessors in art. The *chefs-d'œuvre* of Michael Angelo, in painting and sculpture, re-appear in the "chapel." The choicest riches of sculpture, from Greece, to the middle ages, and to the present day, are disposed through its superb saloons, and the very doors exhibit valuable relics of wood carving, the best representatives of "ornament" being constantly mingled with the specimens of higher art. Nor are its students left unnoticed in these testimonies to worth. Besides the chambers, in which their first distinguished productions are displayed, some of their subsequent labors are mingled with the best in the saloons; and in the amphitheatre devoted to the prize-giving, the fine genius of Delaroché has assembled the artist chiefs of various epochs to witness, as it were, the triumph of the rising youth of France. On entering the amphitheatre, the semicircular wall, which extendg itself in front of the spectator, and toward which ascend the rows of benches for the assembly, is seen expanding its painted surface to the extent of 80 feet in length and 24 feet in height. In the picture a simple colonnade appears to run partially round, forming, with equal portions of blue sky on the right and left, the background to a lengthened series of groups, the lines of whose composition intertwist with consummate skill. From the source of light, which is in the cupola above, certain gilded lines of construction pass down to unite themselves with those that form the framework of the picture, thus affording, in conjunction with the skill of the artist, a delusive effect which the peculiarity of the subject renders meritorious and charming. The result intended by the painter is immediately produced; the august presence into which he has been ushered at once forces itself on the consciousness of the spectator, who resigns himself to the influence of a fancy attended with so much gratification. The "Hemicycle" is a proud addition for Delaroché to a host of works which have been stamped with public applause throughout Europe; it is an admirable tribute to the fame of those great artists with whose renowned future ages will cordially associate his own. It is said he received the order of the Minister of the Interior to paint the work, to consist of twenty-four figures, for which he was to receive the sum of three thousand pounds. He supplied a sketch in conformity with this agreement; it was approved of, and it was arranged that he should furnish the picture in a year. Subsequently, he so completely altered, or rather enlarged, his plan, that he introduced into the work not fewer than 75 figures, and in executing it he occupied not less than three years. Offered by the government a large pecuniary present on the completion of the "Hemicycle" he waived it for himself, on condition that it should be offered to increase the excellence of the engraving, which is just published under sanction of government.

ERRATUM.—In the Apportionment to the County of Perth published in the *Journal* for last month, for *Elma* read *Ellice*.

NEW MAP OF CANADA.

THE EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT having recently prepared a new and accurate MAP OF BRITISH AMERICA, according to the latest Parliamentary divisions and corrections, the following copies have been ordered for the Schools in the Counties referred to:—

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