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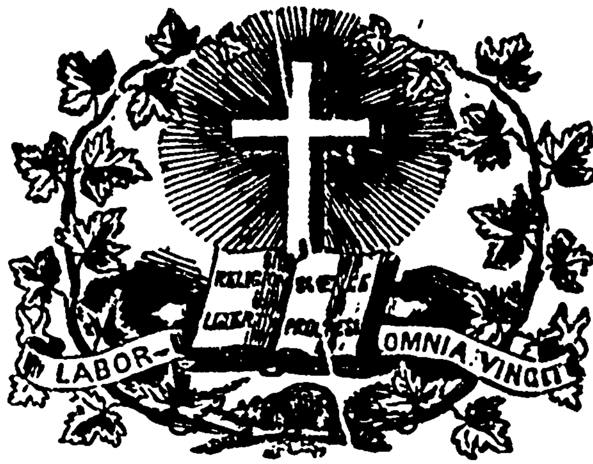

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

Volume XII. **Quebec, Province of Quebec, March, 1868.** **No. 3.**

SUMMARY.—LITERATURE : Conversation (concluded). – Etiquette.—CANADIAN HISTORY : Memoirs of the Richelieu, No. 1. History of the River.—EDUCATION : Popular errors concerning Education, and their influence, by D. Nasmuth, Esq., Barrister-at-Law (concluded) —Use and Methods of Object Lessons. — SCIENCE : Professor Sir C. Wheatstone. — OFFICIAL NOTICES : Appointment of Boards of Examiners for Chicoutimi, Percé, Rimouski, and Bedford (Protestant), of School Inspector for St. Hyacinthe District, of Examiner to the Quebec Board.—Correction of Error in Superintendent's Report.—Notice to Secretary-Treasurers of School Municipalities. – EDITORIAL : Obituary of Rt. Hon. Sir E. W. Head, Bart.—Report of the Superintendent of Education for Lower Canada, for the year 1866.—Annual Report of McGill University. — MONTHLY SUMMARY – Educational Intelligence Lecture by the Hon. J. S. Sanborn, before the Library Association of Sherbrooke.—Necrological Intelligence: Dr. Archibald Hall, Montreal.—Meteorological Intelligence.

LITERATURE

Conversation.

(Concluded.)

There can be no doubt that, as a rule, the readiness of women in conversation is much greater than that of men. The renowned Mrs. Poyser, speaking as the advocate of her sex as against those " poor tongue-tied creatures " the men, thanks Providence that " when she has anything to say she can mostly find words to say it in." But in this she surely does the ladies less than common justice. So much as this might be said in behalf of a fair proportion of those whom she regards as the more helpless half of society. It is when they have *nothing* to say that women show their immense superiority in saying it. They can create conversation, which is the great social difficulty. Give a man a subject that he knows anything about, and unless he be really a fool or morbidly reticent, he can talk about it so as to make himself fairly intelligible, and perhaps interesting, to those for whom the subject has any interest. Those who are prophets of very stammering lips indeed, in the general course of social talk, become almost eloquent when their feeling or enthusiasm is excited. Men throw off the slowness and hesitation which cramps all their powers in society, just as they throw off the physical infirmity of stuttering (which is a well-known fact) under the influence of some awakening theme or some strong sympathy. But the power of conversation in some women, and not always those of remarkable ability, is the very art of making bricks without straw. They will talk to one by the hour about nothing that is, on no particular subject and with no particular object and talk coherently and not foolishly, and very pleasantly, all the time. It would be very difficult perhaps for the listener to carry away with him any mental notes of what has been said: he may not be conscious of having gained any new ideas, or of having had his old ones much enlarged; but he will rise and go his way as one does after a light and wholesome meal, sensibly cheered and refreshed, but retaining no troublesome memories of the ingredients which have composed it. Nothing showed the morbid condition of William Hazlitt's mind more remarkably than the confession from a man of his unquestioned ability, that he " found it difficult to keep up conversation with women." It is very well to call the talk of women trifling and frivolous; if it is pleasant and graceful, it is all that can be desired. Conversation should be the relaxation, not the business, of life; and the moralists who require that it should always be of an " improving " character have no true idea of its proper social uses. Improving! have we not sermons, good books, lectures, institutions, athanæums, and a complicated educational machinery enough of all kinds to improve us all off the face of the earth, if nature did not oppose a little wholesome duncehood to this sweeping tide of instruction? Must the schoolmaster still follow us into our little holiday? If the " queens of society " will only give us talk which shall be bright without ill-natured sharpness, playful without silliness—if they will show us that affectation, vanity, jealousy, and slander are no necessary ingredients in the social dialogue, but that rather they give an ill savour to the wittiest and the cleverest play of words – if they will remember that good-humour, sympathy, and the wish to please for the sake of giving pleasure will lend a charm to the most common place thoughts and expressions,—their conversation will " improve " us, perhaps, quite as much as most popular lectures and some popular sermons. The talk which puts you in good-humour with yourself and with your neighbours is not wholly profitless. If it has but made half an hour pass pleasantly which with a less agreeable companion would have been spent in gloomy silence, broken by spasmodic efforts, resulting in disgust at your own and his or her stupidity, it will have effected one of the ends for which speech was given us. To be always seeking to make conversation profitable is to take a very commercial view of the transaction, of which none but a true Briton could be capable. The poet's graceful warning against utilitarianism was not altogether unneeded for the men of his generation :—

> " Oh! to what uses shall we put
> The wild weed flower that simply blows?
> And is there any moral shut
> Within the bosom of the rose?"

Voice and manner have much to do with the qualifications of a pleasant talker. And here of course the ladies beat us easily. It was this that lent the irresistible charm, which all his listeners acknowledged, to the conversation of Chateaubriand. It is really not so much what is said, as how it is said, that makes the difference between the talkers of society. In public discussions, in Parliament or elsewhere, though the graces of voice and manner are valuable adjuncts to the speaker, especially in the opening of his career, he soon commands the attention of his audience, in spite of personal defects in these particulars, when it is once found that he can speak to the purpose. But all the good sense and ability in the world will not make up, in society, for a hesitating and embarrassed manner, or even for a very disagreeable voice. We may be conscious that the man has plenty to say, but we receive no pleasure from his talk.

Women have also nearly always the good taste to avoid those harangues and declamations which are really only gross interruptions of personal egotism upon the general entertainment. Those are not the faults into which women are naturally tempted; they are conscious that their force rather lies in touching a subject lightly and letting it go. But they are the pitfalls into which even sensible men continually stumble, when warmed by some favourite subject. If indulged in, they make the speaker, however well-informed in matter and felicitous in expression, an intolerable nuisance anywhere but on a platform; and public meetings have a good deal to answer for, inasmuch as they encourage a taste for these solo performances. No one who wishes that conversation should be pleasant to his neighbours as well as himself, should speak more than two or three sentences at once. However much he may have to say, it will be all the more agreeably said for giving others the opportunity of assenting, illustrating, qualifying, or even contradicting. The ball needs to be returned by the opposite player to make a lively game. It is given to very few to keep a circle of hearers charmed by a continuous monologue, as Coleridge could for an hour together; and even he was very often complained of, outside the immediate circle of his clients and worshippers, as a monopolist of the common rights of speech. His was not really conversation at all; it was, as De Quincey says, not *colloquium*, but *alloquium*. No wonder that one of his most loyal disciples tells us that "there were some whom he tired, and some whom he sent to sleep." That Ancient Mariner, who held the wedding gues. fascinated by "his glittering eye" while he told the long story of his sufferings, would have been intolerable in real life even at a wedding breakfast, where talk is notoriously scarce and difficult.

But far more objectionable than calm monologue is the dogmatical talker. In the former case, so long as the stream flows smoothly and melodiously, the listener can at the worst take refuge in a dreamy repose. But the speaker who insists on continually laying down the law not only wearies but irritates. Wellbred persons of any social experience decline to answer him; and he probably stirs up at last some impetuous novice who falls an easy prey to his arms, and so encourages him the more in his self-sufficiency. Johnson must have been largely indebted both to the forbearance of one class and the folly of the other for his conversational triumphs. It was not only Boswell who set himself up continually as a nine-pin to be bowled over others made themselves victims unwillingly, after a rash and impotent struggle, as he did willingly. Fox and Gibbon are said to have been silent in his presence. It does not necessarily imply any inferiority on their parts in real conversational ability. They may have felt that their self-respect would not allow them either to battle with him in his own style, and thus draw upon themselves some of his rude and violent rejoinders—to be knocked down, as Goldsmith said, with the butt of his pistol, after his shot had missed—or to appear to yield to him a victory which was not fairly won. Any one who will be at the pains to listen impartially to a social discussion will find that it is by no means always that truth and good sense, or even real ability, remain masters of the field. These only too often give way to a loud voice, a confident manner, and reckless assertion. It is often not worth while to put down a noisy pretender at the risk of an interminable argument (for such opponents seldom know when they are beaten), or of some disturbance to the social good humour of the company. A gentleman may have other reasons for not engaging in a street fight than because he is afraid of a man's fists. Yet it is unfortunate that mere hardihood should have in this, as in other cases, even an apparent social triumph. It is here that the conversational "arbiter," who has been already suggested, might reasonably step in, like Queen Elizabeth at the old University disputations, and bid the noisy and illogical disputant hold his peace.

Yet, after all, the art of listening is at least as important as the art of talking. Not to press the truism, that without listeners of some kind talk becomes either a Babel or a soliloquy, without an intelligent listener the best talker is at sea. Good listening is quite as popular a social quality as good talking. It is a mistake to conclude rashly that it is easier. A fool never listens, unless you put a direct question, or tell him the last current piece of grossip or scandal. Brissot left it on record of Benjamin Franklin, as one secret of his power. that he had the art of listening. "Il écoutait—entendez-vous, lecteur? Et pourquoi ne nous a-t-il pas laissé quelques idées sur l'art d'écouter?" It is a treatise which yet remains to be written. The art leaves too little room for brilliancy of display to induce many to study it. But other statesmen besides Franklin have practised it with success, and it is invaluable to all who are set in authority. In ordinary society perhaps nothing will so soon embarrass, and finally shut up, the empty talker, supposing him to have any brains at all, as to catch the eye of an intelligent listener. There is often a more mortifying conviction of his own incapacity forced upon such a person by the marked and pregnant silence of one who has evidently taken in every word that he has been saying, and from whom, in the natural course of things, he looks for a reply, than by the most emphatic contradiction. If, as we are so often told, "speech is silvern, but silence is golden," in this case it may be said that, while speech might chastise him with whips, silence stings him with scorpions. The probability is, that he will flounder on with some attempt either of reiteration, explanation, or qualification, which, in the face of that attentive and merciless silence, plunges him into irretrievable confusion. You may choke off the most inveterate teller of long stories by listening with an eager interest all through, and preserving a look of expectation after he has finished, as if still waiting for "point."

Not less than its polemical value in argument, is the social value of listening as an accomplishment. It is a somewhat humbling consideration, but it may be taken as undoubtedly true, that for one person in the company who wishes to listen to us (always excepting very young ladies and very deaf people), there are three who prefer that we should listen to them. Good listening, be it remembered, does not imply merely sitting still and holding one's tongue. It means attention—involving a certain amount of complimentary deference, and a skilful use of appreciative gestures and interjections. The favourable estimate which will be formed of the listener's own judgment, taste, and ability, in return for even a moderate exercise of this talent, will be a more than adequate reward. You may discourse for a whole evening, and impress no single person with any opinion of your powers; but if you can listen judiciously, and with a proper emphasis in your silence, to one or two of the talkers present, you may safely reckon on their testimony in your favour as an intelligent and agreeable man.. Of course, the perfect listener should possess largely the power of abstraction. He should be able to devote his visible attention to the veriest proser to whom he may be allotted as a captive for the time, while he is gathering in the pleasanter sounds which reach his ear from more distant quarters. There is some danger in this to the inexperienced. It incurs the risk of a sad misplacing of the needful interjections. Besides, most people listen with their eyes as well as with

their ears. If, while trying to maintain a dialogue with an uninteresting neighbour, they want to catch what is being said on the opposite side of the table, they allow their glances to wander unmistakably to the point of attraction, or try to look out of the corners of them, as a magpie does, in a fashion which neither improves their own personal appearance nor gratifies the party to whom they affect to give their undivided attention. The cleverest compliment in words will fail to propitiate the lady who sits next you, if she discovers that all the time your eyes are, like the fool's, in the ends of the earth. So long as these do their duty, she may construe silence into admiration, and excuse your stupidity to herself on the ground that the charms of her person and conversation may be rather overwhelming to a modest man: but there can be no misinterpreting the fatal evidence of the wandering glances. It is only the really accomplished listener who can devote his eyes and all his visible allegiance where they are legally due, and yet keep his ears open to what he really wants to hear. To do this well requires something of the quality of mind which can play two games of chess at once. It is a great social triumph to be able, after having done your duty in one quarter, and receiving an honourable dismissal from the bore of the evening, to walk quietly across the room, and take up at once the threads of conversation somewhere else, and show a thorough acquaintance with all that has been said there already. It implies the compliment that your interest has been irresistibly drawn in that direction, though duty chained you to the oar elsewhere.

It is a mistake to suppose that the choice of subjects has much to do with the success of conversation. As the devout reader of nature is said to possess the faculty of finding "sermons in stones," so the true social artist finds talk in everything. A writer in a popular journal speaks as if, in London society, the exhibitions and the opera during half the year, and travelling for the other half, formed the necessary topics, and that the great art would be to treat them with sufficient variety. No doubt they are very useful subjects, and in the hands of a good talker will do just as well as anything else. But the conversational powers which can only discourse upon a theme, are not of the true order. They will be of very little use at those awful moments when the regular stock subjects have been worn to death by more clumsy hands, and a diversion is acquired.

Some of the most important ingredients in a good talker are mainly physical, when all is said. Lively animal spirits, moderate self-confidence, and a wish to please, will go much farther to make an agreeable, if not a highly accomplished talker, than great abilities or fulness of information. It is because they possess very largely the two first qualifications, that the Irish, the French, and, in a less degree, the Welsh, are more ready in conversation than most Englishmen. And where really clever men fail in the art, it may be often from a morbid dislike to compete in a race which they enter at a disadvantage against the light-weights whose natural vivacity, imperturbable digestion, and happy unconsciousness carry them through to the end.

BLACKWOOD.

ETIQUETTE.

"It is well known," says Sir Walter Scott, "that a man may with more impunity be guilty of an actual breach either of good-breeding or of good morals than appear ignorant of the most minute point of etiquette." In fact, etiquette is the manual exercise and regulation of society. It is to the citizen what drill and exercise are to the soldier. The latter may be a brave man, but he can not be an accomplished soldier unless he is acquainted with the minutiæ of his profession. So, in the world, to be thoroughly well-bred, one must be *au fait* to the etiquette of society. A knowledge of etiquette, therefore, may be said to be an important part of good-breeding. Now all persons desire to be thought well-bred. Inferiority in any thing is not pleasant; but inferiority in that which is so constantly manifest, and in that in which all claim to be equal, is most wounding to that extremely sensitive feature in human character—vanity. A breach of etiquette almost always draws ridicule upon the offender. It betokens a want of acquaintance with the rules of society, a want of familiarity with the manners of refined life. Society, too, is always lynx-eyed, critical, and exacting. It promptly avenges the violation of its minutest laws, whether those laws be founded in reason or not. It will more easily endure bad morals than vulgarity. Thus, at the feast given by Prince John, after the tournament of Ashby-de-la-Zouche, Cedric the Saxon, "who dried his hands with a towel, instead of suffering the moisture to exhale by waving them gracefully in the air, incurred more ridicule from the cultivated Normans than his companion, Athelstane, when the latter swallowed, to his own single share, the whole of a large pasty composed of the most exquisite foreign delicacies, termed at that time a *Karum-pie.*" Again, in illustration of the same principle, when at this feast "it was discovered, after a serious cross-examination, that the Thane of Coningsburg had no idea of what he had been devouring, and that he had taken the contents of the Karum-pie for larks and pigeons, whereas they were in fact beccáficoes and nightingales, his ignorance brought him in for an ample share of the ridicule which would have been more justly bestowed on his gluttony."

It requires a great deal of hardihood or insensibility of character to escape from the feeling of mortification or chagrin which always accompanies the exhibition of an ignorance of etiquette. Yet nothing is more arbitrary than etiquette. It varies with the nation and with the city, and it may well be asked: How is it to be learned? Must the etiquette of all the world be studied to constitute one well-bred? To a certain extent it must, or one must be content either to remain at home or pass for uncultivated, and thus not infrequently meet with mortifications which might have been avoided. Ignorance of the etiquette of the society in which we ordinarily move is unpardonable; the arbitrary rules of other society may be sufficiently ascertained to enable one to move in it with propriety, if not with elegance. The American who has learned in New York and Paris that a gentleman should always appear gloved in a drawing-room, and would not venture to display himself ungloved in the salons of either of the cities we have mentioned, would naturally feel surprised upon entering the drawing-room of the Queen with irreproachable lavenders to find himself quietly requested to remove his gloves, as it is not the etiquette to cover the hands in the presence of her Majesty. If the same gentleman were to sport his beaver in the presence of the King of Spain, because he saw others do so, he would be quietly informed that it was not the etiquette for a foreigner to infringe the peculiar privilege of the grandees of Castile. A little inquiry would prevent such errors and the chagrin that ever accompanies them. No person should presume to mingle in a society which is unfamiliar to him without endeavoring first to learn some of its peculiarities. When Hajji Baba went to England, attached to the legation of the Turkish ambassador, and heard the people hiss the Prince Regent, he thought it was the thing to hiss; and so he hissed with all his might; but very soon Hajji found that he had "eaten dirt." An incident once occurred in St. Petersburg which illustrates the annoyance which may spring from an absence of acquaintance with a particular usage or matter of etiquette. During the life of the late Emperor a court dinner was given in honor of a foreign gentleman and his daughter. The latter of course occupied the seat of honor on the right of his Majesty. Toward the close of the dinner white grapes were offered, and, as usual, the servitor presented the golden vase crowned with white grapes of rare quality to the young lady first. She had been brought up, if not in a sunny clime, at least where white grapes were no uncommon fruit. It was winter. But, doubtless, the young lady had often seen white grapes on her father's table at home even in winter, and was not surprised to find them on the table of

the Czar in January. Acting, therefore, as she would have done at home, without any hesitation she took a cluster from the vase and laid it upon the golden plate before her. Shortly, however, she observed that when the grapes were offered to the other guests each one took a golden knife, which was upon the vase, and cut off one, two, or, at the most, three grapes. Even the Emperor did not exceed the latter number. Evidently white grapes were regarded in St. Petersburg at that season as an elegant luxury, and were to be tasted—as Lord Bacon said some books ought to be—not eaten. Nevertheless there lay the bunch of grapes upon the young lady's plate, the too unfortunate evidence of her dereliction of etiquette. It can be easily imagined how excessively she was annoyed at her mistake. Indeed, she afterward remarked, when telling the story, that she never in all her life contemplated any thing half so disagreeable as that bunch of grapes was to her under the circumstances. Yet it was a very natural mistake—one that most any American would have made—but we venture to say, that, though it was an awkward incident, it did not even excite a smile at the expense of the beautiful representative—for she was very beautiful—of republican America, on the countenances of the refined *habitués* of the imperial court.

Mr. Marshall used to relate an amusing case of ignorance to which he was witness at Washington. It took place at the White House during dinner, or rather at the close of it. When the finger-glasses were put on, a member of Congress from that part of the country where De Tocqueville says there is plenty of population but no society, who had never seen one before, observing that the glass placed before him contained a little water and slice of lemon, supposed that it was lemonade, and immediately drank it up. Shortly after the servant, noticing that the member's glass had no water in it, removed it, and placed another properly filled in its stead. The contents of this were promptly disposed of also. The waiter soon furnished a third glass. But this was too much for the philosophy of the worthy member, so stopping the waiter, he said to him, "Take it to that gentleman over there; he's only had one." The colored gentleman, who had "acquired" during his service at the White House, and had "seen life," was much amused.

A question of etiquette drew from Napoleon one of those witty speeches for which he was celebrated. After the establishment of the imperial nobility with which Napoleon surrounded his throne, the Emperor gave a grand ball. For certain reasons he was present only a very short time. Late in the evening, when the company were requested to enter the banquet-hall, a struggle took place between the newly-elevated ladies in regard to priority. The contest becoming warm, the doors of the banquet-room were kept closed, and the master of ceremonies retired to consult the Emperor with respect to the matter. "Announce as his Majesty's commands," said Napoleon, "that the *eldest* enter first, and that the others follow in proportion to their *age*." It will readily be conceived that there was little contention after the announcement. Indeed, if the noble ladies had not feared to offend his Majesty, and perhaps, with French quickness, appreciated the *esprit* of the Emperor, probably this would have dispensed with the banquet altogether. Among the *ancien régime*, the old nobility of France, such a scene could not have occurred. Etiquette was carried to the utmost extent by the Bourbons. Indeed so important was it considered that, during the reign of Louis XVI., one lady of the court, who had particular charge of matters of form and propriety, was called "Madame Etiquette." It was disregard of Madame that brought much trouble upon poor Marie Antoinette. But the *ancien régime* of France were chivalric; with them *noblesse oblige* was a rule, and they may be pardoned an over-love of form. In Louis XIV.'s reign Marly was considered delightful, because there etiquette was relaxed. An invitation to Marly was a thing to be coveted, an honor which was greatly appreciated by all who were high enough in favor to obtain it. "Pardon, Sire, the rain of Marly can not wet any one," was the polite and complimentary reply of a gentleman whom the King requested to be covered during a slight shower when they were walking in the garden together. Court etiquette is often oppressive, and it is not surprising that monarchs and the nobility should gladly seek some favored spot where they may be in a measure released from its trammels.

Etiquette is near akin to courtesy, which we know was born of chivalry. If chivalry possessed no other merit it certainly had that of refining the manners of the world. Before the days of chivalry politeness was but little understood, and particular politeness to woman was hardly known. The strongest "took the wall" of his neighbor. Chivalry, however, taught that generosity is a virtue, and that strength must waive its rights. When the horse of De Grantmesnil, at the tournament of Ashby, swerved in his course, Ivanhoe declined to take the advantage which this accident afforded him; and "De Grantmesnil acknowledged himself vanquished, as much by the courtesy as by the skill of his opponent." The principle is seen now in a gentleman's giving the wall to the lady, and in doffing his beaver in salutation. Only the poor is unacquainted with these ordinary customs. The extremity to which such politeness is carried in our country—which makes it the paradise of women—may be observed any day in the railroad cars, where an old gentleman is often seen to stand up for a mile in order to give a seat to a young lady, who very likely is more able to stand than he is. We wish that some of our fair country-women, who are the prettiest and most pleasant women in the world, knew that etiquette requires of them to show some sense of the politeness of which they are so often the subjects in the public conveyances by at least a smile of appreciation. Rudeness and awkwardness are apt to shade into each other; they produce something of the same effect. To have a lady neglect to recognize a politeness which costs you something, and to have a gentleman tug at his well-fitting glove to get it off in order to shake hands with you, when he ought to know that when gloved he ought to shake hands with his gloves on, are equally annoying. The continual iteration of the word, Sir, in conversation is a habit unfortunately too common in our country, and which should be amended. In really refined society it is never heard. In England it is deemed servile. It is singular that many do not observe peculiarities, never distinguish in appellations, nor see an especial fitness in certain expressions. You constantly hear people say, a flock of geese (meaning wild geese) for a *line* of geese, a flock of deer for a *herd* of deer, a flock of partridges for a *covey* of patridges, a flock a larks for a *bevy* of larks, a lot of girls for a *bevy* of ladies. Exactness of expression, where the language may be understood, should always be adhered to. We should say, a whist *pack*, and a euchre *deck*; but we should avoid scientific and technical expressions, which convey no meaning to very many in general society.

We have said that etiquette is arbitrary. Yet, in some points, it will be found to be based upon reason and good taste. For instance, upon entering a room at a party the gentleman should offer his right arm to the lady, in order that she may have her right hand free, and also be able to display her drapery to the most advantage. Upon taking leave the lady should not take the gentleman's arm, so that both may have their right hands free in case the hostess should offer to shake hands on parting. When the farewell is made the lady should take the gentleman's arm to retire. In going up stairs the gentleman should always precede the lady; in going down stairs the lady should lead. Shaking hands is so universal in our country that it has grown into a mere form, and means very little. In England a gentleman will bow to one to whom he would not give his hand. The latter is considered private and due only to a friend, and is extended only as a sign of regard, or through especial courtesy. In our country to refuse the hand is considered rude, and both ladies and gentlemen shake hands at all times and in all places. But, because shaking hands is an American custom, it is not wrong or a violation of proper etiquette. Our country is as much entitled to its own customs as any other nation; and

because they may differ from those of other countries is no reason why we should be ashamed of them, or give heed to the comments of foreigners who criticise us by their own standards. We should be self-reliant and independent. The manners of no two nations are the same in every particular. They may well all vary, and yet all be in accordance with propriety and good feeling. The older a people are the more likely it is that they will have cultivated manners. It is natural, therefore, that we should defer in many respects to the older civilization of Europe. Our country, however, though it have a life of its own, is the outgrowth of the Old World, and hence is not as young in its manners as it is in its years. The well-bred of this country are as well bred as any people in the world. According to Mr. Cooper, they speak their language as well as the well-bred of other nations speak theirs. The time will come when America will give tone to the world; and until then we may possess our souls in peace, indifferent to criticism and fault-finding from abroad.

Etiquette is closely connected with politeness, and politeness should spring, not from mere discipline, but from a kind regard for the feelings of others. If you should be asked, "What *route* did you take last summer?" do not reply, pronouncing the word *roote*, but avoid the use of the word route, so that you hurt not the feelings of the questioner, who chances not to be acquainted with the new, fashionable pronunciation. It was formerly considered a marked evidence of true politeness in a certain gentleman in England, that, in alluding to any one who had been engaged in the last rebellion, he always spoke of him as having been "out in the affair of '45." It showed refined feeling. The principle might be carried throughout the entire intercourse of life, with much advantage to all. Consideration does much to oil the hinges of society. We know a gentleman in this State, whose correspondence probably exceeds that of any other private person in the State; he receives numbers of letters making the most singular requests, and yet he never leaves one unanswered, because he thinks every one is entitled to courtesy and respect. When we say that it is a common occurrence for him to receive letters asking for subscriptions to various projects; for donations to divers objects; for gifts of many sorts; for a silk dress with "*all the trimming;*" for a library of books; for board until educated; for furniture to start in life; and for much more which we have no time to mention, it will be seen that his politeness, as well as his large fortune and liberality, are pretty well tried. But the former never and the latter rarely fail. A kind if not always satisfactory answer is sent to everyletter.

There is an especial etiquette which appertains to the several professions. When the clergy enter a church in procession, the youngest lead, and the inverse order, as it is called, is preserved down to the bishop, who comes last. In their seats the highest in position always takes precedence. It is the etiquette for the laity not to go up the aisles while the people are at prayer; and we may add that it is good manners to pay respect to the customs of the church one may chance to be in.

The etiquette of the army is very particular. It is said that an officer, one placed in command of West Point, attempted to disregard the time-honored usages of the Point; but he soon found that he must conform to them. The etiquette of the navy is not less exacting than that of the army. The superior officer always occupies the windward side of the deck; he also enters a boat *last*, and leaves it *first*.

The etiquette of the bench, of the bar, and of the physician, is likewise thoroughly marked. There is also an etiquette among commercial men; and, among authors too. It would take a volume to recount the whole. We can not even attempt to illustrate the subject further by example. Our object has not been to teach etiquette, but to show that it exists throughout society, and that a knowledge of it forms an element in good-breeding. The observance of it will make all persons more acceptable, and enable them to move more easily in society. Especially will gentlemen be better appreciated who, as Cowper says, have the "ladies' etiquette by heart."—*Harper's Monthly.*

CANADIAN HISTORY.

Memoirs of the Richelieu.

No. 1.—HISTORY OF THE RIVER.

This beautiful stream is intimately associated with the history of Canada. Its original name was Iroquois River, owing to the fact—that, in early times, these savage warriors used it as their great highway, in their continual wars against the Hurons, and their fearful depredations on the settlements of Quebec and Three Rivers.

Champlain was the first European who explored it from its mouth to a distant point on the lake which still bears his name. Finding that his infant colony at Quebec was in continual danger of extermination from the irruptions of the Iroquois, who were furnished with fire arms by the Dutch of New York, he determined on pursuing them into their own country and there bringing them to a decisive battle. In the spring of 1609, accompanied by a party of Hurons and Algonquins, he started for the dreaded land of the Mohawks. After stopping at the mouth of the river to take in a supply of fish and game and consult on a plan of campaign, he ascended it for a distance of some forty five miles, without meeting with any obstacle. The deep primeval forests hung over him from either bank. he encountered no living thing, except the wild birds on the branches and the stag drinking on the river's edge. Suddenly he heard the roar of waters tumbling over and among rocks, and observed long streaks of foam sweeping past his birch canoe. It was the rapids of Chambly. His party landed and the Indians made a *portage*, that is they transported on their shoulders their skiffs, arms and baggage to a point where the river was again navigable. The expedition then continued its march without incident, till one fine summer morning, its canoes shot into the clear waters of Lake Champlain. The great traveller seems to have traversed its whole length, for he discovered Lake George, at its southern extremity. He gave the measurement of Lake Champlain as 180 miles long, a singular mistake for so accurate an explorer. The correct figure is 108 miles from Whitehall to Rouse's Point though from the former place to Fort Henry, the lake is no more than a very narrow river in which a large steamer cannot turn.

Champlain was also the first discoverer, of the romantic Adirondack Mountains. They were pointed out to him by his Indian companions as the boundary of the Mohawk land,

Alter a long search, the terrible enemy was at length overtaken. A battle ensued in which the Mohawks were defeated by the arquebuses of Champlain and two of his white associates; but the victory was unimportant and not worth the trouble which it cost.

The precise spot where this engagement took place is not known, though some of the old geographers set it down at the promontory of Ticonderoga or Carillon, as it was called by the French.

Champlain and his band lost no time in retracing their steps. They followed the same route by which they had come, and parted company only at the rapids of Chambly. The Indians moved across the country to reach the mouth of the Ottawa, and Champlain himself continued down to Quebec.

According as the country became settled, the valley of the Richelieu began to fill up. Some of the best families among the colonists chose it as their residence, both on account of the beauty of its scenery and the fertility of its soil. The St. Ours, the Duchesnays, the Deschambeaults, the Rouvilles and others obtained vast grants of land on its banks, thus giving their names to the Seignories which were so long in Lower Canada a farce and an anomaly.

Its direct communication with the United States renders the Richelieu a favorite channel of commerce. It is and has been for years the great highway of the lumber trade. With proper attention it could be made the chief outlet of the wheat and grain market or at least all the parishes lying along its banks or

contiguous to them. It might also be utilized, much more than it is, for manufactures, as its water-power is great and the supply of wood abundant and near at hand all along its eastern border.

It is 80 miles in length and bridged at five places. There is a railway bridge at Rouse's Point, another railway bridge and a fine traveller's bridge at St. Johns, a covered bridge at Chambly, and a railway bridge again at Belœil, rendered famous by the terrible accident of 1864. There are twelve miles of canal from St. Johns to Chambly, but that canal should be much widened for the increased requirements of trade. There is also a dam at St. Ours.

The scenery of the river is of a beautiful, pastoral character. The continuous lines of neat farms along its banks, the white villages nestling under the peaked tin roofs of the Norman-built churches, the stretches of green meadows, the clumps of forest trees, the variety of mountain views at every bend of the stream, constitute a landscape charming to travel through in summer days or by the favor of moonlight. The resemblance of the Richelieu to the Meuse of the Luxemburg valley is striking to any one who has visited both, and its broad sweep into the St. Lawrence at Sorel reminds the traveller of the fall of the Ohio—*La belle rivière* of the French—into the Mississippi, at Cairo.

The present name of the river is derived from an old fort built on the present site of Sorel, by M. de Montmagny. As we shall see in the course of these papers, that fort played an important part in the early history of New France. It was meet that while Lake Champlain preserves the memory of its discoverer, the beautiful river which flows from it should bear the name of the great French Cardinal who did so much for the families settling on its banks.

A more popular name among the French Canadian people is *Rivière Chambly*. It is less frequently called *Sorel River*.—*St. John's News.*

EDUCATION.

Popular errors concerning Education, and their influence.

By D. Nasmith, Esq., Barrister-at-Law.

(*Continued from our last.*)

III. *That Parents have a right to interfere with School Discipline.*—Let us, in approaching this subject, concede to parents that the inconceivable harm they do by their notions, conversations, and actions in this respect, is attributable to a mistaken fondness, and we shall be able to deal with it dispassionately. We say, then, that it is an error to suppose that parents have a right to interfere with school discipline. We make this assertion because the circumstances of the case necessitate it, and any other assumption must resolve itself into an absurdity. The act of placing a child at school is the delegation by the parent of his or her authority, an authority given to the parent by Nature and by the State. That authority is to govern. Government is the imposition of laws for the benefit of the community, of which the governed forms a part; and there cannot be a law without a sanction, or, in other words, without a means of enforcing it. If this position does not hold, then the authority of the parent is not delegated, and the responsibility of the master does not accrue. As a matter of fact, the law holds that it is delegated, and that the master is only responsible to the State, whence the parent derives his authority, if in its exercise he violates the law of the land. But as a second matter of fact, militating against this happy state of things, the parent and master are in a false position relatively; *i. e.*, the parent has, as things at present stand, the right of refusing to continue the supplies; and the poor master is compelled to listen to the whinings of weak-minded parents, and their still more officious friends, and to concede, for personal security, ruinous license. Parents should perhaps have the right to select a school for their children, but they should not have the right to withdraw the child, when once placed, without the permission of a governing scholastic authority, or the order of a magistrate, obtainable only on the production of valid reasons, any more than they should have the right to interfere between the apprentice and his master.

But to the consideration of the causes of interference; they are—1st, want of confidence in the delegate; and 2ndly, ignorance of the nature, object, effect, and spirit of punishment.

1. The want of confidence in the delegate must arise from his real or supposed incapacity for the duties he has undertaken; therefore the parent, in placing the child under him, is clearly guilty of a breach of duty, both to the delegate and to the child, by asking the one to do what he supposes him incapable of doing, and intrusting the other to a person unfit to have his custody. If the incapacity of the master is real, the act of the parent is criminal; if hypothetical, the parent was bound not to act till the fact was established. We apprehend, however, that acts of interference are for the most part unjustifiable, and are traceable to the fault of the parent, and not to that of the delegate; the presumption being—first, that masters do not punish for their own gratification; second, that they do not needlessly peril their own interests, which involve the retention of their pupils; third, that a child who requires much punishment at school must have been badly trained at home.

2. The sole object of punishment is the conservance of the law to which it is attached; this it accomplishes by its direct infliction upon the violator of the law, and by intimidation. Its efficacy depends upon its certainty of overtaking the law-breaker; its nature is akin to the law to which it is attached; and its spirit is the benefit of the punished and justice to those amenable to the same law.

If the law is righteous, and binding upon the whole school, the violator of the law should be punished for his own benefit, and for that of others; to screen him from the punishment he has merited, is to do him an injury and his comrades an injustice.

The efficacy of punishment depends upon its certainty. If human institutions could attach to their laws adequate punishments which would certainly overtake the law-breaker, there would be no law-breaking, at least intentionally; because, presuming the punishment to be adequate, that is to say proportioned to the advantage gained by the commission of the crime, there would be a certain disadvantage to the criminal. No man will deliberately thrust his hand into the fire without the moral certainty of securing something more valuable to him than the pain he is certain to incur; but thousands will plunge their hands into other men's pockets, literally and figuratively, simply because they are buoyed up with the hope of escaping detection and punishment. From whatever source, therefore, failure in the attaching of punishment to the commission of crime comes, crime must increase, and the law fall into contempt. It is better far to have no law, than to suffer it to be violated with impunity. If schoolmasters have not the necessary power, or are placed in circumstances where they are in peril if they exercise it, they might do well to abolish all systems of law suited to civilized bodies in times of peace, and establish a species of school martial law, dealing with the case as the necessity of the moment may require; for, by so doing they will not teach lawlessness. But with modern example before them, they would do well to remember, that popular twaddling sentimentality keeps the halter round the neck of him who rules, more willingly than it places it round that of him who defies the ruler.

IV. *The neglect of Physical Training.*—We have spoken of the five senses, and have endeavoured briefly to point to a few of what we consider to be the existing errors of omission and of commission respecting the mental training of youth. We have seen that the general tendency of the day is to overload the mind; that schools are regarded as places where youth is to be

stocked with a certain amount of information—an amount too frequently considered sufficient to carry the instructed through life; enough to enable him, upon quitting his school or college, to throw down his books, and to regard his education as complete. With such notions prevailing, it is worthy of consideration whether examinations, at all events those that are termed final, are not more injurious than the total non-existence of such examinations; for if the obtaining a given certificate or degree is an assurance to the fortunate candidate that he has done enough, would it not be better that he should never possess it, and thus go on labouring ignorant of what others deem a maximum in any particular? It is to be hoped that the time will come, when this subject will receive the attention it merits; and when all professional bodies and universities will possess and exercise the power of conferring Degrees and distinctions upon all comers at all times, with results of their genius and perseverance that may or can prove of service to society—a day when the members of all professions shall have substantial inducement not to be satisfied with the position of mere practitioners, and when art and science shall not compel its votaries, for the sake of bread, to prostitute their talents to popular bad taste.

But is it possible for any reflecting man to believe that a given amount of information, upon any given number of subjects, is education? Education, we apprehend, has for its object the fitting of the educated for the stern realites of life, and must therefore regard the physical as well as the moral and intellectual being. It must consider him as an individual; as a member of his immediate family; as a component part of that greater family, the State; as a member of humanity, and as a subject of the Almighty. As an individual, it must recognize the fact, that he is physical as well as mental; as a member of his private family, that his interests are inseparable from it; that as a citizen he is bound not merely to avoid being a burden, but that it is his solemn obligation to support and defend it; that his humanity is not limited to country; and that, as a subject of the Everlasting, his aspirations cannot be measured by time.

Mentally it is our business, not so much to instruct him, as to educate him to instruct himself; to give him that assistance that will enable him to overcome early difficulties which might prove insurmountable without it. But it is especially our duty to withhold any aid that would stultify his energy or pauperize his soul: for the want of self-reliance and perseverance is a curse for which no blessing can compensate. Self-reliance, and its attendant, nobility of nature, are inseparable from a good physique, we do not intend a burly animalism, but a mind holding in due subjection a sound nervous body. It is the province of the mind to govern—it is the duty of the body to obey; and a being who cannot hold himself in subjection must be the miserable slave of his own passions, and the ignoble tool of other men.

The fact that athletic sports are being largely replaced by semi-effeminate games, and that healthful recreations are giving way to artificial excitements, should awaken the attention and serious consideration of all interested in the perpetuation of our national prosperity.

We would direct attention to the very able remarks of Thomas Carlyle, in his "Shooting Niagara," upon drilling; and we would suggest to legislators about to take up the subject of education, that their attention should not be confined to schools for the poor, but that their Act should require all children at schools to be properly drilled for one hour per diem at the least—girls in an approved system of calisthenics, and boys in the regular military drill; and that the State may at the same time derive the double benefit of ready-made young soldiers and robust citizens, and not be guilty of inflicting a hardship upon youth, let the legislature expressly require that the time so devoted shall be taken from the regular school hours.

Educators, and all interested in youth, would do well seriously to consider this subject; to reflect upon the number of hours young students are kept in the fetid atmosphere of the schoolroom; to consider the position of the chest while bent over the desk, and to bear in mind that, long before the bloom of youth actually fades from the cheek, the seeds of its decay are being slowly though surely sown, that a little extra information is dearly purchased at the cost of a sickly or of an impaired constitution, and that when youth has once passed from the school to the house of business, the physical development can less easily be attended to than before.

V. *The Voluntary System, and the Duty of Government.*—It is really refreshing to hear that some able men are awake and beginning to rub their eyes. Voluntary system! Who in the name of reason ever heard of crime begging chastisement, of darkness seeking the light, of indolence praying for labour, or of ignorance delighting in intelligence? We know of ignorance envying and hating intelligence, of indolence coveting the reward of labour, of the evil deeds of darkness flying the light, and that chance punishments have had very little effect upon crime; and now, having slumbered far into the morning, we feel something like a nightmare of a French 1792, and begin to ask ourselves, What must be done? We have known, ever since we had knowledge, that the volunteer System was a myth in our own case: for when we were children, our going to school was *nolens*; and when we had children of our own, their going was *nolens volens*. Our sentiments, as children, regarding the school, and those of our children, were not unreasonable. The child cannot be expected to understand that it is for his good that he should be deprived of his freedom, nor is it easy for him to appreciate the wisdom of compelling him to work hard at something of which he cannot possibly conceive the use. Is not his case precisely that of the parent in the lowest stratum of English society? That parent does not know, and cannot understand, the use of school, either for himself or his children, and as in this he is but a child, so should he by the State be treated as a child.

Charitable institutions we have by hundreds, and in proportion, it would appear, as they increase, so does pauperism grow strong and bold, not to say respectable. If it were otherwise, it would be unnatural. Churches and chapels of every form and creed have arisen so rapidly amongst and around us, that from a distance our towns look like dry docks, so thickly are they studded with spires; yet crime flourishes amongst us. We have Boards of Health, Sanitary Commissioners, and a fine police force; nevertheless it is scarcely possible to walk a hundred yards without the annoyance of having to contemplate human misery in its most loathsome form, or to inhale stenches the most repugnant to the olfactory nerves. These are sacred liberties of the subject. What does the machinery of charity, church, and police annually cost; and what does it do, in return for its enormous cost, to reform the class that requires reform? These agencies doubtless are, in different ways and degrees, of great importance to the State; therefore let them not be slighted or abandoned; but as it is equally clear that they do not meet the evils which most urgently require removal, because they most threaten our social peace and safety, it is manifest that, to remove or successfully combat these evils, no reliance can be placed upon these agencies.

What then is "the one thing needful" that legislators have overlooked, and that can help us in our extremity? We answer a rational system of National Education, and placing the schoolmaster in his proper sphere; and it is to be hoped that the three agencies referred to will lend their charity, their religion, and their civic experience, to bring about this desirable end.

The Voluntary System in theory is good, remarkably good; and nothing could be better, under other circumstances; but experience has taught us that it is of no use in the present state of things. Society, as we know it, may be divided into three classes—1st, Those who consider education all important, and who will therefore avail themselves of its best machinery within their reach. 2nd, Those who are indifferent, but who may be persuaded either way by example or by precept. 3rd, Those who are prejudiced against schools of every kind, and who will not allow their children to go to them unless compelled.

It is not necessary to indicate from which of these classes emanate the crime that fills our gaols, the pauperism that swamps our charities, or the filth which keeps us in autumnal dread of pestilence; nor would it be more necessary to ask for cooperation in an attempt to force upon this sick portion of our community the medicine necessary for its comfort and recovery, were it not for the existence of error, prejudice, and jealousy.

The leading error is the confounding instruction with education; the most obstructive jealousy is the fear expressed by one denomination that the children of that third class will, under any Government scheme, be instructed in sectarian tenets different from their own; and therefore the most ignorant upon these points would rather let Class No. 3 remain a curse to itself, and to the community, than run the risk of a few of its representatives picking up a smattering of any subject which these broad-souled individuals deem unbefitting certain stations: while the most bigoted, it would seem, prefer to leave salvation alone, so far as others are concerned, rather than give them a chance of reaching heaven by any door other than their own. It is to be hoped that many such do not exist; but it is to be feared that their spirit finds its way to oppose all suggested plans of National Education in shallow though specious argument—about the liberty of the subject—the glories of the Voluntary System—that Christianity should not be propagated by the arm of the law—that the force of example will surely, though perhaps slowly, elevate the lowest to their proper platform—a great deal about the sphere in which it has pleased Almighty God to place No. 3, and the danger of over-educating the lower orders. As to the liberty of the subject, we might fairly ask which is the greater violation of it—to restrain the liberty of five thieves, or to restrain the liberty of one father to make thieves of his five children? As to the glories of the Voluntary System, why not extend it to the payment of taxes, and the respect of property? As to the non-propagation of Christianity by the arm of the law, if there is anything in it, let publicans and others open their houses during the hours of Divine service. If there is any sincerity in the objection, do away with our quiet English Sunday, and substitute for those who like it the French antidote to rest. If the force of example is sufficient for social progress, abolish our costly prison system, and point out to the unblushing pickpocket taken in the act the good lessons taught him by the orderly citizen. And as to the sphere in which it has pleased Almighty God to place the poor wretches, it may be equally true that Almighty God has placed No. 1 in the sphere to get No. 3 out of his hobble; and that if No. 1 neglect to do it, he will have to take the consequences. As to the last objection, that is to say, the last we now notice, "the danger of over educating," we quite admit it, but not in the sense in which it is used. A human being, as has been already stated, when it comes into the world, comes with the seeds sown in it, so to speak, of every virtue and of every vice. Whether the virtues are to live, or to be choked by the vices, depends upon circumstances. Some of those circumstances are the tones of the voices that fall upon its infant ears; the coarseness, or otherwise, of the touch that greets its tiny limbs; the cleanliness, the luxury, or thereverse, that characterizes the abode of childhood; the truthfulness in word and deed of those entrusted with its youth. Let but the genial rays of probity and intelligence shine upon the first fifteen years of youth, and the seeds of virtue will have developed into growths too strong to be overcome by the weeds; on the other hand, suffer but for a like period the blighting influences of ignorance and vice to brood over the lad, and he can scarcely fail to prove a moral deformity beyond the hope of perfect cure. In this sense there is a danger of over-educating; in this sense thousands of English children are daily being over-educated; but that a child can be over-educated in righteousness, is impossible. In another sense, also, we agree with the enemies to over-education, viz, that in which, by over-education, they convey the idea that children can be imprudently instructed, over-instructed, or too rapidly instructed; that the kind or extent of instruction which is requisite for one position in life, it not only not necessary, but may prove baneful, to its recipient in another. With this to the full it is easy to agree; and even to go further and to say, that incalculable injury is constantly done, in our schools for the poor, by teaching children to read before they have been passed through a proper preparatory training, before a taste for wholesome knowledge has been inculcated. It is well to note who the patrons are of the trash which daily gushes from the foul springs of a certain portion of our cheap press. Are they not, for the greater part, those who have been taught, at our lower public schools, to read: but not having been taught more, use (and they are not to be blamed for it) the power they possess, in storing their minds with falsehood, and their hearts with yearnings that can never be honourably gratified?

The distinction we draw between education and instruction, then, is this: by education we understand a drawing out or development of the physical, intellectual, and moral being; and consistently with our definition and explanation before given, this may be done so as to develope all that is loveable or all that is hateful in the being educated, so as to make him a blessing or a pest to himself and to society. And therefore, what we conceive should primarily be the aim of any national system of education, is to supply so far as is possible the education of the good to those whose home-influence is calculated to develope only or mainly the bad. By instruction, we understand the imparting of information upon any particular branch of human knowledge; and as it is self-evident at the time that children of the class in question can afford to give, must be limited, it is at least prudent to turn it to the best account, and to impart that species of knowledge likely to prove of the greatest use in after life. What we consider it the duty of the nation to provide is, that in every district throughout the kingdom there should be schoolrooms sufficient to admit all the poor of the locality; that these schoolrooms should be kept unexceptionably clean; that no child should be allowed to enter the school till its face and hands are washed, and its hair properly brushed; that therefore there should be attached to every school-building the requisite lavatories for the use of those whose parents neglect to send them to school in a proper condition; that there should be a covered gymnasium attached to each school-building; that no child should be allowed to learn to read till its mind is stored with proper and entertaining anecdotes of men, women, and children, who, by virtue and industry, have become ornaments of society; that a taste for refinement should be cultivated by covering the walls with pictures of merit; that the educator should be selected from a class as far as possible above that of the educated, and that no parent should be allowed to absent his child from school within the years of four and ten without liability to penalty.

(We are compelled from want of space to omit the discussion on Mr. Nasmith's paper, in which Mr. W. Morrison, M.P., Mr. Laurie, late H.M. Inspector of Schools, Mr. Meiklejohn, Mr. Oppler, and Dr. Hodgson, took part.)

A vote of thanks to the Chairman concluded the proceedings. —*Educational Times.*

Use and Method of Object Lessons.

By W. H. Venable.

"Real knowledge must take precedence of word teaching and mere talk." So, in his downright way, wrote Pestalozzi, a man who, though esteemed a visionary by his contemporories, was really one of the most practical of educational reformers. *Real knowledge*, knowledge that shall take hold upon the understanding and work into character, and be reproduced in the conduct of life; not "mere talk," not empty words stored up in the memory, like useless furniture packed away in the garret for safe keeping,—*real knowledge* is what our pupils need and what our teachers should supply. Knowledge is good because it is always useful in the affairs of daily life, good because it satisfies

the natural hunger of the mind as bread does that of the body, good because it furnishes the fulcrum upon which rests the lever we call mental discipline. If knowledge is so valuable, it is of immense importance that we find out the best methods of acquiring it. By what means is real knowledge to be had? What instruments has the Creator furnished us with for the collection of the elements of knowledge?

Evidently our primary notions are all received through the medium of the senses. External objects affect the nerves and brain in such a manner as finally to produce what we call an impression upon the mind. Becoming conscious of this impression we perceive. The reference of this impression to some external cause, or the seeking of other external causes which will produce other impressions, is called observation. The observant person is one who habitually takes notice of things. As soon as one has established the habit of observing and perceiving, he is in the constant receipt of crude information which immediately becomes subject to the various processes of mind which are concerned in education. With these processes and the faculties to which they belong we have nothing to do, except indeed it be to remember their true relation to perception and observation. For observation and perception are to be exercised with reference to the use to which things perceived and observed are to be put. But in this article, we are chiefly concerned with the discussion of the question, how to get crude information.

To secure habits of close observation and accurate perception that form of school drill called giving object lessons, has been instituted. Object lessons are serviceable not only in awakening the undeveloped powers of the very young, but also in sharpening, regulating, and stimulating the faculties of older pupils whose early training has been neglected or perverted. They afford a remedy for the unfortunate condition of all such as having eyes see not and having ears hear not.

Words stand for things. He who gets ideas of things from words gets them at second hand. By examining things—tangible, or visible, or audible objects—one gets ideas at first hand,—gets clear and definite ideas, and is then ready to comprehend and memorize words. And yet, as is implied in the foregoing paragraph, the main design of the object lesson in the schoolroom, is not to impart special facts, but exercise the acquiring faculties. The knowledge acquired in a given lesson is incidental and perhaps unimportant; but the process by which the acquisition is made, is the essential thing. The immediate end to be gained is not knowledge, but the *power to get knowledge.* This abstraction is not to be stated to the pupil. He may suppose he works only for the objective fact. But he is "building better than he knows." While consciously gaining knowledge, he is unconsciously gaining power. Even if he fails to secure the knowledge, the power remains with him, and that will help him to abundant knowledge. His gain is like that of the three sons, who, digging for hidden treasure, found not the treasure indeed, but so enriched the ground by their digging that its enhanced productiveness soon brought its owners a fortune. The true wealth of the mind is not knowledge laid away there, but intellectual fertility.

Very simple facts should first be presented to the mind, and not too many of them. Let the primary object lesson be brief, striking, definite, plain. The art of making knowledge pleasant consists greatly in rendering it comprehensible. No knowledge is repulsive. Every body likes to learn that which is adapted to his capacity. But complex and difficult ideas are not adapted to undeveloped minds. What school boy, for instance, can take in the profound thought of Wordsworth's Excursion, or appreciate the wonderful delineations of Thackeray's Novels? There is a kind of knowledge, the comprehension of which depends upon age and experience. The comprehension of some things depends upon study, of others upon imagination, of others upon genius. We can not grade these different kinds of knowledge down to the comprehension of one class of minds. We sometimes hear talk about "making subjects easy." The nature of ideas can not be changed, any more then the nature of material things. Lead is heavy, cork is light; fire is hot, ice is cold. You can not make lead light, or fire cold. Degrees of difficulty must exist in knowledge. We can not hope to level the mountains,—we must ascend them. And to ascend them we must start at their bases. We must begin at the bottom. Step by step we must go slowly up. Strength will increase, and the prospect widen at every increment of altitude.

We must guard against the idea that knowledge to be pleasant to the young must be curious. Novelties, as such, should be used sparingly. Cakes and candy any child will eagerly devour, but if too much indulged in, they may destroy the appetite for bread and meat. On the other hand, plain and wholesome food is always relished by those who are accustomed to it. Alas for the children who have been made mental dyspeptics by a protracted diet on tit-bits and bon-bons of learning! Let the body of the object lesson be substantial victuals, with only enough condiments for flavor.

An opinion prevails that object lessons are intended to make learning *easy.* Their design is not so much to make education easy as to make it natural. It is a great mistake to suppose the easiest way to do a thing is necessarily the best way or the pleasantest. Our best pleasure comes from effort, not from ease. Object lessons, properly managed, inspire love of study. The activity of the acquisitive powers stimulates all the other faculties to activity. The mental forces when naturally developed reinforce one another. They grow strong together, and delight in their own energy. They do not shun toil, they seek it. The well-taught pupil always rejoices to know the inexhaustible universe is his text-book. Like Alexander, he sighs for new worlds to conquer,—not for ease and rest. Beware of all methods of study which promise great triumphs for little toil. The most precious knowledge is like gold in the flinty rock in the dark mine. Object teaching is not a charm to open the mine and dissolve the rock. But it is one of the means of furnishing the miner with strength, skill, courage, enthusiasm. It professes not to give the seeker nuggets of gold in hand, but it offers him pickaxe and crow-bar, quartz-crusher and crucible.

Finally, object teaching should be systematic; it should be used to present facts in such a manner as to induce in the mind habits of comparison and classification. Disconnected and rambling lessons tend to dissipate mental force. Nothing can be truly known unless it be seen in its relations to other things. A confused mass of information may benefit its possessor, but it does not educate him. Unclassified information is to scientific knowledge as a heap of brush is to a living tree. The end of all knowledge and thought is the ability to comprehend unity in diversity. The measure of man's noblest education is his power to generalize in accordance with the absolute truth of nature.—*Ohio Educational Monthly.*

SCIENCE.

Professsor Sir C. Wheatstone.

Her Majesty has conferred the honour of knighthood upon one of the most eminently successful professors of experimental science. Sir Charles Wheatstone has been well known without that title for the last thirty years, as a very able teacher and inventor; the joint author, with Mr. Cooke, of the electric telegraph; and the precursor of Sir David Brewster in the invention of the stereoscope. The physical phenomena of light, sound, and electricity, have been the principal subjects of his study, and he has the merit of discovering several most useful practical applications of this knowledge. He is a native of Gloucester, where he was born in 1802. In early life he was employed in the manufacture of musical instruments, which led him to study the science of acoustics. An account of some original researches of his in this department was presented to the Royal Society in

1833. He next devoted his attention to electricity, and in 1834 produced a report on some experiments in measuring the speed of electric currents and the duration of the electric light. In the same year, at the foundation of King's College, London, he was appointed Professor of Experimental Philosophy in that institution. Having made a special investigation in the department of optics, he discovered and explained the laws of binocular vision, on which the invention of the stereoscope is founded. In February, 1837, he first met Mr. Cooke, who had been engaged, a twelve-month previously, in his plans and experiments for the construction of an electric telegraph, to be laid down on the Liverpool and Manchester Railway; whilst Professor Wheatstone had already devised a method of arranging circuits of wires to transmit signals by the deflection of magnetic needles. They agreed to join each other in this undertaking, and took out a patent, on terms of perfect equality, in May of the same year. The first practical trial of the new invention was made on the Blackwall Railway in 1838, the wires being of copper, inclosed in an iron tube, and each wire isolated from the others by a non-conducting material. It was not till some years later that it was found sufficient to stretch simple iron wires across the tops of poles in the open air. There was a dispute, in 1841, about the respective claims of Mr. Cooke and Professor Wheatstone to the glory of this invention. It was referred to the decision of Sir Isambard Brunel and Professor Daniell, whose verdict we may as well quote:—"While Mr. Cooke is entitled to stand alone as the gentleman to whom this country is indebted for having practically introduced and carried out the electric telegraph as a useful undertaking, promising to be a work of national importance, Professor Wheatstone is acknowledged as the scientific man, whose profound and successful researches had already prepared the public to receive it as a project capable of practical application; but it is to the united labours of two gentlemen so well qualified for mutual assistance that we must attribute the rapid progress which this important invention has made during the five years since they have been associated." Professor Wheatstone has done much since that time in contriving apparatus and processes for submarine telegraphy, as well as in the invention of optical and musical instruments. He was associate of the Ordnance Select Committee at Woolwich during the Crimean War, from 1855 to 1859, a member of various other Government commissions, and a Juror of the Paris Universal Exhibition. He has received the degrees of D.C.L. and LL.D. from the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and is corresponding or honorary member of all the principal scientific academies of Europe. He is also a Chevalier of the Legion of Honour, and has received two gold medals granted by her Majesty and awarded by the Royal Society for attainments in physical science.—*Illustrated London News.*

OFFICIAL NOTICES.

Department of Public Instruction.

APPOINTMENTS.

His Excellency the Lieutenant-Governor of the Province of Quebec, was pleased, by a minute in Council, dated 24th December last, to make the following appointments:

BOARDS OF EXAMINERS.

CHICOUTIMI.

The Revd. Mr. François-Xavier Delage, in place of the Revd. Mr. Frs.-Xavier Morin.

PERCÉ.

The Revd. Mr. Adam Blouin, in place of the Revd. Mr. Louis Desjardins.

RIMOUSKI.

The Revds. Messrs. Jean-Baptiste Blouin and John Colfer, in place of the Revds. Messrs. Léon Lalaye and George Potvin.

BEDFORD (Protestant).

The Revd. Mr. Andrew Thomas Whittee, in place of the Revd. Mr. G. B. Bucher.

SCHOOL INSPECTOR.

His Excellency the Lieutenant-Governor of the Province of Quebec, was pleased, by an order in Council, dated 19th February last, to appoint Jean-Baptiste Delage, Esq., of St. Cesaire, School Inspector for the District of St. Hyacinthe, in place of Charles DeCazes, Esq., deceased.

EXAMINER.

His Excellency the Lieutenant-Governor of the Province of Quebec, was pleased, by an order in Council, dated 19th February last, to appoint the Revd. Mr. Thomas Aimé Chandonnet, a member of the Catholic Board of Examiners for the City of Quebec, in place of the Revd. N. F. Fortier, resigned.

CORRECTION OF AN ERROR IN THE SUPERINTENDENTS' REPORT.

In place of 32 pupils attending the classes of Rigaud College, read 132.

NOTICE TO SECRETARY-TREASURERS OF SCHOOL MUNICIPALITIES.

There will be shortly sent to the address of the Secretary-Treasurer of each Municipality, a certain number of copies of the last Report of the Superintendent of Education for this Province, with instructions to preserve a copy for the use of the Bureau of School Commissioners and to distribute the others to the Teachers Male and Female of the Municipality. In case where a sufficient number may not be sent, the Secretary will distribute those he receives among the principal Schools.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

QUEBEC, PROVINCE OF QUEBEC, MARCH, 1868.

OBITUARY.

It is with feelings of sincere sorrow, in which no doubt the many readers of this Journal especially in Canada will participate, that we record the demise of the Rt. Hon. Sir E. W. Head, Baronet. Now that the deceased Nobleman is no more, it is no breach of confidence on our part, and we think due to his memory, to state a fact not, hitherto, generally known, namely,—that when it was decided to publish a Journal of Education in the *French* language for Lower Canada, he urged not only the *desirability* but the *necessity* of having an English Journal also, hence the establishment of two Journals for Lower Canada. We regret being unable to find, in any of the English papers, a more extended biographical notice of the late Nobleman, than the following taken from the columns of the *Illustrated London News.*

THE RIGHT HON. SIR E. W. HEAD, BART.

The Right Hon. Sir Edmund Walker Head, eighth Baronet, of Hermitage, in the county of Kent, K.C.B., P. C. who died on the 28th ult., at his town house, 29, Eaton-square, was the only son of the Rev. Sir John Head, the seventh Baronet, M.A., Perpetual Curate of Egerton, in Kent, and Rector of Rayleigh, in Essex, by his wife, Jane, only child and heiress of Thomas Walker, Esq., of London. He was born in 1805, and was educated at Oriel College Oxford, where he obtained a first class in

classics in 1827. He subsequently became a Fellow of Merton College at the same University, and graduated M.A. in 1830, and in 1834 was appointed University Examiner. He succeeded his father as eighth Baronet, Jan. 4, 1838. Sir Edmund was successively an Assistant Poor Law Commissioner and a Poor-Law Commissioner. He was appointed in October, 1847, Lieutenant-Governor of New Brunswick, which office he held until September, 1854, when he was made Governor-General of Canada, from which post he retired in October, 1861. On his return home, in 1862, he was appointed a Civil Service Commissioner, and was Governor of the Hudson's Bay Company. He was creditably known in literature at the author of "The Handbook of Spanish Painting" and of other works. He was made a P.C. in 1857, and a K.C.B. in 1860. He had received the honorary degree of D.C.L. at Oxford and LL.D. at Cambridge Universities. Sir Edmund married, Nov. 17, 1838. Anna Maria, daughter of the late Rev. Philip Yorke, Prebendary of Ely, and grand daughter of the Hon. and Right Rev James Yorke, D.D., Lord Bishop of Ely—fifth son of the eminent Lord Chancellor, Philip, first Earl of Hardwicke—by whom (who survives him) he had issue two daughters, and a son—John, who was unfortunately drowned, Sept. 25, 1859, while bathing near the falls of the Grande Mer, River St. Maurice, Canada. By this demise of the Baronet's only son, in his nineteenth year, unmarried, and there being no collaterals in the male line, the baronetcy would appear to be extinct, unless, indeed, some out-of-the-way claimant comes forward, according to present custom, to assume the title. This family of Head, which is of antiquity in Kent, derives its surname from the Kentish fort, now called Hythe, but formerly known as Le Hede. The baronetcy was conferred, June, 19, 1676, upon Sir Richard Head, second son of Richard Head, Esq., of Raynham, Kent. This Sir Richard represented Rochester in Parliament, and resided in that city, where he received King James II. upon his leaving London, and was presented by that Monarch with a valuable emerald ring. Sir Richard was direct ancestor of the Baronet just deceased. From the Rev. Sir Francis Head, the fourth Baronet of this line, springs maternally the present distinguished and Right Hon. Sir Francis Bond Head, K.C.H., late Lieutenant-Governor of Upper Canada, author of "Bubbles from the Brunnens of Nassau," who was created a Baronet in 1837 and made a P.C. last December.

Report of the Superintendent of Education for Lower Canada, for the year 1866.

(Translated from the French by the Translators to the Legislature.)

(*Continued from our last*).

FRANCE.

Lycée of Marseilles.
Lycée of Lyons, Classical division and Industrial division.
La Martinière school, at Lyons (Arts, Science and Manufactures).
Primary school of the Brothers of the Christian Schools, Lyons.
Minor College of the *Lycée* of Lyons, near Lyons.
Museum of Antiquities and Gallery of Fine Arts, Lyons.
Office of the Rector of the Academy of Lyons.
Evening school for adults, Industrial Conferences, Lyons.
Special Normal School, Cluny.
Lycée of Mâcon, Classical course and Scientific course.
Primary Normal School, Mâcon.
Primary Normal School for girls, at the establishment of the Sisters of the Holy Sacrement, Mâcon.
The Superior Normal School, Paris.
Turgot School (Special Commercial School). Paris.
Normal School for Infant Schools, conducted by Madame Pape Carpentier.
Museum and Galleries of the Louvre, Cluny, Versailles and Fontainebleau.
Department of Public Instruction, Paris.
Special Exhibition of Public Instruction in the Halls of the Department.
Departments of Public Instruction, Books, Fine Arts, Scientific Instruments, at the Exhibition.
Lycée du Prince Impérial, at Vanvres.
Boarding School of La Congrégation Notre-Dame, or des Oiseaux, Rue de Sèvres.
Batignolles Primary School, conducted by M. Dankés, Professor to the young Prince Napoléon.
Primary School, Rue Neuve Coquenard, conducted by M. Barbier.
Commercial School, Avenue Trudaine.
Conferences and Public Lectures at the Sorbonne.
Madame Desliguières' Boarding School.
Commercial School for boys, Faubourg St. Honoré.
Examination of candidates for Matron's certificate for Infant Schools.
Examination of candidates for apprenticeship bursaries.
Bibliothèque Impériale.
Conservatoire de Musique.
Conservatoire des arts et métiers.
Sittings of the Scientific Congress of the Departments, and distribution of prizes and rewards, by the Minister of Public Instruction.
Exhibition of works of Ingres and of Hippolite Bélanger, hall of 1857, at the Palais de l'Industrie.
Muséum et Jardin des Plantes.
Normal School for boys and Schools annexed, Strasbourg.
Elementary Schools, Chatillon sur Loings, Adon and La Bussière.
Primary Girls School and Infant School, conducted by the Sisters of the Sacred Heart at La Bussière.
College conducted by the Barnabite Fathers at Gien.
Lyceum and Minor College of Orléans.
Museum of the Chateau de Blois.
Primary Normal School at Blois.
Agricultural Colony of Mettray, near Tours.
Maison Paternelle, or House of Reform and Study, for insubordinate sons of families, Mettray.
Boarding School of the Ladies of the Order of the Sacred Heart, Marmoutiers, near Tours.
Pension Couteleau, Bordeaux.
Protestant Primary School, Rue Pellegrin, Bordeaux.
Ecole Impériale for deaf and dumb females, conducted by Les Dames de Nevers, Bordeaux.
Protestant Infant School, Bordeaux.
Superior Communal School, Rue Pellegrin, Bordeaux.
Library of the City of Bordeaux.
Agricultural School of Grignon.

BELGIUM.

Ministère de l'Intérieur, Department of Public Instruction and Agriculture, Brussels.
Atheneum of Brussels, classical department and scientific department.
Middle School of Brussels and Primary School annexed.
School of Design of M. Hendrick (new method of instruction, with a view to arts and manufactures, recommended and introduced into France by the Minister of Public Instruction).
Crêche and Infant School of Saint Josse-ten-Noode.
Royal Museum add Gallery of Paintings, Brussels.
Industrial Museum of Brussels.
Botanic Garden, Brussels.
Agricultural School of Gembloux.
Superior Commercial School of Antwerp.
Museum and Fine Arts Academy, Antwerp.
Middle School of Antwerp and Primary School annexed.
Communal Primary School No. 4.
University of Louvain, Library, Collections and Museums.
College and Middle School of the *Frères Josephites*, Louvain.
Young Ladies' School and Primary School, conducted by the Sœurs du Saint Nom de Marie, Louvain.
Primary School of the Frères de la Charité, Louvain.
Botanic Garden of Louvain.
University of Liège, Lectures, Library, Museums and Collections.
Ecole des Mines, Liège.
Primary Normal School of Lierre, and Schools annexed.
Zoological Garden of Antwerp.
Library of the City of Antwerp.
Superior Industrial School, Liège.
Middle School (paying), Liège.
Middle School (free) and Elementary School, Liège.
Infant School of Liège.
Institute for deaf-mutes and for the blind, Liège.
Jardin d'acclimatation, Liège.

GERMANY.

Deaf and Dumb Institute, Cologne.

Library of *Incunabula*, Cologne.
University of Bonn, Library, Museum, and Collections.
School of Design and Gallery of Casts, and of drawings from the antique, at the University of Bonn.
Museum of Natural History, Poppellsdorf.
New Laboratory and new Museum in course of construction at Poppellsdorf.
Primary Commercial School for boys, at Bonn.
Crèche and Infant School kept by *Les Sœurs du pauvre Enfant Jésus*, Bonn.
Hospice and Orphan Asylum, conducted by the Deaconesses of the Evangelical Church, Bonn.
Old Museum and New Museum of Merlin.
Royal Library of Berlin.
University of Berlin.
Gymnasium (Classical College) Frederick William, conducted by Dr. Ranke.
French Gymnasium (Franc·'ische Gymnasium) founded by the old Huguenot colony.
Realshule of *Koichstrasse*.
Elizabethshule (school for young ladies).
Gewerbeshule, conducted by Mr. Gullenkamp (preparatory school of arts and trades).
Handelshule (commercial school), conducted by Mr. Frantz.
Seminarium, conducted by Mr. Thilo (Normal School for boys).
Normal School for Girls, conducted by Mr. Marget.
Primary Commercial School, conducted by M. Krause.
Kindergarten (Infant School), Lindenstrase.
Kindergartens and Turnhall (Gymnasium).—*Postdam communication*.
Turnhall of Preutzenstrasse.
Primary Parochial School, near the Catholic Church.
Boarding School, Orphan Asylum and Normal School, conducted by the Ursuline Nuns.
Primary Commercial Schools of the Villages of Pankow, Scheemhausen, and Francosiche Buchaulz, near Burlin.
Handelshule of Dresden.
Gymnasium of Dresden.
Polytechnic Institute (Superior School of Arts and Trades), Dresden.
Royal Museum of Dresden.
Royal Library of Dresden.
Polytechnic Institute of Vienna.
Belvidère Museum, Vienna.
Museum of Antiques, Vienna.
Royal Museum of Munich.
Gallery of Paintings of Munich.
University of Munich.
Gymnasium conducted by Dr. Schmidt, chief Editor of the *Encyclopædia of Public Instruction*, Stuttgart.
Realshule of Stuttgart.
Middle School and Elementary School of Stuttgart.
Turnhall of Stuttgart.

I now proceed to the summary of the statistics of the year.

In pursuance of the decision of the Printing Committee, the statistics and extracts from the Reports of the Inspectors of Schools are published, *in extenso*, only every three years, and this more detailed publication took place two years ago.

According to the following table of the general progress of public instruction during the past year, the increase of the total number of Institutions and Schools of all kinds has been 120; it was only 102 in 1865, and 52 in 1864; that of the number of pupils reaches 4,172, which is, in appearance, less than in 1865, when it reached 5,909; but a portion of this difference must be attributed to a rather considerable correction which it has been necessary to make for one of the districts of inspection, into the previous reports of which an error in excess had crept. The increase of the amount of school contributions of all kinds, which was but $4,184.39 for 1865, is $49,618.42 for 1866. With reference to the total number of pupils, I may state that the total of this table is, as usual, a little greater than that of the grand synoptical table, resuming the reports of the Inspectors and School Commissioners; this difference is owing to the fact that there is added to the total of the former the figures of certain independent institutions comprized in the table of Superior Education, and which do not appear in the synoptical table.

As this Report gives the results we have been enabled to attain up to the moment when we are about to enter under a new *régime*, it is well to note the total figure of 3,826 institutions and schools of all kinds, having 206,820 pupils, which exhibits, within the space of thirteen years, that is to say, since 1853, an increase of 1,474 institutions and schools, and of 98,526 pupils.

Table of the Progress of Public Instruction in Lower Canada, since the year 1853.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Institutions............	2352	2795	2868	2919	2946	2985	3199	3264	3345
Pupils..................	108284	119733	127058	143141	148798	156872	168148	172155	180845
Contributions..........$	165848	238032	249136	406764	424208	459396	498436	503859	526219

	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.	Increase over 1853.	Increase over 1856.	Increase over 1858.	Increase over 1866.
Institutions............	3501	3552	3604	3706	3826	1474	907	841	120
Pupils..................	188635	193131	196739	202648	206820	98526	63679	49948	4172
Contributions..........$	542728	564810	593964	597448	647067	481218	240301	187670	49618

The following table shews the progress in school contributions from the year 1856, giving at the same time the several sources from which they are derived. As no direct assessment or monthly fees are levied in the two great cities of Montreal and Quebec, it was necessary, in order to complete the table, to have recourse to an approximative calculation of the sums or fees paid by the pupils of all schools both independent and under control. I again allude to this fact because for want of a similar statement in preceding reports

it was considered that the total sums given as levied in the cities of Quebec and Montreal, respectively, were really at the disposal of the School Commissioners of those two cities, such sums being in reality much less in amount.

TABLE of Sums levied for Public Instruction in Lower Canada, from 1856 to 1866.

Years.	Assessment to equal amount of Grant.	Amount of Assessment levied over and above am. of grt., also sp. ass.	Monthly Fees.	Assessment for the erection of School-Houses.	Total levied.
	$ cts.	$ cts.	$ cts.	$ cts.	$ cts.
1856 ...	113884 87	93897 90	173488 98	25493 80	406765 55
1857 ...	113887 08	78791 17	208602 37	22928 63	424209 25
1858 ...	115485 09	88372 69	231192 65	24646 22	4[illegible]396 65
1859 ...	115792 51	109151 96	251408 44	22083 57	498436 48
1860 ...	114424 76	123939 64	249717 10	15778 23	503859 73
1861 ...	113969 29	130560 92	264089 11	17000 00	526219 82
1862 ...	110966 75	134033 15	281930 23	15798 84	542728 97
1863 ...	110534 25	134888 50	307638 14	11749 76	564810 65
1864 ...	112158 34	144515 61	321037 30	15553 12	593264 37
1865 ...	112447 09	147158 23	324801 87	13041 57	597448 76
1866 ...	113657 35	153732 98	356535 23	22985 32	647067 18

TABLE shewing the sources from which was derived the difference of increase between 1st 1864 and 1863, and 2nd 1865 and 1864.

					Total Increase or Decrease.
	$ cts.	$ cts.	$ cts.	$ cts.	$ cts.
Increase of 1854 over 1864......	1624 09	9627 11	13399 16	3803 36	28453 72
Increase of 1865 over 1864......	288 75	2642 62	3764 57	....	....
Decrease of 1865 from 1864......	....	....	....	2511 55	4184 39
Increase of 1866 over 1865......	1012 26	6574 70	31733 36	9943 75	49618 42

The following table contains a summary of the various branches of Public Instruction; but I have never concealed the defective nature of the classing of the institutions, and especially how great a deduction there would be from the total of second-class education, if the results were considered from a European point of view.

In each college there are several classes which cannot be considered other than preparatory for classical education, and it has also been *absolutely necessary to include in the list of institutions* for superior and second-class education convents and young ladies' boarding schools which receive grants from the Superior Education Fund.

RECAPITULATION OF THE FIVE GREAT DIVISIONS.

Divisions.	Number *of* schools.	Number of *staff of* instruction.	Number *of* pupils.
Superior schools............	10	75	888
Second-class do	220	1114	26468
Normal do	3	32	204
Special do	4	19	299
Primary do	3589	3589	178961
Total............	3826	4829	206820

In the following table, which includes the combined totals of the Report on Superior Education and of those on Primary Schools, but a slight increase over those of the preceeding year will be observed:

COMPARATIVE TABLE of the Number of Children Learning each Branch of Instruction, since the year 1853.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.	Increase over 1853.	Increase over 1858.	Increase over 1865.
Pupils reading well.........	27367	32861	43407	46940	48823	52099	64362	67753	75236	77108	77676	75555	96491	98706	71339	46607	2215
Pupils writing...............	50072	47014	58033	60086	61943	65404	80152	81244	87115	92572	97086	99351	107161	111703	61631	59604	4542
Learning simple arithmetic...	18281	22897	30631	48359	52845	55847	63514	63341	69519	74518	75719	14197	83930	84201	65920	28354	271
Do compound do ...	12428	18073	22586	23431	26643	28196	30919	31758	41812	44357	45727	46529	52892	53726	41298	25530	834
Do book-keeping......	.....	799	1976	5012	5500	6689	7135	7319	9347	9614	9630	9615	10381	10430	10430	3741	49
Do geograph, ...	12185	13326	17700	30134	33606	37847	45393	49462	55071	56392	60585	66412	64718	64998	52813	27151	280
Do history	6738	11486	15520	17580	26147	42316	45997	46324	51095	54461	59024	66894	71153	71453	64715	29137	300
Do French grammar...	15353	17852	23260	29328	39067	43307	53452	54214	50426	61312	63913	68564	76097	76264	60911	32957	167
Do English grammar..	7066	7097	9004	11824	12074	15348	19773	25073	27904	28464	27358	29428	30453	30648	23582	15300	195
Do parsing..........	4412	9283	16439	26310	34064	40733	44466	46872	49460	50893	52244	60311	66237	66341	61929	25608	104

(To be continued in our next.)

McGill University.

Annual Report of the Corporation of McGill University to His Excellency the Governor General, as Visitor.

May it please Your Excellency.

In presenting our customary annual Report, we may first notice the Statistics of the University for the past year.

In the present session the number of students in McGill College is as follows:

Students in Law	51
in Medecine	146
in Arts	57
	254
Or deducting 4 students entered in two faculties	250
The students in Affiliated Colleges are:—	
In Morrin College Quebec	9
At St. Francis College Richmond	14
Total	23
The Teachers in training in the McGill Normal School are:	62
The pupils in the High School of McGill College (in last session) are:—	232
The pupils in the model schools of McGill Normal School are	329

The total number of students and pupils thus deriving benefit from the University is 896, and of these at least 221 are persons not resident in Montréal, but resorting thither for education from various parts of Canada and places beyond its limits.

At the annual meeting of the Convocation in May last, the following degrees in course were publicly conferred:

Doctors of Medicine and Masters of Surgery	38
Masters of Arts	10
Bachelors of Civil Law	14
Bachelors of Arts	5
Total graduates session 1866-7	67

The degree of B. A. *ad eundem* was conferred on Rev. Octave Fortin, B. A., of Bishop's College, Lennoxville.

At the close of the session of the McGill Normal School, the following diplomas were granted by the Hon. the Superintendent of Education to teachers in training:—

For Academies	6
" Model Schools	16
" Elementary Schools	24
Total	46

The last session was the tenth of the existence of the Normal School, and it may be proper here shortly to sum up its results. Since its commencement in 1857, 442 diplomas of different grades have been granted through its agency to 330 persons trained in its classes; and of these, more than two-thirds are now actively engaged in teaching in the Province of Quebec.

The amount of good which the School has thus effected cannot be over-estimated, and in comparison with its small annual expense, affords much reason for congratulation. Frequent and most satisfactory testimony has been received from commissioners and inspectors of schools as to the improvement in education resulting from the labours of those trained in the Normal School, and there is reason to believe that the indirect influence of the school on teachers who have not attended its classes has also been very important.

Under the regulation for school examinations, the certificate of the University was given to nine candidates at the close of the last session of the High School.

In the examinations for the Governor-General's scholarships, at the beginning of the present session, the successful competitors were: —In the second year, Alexander Robertson: in the first year, John D. Cline, Charles A. Ferrie, and James Cameron.

In the past year the University has adopted in the Faculty of Medicine the standard of examinations for matriculation, recommended by the Council of Medical Education in Great Britain. This may have diminished the number of matriculations in the present session, but it will no doubt tend to improve the literary qualifications of candidates for the degree in Medecine.

The philosophical apparatus of the McGill College has for some time urgently required additions, more especially in connection with the more modern departments of experimental research and illustration; but the financial condition of the University did not permit such additions to be made. In these circumstances seven of the members of the Board of Governors liberally contributed the sum of $2,150 to remedy in some degree this deficiency; and the sum thus given was judiciously expended under the direction of Professor Johnson, in London and Paris, in the purchase of many very useful additions to our means of instruction in experimental physics. The list of donations for this object is as follows:—

W. Molson, Esq.,	$500
J. H. R. Molson, Esq.,	500
P. Redpath, Esq.,	500
George Moffatt, Esq.,	350
Andrew Robertson, Esq.,	100
J. Frothingham, Esq.,	100
D. Torrance, Esq.,	200

The Natural History Museum of the College has the prospect, through the liberality of Dr. Philip P. Carpenter, of placing itself in the front rank of American institutions in regard to its collection of Mollusca, a deparment so important, not only with reference to the study of Zoology, but also to that of Geology.

Dr. Carpenter having brought with him to this country his large and valuable general collection of shells, the result of thirty-three years of labour, and containing materials for the study of recent and fossil Conchology, probably not equalled by any similar collection on this Continent, has liberally offered to present this collection to the University, on condition that the expense of mounting and arranging the Shells, say $2,000, shall be defrayed by the University. This offer the Corporation has ventured to accept, believing that in doing so it will confer an important benefit on the cause of scientific education and on all students of Zoology and Geology, not only in connection with this University, but throughout this country; and a subscription is now in progress with the view of realizing the sum above mentioned, and also a similar sum to provide proper accomodation for the collection in a fire-proof apartment. The sum of $1,850 has already been promised by a few friends of the University.

We would again express our regret that no means have as yet been placed at the disposal of this University for affording aids in the way of bursaries and scholarships, to deserving students. To those who are familiar with the importance attached to such stimuli in the mother country and elsewhere, and with the vast sums paid in aids and encouragements to students, it may appear surprising that the success achieved by this University has been attained without any of these davantages, and it must be evident that could they be provided still greater results might be obtained. It cannot be doubted that this country now suffers seriously from the want of such means of developing the higher order of talent, and that the government as well as the wealthier friends of education should consider the propriety of fostering the higher learning in this way. This Corporation would cheerfully furnish all necessary information as to the most economical and effectual means of expending any funds provided for such purposes.

We would further desire to invite attention to the too great want in this country of the means of that practical training in applied science, so important to the development of art and industry. This University has strained its efforts to supply this urgent want, almost beyond the limits of its means, and its professors have not grudged the expenditure of much gratuitous labour; but we feel that until the government and the people shall be thoroughly roused to a sense of our deficiencies in this respect, such exertions will be of little avail.

When we observe that institutions of the higher education in the United States boast of having received, in the past year, for such purposes as those above indicated no less than three millions of dollars, from private benefactors, in addition to the great sums granted by the general and State governments, and that sums nearly as large have been given in the mother country to institutions of education already richly endowed, we cannot doubt that the time is approaching when Canada will be stirred up to emulate these examples.

(Signed).

Chs. Dewey Day, LL.D.,

Chancellor.

McGill College, 22nd January, 1868.

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MONTHLY SUMMARY.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

Lectures before the Library Association of Sherbrooke.

— The lecture on Tuesday was delivered by the Hon. J. S. Sanborn; Subject—Education in and out of School. The speaker defined education to be a development of the faculties of mind and body to fit the persons for the highest condition of usefulness. He alluded to the education of youth among the ancient Pagan nations, and constrasted it with education under the influence of Christianity. Education in Christian countries is based upon Christian morality. The objects of aspiration among Pagan nations were often totally at variance with the maxims of Christian morality, and as a consequence one essentiel element on the highest culture is with them wanting, the cherishing of good dispositions in the heart.

All Christian nations make some provision for the general education of youth. The object of common schools is to lay the foundation by teaching those branches which underlie the whole fabric. Reading is the first necessity. Without this attainment a man must forever be deprived of all knowledge not derived from personal observation and experience. The knowledge of what has been done, and what is transpiring in the world at large, must in a great measure be shut out from his vision.—The object of writing is to render a person capable of conveying his own ideas to others, and thus extend his influence and usefulness. Arithmetic renders one fit to protect himself from imposition, fits him to transact busines, and is an element of great power in all the practical concerns of life. All the calculations of higher mathematics of the most abstruse nature are performed by the four simple rules of addition, substraction, multiplication and division. Spelling was important, to secure uniformity. It is not of so much importance how a word is spelled, if every body spells it in the same manner, who uses the same language. This could only be attained by adopting a uniform rule. People sometimes adopted a phonographic style of spelling. which looked very curious to persons having respect for the genuine vernacular.

The mastery of the elementary branches, which could be attained in the common schools, laid a foundation upon which a person could build to any extent he might choose. The road to knowledge was open to all and if there were sufficient resolution and industry, there was no limit to the attainments that might be made, unaided by the schools, beyond laying this ground work. There was no need of jestling any one else; acquiring knowledge impoverishing no one. In this respect it was unlike acquiring wealth or honors of offices.

The object of the higher schools and universities was to give facility for enlarged attainments in the arts, science and general literature. Most persons required the stimulus of regular study, the conflict with other minds, the aid and sympathy of experienced teachers to make great attainments. It was only a few who would persistently educate themselves without these aids. The study of the dead languages was a means of enriching the mind with those languages from which modern languages are largely derived. It affords also excellent discipline, as it required long and patient application.

Outside of the schools many means of self education were open to all. First, instruction derived from the Sacred Scriptures and the pulpit. Instruction from the press, standard works, travels, history and novels, if persons had not patience to abide by facts which are often stranger and certainly more improving than fiction; the newspaper press filled with passing events, maxims, politics, opinions of all kinds from the shallow to the profound,—none could ignore the newspaper and periodical press at this age without becoming more or less fossil.

The study of the theory of agriculture, chemistry as applicable to it, the nature of soils, properties of manufactures, the laws of breeding as applied to farm stock and the like-manufactures, inventions, and how discoveries affect practical mechanics, various anecdotes of an interesting character, were related to show the progress of inventions and improvements in machinery.

Commerce was alluded to as instructing nations and individuals. The exchange of products of different countries, the discovery of gold peopling California and Australia Commerce acted as a civilizer and educator, and commercial men were imbued thereby with liberal ideas, narrow views and sectional prejudices removed.

The lecture was generally entertaining and instructive.—*Sherbrooke Gazette of Feb. 8th.*

Prizes awarded for essays on Education.—At the annual meeting of the St. Francis District Teachers' Association, held at Stanstead Plain on the 26th and 27th of December, the prizes given by J. H. Pope, Esq., M. P., for the best essays on "Religious Instruction in Public Schools" were awarded as follows.—1st prize, *Mrs. Rugg*, Compton; 2nd prize. *Miss Maggie M. Bothwell*, Durham; 3rd prize, *Miss Lucretia Lovejoy*, Barnston; 4th prize, *Miss Anna McLean*, Lingwick.

An additional prize, given by the chairman of the Assocation, was awarded to *Mlle. Elize Larivière* of Weedon, for an essay on the French Language.

MISCELLANEOUS INTELLIGENCE.

HEALTH OF THE LARGE ENGLISH TOWNS.—In the week ending Saturday, February 8, 4,209 births and 2,546 deaths were registered eleven large cities and boroughs of England, including London. The mean temperature of the past two weeks has considerably exceeded the average temperature in the corresponding weeks of the past fifty years, this has resulted in a marked decrease in the fatality of inflammatory diseases of the respiratory organs The deaths last week showed a further decrease of 62 upon those returned in recent week. The mortality from zymotic diseases has also declined, especially in Manchester and Liverpool. In Hull prevailed during last week the lowest annual rate of mortality, 20·2 per 1,000 persons living. The rates in the other towns, ranged in order from the lowest, were as follows:—Birmingham, 20·6; Leeds, 20 7; London, 23 3: Sheffield, 24 5; Salford, 25·8; Bradford, 26·1; Bristol, 28·0; Manchester, 28·6; Liverpool, 29 4; and the highest rate during the week, 33·9, in the borough of Newcastle-upon-Tyne.

The eightieth anniversary of the first settlement of British Colonists in Australia was celebrated by a public dinner in London on the 25th ult. Two members of the Government were present, one of whom, Mr Corry, M.P., the First Lord of the Admiralty, responded for the navy, and said that he was delighted to find that the Australian colonies were ready to contribute to their own defence, and not throw the expense of that on the mother country. The Admiralty had presented the colony of Victoria with a guardship; and Mr. Corry had put into the naval estimates for, the current year an item of £50,000 for the completion of an iron-clad for the same colony. The loyalty of Australia, as evinced in the enthusiastic reception of the Duke of Edinburgh, was referred to with no small amount of satisfaction.

NECROLOGICAL INTELLIGENCE.

— Many old residents of Montreal, and a large circle of personal friends, will learn with sincere regret of the death of Dr. Archibald Hall, which took place on the 14th ult., in the fifty-sixth year of his age. Dr. Hall attained to a very eminent position in the profession to which he belonged, and which, in his native city, conferred upon him the highest honors within its control. His kindly disposition rendered him a most agreeable friend, and his extensive scientific knowledge caused him to be much sought after as a medical instructor and adviser.

As a collateral branch of medical study, Dr. Hall was much devoted to the study of the natural sciences, and especially attached himself to Botany, Zoology, and Meteorology. Bringing with him from Edinburgh a fine collection of the plants indigenous to the neighborhood of that city, he began soon after his return an herbarium of the plants growing about Montreal, and sent home to his *Alma Mater* in the course of a few years, a very large and carefully preserved collection. Zoology appears to have been his chief delight, as we find him presented with the silver medal of the Natural History Society, of Montreal, as the successful competitor for the prize offered by that society for the best essay on the " Zoology of the district of Montreal." This manuscript essay, after lying in the closets of the Society for nearly twenty-five years, was finally printed in the pages of the *Canadian Naturalist*, the publication occupying a considerable portion of the numbers of that valuable journal for several years. In 1863, he was called upon to share with the late Dr. A. F. Holmes, his Professorship in the McGill University. He accordingly lectured that winter upon Materia Medica and Therapeutics. Upon the death of his old preceptor, Dr. Robertson, and the consequent change of Professorships, Dr. Hall was called to fill the clinical chair, which he continued to do until the decease of the late Dr. McCulloch in 1854, when he was unanimously called upon by his colleagues to dicharge the duties of the chair of Obstetrics, previously held by that esteemed gentleman. Attached to this chair, is the University Lying-in-Hospital under the control of the Professor serving to illustrate the precepts, taught in the class-room. As a medical writer, Dr Hall is best known as the writer of the British American Journal of Medical and Physical Science, Montreal, which he established in April, 1845, and conducted with great credit and ability from that time untill its suspension in 1852, and again, from 1860, until it finally expired two years afterwards. Dr. Hall was also the author of Letters on Medical Education addressed to the members of the Provincial Legislature of Canada, published in Montreal in 1842; Letters on the Medical Faculty of McGill College, 1845; and a Biographical sketch of the late A. F. Holmes, M. D., LL. D., including a history of the Medical Department of McGill College, 1860."—*Herald.*

We might have added to our obituary notice of Dr. Hall, that the London Obstetrical Society, representing the most eminent talent in this branch of medicine, recently sent to him, to request his photograph, and a memorandum of parts of his life, for the purpose of being put in an illustrated volume of eminent men in this branch. It is an unusual compliment to be paid to a colonist—*Gazette.*

METEOROLOGICAL INTELLIGENCE.

Abstract of Meteorological Observations—from the Records of the Montreal Observatory, lat. 45°31 North long ; 4h. 54m. 11 sec. West of Greenwich, and 182 feet above mean sea level. For January, 1868. By Chas. Smallwood, M.D., LL.D., D.C.L.

DAYS.	Barometer corrected at 32°			Temperature of the Air.			Direction of Wind.			Miles in 24 hours.
	7 a m.	2 p m.	9 p m	7 a m	2 p.m.	9 p.m.	7 a.m.	2 p m.	9 p.m.	
1	29.751	29.300	29.041	5.1	13 2	21.7	N E	N E	N E	98.74*a*
2	.022	.177	.240	22 8	24.9	23 2	W	S W	S W	188.12*b*
3	.400	.433	.499	21.2	29.9	20.0	S E	N E	N E	81.10
4	.440	.514	.622	9.8	6 7	0.9	N E	N E	N E	181.00
5	.847	.892	.949	-3.1	17.7	4.7	W	W	W	204 24
6	.875	.853	.850	-3 3	16.7	8.2	W	W	W	141.20
7	.798	.763	.711	-3.1	12.7	13.4	W	W	W	101.24
8	.647	.602	.500	13 1	29.4	23 3	W	W	W	99.27
9	.251	.247	.277	16.7	13.4	10.1	W	W	W	101.44*b*
10	.400	.401	.426	-4.3	7 9	2.3	W by N	W	W	311.10*b*
11	.401	.460	.565	-7.6	11.7	-4.3	N N E	W	W	202.00
12	.751	.764	.911	12 8	5.7	-3.0	W	W	W	289.44
13	.492	30.000	30.005	-2.3	4 1	5.7	W	W	W	214.19
14	30.201	.187	.100	-5.1	4.9	-0.8	W	S E	S E	101.24
15	29.742	29.627	29.600	-6 3	6 4	2.7	N E	N E	N E	99.20
16	.448	.427	.403	6 4	16 9	14.6	W	W	W	101.10
17	.400	.517	.561	13 7	17.9	6.6	W	W	W	82.00
18	.650	.702	.800	6 6	17.1	8.1	W	W	W	77.24 c
19	.961	.965	.876	-1.6	9.9	7.3	W	N by E	W	91.10
20	.684	.701	.787	17 0	21.0	20.9	S W	S W	S W	88.21*d*
21	.562	.600	.749	13.1	20.7	17.0	N E	N E	N E	111.10
22	30.001	30.102	30.167	6.4	31.9	16.7	N E	W	W	104.21
23	29.610	29 442	29.351	23.4	31.6	37.2	S W	S W	S W	126.10*be*
24	.301	.400	.404	25 2	32.1	23.2	W	W	W	197.00
25	.647	.701	.821	12.8	17.2	6.9	N W	W	W	98.24*f*
26	.911	.849	.852	-8.3	-3 3	-7.1	N E	N E	N E	104.10
27	.750	.663	.751	-10 6	7.3	6.7	N E	N E	N E	129.00
28	.813	.834	.851	-10.3	7.8	6.6	N E	N E	N E	118.14
29	.,749	.711	.643	3.0	19.4	13.1	N E	N E	N E	97.21 *b*
30	.624	.649	.848	8.4	32.1	16.7	W	W	W	85.00
31	.602	.927	.999	15.3	12.4	13.6	W	W	W	77.24 *b*

RAIN IN INCHES.—*b* Inapp.

SNOW IN INCHES.—*a* 10.25 ; *b* Inapp.; *c* 0.85; *d* 0.50 ; *e* 0.54 ; *f* 0.30.

The mean temperature of the month was 10°80 degrees; there were only three readings of the thermometer recorded above 32° degrees, (or the freezing point). The mean Isothermal for Montreal for the month of January, reduced from observations for a series of years is 15°, showing that the present month indicated 4°20 lower than the usual mean average, and 1°22 lower than the mean temperature of last January. The month has been characterized by a continuance of low readings of the thermometer, and the absence of the usual "*cold terms*. The amount of snow which fell during the month was 12 64 inches, and an inappreciable quantity of rain.

From the Records of the Montreal Observatory, lat. 45°31 North long. ; 4 h 54 m. 11 sec. West of Greenwich, and 182 feet above mean sea level. For February, 1868. By Chas. Smallwood, M. D , LL.D., D.C.L.

DAYS.	Barometer corrected at 32°			Temperature of the Air.			Direction of Wind.			Miles in 24 hours.
	7 a.m.	2 p m	9 p m	7 a m	2 p.m	9 p.m.	7 p m.	2 p m.	9 p.m.	
1	30.062	30.025	29 961	16 0	30.0	16.7	W	W	W	221.10
2	29.766	29.763	946	19.4	24 0	6 4	W	W	W	187 17*a*
3	30 248	30 301	30.196	-16.4	6.7	-10.3	W by N	W	W	101.00*b*
4	29.749	29 862	.023	0 0	20.9	9 8	W S W	W S W	W	89 94*c*
5	30.025	.900	29.650	-7.5	14 7	7 1	N E	N E	N E	181.19
6	29 331	.142	.197	20 0	23.1	19.7	N E	N E	N E	86.10*d*
7	.502	.896	30.052	7.4	11.1	-9.3	W	W by N	W by N	91.11*e*
8	30.101	.977	29.954	-11.7	8.7	10.6	W	W	W	210.19
9	29.300	.144	.100	17 1	22.6	30.7	S W	S W	S W	184.10*f*
10	850	30.101	30.000	-11 3	9.7	-7.2	W by N	W	W	104.41
11	.999	29 961	29.999	-21.7	6 7	-1.2	N by E	W	W	96.74
12	.448	.847	30.006	5.4	16.9	4.9	S W	W	W	89 94*g*
13	.700	.621	29.750	2.7	16.4	9 0	N E	N E	N E	84.20*h*
14	30.000	.917	.889	-3.8	8.4	5.7	N	N	W	101.10
15	29.611	.623	.751	3 6	17.9	15.7	N E	N E	N E	99.24*j*
16	.452	.996	.899	15.1	20.0	15.5	N E	W	W	81.29
17	.461	.349	.462	13 1	20 3	20.1	S W	S W	W	74.10*k*
18	.821	.679	.561	1.4	16.7	7.5	N by W	W	S W	197.24 *l*
19	.316	.470	.479	14.0	34.2	17.7	S W	W	W	80.10
20	.500	.342	.250	22 0	38 8	33 1	W	W	W	104 24
21	.575	.786	30.000	15 7	16.9	3.2	N E	N E	N E	66.42
22	30.165	30 244	.237	12.3	9.1	0.0	N by E	W by N	W	55.10
23	.399	.479	.561	-9 9	10.1	-1.2	N W	W	W	140.41
24	.550	.537	.522	-10.0	11.7	1 1	N E	N E	N E	91.10
25	.400	.344	.100	-8.6	20.0	6 3	N E	N E	N E	67.74
26	.201	.079	.000	-1 4	14.7	13.1	N E	N E	N E	81.11
27	29 712	29.359	29.325	7 2	16 9	16.4	N E	N E	N E	66.10*m*
28	.061	.033	.150	18.1	27.8	17.0	W	W	W	124.17*n*
29	.341	.462	.553	3.0	17.9	4.4	W	W	W	102.10

RAIN IN INCHES —None.

SNOW IN INCHES.—*a* 0.64 ; *b* 0.20 ; *c* 0.10 ; *d* 1.57 ; *e* 0.10 ; *f* 9.06 ; *g* 0.56 ; *h* 0.79 ; *j* 0.04 , *k* 4.34 ; *l* 2.47 ; *m* 1.43 ; *n* Inaapp.

The Mean Temperature of the month was 9°49 degrees; when compared with the Mean Temperature of February, 1867, (which was 22°0 degrees), shows a decrease of 12°51 degrees for February, 1868.

The *Isothermal* for Montreal for the month of February, reduced from observations taken during a series of years, has been fixed at 17°4 degrees, which shows that February, 1868, was 7°01 degrees colder than this mean annual temperature.

The Barometer attained 30.561 inches at 9 p.m. of the 23rd day. The amount of snow which fell was 22.20 inches. No rain fell during the month.

—From the Records of the A. H. Corps, Quebec, Lat. 46°48′30″ N., Long. 71°12′15″ W., and 230 feet above the St. Lawrence for January, 1868. By Sergeant J. Phurling, Army Hospital Corps, Quebec.

BAROMETER.				THERMOMETER.							HYGROMETER.				RAIN.		OZONE.		WIND.			CLOUD.	
Mean for month.	Highest.	Lowest.	Range.	Highest.	Lowest.	Range.	Mean of highest.	Mean of lowest.	Mean daily range.	Mean for month.	Mean of dry bulb.	Mean of wet bulb.	Mean dew point.	Mean humidity.	Number of days fell.	Amount collected.	Mean at 5 a.m.	Mean at 3 p.m.	General direction.	Estimated strength.	Horizontal movement.	At 9 a.m.	At 3 p.m.
29.703	30.206	29.076	1.130	38°2	-20°	58°2	21°9	-0°7	22.6	10.6	9°7	8°7	4°7	80			1.0	1.0	W.	1.1	166.4	6.0	6.1

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