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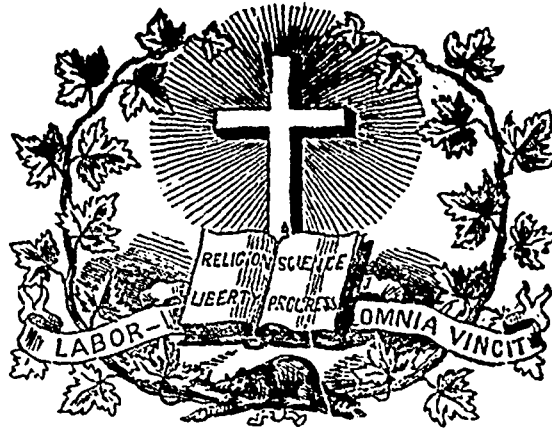
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Nos. 10 & 11.

SUMMARY.—CANADIAN HISTORY: St. Foy Monument Festival.—History of the monument; its inauguration and the event commemorated; together with the speeches delivered by Cols. de Salaberry and Sewell and the remarks of H. B. the Governor General, also French and English poetry by Messrs. Carey and Fréchet. (abridged from the *Quebec Morning Chronicle*)—Origin and Character of the Early Trade contests between Canada and New York; by J. G. Hodgins.—**EDUCATION:** Arithmetic, by John Bruce, Esq., Inspector of Schools. (continued from our last).—Should pupils be encouraged to study out of schools, by M. C. Siebbins.—Teachers, review your work.—Drawing.—**OFFICIAL NOTICES.**—Ap-

pointments: Examiners. — School Commissioners. — Trustees of dissenting schools.—Diplomas granted by Boards of Examiners.—Situations wanted.—Donations to the Library of the Department.—**EDITORIAL:** Inspection of the Boards of Examiners.—Report of the Superintendent of Education for U. C. (concluded).—**EXTRACTS** from Reports of School Inspectors.—**MONTHLY SUMMARY:** Educational Intelligence.—Scientific Intelligence.—Historical Intelligence.—Statistical Intelligence.—Necrological Intelligence.—Miscellaneous Intelligence.—**WOODCUTS:** View of the St. Foy Monument, from a photograph by J. B. Livermois.

CANADIAN HISTORY.

St. Foye Monument Festival.

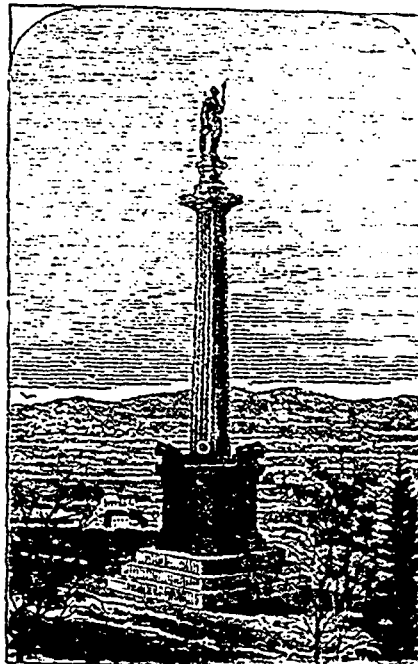
THE INAUGURATION CEREMONY, 19TH OCTOBER 1863.

(Abridged from *Quebec Morning Chronicle*.)

Our ancient city witnessed, on Monday, the rare spectacle of a public festival. We say "a rare spectacle," advisedly, for notwithstanding the well-known inclination of the inhabitants for sight-seeing, they are rarely gratified with the imposing public displays in which the Montrealers are always so successful. And we must here say that yesterday's ceremony, notwithstanding all drawbacks—notwithstanding the fact that, for a variety of reasons, the imposing array which figured on the programme did not make its appearance with full ranks and in unbroken order on the line of march—the originators of the display have no reason to feel ashamed of the result of their exertions. The weather was glorious—rarely fine, indeed, for October—the whole affair passed off without accident, and without any event calculated seriously to disturb the harmony which it is so desirable should exist in the midst of a mixed population.

THE EVENT COMMEMORATED.

Before entering upon our report of the proceedings, it is right that we should place in concise form, before our readers, some details of the battle in memory of which the St. Foy Monument was raised. The battle of St. Foy, sanguinary and fiercely contested, when we consider the number of men engaged, was fought upon the plains bordering the St. Foy road, on the 28th April, 1760, and the fiercest struggle took place on the very spot now occupied by the pillar. The circumstances under which it was fought were of a peculiar nature. It



was the first and only action which was fought in the course of the De Levi's bold attempt to take the Fortress City from the British. It was also the last victory won by French arms on Canadian soil. It must be admitted that the occasion was most auspicious for the French, and the consummation of their brightest hopes seemed at hand. Quebec was held in the winter of 1759-60, by a handful of British troops. The daring young soldier who had led them to victory was no more. They were three thousand miles from the mother country, and completely cut off from all prospect of aid or succor throughout the winter months. Reinforcements from England were out of the question until the spring of 1760 burst the icy bonds of the St. Lawrence. Reinforcements from the then friendly Provinces of Boston and New York were equally impossible, because of the dense forest, and the other impassable natural barriers which extended south of the St. Lawrence from the Gulf to the Great Lakes. On the other hand, the French were still in considerable strength throughout Canada. The hearts of the people were with King Louis and French connexion, whatever oppression they might have suffered from tyrannical Governors and speculating Intendants. Montreal, Three Rivers, and all other posts throughout Canada—except Quebec—were held by French garrisons, and the Canadian militia and Indian auxiliaries.

[Here the Editor has inserted extracts from *Smith's History of Canada*, and—in order that the other side may be heard—an account of the battle, which strange to say was written in English by Chevalier Johnstone, a Scottish Jacobite who served in the French army in Canada. We substitute for these narrations, M. Garneau's account in his *History of Canada*, which was written from both French and English records. We copy from Mr. Bell's translation:

"The wood whence the French were issuing was 400 yards distant from the enemy's front: now as the forest soil was marshy, the French could debouch only upon the

highway. The space between the wood and the British was not wide enough to allow De Lévis to form his men and lead them on without disadvantage. His situation thus became difficult, for the hill of Sainte Geneviève and the river St. Charles, alike barred his way, if he elected to march on Quebec either by the road of St. Ambroise or that of Charlesbourg; and the enemy might reach the above eminence before the French, having only the cord of the arc to pass along: he therefore resolved to attain the Sainte-Foye road by a flanking march.—Nightfall come, he ordered his troops to defile, on the right, along the skirts of the wood, till they would have got beyond the British front, and then turn round their left flank. This manœuvre, if successful, gave him both a good position, and a chance for cutting off the corps of observation posted at the Red River outlet to the St. Lawrence; but the stormy weather, and the difficulty of countermarching at that season, with wearied men, prevented the operation being essayed with due celerity. Next day Murray, who hastened to the imperilled spot, had leisure to extricate his troops with the loss only of their baggage, &c. Becoming pressed in his own retreat, he took shelter in the church of Sainte-Foye, which he fired as he left it; and he was finally able to resume his march to Quebec, leaving De Lévis master of a field of battle which he would have had much difficulty to conquer.

“The French horsemen dogged Murray’s retrograde steps, and skirmished with his rear-guard as far as Dumont Mill, within a mile and a half of the city ramparts. Murray posted a strong guard within the mill, with orders to hold it (if attacked) till night. The French troops took lodging in the houses between the church and the mill. The rain fell, meanwhile, in torrents, and the weather was frightful.

“During the night the British left the mill, fell back on the Buttes-à-Neveu, and began to entrench themselves there. When day broke, De Lévis took possession of the mill, and the whole plain of Abraham as far as the flood, in order to cover the Anse-du-Foulon (Wolfe’s Cove), whither the French vessels (laden with provisions, artillery, and baggage) which had not effected their discharge at St. Augustin, had received orders to repair. While this was effecting on the 28th, our army was to take repose, so as to be ready next day to assail the British at the Buttes, and drive them into the city.

“No sooner, however, was Murray within the walls, than he determined to make a sortie with all his troops; intending, either to give battle if an occasion presented, or else to fortify himself at the Buttes-à-Neveu, should De Lévis’ force appear to be too considerable to resist in open field; for the report of a French cannoner (who fell in while disembarking, was floated down the flood, and rescued by some British soldiers on guard) left no further doubt in his mind that the force so long spoken of had now arrived. He left the city in the morning of April 28, at the head of his whole garrison, the regulars in which, not including officers, alone numbered 7714 combatants. Excepting some hundred sick in hospital, Murray left in the place only soldiers enough to mount guard and, with a force from 6,000 to 7,000 strong, advanced, in two columns, with 22 cannon.

“De Lévis, who rode out, with his staff officers, far in advance of his men to reconnoitre the position of the British on the Buttes-à-Neveu, no sooner perceived this forward movement than he sent orders to his main army to quicken its march towards the plains of Abraham. Murray, seeing only the French van as yet, resolved to attack it before the soldiers could take breath after their march; but he had to deal with an adversary of mark, and cool temperament withal. The former ranged his troops in advance of the Buttes, his right resting on the hill (*coteau*) of Sainte-Genève, and his left touching the cliff (*falaise*) bordering the St. Lawrence; his entire line extended about 6 furlongs. Four regiments, under Colonel Burton, formed his right, placed astraddle (*à cheval*) on the road of Sainte-Foy. Four regiments, and the Scots Highlanders, under Colonel Fraser, forming the left, were similarly ranged on the road of St. Louis. Two battalions were kept as a reserve: and besides these last, the right flank of the British army was covered by a corps of light infantry under Major Dalling; the left flank by Captain Huzzen’s company of Rangers and 100 volunteers, led by Capt. Macdonald. All being arranged in the form described, General Murray gave orders to advance.

“The French van, composed of six companies of grenadiers, set in battle order, part on the right, in a redoubt erected by the British, the year preceding, to the eastward of the Anse-du-Foulon; part on the left, in Dumont mill, the miller’s house, the tannery, and other buildings close by, on the road to Sainte-Foye. The rest of the army, on learning what was toward, hastened its march, the men closing ranks as they came near; but the three

brigades were hardly formed, when the British began the attack vigorously.

“Murray felt the importance of getting hold of Dumont mill, which covered the passage (*issue*) by which the French were debouching, and he assailed it with superior numbers. He hoped that, by overpowering the grenadiers who defended it, he should be able to fall afterwards upon the centre of the force still on its way, push them far off the line of operation, and cut off the French right wing, hemmed in, as it were, on the road of St. Louis.

“Lévis, to prevent this design, withdrew his right to the entry of the wood which was in its rear, and caused the grenadiers to evacuate the mill, and fall back, in order to lessen the distance for the arriving brigades. At this turn, Bourlamaque was severely wounded by a cannon-shot, which also killed his horse. His soldiers, left without orders, seeing the grenadiers hotly engaged and overmatched, simultaneously flew to their support, and formed in line just as the enemies bore down on this point in mass with all their artillery; their field-pieces and howitzers, loaded with ball and grape, plying upon the space occupied by this wing, which staggered under so deadly a fire. The French grenadiers advanced quick step, re-took the mill after an obstinate struggle, and kept it. These brave soldiers, commanded by Captain Alguebelles, almost all perished this day. While those events were passing on the left, De Lévis caused the soldiers to re-capture the redoubt they had evacuated in order to fall back. The Canadians of the Queen’s brigade, who occupied that petty redoubt and the pine wood on the margin of the cape, regained their ground and soon charged in turn, supported by M. de St. Luc and some savages. The combat was not less hot on this line than at the left. All the troops were now in action, and the fire was heavy on both parts. Milltimen were seen to crouch on the ground to load their pieces, rise up after the cannon-shot passed over them, and dash forward to shoot the British gunners. Those of Montreal fought with great courage, especially the battalion led by the brave Colonel Rheaume, who was killed. This brigade posted in the centre, and commanded by M. de Repentigny, itself arrested on open ground (*rase campagne*) the British centre, when advancing at quick step, and with the advantage of high ground. It also repulsed several charges, and slackened, by its firmness and rapid firing, the enemy when pressing the grenadiers of the left; thereby facilitating their after march onward: in fine, this was the only brigade that maintained its ground during the whole time the obstinate struggle lasted.

“By this time, the attack, which gave the British the mastery, for a moment, over the positions occupied by the French van when the fight began, was everywhere repulsed, and our people in re-possession of all the ground they temporarily lost; thus Murray’s offensive movement by the road of Sainte-Foye had failed, and that check enabled the French to attack him in their turn.

“De Lévis, observing that the British general had over-weakened his left to strengthen his right, resolved to profit by it. He ordered his troops to charge the enemy’s left wing with the bayonet, and to thrust the British off the St. Louis road on to that of Sainte-Foye. By this manœuvre, he took in flank the whole of Murray’s army, drove the corps headlong off the height of Sainte-Genève, and cut off the enemy from the line of retreat to the city. Colonel Poulardier dashed forward at the head of the Royal Roussillon brigade, attacked the British impetuously, transpierced their whole mass, and put them to flight. At the same time their light troops gave way, and the fugitives, throwing themselves in front and in rear of the enemy’s centre, caused his fire to be suspended. De Lévis profited by this disorder to cause his own left to charge the British right wing, which the former completely routed.

“Then the whole French army advanced in pursuit of the beaten foe; but as his flight was rapid, the short distance they had to run did not allow of throwing them towards the river St. Charles. De Lévis, nevertheless, might have been able to effect this object but for an order ill delivered by an officer, whom he charged to call upon the Queen’s brigade to sustain the charge of the Royal Roussillon brigade at the right; and who, instead of causing it to execute the prescribed movement, thus made it take place behind the left wing.

“The enemy left in the victors’ hands their whole artillery, ammunition, and the intrenching tools they brought with them, besides a portion of the wounded. Their loss was considerable; nearly a fourth of their soldiers being killed or wounded. Had the French been less fatigued than they were, and assailed the city without allowing the enemy time to recover themselves, it would probably have fallen again under the domination of its former masters, says Knox; for such was the confusion, that the British neglected to

re-man the ramparts; the sentinels were absent from their posts when the fugitives sought shelter in the lower-town; even the city gates stood open for some time. But it was impossible to exact further service from the conquerors. They had to oppose to the fire of the enemy's 22 cannon that of only three small pieces, which they painfully dragged across the marsh of La Suède. They, too, experienced great loss, having been obliged to form rank and remain long immovable under the enemies' fire. A brigadier, six colonels or majors (*chefs de bataillon*) and 97 other officers, with a savage chief, were killed or wounded.

"The numbers of the two contending armies were nearly equal, for De Lévis left several detachments to protect his artillery, barges, and the bridge of Jacques-Cartier river, in order to assure himself a way of retreat, in case he were worsted. The cavalry took no part in the action.

"The savages, who were nearly all in the wood behind during the fight, spread over the vacated battle-field, when the French were pursuing the enemy, and felled many of the wounded British, whose scalps were afterwards found upon the neighbouring bushes. As soon as De Lévis was apprised of this massacre, he took vigorous measures for putting a stop to it—Within a comparatively narrow space, nearly 2,500 men had been struck by bullets: the patches of snow and icy puddles on the ground were reddened with the bloodshed that the frozen ground refused to absorb; and the wounded survivors of the battle and of the butchery of the savages were immersed in pools of gore and filth, ankle-deep.

"The transport of the wounded, which took up much time, formed the concluding act of the sanguinary drama performed this day. The wounded were borne to the General Hospital, the distance to which was much increased by the deviations from the straight way to it that had to be made. "It wants another kind of pen than mine," wrote a *religieuse* from the house of suffering, "to depict the horrors we have had to see and hear, during the 24 hours that the transit hither lasted, the cries of the dying and the lamentations of those interested in their fate. A strength more than human is needful at such a time, to save those engaged in tending such sufferers from sinking under their task.

"After having dressed more than 500 patients, placed on beds obtained from the king's magazines, there still remained others unprovided with resting-places. Our granges and cattle-sheds were full of them. . . . We had in our infirmaries 72 officers, of whom 33 died. Amputations of legs and arms were going on everywhere. To add to our affliction, linen for dressing ran out, and we were fain to have recourse to our sheets and chemises. . . .

"It was not with us now as after the first battle, when we could have recourse, for aid, to the *hospitales* of Quebec. . . . the British having taken possession of their house, as well as those of the Ursulines and private dwellings, for the reception of their wounded, who were even in greater number than ours. There were brought to us 20 British officers, whom their own people had not time to carry away, and whom we had to take charge of. . . ."

"After the action, which lasted three hours, the French took post on the Buttes-à-Neveu, and established their camp on the same plains where they had just so gloriously avenged our defeat thereupon in the preceding year."

De Lévis' triumph did not last long. On the evening of the battle he broke ground within 600 or 700 yards of the walls, and next day commenced to bombard the town, but without producing much effect. On the night of the 15th May, news was received of the approach of the English squadron from Halifax, and De Lévis abandoned the siege with great precipitation, leaving his whole battering train, camp and camp furniture, entrenching tools, &c., behind him. He was pursued and several prisoners taken, and thus ended the French attempt to retake Quebec. The brave garrison pent-up amid a hostile population, and worn down by service and sickness, welcomed the succor with that grateful joy which might be expected from men in their position.

THE MONUMENT—ITS HISTORY.

The idea of erecting a monument to the slain of 1760 was conceived many years ago. For a long time the plough of the farmer and the shovel and pick-axe of the workman, as he labored at the foundation of new buildings along the St. Foy road, turned up human remains—evidently the relics of those who were slain. Rusty, half decayed arms, accoutrements and buttons, bearing the arms or regimental numbers of French and British regiments, found in close proximity to those remains, told to whom they belonged. In 1853-54, an unusual number of these bleached fragments of humanity—sad memorials of a by-gone struggle, were found—and the St. Jean Baptiste Society conceived the idea of having them all

interred in one spot. They were accordingly collected, so far as possible, and the Christian intention of the Society was carried out on the 5th June, 1854. The ceremony is doubtless fresh in the minds of the great majority of our citizens. A splendid procession was organized, and the national societies, public bodies, troops, volunteers, &c., followed a magnificent funeral car, containing the bones of the slain French and English soldiers, to the French Cathedral, where a solemn *Requiem* was sung. The remains were then conveyed in the same state to the field on the St. Foy road, adjoining the mansion of the late Mr. Julien Chouinard, where the death-struggle had taken place between the 78th Lightlanders, (Fraser's) and the French "Grenadiers de la Reine," where they were deposited in a common grave. An eloquent funeral oration was delivered by Col. Sir Etienne Pascal Taché. The project of an appropriate monument was started about the same time, and appeared to meet with general approval. It was, however, the French Canadian national society which took the lead, as it had done on the previous occasion, and as it has done since. Arrangements had progressed to such an extent that it was intended to lay the corner-stone of the monument on the 24th June, 1855, but it was thought desirable to postpone it until the 19th July following, when the presence of His Imperial Majesty's corvette *La Capricieuse*, in the harbor of Quebec, added new solemnity to the occasion. A procession, exceeding in magnitude that of the previous year, was organized; and the presence in its ranks of the British garrison of Quebec, and the crew of a French war vessel, was indicative of the cordial alliance then as now existing between these two great powers; and formed an auspicious spectacle for their descendants in the new world. On that occasion, the Hon. P. J. O. Chauveau was the orator of the day. His speech was a most brilliant effort, worthy of his reputation as a public speaker, replete with brilliant imagery, couched in the most eloquent language, governed throughout by sound judgment and good taste. During the following years, the St. Jean Baptiste Society, labored earnestly and unceasingly for the purpose of collecting subscriptions to complete the monument. There was, indeed, no easy task, as may be well supposed, for the excitement of the thing had all passed away with the last public display, and those who would have willingly contributed before the laying of the corner-stone, took but little interest in it afterwards. Success was, however, attained, and in four or five years, the base was crowned by the noble pillar which now rears its fine proportions on the historic heights of St. Foy. Without being invidious, in the least degree, we may say that to Dr. P. M. Bardy belongs, in a great degree, the credit of this success; indeed, his fellow members of the St. Jean Baptiste Society are the first to concede to him the merit of his exertions. Baron Gaultière Boilleau, the Consul General of France in Canada, obtained from His Highness Prince Napoleon the beautiful statue of Bellona, which forms such an appropriate ornament on the summit of the monument. The memorial to the slain of 1760 having been thus completed, the plan of an inauguration ceremony was projected, and was consummated yesterday in presence of His Excellency the Governor General, the garrison, the public bodies, the national societies, and at least twenty-five thousand persons—citizens of Quebec and residents of the adjacent villages. The St. Foy monument is decidedly the handsomest public monument we have in this city or its vicinity. Of bronzed metal, standing on a stone base, and surmounted by a bronze statue, it is a most prominent object in the landscape. The face of the pedestal fronting St. Foy road has the simple inscription, surrounded by a laurel wreath, "AUX BRAVES DE 1760, ERIGÉ PAR LA SOCIÉTÉ ST. JEAN BAPTISTE DE QUÉBEC, 1860." On the face looking towards the city is the name "MURRAY," on an oval shield surmounted by the arms of Great Britain and Ireland, and supported by British insignia. On the other side is a shield bearing the name "LÉVIS," surmounted by the arms of France under the Bourbons, the crown and lilies, with appropriate supporters at each side. In rear, looking towards the valley, there is a representation of a wind-mill in bas-relief—in allusion, we suppose, to the windmill which was an object of alternate attack and defence to both armies on the occasion of the battle. This portion of the column also bears the national arms of Canada. The site of the monument is beautiful in the extreme. You reach it from the St. Foy toll-gate after five or six minutes walk through an avenue bordered on either side by handsome villas, and fine gardens, and half shaded by over-arching trees. It stands on an open field on the brow of the cliff overhanging the valley of the St. Charles. As you turn towards the monumental pillar, you have before you, the valley of the St. Charles, along which the populous suburbs of St. Roch and St. Sauveur are gradually making their way. Beyond the limit of the level ground, the hills rise up terrace-like, bright, even in the late

autumn, with the verdure of gardens, and rendered still more attractive by the endless succession of villas, farm-houses and villages which dot the rising ground at intervals until they are lost in the distance, far away in the rear, behind Lorette, Charlesbourg and Beauport, where the blue summits of the Laurentian range rise to the skies. On the left, at one end of the valley, the prospect is rendered still more grand by the mountain heights and thickly wooded skirts of the valley, bright with the orange, crimson, and russet hues of autumn. Along the whole landscape you can trace the winding of the St. Charles, from the foot of the mountains on the one side until it mingles with the broad St. Lawrence on the other. In fact, it is impossible, within the narrow limits of our report, to describe the scene. It contains every variety of physical feature which can add to beauty of landscape; and viewed as it was yesterday, under the warm sun of the Indian summer, it was indeed rarely beautiful. It is needless to say that the attraction was heightened by the moving crowd, the bright uniforms, the glistening arms, and waving banners of the thousands who thronged the field of St. Foy during the sunny afternoon.

THE STREET DECORATIONS.

The street decorations, though, not by any means elaborate, were nevertheless, very tasteful. The whole line of march had been prepared for the occasion, and from the point of rendezvous in the Place d'Armes, to the monument, there was no lack of flags or evergreens. Arches had been placed in Fabrique street, near the Upper Town Market Square; in St. John street (within the Gate) near Collins street; again near Palace street, and near the intersection of St. Angele street. Outside the Gate, similar erections had been raised at intervals, while the footpaths, on both sides, along the whole route, had been lined with trees. The intervals between the arches were filled up with bunting of gay colors, among which national flags, and signal and ship flags figured in profusion. The arches, themselves, were in some instances draped with flags, the bright hues of which formed a striking contrast to the deep verdure of the evergreens. Close to the monument stood the last of the triumphal gates, and upon its decoration more than ordinary care had been expended. The column itself and the field presented signs of preparation of which we shall speak hereafter.

THE PROCESSION.

The procession mustered on the Place d'Armes towards one o'clock, and the indefatigable Marshal was not long in getting it into marching order. The order announced in the programme was preserved, so far as consistent with the circumstances. The march opened with a detachment of mounted marshals, representing the St. George's, St. Andrew's, St. Patrick's, and St. Jean Baptiste's Societies. The next feature in the procession was the flag of Britain and that of France borne side by side, and attended by an appropriate escort. Then came the children of the public schools, numbering several hundred, with their banners, insignia and mounted marshals. The Firemen, who made up the succeeding department of the procession, added vastly to the appearance of the line. Their admirable *physique*, heightened by the neat scarlet Garibaldi shirts and caps of the St. Roch and St. John's Sappers, and the deep marine blue of the Naval Brigade, with their sailor-like trim, contributed a variety of color to the moving mass which was pleasing in the extreme. Then, attended by a mounted escort, came four carriages containing the President of the St. Jean Baptiste Society, His Worship the Mayor of Quebec, the President of the St. George's, St. Patrick's, St. Andrew's and St. Jean Baptiste (Seminary) Societies, the Vice-President of the St. Jean Baptiste Society, L. G. Baillargé, Esq., P. M. Bardy, Esq., H. L. Langevin, Esq., Hon. R. E. Caron, Hon. L. Panet, and Lieut.-Col. Jos. Hamel. Next came the Grand Marshal, with his deputies, mounted; next the members of the Monument Committee; the Quebec Bar; the Corporation of Quebec; the Medical Faculty; the Notaries; and the Mayor and Corporation of St. Sauveur. A delegation from the Huron Indians of Lorette, in full costume, their faces bedaubed with war paint, made a very interesting appearance. They marched with stately and measured step, and with all the dignity of the untamed forest children, amid the pomp and excitement of the procession, as if unconscious either of the curiosity they created or the events going on around them. One of the elders of the tribe bore a large British flag, which was looked upon with evident pride by all his brethren, who followed in double file, in all the glory of towering feather head-dresses, armlets and breastplates of embossed tin, shirts and tunics of scarlet or blue flannel, or printed stuffs of outrageous pattern, the costume being completed by bright-colored leggings and ornamented moccasins. The national societies were to have occupied the next place in the procession, but the number of their

representatives was, in each case, mainly confined to the president, a mounted marshal, and one or two officers, so that there was no real turn-out of these societies. The next vacuum was the absence of the regular troops in garrison who figured in the programme, but who did not, nevertheless, march in the procession, although they were on the field and participated in the ceremony. The Volunteer Militia display, too, was anything but a success. The Quebec Field Battery, under Major Lamontagne, a few troopers of the Quebec Cavalry, a detachment of No. 2 Battery of Foot Artillery, under Captain McKay, as representatives of that arm of the force, and four or five companies from the 7th and 9th Rifle Battalions, under Major Panet, made up the whole strength of the Volunteers in the procession or on the grounds. We have already spoken of the neat appearance and general excellency of Major Lamontagne's battery, and of the foot artillery, as well as of the cavalry, and their muster yesterday, although deficient in numbers give us no reason to change our opinion. But we regret to say that the Rifles, with perhaps the honorable exception of Capt. Gingras' Company, which has always maintained a comparatively high standing, were not calculated to giro a very high idea either of the physical strength, discipline or personal neatness of this portion of our citizen soldiery. Col. Blanchet and staff, who came next, represented the Levis Volunteers in the ranks of the procession, and did it worthily. There was a strong muster of the Typographical Society, bearing upon their breasts the handsome red and white badges of the society, and preceded by a banner bearing the effigy of the immortal Gutenberg. The Carpenters' and Workmen's Societies also followed the appropriate banners of their respective crafts. Towards the close of the procession came the several sections of the St. Jean Baptiste Society, with flags, banners, lances and battle-axes, led by their respective mounted marshals, forming a long and well-filled line. The procession closed with a detachment of police under Capt. Bureau.

The most remarkable circumstance of the day was the immense number of spectators. It was not the citizens of Quebec alone who thronged the line of march. There were thousands from the villages of the country—thousands from the Town of Levis and the south shore parishes, eager to behold the display. The sidewalks of Fabrique and St. John streets, along the whole way, were literally jammed. Locomotion was almost snail-like amid the mass, although all tended onward. The windows of houses and shops along the line were crowded with hosts of eager faces. Every house-top—nay, every awning, every gateway and wall had its surging freight of occupants. Men, women and children were there by the thousand; but the softer sex, with their traditional appetite for sight-seeing, formed the vast majority. The Glacis, at St. John's Gate, within, was densely packed with human beings. On the outer walls and fortifications a similar spectacle presented itself. Even beyond the toll-gate there was no perceptible diminution of the crowd; and the field of the monument was crowded to its utmost limit. We should add, in connexion with the unusual number of spectators, that all the leading shops along the route were closed; that the public offices were also closed during the afternoon, and that there was at least so far as Upper Town and St. John Suburbs were concerned, a total suspension of business. There must have been at least 20,000 or 25,000 persons present when the inauguration took place.

THE INAUGURATION CEREMONY.

Extensive preparations had been made on the ground for the inauguration. A sable veil was suspended from four corners of the monument, around the shaft of which ran a spiral wreath of evergreens. The pedestal was ornamented with the time-worn regimental flags of the Quebec Militia. Immediately at its base, fronting the city, was placed a carpeted platform, surmounted by a reading desk, draped with the red-cross banner, for the orators of the day. An oblong space, extending from the monument towards the limit of the field was filled up on each side with seats for those who had been provided with tickets by the Committee of Arrangements. This space was kept clear by a detachment of the Royal Artillery. On the right side, immediately adjoining the monument, a species of open tent was formed, the drapery being composed of royal standards and Union Jacks. Beneath this canopy, seats were placed for the distinguished personages who were immediately connected with the inauguration ceremony. When the procession reached the ground, the troops, under Col. Benn. R. A., Commandant, consisting of the Royal Artillery, the 17th Regiment, Col. Gordon, and the 62nd Regiment, Col. Ingall, were drawn up on three sides of a square around the reserved space. His Excellency the Governor General, accompanied by Lieut.-Col. Irvine, A.D.C., Capt. Pemberton, A.D.C., Capt. Retallack, and Mr. Godley were

seated on the dais. Major Gen. Hon. James Lindsay, C. B., and staff, were also present, as were the staff of this garrison. Lady Monk, the Misses Monk, and a number of other ladies occupied seats. We also noticed His Lordship the Bishop of Tloa, R. C. Administrator of the Diocese of Quebec, the Very Grand Vicar Cazeau, and a number of other church dignitaries. Before long, Baron Gaudree-Boilleau had arrived, and the orators of the day—Cols. De Salaberry and Sewell; Quarter-Master General Lindsay, Brigade-Major Suzor, the Presidents of the St. Jean Baptiste, St. George's, St. Andrew's and St. Patrick's Societies were soon in their places. His Worship the Mayor, the Monument Committee, the past Presidents of the St. Jean Baptiste Society, and many others took their places on the dais; the members of the Bar and the Notaries were admitted within the reserved space; and the remainder of the procession halted in regular order in the field or along the road. All was then ready for the ceremony; and the President of the St. Jean Baptiste Society, Hon. I. Thibaudeau, in his own name, and in that of Wm. Eadon, Esq., (St. George's Society), Hon. C. Alley, (St. Patrick's Society,) and Wm. Hossack, Esq., (St. Andrew's Society) requested His Excellency to uncover the statue of Bellona. His Excellency pulled the cord which held the veils, and the latter fell to the ground and left the shaft and figure completely uncovered. Three hearty cheers for Old England greeted the act, and were followed by three cheers for France, The Quebec Field Battery, posted on the brow of the hill, then thundered out a salute, the bands played the National Anthem, and three hearty cheers were spontaneously given for Her Majesty the Queen, and as many for His Excellency the Governor General. The speeches of the day came next on the programme, and these we must say were in strict good taste and judgment; thoroughly in keeping with the occasion, and creditable to the gallant gentlemen by whom they were delivered.

COL. DE SALABERRY'S DISCOURSE.

Col. A. M. DE SALABERRY, D. A. G. M., for Lower Canada, having been called upon by the Hon. President of the Society, advanced to the stand prepared for the Orators of the day, amid the cheers of the assembled thousands, and spoke as follows, in the French language:—

*"May it please your Excellency, Ladies and Gentlemen,—*Invited by the Committee of the Monument to the Heroes of 1760, to address you on the occasion of the inauguration of the statue which crowns the column raised on the soil once redeemed with the best blood of France and England, I feel that I am unable to render justice to such a great subject; and I therefore claim your indulgence for the few words I shall utter.

This monument will teach future generations the valor and struggles of our ancestors. (Cheers.)

"Providence had decreed that on the 28th of April, 1760, our ancestors should be the last victors in a war between the two most illustrious nations of Europe. (Loud cheers.) A few months after the death of Wolfe and Montcalm—each having fought heroically to ensure the triumph of his country's flag—Quebec being almost in ashes, under the dominion of the conqueror, it was difficult to foresee that a handful of Frenchmen should be able to retard a fixed destiny. Nevertheless, on the 28th April, 1760, a new French Army appears on the field of battle, commanded by a chief of equal, if not superior merit to Montcalm. From one end of the country to the other the Canadians had hastened to range themselves under the banner of France, and make a last effort to save their fatherland.

"The army of Chevalier De Lévis was composed of volunteers, who, strong in their religious faith—strong in their national faith, were determined to conquer. The struggle which took place here, more than a century ago, was between the brave General Murray, already victorious on the same ground, and French troops anxious to conquer him.

"For the Canadian Militia, the issue was their faith and their firesides. (Cheers.)

"The combat lasted a day, but was fiercest during three hours. Of fourteen thousand men who were present, three thousand remained on the battle-field. All these events happened on the ground on which we stand. The heat of the battle was between the Queen's Grenadiers, commanded by M. D'Aiguebelle, and the Scotch Highlanders, commanded by Col. Fraser.

"This is what occurred, here, where the French remained victorious.

"Before the illustrious Representative of Her Britannic Majesty—before the commander of Her Majesty's Forces—before our English, Irish and Scottish fellow-citizens, before the Hurons, we, the descendants of the Militiamen of 1760, crown this monument,

which contains the mingled remains of the brave men of both nations.

"I seize this opportunity to remind you that we owe a debt of gratitude to the St. Jean Baptiste Society for having taken the initiative in raising this monument. One of its former Presidents, Dr. P. M. Barty, also deserves well of us, for having profited by the visit of His Imperial Highness, Prince Napoleon, to ask him to interest himself on our behalf with the Emperor of the French, in order to obtain this statue, which we received through the distinguished and courteous Baron Gaudrée Boilleau. (Cheers.) Before concluding, permit me also to remind you of the fact that Lieut.-Col. Joseph Hamel, of the Canadian Militia, a veteran of 1812, whom I have the pleasure to behold at this festival, deserves our gratitude, for the discovery of the remains of the warriors whose memory we honor here to-day. (Loud applause.)"

COL. SEWELL'S DISCOURSE.

Col. JOHN SEWELL, Commandant of the Active Force, 7th Military District, next came forward, at the request of the President, and was greeted with much cheering. He spoke in English, and said:

*"May it please your Excellency, Ladies and Gentlemen:—*But for the liberal spirit in which we are this day convened, it would be a delicate matter to treat a subject that concerns the deeds of arms of two such great nations as those of England and France, whose histories record innumerable acts of prowess in the fields of war—neither of whom would for one moment submit to the imputation of inferiority. (Cheers.)

"We are assembled as I have just observed, in a generous league, to do honor to the memory of brave men of two contending armies, who fell on these fields in 1760, prodigally shedding their blood to sustain the honor of their respective countries—cheerfully surrendering their lives to their high sense of duty.

"Their deeds place them above all praise, however glowing the language in which it may be expressed.

"A record of their devotion—to do them justice—should be inscribed by a burning pen in tracings of eternal light. But we may be permitted to add our praise by expressing our unbounded admiration of the patriotism and valor of the brave men whose glorious conduct we this day commemorate by the inauguration of a costly monument which posterity has erected to their honor, and which Prince Napoleon of France has munificently crowned with the Goddess of War. (Cheers.)

"This splendid monument attests the innate respect that men have for their fellows who, like the men of 1760, do their duty in the battle-field; and is a credit to the living as well as an honor to the dead.

"Cherishing the recollection of their heroic acts as worthy of our emulation, I now beg to observe that it is a popular error to ascribe to a defeated army a want of that essential element of success—devoted bravery. Courage to men is as natural as eyesight. The personal feeling of the individual in action, under any amount of pressure, is one and the same advancing and retreating, but the success of the aggregate mass is not depending on the courage of units alone. It requires that complete and perfect discipline that shall enable it to move and act as the will of one master mind shall direct. (Cheers.) Hence, the superior of the leaders of two contending armies will, as a rule, reap the laurels of the day.

"Now, if the triumphs of war favored the British army on the 13th of September, 1759, it was accomplished without tarnishing the honor of our noble antagonists. (Loud cheers.) And again, if on the 28th of April, 1760, grim-visaged war cast a passing cloud of adversity on the British defenders of Quebec, it did not dim the brilliancy of their arms, though it added military distinction to our skillful opponents. (Cheers.)

"But war and its concomitant evils are, let us hope, banished from our land for many a day. I say from our land, for be it that of our nativity or adoption, we are now one, as Canadians; and as such—without invidious distinction that is based on prejudice and ignorance of the many manly and social virtues that our different origins may justly claim—I repeat, as one people, let us unite in mind, heart and hand, to work out the problem of Canadian prosperity by the irresistible means of Canadian unity, and a great future awaits Canada. (Cheers.)

"That the proceedings of this day may tend to promote a close and abiding union of all our origins and creeds in the bonds of Christian fellowship is the aspiration of all whom I have the honor to address, and its consummation is in our own hands. We have but to will it, and that being done, in full integrity of purpose, we will never have cause to complain of the destiny that has united us a nation under the protection of England's glorious flag of free-

dom—the banner that we Canadians have unfurled to the battle and the breeze, and carried in our ranks through victorious fields against the enemies of England, and which we are ready to repeat whenever necessity may require it. (Prolonged cheering.)”

HIS EXCELLENCY'S REMARKS.

His Excellency the Governor General then stepped forward to the front of the dais and briefly addressed the assembled spectators. He congratulated them, in a few words, on the success which had attended their exertions in raising and completing the monument, as well as upon the harmony and good will which prevailed among themselves; and expressed a hope that the column now erected might be an everlasting memorial of similarly cordial feelings throughout all future time, and a symbol of the union of the two great nations to which they owed their origin. His Excellency's remarks were received with the most enthusiastic cheering; and the loyal cheers for Her Majesty and Her representative were repeated, not forgetting Lady Monck. In these rounds of applause the President of the Society, the past president and the Grand Marshal were not forgotten.

Immediately after His Excellency's remarks the troops left the ground, and the procession followed. Owing, however, to the tremendous crush of vehicles and pedestrians on the road, nothing like order could be preserved in its ranks as a whole, and the different societies and organizations made the best of their way back to the city. It was fully two hours before the stream of human beings pouring through St. Foy toll-gate into the city had commenced to slacken.

THE POETS OF THE DAY.

The Committee of arrangements had decided upon the excellent plan of requesting two gentlemen of known literary ability to write verses in English and French respectively, in honor of the day, by way of perpetuating the memory of the ceremony. In pursuance of this determination the task was offered to Mr. D. Carey, of the *Vindicator*, and Mr. L. H. Frechette author of “*Mes Loisirs*.” How ably both gentlemen fulfilled their engagement will be seen by their verses, which we print below. Owing, however, to some misunderstanding or mismanagement, which has not been explained, we understand that the printed slips of the two poems which it was intended to distribute along the line of march and at the monument, were not distributed, and very few copies got into circulation yesterday. This was very unfortunate, and must be anything but gratifying to the gentlemen who kindly undertook the task. Mr. Carey's fine ballad resembles, in its dramatic effect, and clear ringing versification, Macaulay's *Lays of Ancient Rome*. The sentiments which it contains are noble, and are expressed with rare poetic ability. Of Mr. Frechette's production we need only say that he is already inscribed on the list of Canadian authors of no mean talent, and that his verses on this occasion were worthy of his reputation. We append both poems.—

BATTLE OF STE. FOYE,

28th April, 1760.

1.

Say *BELLONA*, glorious goddess, gazing southwards to the sun,
Whom the warlike *Sabinæ* worshipped ere by Roman arms undone:
Why this booming din of cannon and this multitude's acclaim,
Say for whom this deaf'ning tribute—say for whom this pillared fame?

2.

This is not the *CAMPUS MARTIUS*—those are not the *OSCAN* hills.
Thronged by Shadows whose tradition half the scroll of glory fills;
Yonder stream is not the *TIBER*—yonder valley not the vale,
Whence the tramp of conqu'ring legions made the menaced world quail.

3.

Thus replying spake *BELLONA*, of the regal voice and mien,
All resplendent in the noon-day and the mellow autumn sheen:
“Wisdom, glory, martial greatness, to no single land belong—
“Shades of heroes flit around thee never yet enshrined in song.”

4.

“Thrice that river, seaward hast'ning, drank the purple battle tide—
“Thrice those hills, so gaily foliaged, thundered back th' shout defied;
“Every step around is storied—every slope is sacred earth—
“Host met host—the prize dominion—here an Empire had its birth:

5.

“Yea, an Empire that shall ripen in the fertile womb of Time—
“Not in all its deep foundations trace of fear or shame or crime;
“Northern Arch whose grand proportions span the skies from sea to sea—
“From Atlantic to Pacific—home of unborn millions free.”

6.

In the sullen grey of morning through the mist and melting snow,
Came th' impatient sons of Britain forth to meet their ancient foe;
Scarce three thousand veteran soldiers, scarce three thousand men all
Every heart sublimed to daring—led by *MURRAY* all too bold. [told.]

7.

Like a mettled charger champing at the bit in restless pain,
Full ten thousand Gauls stood marshalled in the woody skirted plain;
Full ten thousand warriors goaded by the memory of that day
When on *Abram's* heights thy *Lillies*, France, were humbled in the fray.

8.

Fiercely sped the bugle's challenge—all the passions now unchained
Burst in battle's bloody tumult;—like the tempest long restrained;
Or, like mountain torrent dashing madly down on helpless vale,
Headlong charging through their centre broke the fiery British Gael.

9.

Now God guard thee gallant *MURRAY*! lest the rashness of thy deed
Work thy little band's undoing, 'tis thine hour of bitter need:
Brave *DE LEVI* trust not numbers which like *PHARAOH'S* hosts may fail,
All unequal though the combat they must strive who would prevail.

10.

Stunned, the Frenchmen stood a moment—bursting then amazement's
With a roar that shook the heavens woke the chivalry of Gaul— [thrill,
Woke like wounded lions raging, bounded 'cross the snowy plain,
Scatt'ring death around them wildly, riving *MURRAY'S* ranks in twain.

11.

Ah! like troubled seawaves striving with a basalt bounded coast,
Through two hours of deadly carnage strove in vain the British host;
Underneath the smoke of battle, heaped upon th' ensanguined snow,
Lay three thousand human corpses, once with life and hope aglow.

12.

Vainly, vainly, reckless *MURRAY* sought to stem this wild defeat—
Loudly o'er the savage combat rang the summons to retreat;
Vainly, too, the brave *DE LEVI* heard the shouts of victory rise—
From our walls the Red-Cross ensign floats and guards the cherished [prize:

13.

Floats, but not with evil omen, like the ensign of old Rome
Marking out the desolation of some subjugated home:
Victors, vanquished—foes no longer—side by side beneath its fold,
Since that day have bled together—have invasion backwards roll'd.

DANIEL CAREY.

LES BRAVES DE 1760.

Ils étaient tombés là, ces lutteurs magnanimes,
Ces héros épuisés par tant d'efforts sublimes....
Et sur ce sol couvert de leur généreux sang,
Rien ne nous rappelait ni combat ni victoire;
Seuls les vieux souvenirs de ces beaux jours de gloire,
Planant sur les tombeaux, redisaient au passant:

“Ici l'on fut témoin de deux luttes étranges;
“Ici l'on vit crouler d'invincibles phalanges.
“Et, depuis ce jour là, tout un siècle a pris fin.
“Ils tombèrent ici sous la balle et la bombe....
“Incline-toi, passant, car tu foules leur tombe!”
Et le passant disait: “Ils sont soumis, enfin!”

Mais la Patrie, un jour, se souvient de ces braves
Succombés en voulant la sauver des entraves:
Leurs noms, d'un long oubli, retirés par lambeaux,
Furent bientôt gravés sur le bronze et la pierre....
Et le passant alors, courbant sa tête altière:
“Ils moururent vainqueurs, honneur à leur tombeaux.”

Et vainqueurs et vaincus alors s'agenouillèrent;
Les haines d'autrefois, ce jour-là, s'oublirent;
Ensemble on célébra les héros malheureux;

Et la France, elle aussi, la vieille et noble France,
Pour nous faire oublier sa longue indifférence,
Apporta son hommage aux mânes de nos héros !

Sur la plaine longtemps muette et solitaire,
On entendit alors une salvo guerrière
Mêlée aux sons bruyants des trompettes d'airain ;
Les guerriers endormis s'émuèrent dans leurs bidons ;
Et les doux ennemis se souriant en frères,
Sur le vieux champ d'honneur se donnèrent la main.

Oh ! puissions-nous toujours, nobles et fortes races,
Suivant de ces héros et l'exemple et les traces,
Marcher vers l'avenir... et, grande nation,
Dans les beaux jours de paix, comme aux jours des tempêtes,
Puissions-nous toujours voir, s'unissant sur nos têtes,
L'étendard de la France aux couleurs d'Albion !

La France ! oh ! de nouveau sa gloire nous inonde...
Cent ans étaient passés, sans que, du Nouveau-Monde,
Son clairon des combats fit retentir l'écho ;
Mais son drapeau revient briller dans notre histoire ;
Elle perdit Québec après une victoire ;
Une autre, un siècle après, lui donna Mexico !

LOUIS-HONORÉ FROCHETTE.

FESTIVALS IN THE EVENING.

As had been announced, the festivities closed with a promenade Concert or Ball. From one cause or other, however, it did not meet with the success we had anticipated for it. Notwithstanding the numerous Committees whose exertions ought to have sufficed to have crowded the Hall ; notwithstanding the presence of His Excellency, who, accompanied by his staff, visited the ball-room, and entered heartily into the spirit of the amusement, the whole affair went off rather flat, and the number of persons present was rather under than over two hundred. The Hall was well lighted, tastefully decorated with flags and wreaths ; the refreshment tables occupying the rear of the stage formed an attractive and appetizing vista ; the supper was in Mr. Chalmer's best style, and that is certainly saying enough for it ; the music of the two regimental bands was delightful ; but the company was far from being sufficiently numerous to make up a really pleasant party. In addition to His Excellency's staff, we noticed Cols. DeSalaberry, Gordon ; Col. Sewell, Major Lindsay, his Worship the Mayor, several officers of the garrison, and the Sedentary and Volunteer force, among the company.

The ball in St. Roch's was far more successful than its aristocratic rival of the Upper Town. Over three hundred persons were present, including Sappers, members of the Naval Brigade, volunteers and citizens generally. Good music was supplied by Mr. Thibaut's band, and a capital supper and refreshments were provided by Mr. L. Lemieux. The Hall was tastefully arranged with flags, banners and evergreens ; and the utmost harmony prevailed. Dancing was kept up without remitting spirit, until an advanced hour this morning ; and the Sappers and their friends seemed heartily to enjoy their social meeting. His Worship the Mayor, Mr. Huot, M. P. P., and Mr. H. Fabre, of *Le Canadien*, were among the invited guests of the evening.

Origin and Character of the Early Trade Contests between Canada and New York-- The St. Lawrence vs. the Hudson.

By J. GEORGE HODGINS, LL.B., F.R.G.S.

To non-commercial men, and other on-lookers, who have silently watched the ebb and flow of trade to the sea-board, by way of the St. Lawrence, it may be interesting to glance back nearly two centuries and recall the circumstances under which the contest, in favor of trade between Canada and Europe *via* the St. Lawrence, began.

That the river St. Lawrence is the great natural outlet to the commercial trade of the vast country lying in the interior, and along both sides of the Canadian Lakes, is an obvious fact which requires no demonstration to prove it. It is self-evident. In later times, the artificial channels of the Erie Canal and the New-York Central and Erie Railroads, have proved formidable rivals to the natural route of the St. Lawrence, which, even the additional aids of the St. Lawrence canals and Grand Trunk Railway, have not yet been able wholly to overcome. But in early times, there were no such rivals, and the contest for supremacy then partook more of a tribal

and warlike, rather than of a geographical or commercial character.

The great river systems of this continent are not only vast in their proportions, but are also marked by great physical distinctness. When we speak of the Mississippi and the St. Lawrence, we at once associate with the name of the one, the sunshine and perennial bloom of the South, and with the other, the periodical return of the silence and snow of the northern winter. Yet, they take their rise comparatively near to each other, in the same watershed, if not in the very same hilly runges.

By a singular coincidence, the discovery of both these great rivers was due to the early French explorers of Canada, who, with sagacious foresight, sought at Quebec and New Orleans, to lay the foundation of future supremacy over the waters of each of these great arteries of commerce. Perhaps no chapter of the early history of Canada is so full of heroic incidents and daring exploits, as well as of persistent efforts to accomplish a great object, as that relating to French Canadian explorations on this continent. Soon after the settlement of the infant colony at Quebec took place, this spirit of enterprise developed itself. Nor was it satisfied until the Saguenay, Richelieu, St. Maurice, St. Lawrence, Ottawa, and French rivers, and the St. John, Champlain, Ontario, Erie, Ste. Claire, Huron, Nipissing, and Superior Lakes were successively traversed and opened up for future traffic and enterprise. Even the then mysterious Mississippi was explored for many miles down its course, and subsequently to its mouth.

It cannot be said that this extraordinary activity in explorations was the result of a romantic zeal. The prosaic principle of gain, no less than the higher one of Christian benevolence, stimulated most of these efforts. The early projectors of colonization in this country, were made up of two great parties—those who looked upon Canada as a great field of Missionary labor, and those who looked upon it merely as a vast mine, out of which untold wealth might be obtained, with very little effort. The trading merchants of Rouen and Rochelle, as well as other royal chartered associations, pursued their plans in the spirit of this latter class and in antagonism to that of the former. By their narrow and exclusive policy they showed how lightly they valued the religious interests or material prosperity of the colony, as compared with its capability, in a wilderness state, to furnish so many thousand skins of wild animals every year. So completely was the very commercial existence of Canada bound up with each of these successive trading companies, that at one time the inhabitants could neither import articles from France, for themselves, or for trade with the Indians, without permission, nor purchase imported articles, except at the Company's stores, and at a fixed tariff of high prices. Even the Royal Intendant himself (M. Talon), had, in 1665, to implore the interposition of the French monarch, to prevent the colony from going to ruin under such a perniciously repressive system. The representations of the Intendant were listened to ; and to the colonists was given "freedom of trade with the aborigines and with the mother country." M. Garneau, in his *Histoire du Canada*, (1) thus refers to the deplorable state of the Colony, on the relaxation of the restrictive commercial régime to which it had been so long subjected. He says : "The commercial freedom thus accorded was really urgently needed, as every interest of the Colony had fallen into decay. The Sovereign Council (at Quebec) had felt constrained to multiply its restrictive regulations, to pacify certain sections of trades, and to foster special interests to the injury of others ; inasmuch that the collective industry of the Colony has been reduced to a state of bondage. Thus, for example, the Council tried to lower the monopolist prices (become exorbitant indeed) of the Company's merchandize, by issuing a tariff with lower rates, fixed by law. As a natural consequence, none of the commodities so depreciated by purblind authority, being brought to market at all, were to be bought at any price. Such a state of things which, though it did not last long, went nigh to effect the perdition of the colony, ceased at once as soon as trade with the Savages and France was declared free."

Notwithstanding these restrictions, the staple traffic of the country was, in order to comply with the demands and expectations of the stockholders at home, vigorously prosecuted. In 1665, 550,000 francs worth of furs alone was shipped to France. Of course, every effort was made, and every expedient was resorted to, in order to obtain these furs from the Indians. The disputes and rivalry excited among the various tribes, were so strong and violent, that the general policy of the government of the day was often subordinated to the necessity of allaying or suppressing these internal disputes and disagreements.

(1) Bell's Translation, vol. I. p. 220 ; Montreal, John Lovell.

During all this time, a powerful rival, like the youthful Hercules, was silently gaining strength and growing into prominence on the southern Atlantic seaboard. The English, having dispossessed the Dutch at Manhattan (New York) in 1663, and, being less phlegmatic than their predecessors, soon developed the peculiar energy and commercial activity of their race. Enjoying perfect liberty of internal trade, they gradually extended their forts and trading posts far into the interior. In doing so they were peculiarly fortunate in securing the active friendship of most of the celebrated Iroquois Indian tribes or cantons, whose hostility to the French and their Huron Allies was both fierce and unrelenting. Nor was it without a sufficient cause that the Iroquois cherished this hostility. The first time they ever met was signalized by an unprovoked and murderous attack upon them by the French,—who had become the allies of their enemies, the Hurons,—and this was shortly afterwards followed up by another and still more decisive blow. With a singular want of sagacity, Champlain had, on his arrival in Canada, allied himself with the nearest Indian tribes. Without inquiring into the character or resources of the enemies of those tribes, he espoused their quarrels; and in the first few unequal encounters with the dreaded Iroquois, he gained an easy victory, by means of his destructive European weapons. Fearfully inflicted were these unprovoked quarrels avenged. The injuries then inflicted were never forgiven. For more than a hundred years the fierce warwhoop of the unappeased Iroquois scarcely ever ceased its echo among one or other of the French settlements,—which, in time, had stretched themselves from the lower valley of the St. Lawrence to the upper valley of the Ohio.

It is true that other causes tended to foster this vindictive feeling against the French on the part of the Iroquois; and the English colonists in New York did not fail to turn it to good account in their schemes of traffic. Having soon exhausted the supply of beaver within their own cantons or territories, the Iroquois were unable, without encroaching upon the beaver preserves of their neighbors, to furnish a sufficient number of skins to satisfy their own love of gain or the demands of the English. As these preserves lay within the territory of their hereditary enemy, the Iroquois felt little compunction in invading them themselves, and even in compelling the Indian allies of the French living there to furnish them with beaver to be sent forward to the English traders. This, in many cases, they were not loath to do after a little while, especially as the price paid by the Anglo-Iroquois trader for the beaver skin was higher than that paid by the French, while the articles supplied by the English in barter were cheaper. This was the case in 1670,—shortly after the Dutch ceased to hold possession of New York; and the fact was afterwards confirmed by Frontenac, in a letter addressed to Louis XIV. He says: "I consider it my duty not to conceal from you that the English rate the beaver carried to Orange (Albany) and elsewhere one-third higher than it is rated at the office of your Majesty's revenue (*Ferme*); and that they pay ordinarily in dollars, without making any of the distinctions customary here (at Quebec); and when merchandise is preferred, they furnish it at a lower rate, by half, than our merchants do."

In order to show exactly what was the difference of prices in the Indian trade at Montreal and Albany, in 1689, we give the following table:

The Indian pays for	At Albany	At Montreal.
9 lbs. of powder.....	one beaver.....	four beavers.
A gun.....	two beavers.....	five beavers.
40 lbs. of lead.....	one beaver.....	three beavers.
A red cloth blanket.....	one beaver.....	two beavers.
A white blanket.....	one beaver.....	two beavers.
4 sbirts.....	one beaver.....	two beavers.
6 pairs of stockings.....	one beaver.....	two beavers.

As might easily be supposed, a rival tariff of prices so favorable to the Indian, the half breed, and the *coueurs de bois*, or white trappers, as well as to the increase of trade at Albany at the expense of Montreal, would need little argument to commend itself. Thus it proved; and in proportion as it was known did it lead to embarrassment and hostility on the part of the French authorities against the English traders. Neither friendly alliance nor national pride was proof against it. The Huron and Ottawa Indian allies of the French, secretly leagued themselves with the Iroquois to supply beaver to the traders at Albany; while the licensed French *coueurs de bois*, and even some of the highest French officials were found either active agents of, or silent partners in, this forbidden traffic. In November, 1679, Duchesneau, the royal Intendant, thus writes on this subject to the minister of Louis XIV. at Paris: "The *courcurs de bois*. . . carry their peltries to the En-

glish, and endeavor to drive the Indian trade thither. Du Lut, the leader of the refractory, and who has ever been the Governor's (1) correspondent. . . shares whatever profit. He makes with him and Siour Barrois, his secretary, who has a canoe. Among his. . . the Governor takes the precaution to pass his beaver in the name of merchants in his interest; and if Du Lut experiences any difficulty in bringing them along, he will take advantage of the agency of foreigners." As an evidence of the value even then of the right kind of a *douceur* in this traffic, we quote the following curious passage from the same letter: "The Indians having included in their presents to the Governor some old moose hides and a belt of wampum, which they appreciate highly, but which the French do not value as much as they do beaver, he caused his interpreter to tell them, according to their mode of speaking, that such did not open his ears, and that he did not hear them *except when they spoke with beaver!*"

In the contests for the fur traffic between the traders of Montreal and Albany the latter had decidedly the advantage over the former in the more liberal system of trade established by the government. In Canada the fur and peltry traffic was chiefly in the hands of some chartered company or association, or in those of the government. No one was allowed to trade with the Indians for furs except by special license. Various other restrictions and charges were also imposed, in addition to the payment of a heavy royalty on each beaver or other skin brought to market. The license system led to great abuse; and the payment of the royalty and other exactions to farmers of the revenue, etc., were very onerous; besides, a high tariff of prices was generally fixed for articles supplied to the Indians and traders. In New York, the fur trade stood upon an entirely different footing. There every one was at liberty to embark in the trade at his pleasure, without restriction or without the payment of any fee for the right of doing so. He could also sell articles in exchange for furs at such prices as he pleased, or could obtain for them. The revenue tax was limited to the payment of ninepence for every beaver skin exported; other skins were rated according to the beaver standard. It is easy to see under which system—that in force in Canada, or that followed in New York—the fur trade would flourish. It will be easily seen, too, how strenuous the efforts of the French traders would require to be in order to resist a rivalry so potent and so active. The Indians were not slow to perceive the nature of this rivalry; and they did all in their power, by sometimes supplying both parties and by fostering mutual dissension, to promote their own influence and to prevent a union of interests between the French and English traders, which would inevitably result in their destruction or subjugation.

As the English neared the St. Lawrence and the borders of the great lakes, the French sought, by extending their trading posts towards the north-west, to maintain the balance of trade in their favor. Exploring parties were despatched far into the interior; and distant tribes were visited, and trading posts established among them. In this way many new discoveries were made far to the west and north. Nor did these efforts end in mere discovery. A chain of posts or trading forts was established, which not only gave the French an immense political influence over the aboriginal tribes scattered throughout the vast area, but also secured to them a territorial jurisdiction, for the very purpose of the peltry traffic which was then of the utmost importance to them. In this way the great rival entrepôts of European trade at Quebec or Tadousac, and at Albany or New York, were abundantly supplied; and for a time both enjoyed great prosperity.

Both the French and the English colonists were anxious to promote as large an export trade as possible between themselves and their respective countries. New York and Quebec were therefore, as long ago as 1670 in direct antagonism as to their commercial interests. The French sought to obtain from the neighboring tribes, and from the interior, as large a supply of peltry or furs as possible. The English were equally on the alert; and they had this advantage, that they were perfectly untrammelled in their trading operations with the Indians. They sold their goods cheaper than the French, and, in consequence of a brisker trade, were enabled to pay more for the peltries in exchange. As the trading influence of each party came more directly into contact, the prices of furs increased up to the English standard, while the desire to obtain them as the basis of trade became the stronger with each. Not only did the Iroquois continue to furnish large supplies to their allies, the English, but by their skill and prowess they were successful in inducing tribes far in the interior, and within the territory of the French, to furnish them with beaver and other skins,

(1) Perrot, Governor of Montreal.

so that they might rose' them to the English. M. Talon, the Intendant, in a memorial to the King, dated November, 1670, estimates that "the English at Boston, and the Dutch at Manatte (New York), and of Orango (Albany), who are subject to them, attract, by means of the Iroquois and other Indian tribes, over 1,200,000 livres of beaver, almost all dry and in the best condition, part of which they use in trade with the Muscovites. All this beaver is trapped in countries subject to the King (Louis XIV.)" It was in this active or positive form of Anglo-Iroquois interference that the rivalry between the traders at Quebec and New York first commenced. So audacious an interference on the part of the Iroquois with the territorial trading rights of the French Colonists could not be permitted to pass unpunished. The French Governor of the time (M. de Courcelles) at once determined to inflict a signal blow upon the power of the insolent Iroquois. He marched straight into the very heart of their country, and for a time was highly successful in his efforts to compel them to respect his authority. But these and subsequent repressive efforts against a determined and interested enemy had but a temporary effect. The English took part with their allies, and silently and skilfully followed up every advantage of position and influence gained by the Iroquois.

At length the French and English came face to face in this conflict of jurisdiction of territory and of traffic, in 1686. In that year, Col. Thomas Dongan, Governor of New York, gave a pass to Col. Patrick Macgregorie, in command of a small party, to trade with the Ottawa Indians at Michilimackinac. Up to that time Col. Dongan says, "No man of our government ever went beyond the Senecaes (Senecas) country"—near Niagara. Macgregorie was taken prisoner and sent to Montreal. Angry indeed was the correspondence which followed between the Governor of the aggrieved French colonists in Canada and the Governor of the aggressive English colonists of New York. The one haughtily denounced, while the other explained and temporised in diplomatic phrase. Nevertheless, the rival traffic went on; and many a bloody blow was struck by the Indian allies of either colony for the possession of some rich cargo of furs on its way to the rival trading-posts.

The French, being first in the field, could not brook the loss of prestige which the successful rivalry of the English traders on the borders of the great lakes or on the rivers in the Ottawa or St. Lawrence valleys produced. With sagacious foresight the French had erected palisaded enclosures around their trading-posts at Tadouac (Quebec), the River Richelieu, Trois Rivieres, Montreal, and Cataroucy (Kingston). Subsequently, and as a counterpoise to the encroachments of the English, they erected palisaded forts at Niagara, Detroit, Sault Ste. Marie, Michilimackinac and Toronto. Thus, after Governor Dongan had sent Macgregorie to trade at Mackinac, the Canadian Viceroy, M. Denonville, wrote to the French minister, to authorize the erection of a fort at Niagara, which, he said, "would secure to us the communication between the two lakes, and would render us masters of the road the Senecas take in going to hunt for furs."—"This post would absolutely close the entire road to the Outaouacs against the English, and would prevent the Iroquois carrying their peltries to the latter." The post was accordingly erected in 1687, and named "Fort Margaret." Finding that this did not sufficiently accomplish his purpose, M. de Denonville shortly afterwards writes to the minister to say: "The letters I wrote to Sieurs du Lhu and de la Durantaye (of which I send you copies) will inform you of my orders to them to fortify the two leading passes to Michilimaquina." Sieur du Lhu is at that of the *Detroit* of Lake Erie, and Sieur de la Durantaye at that of the portage of *Toronto*. These two posts will block the passage against the English, if they undertake to go again to Michilimaquina." Nor on their side were the English idle. Creeping gradually up the Hudson River, they erected armed trading posts at Albany and up the Mohawk valley, until at length they boldly threw up a fort at Oswego,—midway between Frontenac and Niagara.

Although the English governors of New York were to a great extent held responsible for the conduct of the Iroquois towards the French, it is clear that they were not only able in many cases to restrain them, but the English were themselves often equally the object of attack or dislike. Thus M. de Denonville, in a memoir on the State of Canada, dated 12th Nov., 1685, speaking of the Iroquois, says: "Even the English in Virginia have suffered, and still daily suffer from them;" and in his memoir on the same subject, dated the 6th October, 1686, he adds: "The Iroquois have no other design than to destroy all our allies, one after another, in order afterwards to annihilate us; and in that consists all the policy of M. Dongan and his traders, who have no other object than to post themselves at Niagara, to block us; but until now they have not dared to touch that string with the Iroquois, who dread and

hate (the) domination (of the English) more than ours, loving them not, in truth, except on account of their cheap bargains." As to the character and policy of the Iroquois towards the French and their allies, we find M. de la Barre thus speaking of them, in a letter to the Minister of Louis XIV., dated 4th November, 1683. He says: "That nation (the Iroquois) the strongest and shrewdest in all North America, having, twenty years ago, subjugated all their neighbors, turned their attention to the trade with the English of New York, Orango (Albany), and Manette (New York); and finding this much more profitable than ours, because the Beaver, exempt from the duty of one-fourth which he pays here (Quebec), is much higher there than with us, they sought every means to increase it; and as they perceived that they could not succeed better in that than by destroying the Outaouax (Ottawa Indians), for thirty years our allies, and who alone supply us with two-thirds of the Beaver that is sent to France, they, . . . after having excited all the five cabins (or cantons), declared war against these people, doubting not but they would easily master them. This done, they would absolutely intersect the path to the South, by which our French go trading with licenses, and prevent the farther Indians bringing any beaver to Montreal, and having mastered the post of Missilmakinac, established a new one there of themselves alone and the English."

The determination of the Iroquois to extirpate the Ottawa so as to control their beaver traffic and thus "intersect the trading path" of the French "to the South," was no doubt due to the refusal of Count de Frontenac to permit the Ottawas to enter into a treaty for trade with the Iroquois some years before. By this treaty the Iroquois "offered to supply the Outaouacs with all the goods they required, and the latter were to carry to them generally all their peltries, and the exchange was to take place on Lake Ontario." Frontenac, in his *Journal of a Voyage to Lake Ontario* in 1673, remarks: "The only way to traverse and upset this negotiation was, as had been frequently before proposed, to establish a post on the same lake, which would prevent the communication of the nations of the south with those of the north, and force the latter to continue to bring us not only the peltries that usually come by the river of the Long Sault, but even those our neighbors (the English) profited by, through the facility of being able to cross the lake without any impediment."

Of these Ottawa Indians and their usefulness to the French the Royal Intendant, M. Duchesneau, thus speaks in his memoir to the French government, dated 13th October, 1681. He says: "The Ottawa Indians, who are divided into several tribes, and are nearest to us, because through them we obtain beaver; and although they, for the most part, do not hunt, and have but a small portion of the peltry in their country, they go in search of it to the most distant places, and exchange for it our merchandise, which they procure at Montreal . . . They get their peltries, in the North, from the people of the interior, . . . and in the south from the (Sacs, Foxes, Pottawotamies, etc.)."

Notwithstanding all the efforts made by the French to restrict the traffic in beaver skins and peltry within their own territories to the St. Lawrence route, they were in the end powerless to accomplish it. They at one time interdicted trade with the Anglo-Iroquois; then they made them presents; again they threatened them, made war upon them, invaded and desolated their villages; they made treaties with them, and urged and entreated the Dutch and English to restrain them, and even sought to make the latter responsible for their acts—but all in vain. As the tide silently rolled in upon them, and the English, who were always heralded by the Iroquois, advanced northwards and westwards towards the St. Lawrence and great lakes, the French, still gallantly holding their old forts in their possession, also pressed forward before them and occupied new ground. With singular sagacity, too, they selected the best spots, whether for defence of offence, or for interrupting trade. To this day the sites of their trading forts at the narrows or straits of Kingston, Niagara, *Détroit*, and Mackinac, are considered strategic points of great value and importance.

Having exhausted these means of preserving the peltry trade of the great St. Lawrence valley to themselves, two other schemes were successively proposed. The one—that of war against the English Colonists and their Indian allies—had been tried, though in rather a desultory manner. It was therefore thought that a war on a scale commensurate with the object to be sought against—that of conquest—should be undertaken. But apathy at home and want of ability in Canada, prevented this scheme from being fully carried out. One other plan remained—in case all attempts to detach the Iroquois from their English alliance should fail—and that was the possession by purchase of all the English strongholds and trading posts in New York. This accomplished, the Iroquois

could be inevitably crushed, then destroyed, and the whole Sovereignty of the rival colonies transferred to the French monarch. This scheme was warmly advocated by the Royal Intendant, Duchesneau, in 1681; by the Viceroy Denonville, in 1685; and by the Viceroy as well as DeCallières, Governor of Montreal in 1687; but it was not considered feasible by Louis XIV. The idea of conquest was, after a while, revived with great energy by DeCallières, as the only means of saving Canada. The King at last consented; appointed DeCallières prospectively first French governor of New York, and sent minute instructions to Frontenac, in 1689, for conducting the expedition. The project was, however, abandoned in 1690 by the King's express orders, but was again revived in 1701, with no better effect—D'Iberville, the naval officer appointed to conduct the expedition, having reported upon it as "visionary."

From this time until the Treaty of Utrecht, in 1714, a continued system of warfare was kept up, chiefly between the rival maritime colonies. After that the French peltry traffic declined; and events of graver moment occupied the attention of statesmen and politicians both in Europe and America. These events eventually culminated in that momentous one which led to the separation of Canada from France in 1759, and for ever put an end to the

struggle between the French and English colonies for supremacy among rival Indian tribes, and for the monopoly of the fur trade. Little did those, however, think who were then the victors, that within twenty years their own proud flag would be ignominiously lowered at the sea of their power in New York. Little too did they know then that hereafter they would be compelled to maintain at Quebec the struggle in favor of the St. Lawrence route to Europe, which the vanquished French colonists had so valiantly done against them during the preceding one hundred years.—*Historical Magazine.*

E D U C A T I O N .

A R I T H M E T I C .

(Continued from our last.)

I would now recommend such exercises on digits and our denary circles, as the following table suggests.

TABLE 15.

Number.	How to be read.	Number.	How to be read.	Number.	How to be read.
10	ten	2 tens	two tens or twenty	3 tens	three tens or thirty
9	nine	19	one ten and nine	29	two tens and nine
8	eight	18	one ten and eight	28	two tens and eight
7	seven	17	one ten and seven	27	two tens and seven
6	six	16	one ten and six more	26	two tens and six
5	five	15	one ten and five	25	two tens and five
4	four	14	one ten and four	24	two tens and four
3	three	13	one ten and three	23	two tens and three
2	two	12	one ten and two	22	two tens and two
1	one	11	one ten and one	21	two tens and one

Extend this Table so far as may be found necessary.

On this Table children can be exercised in a variety of ways. The first exercise should be to impress deeply on their minds how units correspondingly increase and decrease in circles of tens. The next should be to ground them thoroughly in, how the tens regularly increase, 1 ten, 2 tens, 3 tens, 4 tens, &c., from the digits: each round of ten ones, successively added to the preceding number of tens, making an additional ten. Drilling them on adding and subtracting the several serieses of figures comes next. Going up and down once or twice only is next to a deception. *Intelligent repetition is the life of teaching.* It is by repetitions that impressions are deepened in the mind. It is by repetitions, the totals and differences of numbers, in whatever form they are presented to the eye, become self-evident numeral truths in the mind, and which it turns up, as he goes through processes, at every step of advance. Hence the value of such exercises when sufficiently continued—the understanding always going with the memory. This is the great high-road to successive teaching. How did Mr. S. P. Bidder become so wonderful a calculator?—He says himself, "It was by assiduous perseverance." His brother taught him to count 100. He counted the numbers over, and over, and over, in TENS. The numerals became, as it were his friends, and by constant repetitions, he came to know all their relations and acquaintances, till at last he became familiar with the multiplication table up to a million; and was for a time exhibited as a prodigy. From that time his rise in society was rapid—(a result due to his perseverance;) till at last he became one of the most distinguished members of the 'Civil Engineer's Institute.'

To every teacher, I would say, be persevering and methodic: and study how to bring processes, and the elements of processes before your pupils so as to enable their memories and understanding to obtain and retain a power, a mastery over the different serieses of simple numbers. This will enable you triumphantly to put them through a course of arithmetic, and with high advantage to themselves.

Let me now proceed to show how their knowledge of numbers up to a hundred may be tested.

Let us take numbers in pairs and question them on their totals, thus:—

2 6	4 8	7 5	6 6	2 9	8 2
3 3	5 1	8 7	7 5	9 7	1 7
5 9	9 9	15 12	13 11	11 16	9 9

Quest. What is the sum of 26 and 33? Ans. 59. How many tens in the sum? Ans. 5. How many ones? Ans. 9. The figure on the left tells the tens; the figure on the right tells the ones. Add 75 and 87, what is their sum? Ans. 15 tens and 12 ones. How many tens in 12 ones? one ten and 2 ones. That makes 16 tens and 2 ones.

Exercise in this way on numbers up to one hundred, till answers are readily obtained, and you are satisfied that they answer because they understand.

In this part of their drill, the following simple method might be employed to enable them expeditiously to add any two numbers under one hundred: thus, add the tens of one number to the whole of the other number; and to this sum, add the units. Suppose forty five to be added to thirty three; say, forty and thirty-three are seventy-three; the five units of the forty added to this make seventy-eight. To make this way of adding more simple, a number of tens only to be added to another of tens and unites, thus—twenty added to fifty-eight is seventy-eight—adding the two to the five.

How to teach them a knowledge of hundreds in the simplest way is the next step of advance to be considered.

By now they should have acquired a sufficient knowledge of tens to enable you to make them understand how tens increase to hundreds, and hundreds to thousands.

We suppose you have explained to them, and with sufficient practice, how 0 is used to indicate a round or sum of ten ones, having 1 on its left; 0 with 2 on its left, two tens, &c., thus, 10,

20, &c. By increasing the digits on the left up to 9, we have 90; adding another ten will give ten tens. The ten tens we represent by 2 nothings thus, 00, with one on their left, = 100, hundred, or ten times ten. And every added 1 successively increases the 100, thus, 100, 200, 300, 400, up to 900. Another 100 added, make the 9 a 10, or 10 hundred,—in figures expressed by 1000 = ten hundred = or a thousand. To exercise them before they begin to add, on the relative value of figures as arithmetically arranged, up to thousands, a Table, such as the following, should be drawn up. On it they should be well exercised.

First Exercise.

Mixed.	Thousands.	Hundreds.	Tens.	Ones.
100	1000	100	10	1 one.
10	1000	100	10	1 one.
100	1000	100	10	1 one.
1000	1000	100	10	1 one.
1	1000	100	10	1 one.
10	1000	100	10	1 one.
100	1000	100	10	1 one.
1	1000	100	10	1 one.
100	1000	100	10	1 one.
1000	1000	100	10	1 one.
	10,000 ten thousand ones.	1000 a thousand ones.	100 hundred ones.	10 ones

First explain how the series of tens successively increase, and that they always thus increase; how the highest figure on the left shows the highest number of ones, and the lowest on the right, only ones; how a circle of ones increases to ten; a round of tens, to a hundred, and of a hundred, to a thousand, &c. When familiar with their denary increase and decrease, question them now and then—How many ones make 10; how many tens, make 100; how many hundreds make a thousand, &c.? Point to a hundred in the Table—to one—to a thousand, &c. Write one hundred; a ten; one thousand, &c. Tell how many times a cipher on the right of one increases, how many times two ciphers on the right increase it, and so on. Suppose three ciphers on the right of one: take away two of them,—how much less would the number then be? Take one away, what would the number be? &c.

When they understand how numbers increase and decrease by adding and taking away ciphers from the right of the ones, then draw up another Table with numbers promiscuously arranged, with digits variously increased and decreased.

Second Exercise.

Ten thousand, Thousands, Hundred, Tens, Ones.	Thousands, Hundreds, Tens, Ones.	Hundreds, Tens, Ones.	Tens, Ones.	Ones.
1 0 0 0 0	5 7	4 7 1	7 4	7
1 1 1 1 1	2 1 4	3 4 3	1 3 3	5 7
1 2 3 4 5	3 1 1	6 1 0	1 0 1	3 5 7
3 3 3 3 3	3 1 1	5 1 7	1 0 1	3 5 7
4 4 4 4 4	2 0 0 0	2 8 1	3 1	3 5 7
5 5 5 5 5	1 0 0 1	3 0 0	3 4	3 5 7
6 6 6 6 6	5 7 6	1 7 7	3 4	3 5 7
7 7 7 7 7	3 3 1	2 8 1	1 9	3 5 7
8 8 8 8 8	2 7	2 1 1	5 0	3 5 7
9 9 9 9 9	9 9 9	9 7 6	9 9	3 5 7
Fifth column of figures	Fourth col. of figures.	Third col. of figures.	Second col. of figures.	First col. of figures.

On this Table exercise them till they become familiar with the relative value of figures, as follows:—In the second column, explain 5, 2? Ans. 5 means 5 tens, and 2 ones. In the third, give the value of 517.—Ans. 5 is there, 5 hundred; 1 is a ten; and 7 is, 7 ones. Write the 5 on the right of the 7, how would this alter their

value? What would each figure then represent?—Ans. One would then be a hundred; seven, seven tens; and five, only five ones. In the fourth column name the figures which count hundreds.—Ans. 9, 8, 5, 8, 2. In the fifth column name the figures which are the thousands.—Ans. 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 3, 2, 1. Change 27 in the fourth column to count seventy two.—Ans. 72, &c., &c. When they understand the relative value of figures; how they receive their value from the places in which they stand, right or left; how a 3 may count, 3 ones, 3 tens, 3 hundreds, &c., test their knowledge a little more, by taking out certain named figures, and writing ciphers in their places—then giving their values, thus—of the number 831, fourth column, remove 8, tell what would remain. Keep in the 8 and take away the 3; how would that alter the number? Which 6 in the fifth column stands for 6 thousand; which for 6 hundred; and which for 60 thousand? &c.

They should now have acquired some considerable knowledge of the principle of numeration, so as to be able to benefit by your instructions in giving them a more extended knowledge of numeration. We have explained that numbers commence at unity or one, and increase by the successive addition of one. This is their absolute or independent value. It has also been explained to them, that digits have a relative value, increasing by the ratio of ten. Let us now illustrate the continuity of these two principles—the progressive increase by ones, and that by tens, up to the period of millions. At this stage it is not necessary to go higher.

1. Table showing the relative value of the nine digits, with reference to position.

1	=	One.
1 2	=	One ten and two.
1 2 3	=	One hundred, two tens and three.
1 2 3 4	=	One thousand, two hundred, three tens and four.
1 2 3 4 5	=	Twelve thousand, three hundred, four tens and five.
1 2 3 4 5 6	=	One hundred and twenty three thousand, four hundred, fifty six.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7	=	One million, two hundred and thirty four thousand, &c.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	=	Twelve millions, three hundred and forty five thousand, &c.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	=	One hundred and twenty three millions, &c.

In exercising them on this Table, teach them the value of lines up and down, thus, 9, 8, 7, 6, up to 1, all express ones; 8, 7, 6, up to 1, count tens; 7, 6, 5, to one, hundreds, &c. Then, horizontally, beginning at the top. When they are able to give their relative values both these ways, point out individual figures here and there to give their local relative value.

Point off the lines from right to left into divisions of threes; and show how the name hundred is applied to every third figure, and why; how every line, up and down, is a line of units to the next. The tens are aggregates of ones; the hundreds of tens; the thousands of hundreds, &c.

2. Table showing how noughts (0) or ciphers increase the value of the digits.

Remember previous hints. As you explain be sure their understanding is going along with you. Let simplicity and plainness characterize your illustrations. Stop often to test the results of your training.

9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	= Nine hundred millions.
8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	= Eighty millions.
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	= Seven millions.
6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	= Six hundred thousand.
5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	= Fifty thousand.
4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	= Four thousand.
3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	= Three hundred.
2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	= Twenty.
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	= One.

First, begin at the bottom, and give the value of every digit upward, with explanations; then, question the class on each line, and demand explanations and reasons in return. After, question them as follows: how many noughts should I put on the right of 7 to count 700; on the right of 6 to make it 60; on the right of 5 to represent 5000; on the right of 9 to increase it to 90,000, &c.

Exercises II.—Results under 40.

$11+2+2+2+2+1=20$; $12+3+3+3+2=23$
 $13+4+4+4+2=31$; $14+5+5+5+5=34$
 $15+6+6+6+6-3=36$; $16+7+7+7+2=39$
 $17+8+8+8-7=34$; $18+9+9-5=31$
 $19+9+9+2-3$; $20+10+5-2=33$

Exercises III.—subtractive examples.

$11-2-2-2-2-2=3$; $12-3-3-3-3=0$
 $13-4-4-4-1=0$; $14-5-5-5-1=0$
 $15-6-6-2-1=0$; $16-7-7-2=0$
 $17-8-8-1-0=0$; $18-9-9-0=0$
 $19-10-5-2-2=0$; $20-10-5-5=0$

Exercises IV.—Serieses of 10, added and subtracted.

$10+10+10+10+10+10+10+10+10+10=100$
 $100-10-10-10-10-10-10-10-10-10=0$

Exercises V.—Multiplying and dividing.

$5 \times 2 \div 2 = 5$; $10 \times 2 \div 2 = 10$; $20 \times 2 \div 2 = 20$
 $4 \times 2 \div 2 = 4$; $6 \times 2 \div 2 = 6$; $8 \times 2 \div 2 = 8$
 $9 \times 2 \div 2 = 9$; $7 \times 2 \div 2 = 7$; $3 \times 4 \div 4 = 3$
 $40 \div 2 \times 2 = 40$; $50 \times 2 \div 2 = 50$

Exercises VI.—Adding and subtracting processes.

$4+4+4+4$ up to 48; $5+5+5+5+5$ up to 60
 $6+6+6+6$ up to 72; $7+7+7+7$ up to 84
 $8+8+8+8$ up to 96; now, reverse the processes, thus:
 $48-4-4-4$ to cipher; $60-5-5-5$ to nought.
 $72-6-6-6$ to cipher; $84-7-7-7$ to nought.
 $96-8-8-8$ to cipher; $99-11-11-11$ to nought.
 $96-12-12-12-12$ to nought.

Exercises VII.

$20+10+30-20-30-10=$ to what?
 $15+5+5+5-5-5-5-5=$ to what?
 $25+10+10+10-5-10-5$, what is left?
 $52+10+5+3-10-5-3$: tell the remainder.
 $17+3+5+8+3-3-8-5-3=$ to what?
 $50-10+5-20+15-2+7=$ to what?

Exercises VIII.

$13+5-2 \times 2-16 \div 2=$ Ans.
 $30-15 \div 7 \div 2 \times 2+5=$ Ans.
 $50 \div 15 \div 5 \div 7 \times 2-20=$ Ans.
 $80-10 \div 4 \times 18 \div 2=$ Ans.
 $90-50 \div 17 \div 3 \div 12 \div 5=$ Ans.

JOHN BRUCE,
Inspector of Schools.

(To be continued.)

Should Pupils be encouraged to Study out of Schools.

BY M. C. STEBBINS.

The work allotted to children, like their food, should be adapted in quality and quantity to the several conditions of the subjects. Those who are too young or too sickly to digest strong meat, should not be laden with burdens grievous to be borne. We should not spoil their elasticity by subjecting it to untimely and ill-judged tension. Give the pliant bones time to harden. Allow the child time to grow naturally into familiarity with books: give him an apprenticeship long enough, and easy, not unguided or undisciplined—for children in the Primary school, must sometimes be held to their place and even to their work by a cord into which are twisted some coarser and less flexible fibres than the silken filaments of love. A cup of milk and a beef-steak, when analysed, are found to be identical in many of their essential ingredients: so the intellectual training of the child in the Primary school should have

something in it fitted to nourish the embryo manhood. A child, naturally healthy, would in time become puny, if fed with nothing but sweetened water, even though it should be dealt out in a silver spoon. But with regard to the scholars in our Primary schools, we may safely say, that for so much of their intellectual education, as can reasonably be expected of the school, there is ample time in the usual school hours.

When scholars have reached the age of nine or ten years, they have usually acquired, to a considerable degree, the art of using books to some purpose. Some cases there are in which it cannot be said to be very much of an art; in others, the perception is quick, the mind active and glutinous; it readily sees the substance of a lesson and holds it. These unspurred will do more mental work in a half hour than others, of slower mould, can be made to do in two hours under the influence of every practicable stimulus.

We would here call attention to these two classes; they may be called, if you please, the extreme classes. Then, what we say of them, will be applicable to all who come between, with some modifications.

Those of quick perception and active mind will, perhaps, readily master the assignment for the class, within the school sessions. It is well that such should have other methods for improvement, out of school hours. They may do that which would be much worse for them than study, but they need not. With this we will dismiss the first class. Our second class is much larger and not so easily disposed of. They practically control the movement of the school; like the escapement of a clock, they determine how much, or how little motion, there shall be in a given time. Everything must be graduated to them. Philosophically, both rest and motion are natural states of matter; with the subjects under consideration, these states are specifically appropriated; rest is the natural state of the mind, motion of the body. The animal appetites are strong. The physical has gained a generous start, and is not in immediate danger of being run down by undue activity of the mind. There is a great deal of inertia and some friction in the mental machine. Considerable allowance of time must be made for getting steamed up. If the brakes are put on often, very little momentum is gained, and very little progress is made.

We should say, then, that these scholars should be encouraged to study out of school hours. In the first place, because the time at their command in school is not sufficient to enable them to conquer their lessons; lessons that do not exceed reasonable limits. Of the six hours, about one hour is occupied by incidental exercises and recesses. If the scholar has three studies, as is usually the case, the recitations will consume nearly one and a half hours; this would leave three and one half hours per day for study; or seventeen and one half hours per week. Is it not perfectly apparent that a very large majority of scholars would be utterly unable, in such an amount of time, to do a reasonable allotment of work for a week?

In the second place, habits of scholarly application cannot otherwise be formed.

It is a matter of primary importance to the scholar that he form the habit of grappling with difficulties, patiently and persistently. In practical life nothing very great or very good can come without such habits. "Labor omnia vincit," is a maxim that should be verified in the early experience of the pupil. This cannot be done unless time is allowed for successive trials. But very few of the class under discussion have acquired the power to collect and concentrate all their mental forces, as the burning glass gathers the sun's rays to pour their intensified heat upon a focal point, hence, if they have but an hour for a difficult lesson, as soon as they discover the locality of an abstruse point, they look for a circuitous path around it, lest by tarrying upon the solution they would leave no time for the rest of the lesson. Under such nursing, reluctance to face obstacles with manly courage will soon become chronic. The scholar will come to droop, like a wilted flower, at the sight of a difficulty. Were he made to feel that he might, and that he ought to take sufficient time beyond the school hours for successive trials upon the hard things in his lesson, there would be a reasonable probability that the grand discovery would be made, that even he has power to overcome difficulties, and that there is real and intense enjoyment in vigorous and defiant encounters with obstacles. One can never cross the threshold of real, executive manhood, without something of this spirit; no scholarly achievement can be made without it. With proper effort it can be developed, in no small degree, during childhood. If this period of life is passed without the culture of this fundamental element of an efficient character, the question of the future usefulness of the subject is uncomfortably problematic.

Again, these scholars should be encouraged to extra study, be-

cause it is impracticable, otherwise, to overcome their dislike to study. There are, at least, two philosophical reasons for this: In the first place, our native disinclination to exertion, in any direction, can be overcome only by making frequent, continued, and persistent effort in that very line. Fidelity of this sort will almost invariably remove the irksomeness, and bring, in its room, real pleasure,—delight of high order. One can never overcome his reluctance to rise at 6 o'clock in the morning by lying in bed until 9 o'clock; no more can one become a ready and forcible writer by waiting for a convenient season to begin. There is usually a lion in the street when we are required to go out to the performance of any considerable duty. But, if we start with becoming promptness, we shall find him an interesting and harmless whelp; give him time to grow and he will gather fierceness; he will acquire ability and disposition to manufacture very hideous roars.

The second reason is, we are not interested in unproductive toil. It is said of a certain sea captain, who was an uncompromising believer in the orthodoxy of the poetic proverb,

"Satan finds some mischief still
For idle hands to do,"

that, during the scarcity of more pressing work, he used to give the command to his crew, "scour the anchor." Such work might be very well in its way; but, divest it of all novelty, and other accidental helps to enthusiasm; looking at it through a Yankee's eyes, and, I think, it would not be a very interesting job. We all desire to see some adequate results of our labor. Our enthusiasm will be proportionate to them. The scholar is no exception. Executive ability, of a very high order, very seldom comes to our hand ready made. Like other valuables, it is to be bought with a price; the price can be counted out in hours and ingots of toil.

Those scholars who devote insufficient time to their studies, leave all their work unfinished. It is as if the task assigned them were to roll a heavy boulder up a high hill, at the top of which was a level plain; and, after rolling it three-fourths of the way, they should give it up to gravity until the next day. It would not be pleasant to find the stone at the bottom of the hill for several successive days; but they could hardly expect anything else, without a change of tactics. The scholar who does not take time and make the effort to master his lessons as they come, not only finds his labor ineffective, but he also finds that the occasions for discouragement are constantly accumulating, and the chances are that he will soon be driven to the dilemma; either horn of which is not very creditable to him, of being put back, or of sitting down in stupid inactivity, and perpetual dread of the cold, craggy towering Alps before him. Then let all proper motives be brought to bear upon the scholar, that he may be induced to make the mastery of his lessons the measure of his effort.

The pupil should be encouraged to study out of school hours; because it would promote his physical health. The divine order is, to have the body hold the relation of servant to the mind; and only as it sustains this relation is the body itself in a healthful, normal condition. Not a little of the miserable health that afflicts humanity is due to the reversal of this law. There is a sickly sentimentalism, very widely prevalent, that assumes and asserts that a large degree of health cannot be enjoyed without a great deal of physical and very little mental activity or exertion. A certain amount of physical exercise is, indeed, very essential, but I do not believe that health depends more upon this, than it does upon vigorous and healthful mental exertion.

There is a very unreasonable apprehension about overtaxing the mind. *Ferret* on the brain is not so deadly a disease, in our country, as *torper* on the brain. There is abundant evidence that vigorous mental exertion, earnest thinking, is very healthful. There is no exhilaration like that which it affords. We never feel so strong, or so well, as when every nerve and fibre is in captivity to some grand thought or high purpose. There is no other so successful physician as an earnest, industrious mind, unless we may except a good conscience.

I think that I know men who are to-day, working, studying, exerting wide influence, who would have been in their graves years ago, had they not been determined and enthusiastic students. Very many scholars who are pined as the victims of over-application, would very soon begin to improve in health, if they would correct some of their imprudent habits, even if they should considerably increase their hours of study.

There is probably no class of men who enjoy more uniform health, than temperate, earnest, industrious students. How many of the world's most celebrated scholars; those who have been distinguished for their incessant toil, have lived to a good old age and

at last have gone out a taper, slowly burning down in its socket, yet in the almost unabated exercise of all their vigorous and enlarged powers.

Let us do what we can to raise up a generation of such complete men.—*Massachusetts Teacher*.

Teachers--Review Your Work.

It would be well for every teacher, at the close of each day's labour, to devote a portion of time to a review of the events of the day. Self-examination is one of the strongest incentives to self-improvement, and no one can profit more by it than the earnest teacher. It is seldom that a day passes in school that does not present some incident that demands careful thought on the part of the teacher in order that the next day's labour may be an improvement on the last. Nothing will more effectually aid the teacher in his efforts to make the school what he desires it to be, than the habit of daily meditating upon what has transpired in his little realm. This to be effectual must be properly done. Vague thought without object or aim, will be useless. Let there be point to the thought and let the decision be calmly and resolutely carried into action. In this way the teacher may correct errors in his own management as well as bad habits on the part of the pupils.

In order to make this thought practical, allow me to suggest a method by which it may be made effectual. We will suppose that every careful, thoughtful teacher keeps a record, either in the register or class-book, of the attendance, tardiness, scholarship, deportment, and such other facts in the history of each pupil as he wishes to preserve. This record, together with the observations of the teacher, will afford daily topics for consideration, and it will be useful to reflect upon them frequently. In this way plans may be formed removing whatever tends to prevent the usefulness of a school. Among other things it may be well to consider the following: Have my pupils been punctual to day? Have I done all in my power to secure punctuality and to prevent tardiness? Am I punctual? Do I endeavour to find out the cause of tardiness? Do I exert myself to remove the cause? Has there been any disorder to-day? Is the discipline as good as I can make it? Do I assign proper lessons? Are they well learned? Do my pupils improve in reading? Do I question them concerning the meaning of what they read? Is spelling properly attended to? Do I take sufficient pains with the writing? Do my pupils read sufficiently loud? Do I teach them to talk properly and use good grammar? Have I learned to use the word *why* sufficiently? Do I encourage the dull ones? Is there life in the exercises? Do I require all the class to give attention to the recitations? Do I use the blackboard enough? Am I firm and yet kind? Do I take an interest in the sports of my pupils? Am I sufficiently interested in their moral welfare? Do I consider the propriety of punishment before inflicting it? Have I a proper idea of the responsibility of the teacher's calling? Do I take sufficient interest in my own improvement? Do I read educational publications? Do I have frequent reviews? These and a variety of similar topics should be daily considered by the earnest teacher. By so doing he will find that his school is more easily managed and that it daily becomes more useful to the pupils. I would not have the teacher always take school cares with him; but by devoting a portion of time each day to their consideration he can the most effectually throw them off, and gain that rest and relaxation that every faithful teacher needs. Teachers, try it and give us your experience.—*A Teacher, in the Connecticut Common School Journal*.

DRAWING.

"Please may I make pictures on my slate, I've learned all my lessons?"

Teacher, did you never hear that inquiry from the lips of a pupil? Or, perhaps, in passing around the room, your attention has been arrested by the slate of some pupil filled with curious drawings. Did you never yourself, in youthful days, draw houses with partitions plainly visible on the outside, with chairs and sofas of doubtful strength filling the rooms; or imitate Squire Jones' long nose in an elaborate profile? What does this picture love in children indicate, and shall its expression on slate and paper be allowed and cultivated, is the inquiry I would seek to make. The imagination in this, as in other respects, has been too much neglected in children. Picture drawing, if allowed at all, has been merely to occupy the attention of the smallest of the restless fingers. Let the child draw upon his slate or paper. What? Dogs with

three legs, uncouth imitations of the human face and form, trees which are anything but graceful? Shall the time of the pupils be wasted in such nonsense? No, not this, but is there not need of training children in the common schools in the *first principles* of drawing? Teach them to make a *straight* line, and how these straight lines may be combined to form objects known and familiar to them; from this proceeding to *curves* and combinations of these, tell them that all the beautiful flowers, houses, the children's faces, are but combinations of these simple lines and curves. What child will not be interested? And not only for the purpose of interest should the subject receive attention in our schools. As a means of improvement to the child, in cultivating accuracy of sight, as tending to develop imagination, and for very many kindred reasons it should not thus suffer neglect. It has been too long confined to the "finishing" of boarding school misses, who showed to admiring friends, landscapes and crayon heads, no small part of which was the work of the teacher, but adding to the accomplishments of the individual. The science in its simplicity has been overlooked, first principles have been neglected, children have yawned and whispered, dropped wearily asleep in the dull school room, because the teacher has forbidden, or knew not how to teach the making of pictures. Shall this continue to be? Can we not help in this to bring the science down into the every day affairs of the school room, or, rather, to bring the minds of little children up through varied lines and curves, into a higher plane of culture and sphere of action?—*Connecticut Common School Journal*.

OFFICIAL NOTICES.



APPOINTMENTS.

EXAMINERS.

His Excellency the Governor General in Council was pleased, on the 12th October, to appoint the Rev. Léon Lahaye, Priest, to be a member of the Board of Examiners of Rimouski, in the room and stead of the Rev. Epiphane Lapointe, deceased.

SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.

His Excellency the Governor General in Council was pleased, on the 30th September, to make the following appointments of School Commissioners:

County of St. Hyacinthe.—St. Denis No. Two: Messrs. Louis Michon and Marcel Cordeau.

County of Two Mountains.—St. Canut No. Two: Messrs. Joseph Longpré, Alfred Brown, Isidore Charbonneau, François Bertrand and François Charbonneau.

County of Ottawa.—Village of Waterloo: Mr. Joseph Gallipeau.

Same county.—St. Joseph de Wakefield: Rev. Camille Gay, Curé; Messrs. Patrick Farrell, David Cahill, Patrick Rooney and Samuel Thompson.

County of Arthabaska.—Stanford: Messrs. Olivier Leblanc and Ludger Sylvestre.

County of Richmond.—Village of Melbourne: Messrs. George Hamel and Frederick Wales.

County of Beauce.—Forsyth: Messrs. Jean Elie dit Breton and Damase Robert.

Same county.—Shenly: Messrs. Prudent Mercier and Michel Fortier.

County of Saguenay—Tadoussac: Messrs. Pepin Duchéno and William Horington.

His Excellency the Governor General in Council was pleased to make the following appointments; viz.—

On the 6th October:

County of Arthabaska.—Tingwick: Mr. John Gleason.

County of Portneuf.—Grondines No. One: Messrs. Louis Portelance, Gonzague Portelance and Louis Pageau.

County of Dorchester.—St. Edouard: Rev. Od. Paradis, Curé, and Messrs. Moses Donahoe and Joseph Reid.

And on the 27th October:

Rev. Achille Pelletier, Priest, in and for the School Municipality of Pointe-aux-Esquimaux, in the room and stead of the Rev. Achille Fournier, Priest,

TRUSTEES OF DISSENTIENT SCHOOLS.

His Excellency the Governor General was pleased, on the 30th September, to make the following appointment of School Trustees: County of Drummond.—St. Frederick of Drummondville: Hon. William Sheppard, and Messrs. Valentine Cooke and William Jones.

DIPLOMAS GRANTED.

BOARD OF EXAMINERS OF PONTIAC.

First-Class Elementary (E.)—Messrs. C. A. McRae and William Ramsay, and Miss Mary C. A. McNeil.

Second-Class Elementary (E.)—Messrs. John E. Donaldson, James Packenham, Thomas Sheehan, Misses Bridget Mulligan and Ellen Murphy.

Feb. 3, 1863.

First-Class Elementary (E.)—Messrs. Edward P. Evans, Salomon E. Letroy and Thomas Sheehan.

Second-Class Elementary (E.)—Miss Suzan O'Neil.

May 5, 1863.

First-Class Elementary (E.)—Mr. Eugene O'Regan.

Second-Class Elementary (E.)—Mr. Nicholas Dixon and Miss Mary Pratt.

Aug. 4, 1863.

OVIDE LEBLANC,
Secretary.

SITUATIONS WANTED.

Mr. J. S. Tanguay, who has a Model school diploma, is open to an engagement as Teacher. He can teach French and English. Address J. S. Tanguay, Coteau Landing, County of Soulanges.

DONATIONS TO THE LIBRARY OF THE DEPARTMENT.

The Superintendent of Education acknowledges with thanks the following donations:

From Messrs. Dawson, Bros., Booksellers, Montreal: "Chrestomathie Française." By William J. Knapp, A.M., 1 vol.

From Mr. A. K. Isbister, M. A., M.R.C.P., London, (the author): "Elements of Book-Keeping." 1 vol.—"The School Euclid." 1 vol.—"C. Julii Caesaris Commentarii de Bello Gallico." 1 vol.

From D. & J. Sadlier & Co.: "A Popular Life of Saint Patrick, Apostle and Patron of Ireland. By an Irish Priest." 1 vol.—"The Martyrs, by M. de Chateaubriand, a revised translation," 1 vol.

From J. Todhunter, M.A., F.R.S. (the author): "Algebra for Beginners, with numerous examples," 1 vol.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

MONTREAL (LOWER CANADA), OCTOBER & NOVEMBER, 1863.

Inspection of Boards of Examiners, &c.

The inspection of the Boards of Examiners, ordered by the Council of Public Instruction and which is to be conducted by delegates from that body, has now been commenced. Sufficient time having been suffered to elapse after the passing of the new regulations so as to note their effect, Mr. Delagrave visited the boards at New Carlisle and Percé, in the counties of Bonaventure and Gaspé, while the Hon. Superintendent of Education visited those of Kamouraska and Rimouski. The Boards of the Eastern Townships, also, will soon be visited by Mr. Dunkin, and it is hoped that, before another twelve months, all the boards in this section of the Province shall have been inspected, and a comparative and detailed report of their operations published.

The tours of inspection by the members of the Council of Public Instruction will, it is anticipated, have an excel-

lent effect: that of bringing these gentlemen in direct contact with the local authorities, and of affording them an opportunity of personally ascertaining how the school inspectors fulfil their duties. The question, *Quis custodiat ipsos custodes?* will thus be answered as far as it relates to these useful functionaries. Mr. Delagrave, while visiting the boards, and giving encouragement to the people, was enabled to witness the excellent feeling existing towards education and the schools in those remote localities. While on this tour, the Superintendent availed himself of the opportunity to adjust difficulties which had arisen, and to visit many schools and institutions of learning. Among those that gave him great satisfaction, were the Industrial college of Rimouski, the academy conducted by the Sisters of the Congregation at the same place, and two elementary schools of that parish; the academy of the *Sœurs de Jésus et Marie* at Trois Pistoles and the schools of Miss Ainsbrow and of Miss Rioux; the model schools of the *Sœurs du Bon Pasteur*, at River du Loup; the academy for boys at Kamouraska conducted by Mr. Lindsay, and the girls' academy of the Sisters of the Congregation; the two model schools for boys and girls at Malbaie in charge of trained teachers from the Laval Normal School, and the elementary school conducted by Mr. Mailloux in the same parish.

Report of the Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada, for 1862.

(Concluded from our last.)

According to the returns there are 4,406 teachers employed in the schools. Of these 3,115 are male teachers, and 1,291 are female teachers. It will be seen, therefore, that the proportion of male and female teachers in Upper Canada is in reversed order to that which obtains in our section of the Province. The teachers are classified according to the religious denominations to which they belong, the Presbyterians and Methodists having the largest numbers, viz., 1,288, and 1,287. The next in order is the Church of England, 818, and the Roman Catholic Church, 484. The number of teachers employed, holding first class Normal School Diplomas, was 201, second class 278,—in all 478. At present about 400 pupil-teachers from the Normal Schools of Lower Canada are actually employed under School Commissioners or Trustees, which result, taking into account the short time our Normal Schools have been in operation, bears a favourable comparison with the figures given for Upper Canada.

The lowest salary paid any teacher in a county is \$80; the highest is \$600. The average for male teachers in a county with board, is \$174, without board, \$265; for female teachers, with board, 142, without board, \$170.

In cities, the highest salaries were \$1,300, the lowest, \$200. The average for male teachers was \$577, for female teachers \$229.

In towns, the highest salary paid a teacher was \$900, the lowest \$249. The average for male teachers was \$471, for female teachers \$242.

In villages, the highest salary was \$800, and the lowest \$140—the average being \$410 for males, and 188 for females.

These salaries, and especially their general average, reach a much higher figure than has ever been obtained in Lower Canada. But if we consider that the average in Upper Canada is much higher in cities, towns and villages than in country schools, and that in our section of the province there is a much smaller number of schools of the first kind, the difference will not appear so great. Still the average obtained in the rural parts (\$265 for male teachers, and \$170 for females) is nearly fifty per cent. more than in the same class of schools in Lower Canada.

The following extract contains information concerning the Roman Catholic schools, which will prove highly interesting to many of our readers.

VI. TABLE E.—THE ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPRATE SCHOOLS.

"1. *Number of Schools.*—The number of schools reported is 109—the same as that of the preceding year.

"2. *Receipts.*—The amount apportioned and paid from the Legislative School Grant (according to average attendance as compared with that of the Common Schools in the same municipality) was \$7,836—increase \$287.

"3. The amount apportioned and paid for maps, apparatus, prizes, and libraries, (upon the condition of an equal sum being contributed from local sources) was \$47—decrease, \$90.

"4. Amount derived from local school rates on the supporters of Separate Schools (nothing being received from municipal assessment) \$12,931—increase, \$581. Amount derived from *subscriptions* and other sources, \$10,563—decrease, \$360. The whole amount provided from local sources was \$23,494—increase, \$221. The amount of the Legislative Grant for all Separate School purposes was \$7,883—increase, \$197. The total amount from all sources for the support of Separate Schools was \$31,379—increase, \$438.

Expenditures.

"1. For payment of teachers, \$25,188—increase, \$659.

"2. For maps, apparatus, prizes, and libraries, \$393—decrease \$24.

"3. For other purposes, \$5,797—decrease, \$196.

"4. *Pupils.*—The number of pupils in the Separate Schools was 14,700—increase, 1,069. There was a reported decrease in the attendance in 1861 of 1,077. The increased attendance of 1862 brings it up to within eight of the attendance of 1860.

"5. *Teachers.*—The number of teachers reported was 162—increase, 15. Of these, 87 are male—increase, 16; and 75 are female—decrease, 1. Seventeen of the male teachers and forty of the female teachers are reported to be of some religious order.

"6. The same table shows the subjects taught in the schools, and the number of pupils in each. It is pleasing to remark the increased number of pupils in the higher subjects of study, and the increase of 79 maps in the schools.⁵⁵

Great attention has been recently bestowed by the Educational Department of Upper Canada on the county grammar schools. They were, in 1862, 92 in number, showing an increase of 6; the number of pupils was 4,982—increase, 216. Of the hundred and thirty-one masters and teachers employed in the grammar schools, 45 were members of the Church of England, 46 were Presbyterians, 21 Methodists, 3 Baptists, 4 Congregationalists, 1 Roman Catholic, 1 reported as Protestant, and 10 whose denomination was not reported.

The report contains valuable information on the Normal and Model Schools. The number of pupils admitted during the first session of 1862 was 148, of whom 52 had been teachers. The number admitted during the second session was 135, of whom 68 had been teachers.

An imperfect idea would be formed of the state of education in any country if it were based upon the state of its public primary and grammar schools alone. The colleges reported in Upper Canada are 13 in number, containing 1,373 students and enjoying an income of \$94,800 from public sources, and of \$33,750 from fees. The number of private academies and schools was 342 (increase, 6), employing 481 teachers (increase, 59) and attended by 6,784 pupils (increase, 577).

The remainder of the report is devoted to the free public libraries, supplied by the Educational Department, and the Educational Museum—matters in which Lower Canada is, we are sorry to say, far behind Upper Canada. The number of public libraries was 518—increase 37. The value of library books supplied by the Department during the year was \$3,272. The total value of library books supplied by the Department since 1855 is \$107,165; and the number of volumes, 198,848.

The following are the concluding remarks of Dr. Ryerson in reviewing the school system of Upper Canada, which he has frequently compared with that of the several States of the Union in preceding reports.

THE SCHOOL SYSTEM.

"1. In my Report for 1857 I discussed at large the principles of our Common School System. In that Report I explained the nature of the provisions in regard to "Religious Instruction in the Public Schools," and answered the objections which had been made to this feature of the system. No new objections have since been started, and the old ones have been seldom repeated.

"2. In the same Report, I discussed the provisions of the law in

regard to Separate Schools; and while I expressed my regret that the principle of Separate Schools had been introduced into the law in 1841 (at the time of the union of Upper and Lower Canada) and my belief that they were an injury rather than a benefit to the Roman Catholics themselves, I assigned seven reasons why I thought those provisions of the law should be retained. I have since seen no reason to change or modify the views then fully expressed.

3. In the same Report I compared the principles, workings, and results of the elementary school system of Upper Canada with those of the systems which have been established in Great Britain and Ireland.

4. In my Report for 1860 I compared the ten years' progress of the Common Schools in Upper Canada with that in the States of Massachusetts, New York, and Pennsylvania.

5. I think it, therefore, needless to discuss in this Report any of the principles involved in our public school system. As it is in the power of each County, City, Town, and Incorporated Village to continue or not continue the school system—as it was to adopt or not adopt it—the municipalities may be left to judge and act for themselves. The only aid given by the Legislature is the Annual School Grant—given only until the process of the sale of public lands shall constitute a moderate School Fund. But, in the state of Massachusetts, the School Fund amounted in January, 1862, to a capital of \$1,588,263. The amount raised by taxes for the support of Public Schools, including only wages, board, fuel, care of fires, and School rooms \$1,500,501. The “amount paid for the Superintendence of Schools and printing School Reports \$51,948.” The Massachusetts School law requires each Township to raise by tax one dollar and fifty cents for each person between five and fifteen years of age as a condition of sharing in the income of the State School Fund, amounting as yet to only \$93,500. The “sum raised by taxes for the education of each child in the state between five and fifteen years of age, per child” was *six dollars and a fraction*. The population of Massachusetts in 1860, was 1,396,091. In the State of New York, the population was, in 1860, 3,851,563; in 1862, the amount apportioned from the State Common School Fund was \$320,000; the amount of State School Tax was \$1,086,977; the amount of local School taxes was \$2,068,057; the amount of rate-bills in rural districts (the schools in Cities and Towns are all free) was \$407,009. “For payment of salaries of School Commissioners” (or Local Superintendents) \$56,000. The expenses of the State Normal School and the State Education Office are paid out of the Public Revenue, and not from the School Fund. The States of Ohio and Illinois (especially the latter) present still more remarkable statistics of State income, State and local taxation for school purposes; but the statistics here given may be sufficient to satisfy those who wish to compare the taxation and working of our school system with that of the principal neighbouring states.

6. The Common School law being now settled, no one proposing to change any feature of it, or advocating the repeal of the Separate School law, it only remains for the Legislature to remedy the defects in the Grammar School law.

7. The steady progress which the School system has made, irrespective of the occasional depression of agriculture, trade and commerce, the wide dimensions to which it has attained, the various aids to the improvement and extension of its operations, the sensitiveness and jealousy with which the people at large view any possible infringement of its principles or integrity, and the liberality and zeal with which they have availed themselves of its facilities for the education of their children, encourage the hope, under the Divine blessing, for the future advancement and prosperity of Upper Canada.”

Extracts from the Reports of Inspectors of Schools, for 1859 and 1860.

Extracts from Mr. BRUCE's Reports.

Mr. Bruce gives as favorable an account of the progress of the schools in this district of inspection during the year 1859 to 1860 as in his previous report, a progress which, he observes, was more than usually apparent in over one half the schools. The pupils of at least five eighths of the schools inspected showed much aptitude and were very intelligent; and an unmistakable sign of progress was the fact that many of the children appeared to understand the value of instruction, and the advantages to be derived therefrom, much better than formerly. It was also satisfactory to observe that in some municipalities the ratepayers entertained sounder views on this subject than formerly, and were not ignorant of the value of a good system of teaching. The Inspector also notices with

evident pleasure the improvements introduced in the methods of instruction followed in the schools. More pains were now taken to cultivate the intellectual faculties of the children, and they were taught to understand what they read. The principles of arithmetic were also fully imparted to them before they were called upon to cast up sums; and the same might be said with regard to other branches. This excellent method, however, was not yet, Mr. Bruce regrets, adopted in every instance, and many schools, generally conducted by incompetent or unenterprising teachers, were deprived of the advantages attending this change. Much of the responsibility of employing so many of these teachers rested with the Boards of Examiners who grant the diplomas, but the principal culprits were the School Commissioners and Trustees who permitted the ratepayers to retain teachers owing their position to injudicious choice.

The number of schools examined by the Inspector since the 1st of May was 132. Of these, 15 were very ably conducted, 38 were good schools, 35 were only a little inferior to the last, 27 were indifferent, 15 inferior and 2 scarcely deserved the name of schools. Those classed as indifferent were conducted by teachers whose term of engagement were limited to one year. Among the successful teachers, thirty-two had fulfilled their duties in the same schools for several consecutive years; and the others were retained for terms of not less than one year.

The introduction of improved methods of instruction had been attended with corresponding improvements in the different branches taught; and spelling and writing received greater attention on the part of the teachers than formerly, and were taught in a more practical and efficient manner. Marked progress was also made in writing, grammar, geography and composition; and the study of arithmetic was more fully developed in most of the schools under supervision. The general results obtained were satisfactory as the examinations proved.

The school-houses remained in about the same state as at the time of the last report—two only having been repaired. Two schools were furnished with desks in parallel rows. One school-house was in course of construction in District No. 4 of St. Maurice d'Ormstown, and another was nearly finished in District 14 of the Municipality of Chatham. It was much to be regretted that the general condition in which the Inspector found the school-houses did not admit of a favorable report. Nearly all were ill-lighted and insufficiently ventilated, and did not afford the necessary accommodation. The land attached to many of these school-houses was seldom turned to account, although grounds for the purpose of recreation should be provided by the School Commissioners and Trustees wherever eligible sites could be procured.

The text-books in use were better chosen, but in many schools the series still remained more or less incomplete. In Dundee, and the Townships of Elgin and Godmanchester a deficiency existed in the supply of school books and many other indispensable articles. The want of a uniform series of books was greatly felt in the schools of Franklin, St. Jean Chrysostome and Hemmingford, where Mr. Bruce saw children going to school without books of any kind. A great number of schools on the boundary line used a variety of books simultaneously, and this want of uniformity tended materially to interfere with the progress of the scholars, as it rendered a subdivision of the classes necessary and compelled the teacher to divide his attention.

Of 142 schools, only 80 had black-boards, few had maps and still fewer were provided with tables. The use of uniform text-books permitted a better classification of pupils according to the degree of advancement in spelling, reading, &c.

The books or journals of the schools were kept with regularity and exactness, but the neglect of certain school commissioners and trustees to supply the required blank books obliged the teachers to incur expense in providing them. These omissions had formed the subjects of representations by the Inspector, and it was hoped that more care would be taken in future, especially as the want of system existing with regard to these registers, was in a measure attributable to this cause.

The delays to which the teachers were subjected in receiving their salaries, were exceedingly objectionable. The Inspector knew of but one municipality where the teachers were paid with punctuality; and yet the least remissness on the part of the ill-paid teachers in the other localities was treated with severity and often involved dismissal.

CITY OF MONTREAL.

Mr. Bruce in his report on the English public schools of the city of Montreal says that he spent several days in visiting them. His visits were extended to schools for superior education and others

not under his supervision, in which he thought his examination would not be deemed intrusive. In many schools of this class he was cordially received and invited to criticize impartially the discipline and methods of instruction. In justice to the teachers alluded to the Inspector reports that their schools were fully deserving of encouragement. From observations carefully made, the Inspector is satisfied that all the schools of Montreal were progressing. Defective systems and slow methods of instruction had been improved or abandoned, and incapable teachers were gradually disappearing. What was most needed to ensure the complete success of our ably conducted schools was the zealous support of the public.

Extracts from Mr. VALADE'S Report.

We are informed by this report that the schools assigned to Mr. Valade's inspection were found to be prosperous and generally established on a firm footing. Most of the teachers, male and female, gave proofs of their energy, their zeal and aptitude. Almost everywhere in this district the inhabitants paid the school taxes willingly, the few exceptions being the result, not of disinclination on the part of the assessed, but of the neglect of certain secretary-treasurers, who were incapable of properly discharging the duties of this important office.

The School Commissioners fulfilled their duties in a satisfactory manner. The schools were visited regularly, prizes were distributed and school-houses built or repaired. These results were due to the exertions of the commissioners, who took pains to forward the interests of education. A majority of the members of these corporations generally accompanied the Inspector on his visits to the schools. Mr. Valade usually apprized the parents of the day of examination, and he often had the pleasure of meeting many of them on such occasions. The Curé of the parish often presided over those assembled and assisted by his presence in rendering the ceremony more impressive.

In several Protestant municipalities visited by Mr. Valade, the members of the Protestant clergy received him cordially and readily accompanied him on his visits.

The religious school establishments of Montreal, and throughout this district of inspection, are highly spoken of, as in former reports, for the benefits they have conferred on a large class of the population.

The Inspector had many opportunities of observing the teachers from the Normal School at work in this district, and he is convinced that wherever they are employed they have discharged their duties in a manner that cannot fail to ensure proper results, and at the same time to do honor to the institution in which they were trained.

Some of the schools were still irregularly attended, as children of twelve and over that age were made to work by their parents on their farms and thus kept away from school. Where the attendance had been regular, the pupils, as a general rule, made satisfactory progress. The concluding paragraph of the report contains the very gratifying prediction that if nothing intervenes to embarrass the progressive development of our schools, nine tenths of the population of this district will, in a few years, know how to read, write and cipher.

Extracts from Mr. DORVAL'S Report.

The schools generally continued progressing in this district of inspection. The people were well disposed towards education, and fully prepared to avail themselves of all the advantages which an efficient school system can confer; but more aid was needed.

The sincere desire to have the law fully carried out was shown by the fact that the taxes imposed often quadrupled the minimum amount fixed by the law. Although the marked success of the schools during the last few years was a subject for congratulation, the fact that much remained to be done to make them fully efficient was not lost sight of. The inspector believes that the people had left nothing undone to promote the education of their children, and that the provisions of the Legislature were perhaps as ample as could be expected under present circumstances; yet we are told that, considerable as were the appropriations, if further aid corresponding to the increased efforts of the assessed were not extended to the schools, the development of our school system, which it had cost so much to commence, would be effectually checked and the hopes of the people disappointed. They, no doubt, already possessed a considerable portion of the materials necessary for working out this system; but as the teacher was the soul of the whole movement, attention should be first turned to him. There was a

universal desire to employ teachers trained in the normal schools, but how was it possible to secure their services, or even the services of other experienced teachers, without some addition to the scanty resources from which their salaries were to be provided? They could only be obtained through increase in the grants, sufficient to allow a fair remuneration.

In the foregoing statements are to be found some of the reasons which have induced all parties to ask for further assistance from the Legislature. The measures adopted by the Department, with means so limited at its disposal, were admitted to be just and equitable.

Mr. Dorval then gives a detailed account of the schools and school affairs in each of the 37 municipalities of this district of inspection. Indifferent schools were only to be found in six of these, the results obtained in most of the remaining localities being exceedingly satisfactory.

Extracts from Inspector GERMAIN'S Reports.

The 44 municipalities comprised in the district of inspection assigned to Mr. Germain, were subdivided into 109 school districts, containing 93 school-houses with 120 schools in operation under the Commissioners' control. Of these 102 were elementary schools affording instruction to 4668 pupils; 8 were model schools with 616 pupils; 3 dissentient schools with 62 pupils; 4 colleges, with 572 pupils; 8 convents, with 758 pupils; and 4 independent schools, with 82 pupils. Total, 6,758 pupils. The number of male teachers was 29, and of female teachers 83. Of the former 10 had model school diplomas, 17 had elementary diplomas, and 7 were normal school pupils. The highest salary paid was \$500 and the lowest \$120. The female teachers' salaries ranged from \$68 to \$212. These figures do not include the convent schools, which received from the municipalities \$120 to \$200 each, according to circumstances.

Of the schools in charge of male teachers, 10 were very ably conducted, 15 were conducted by teachers of ordinary ability, and 2 by teachers whose capacity was not so great as the last. Those under female teachers are classed as follows in the report: Number of schools conducted by very able teachers 11, by teachers of ordinary capacity 40, by teachers inferior to the last 33, and by incapable teachers 9. Total 120 schools.

There were 87 school-houses of wood, 4 of stone and 2 of brick, belonging to the commissioners. Of these buildings, 90 had but one story, and 3 two stories. Their value was estimated as follows: 10 at less than \$400, 38 at less than \$800, 8 at less than \$1200, 4 under \$1,600, and 3 under \$2000. Forty-five were kept in good order, 42 indifferently repaired, and 5 were ill-repaired. Fifty-nine had been built by the rate-payers, aided by government grants, and 83 by the rate-payers alone. Two wooden houses had been built during the year previous upon an approved plan. Three schools, frequented by 180 scholars, had been added during the year.

The examinations were very satisfactory.

In the previous years the Inspector had reported that education made no progress because the teachers were too few, but now the Boards of Examiners were too liberal in granting diplomas, and the consequence was that the municipalities were encumbered with a great number of incompetent female teachers.

The monthly rates were collected with comparative ease. In several of the schools the Inspector saw with pleasure that seats with backs were used, similar to those adopted in the Normal Schools.

This district of inspection comprises all the counties of Laval, Terrebonne, Two Mountains, a part of Argenteuil and the electoral division of Jacques Cartier,—in all 23 parishes and 44 municipalities.

MONTHLY SUMMARY.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

—The official catalogue of the text-books used in the primary and secondary schools of Austria shows at a glance the different nationalities of which that empire is formed. These school books are printed in German, Polish, Italian, Bohemian, Magyar, Croatian, Servian, Slavonic, Rumanian and even Hebrew. The German, Italian and Polish works are the most numerous. The Croatian (Illyrian or Dalmatian)

is printed in Roman type; one of the Sclavonian dialects in particular characters which resemble Greek or old Slavonic. The Servian is in Russian characters, somewhat modified. The Magyar, Romain, Polonese, Bohemian and Slavonic are always written in Roman letters. These works have all been issued from the Imperial presses at Vienna, and leave nothing to be desired. The paper offers one particular feature, it is manufactured from the cellular parts of the maize plant and has a faint yellow tint which is less fatiguing to the eye than the glaring white of paper made from rags.—*Cosmos*.

—During the excursion of the Eastern teachers to the recent Teachers' National Convention, at Chicago, on their passage through the Great Lakes, an incident occurred, participated in by the party on board the steamer "Antelope," which will long be remembered as illustrating the exalted sphere of the true teacher.

While sailing on the beautiful lake Michigan, stopping at the island of Manitowish, the obliging Captain, ever ready to add to our enjoyment, informed us there were an abundance of raspberries. All were at once on the move with every conceivable dish in hand to gather the delicious fruit. But the berry ramble was soon absorbed in the more important incident which I will relate.

In a large opening, and without the luxury of a single tree, shrub or flower, except the long wild grass, stood, as it were upon skids, an apology for a building; which, to the cultivated eye, had the appearance of these rude "shanties" seen on many of our Eastern railroads while in process of structure, or affording temporary shelter for the beasts of the field. Built, or rather thrown together as it were, of the cheapest material, of hardly capacity for a dozen persons; an aperture on two sides of perhaps a foot-and-a-half square, serving the double capacity for light and ventilation, with one of larger dimensions at one end for admittance, though requiring humble obeisance of the adult guest, forms what was called a school-house.

In this were assembled sixteen human beings, varying in age to perhaps the same number in years; seated upon boards that had become smooth by use, humbly yet neatly attired, and in their midst a mild, modest, unpretending yet dignified and courteous female; intent upon nothing but imparting the seeds of learning to as ready minds desirous of receiving the same.

This true Educator, being on a visit to the island, had collected a few children, representing several different nations, and commenced her missionary labors among them some four years ago, and has thus been engaged since, though not constantly, for it should be borne in mind that the remote settlement of the island favors a school only in the summer season. For the first two years she received no compensation, and but a mere nominal one since.

In view of these facts, such an impression was made upon the minds of all that when on board the boat again the party were called together and organized by choosing J. W. Bulkley, Esq., Superintendent of the Public Schools of Brooklyn, N. Y., Chairman, and Alvin O. Robbins, of Providence, R. I., Secretary.

Mr. Bulkley, in a brief yet enthusiastic speech, stated the object of the gathering, whereupon, at the suggestion of several of the teachers, not from poverty or want, but from a desire to honor, in her self-denying labor, the unanimous feeling was that a committee be chosen to collect a sufficient sum of money to purchase and present her a good American watch. The committee chosen for that purpose soon reported the sum collected to be fifty-three dollars and fifteen cents, which was subsequently raised to sixty-five dollars. A committee of purchase and presentation was then appointed, consisting of Messrs. J. W. Bulkley, of Brooklyn, N. Y.; A. J. Phipps, of New Bedford, Mass.; E. F. Stroug, of Bridgeport, Ct.; Mrs. T. D. Adams, of Newton, Mass., and Miss R. Howard, of Boston, Mass. Said committee were also authorized to receive and publish any and all correspondence that may grow out of said presentation, and present the same to the several State educational journals for publication.

A beautiful American lady's gold watch was purchased, appropriately engraved, and on the return trip of the party, presented in a very neat and timely address by T. D. Adams, Esq., of Newton, Mass., Mr. Bulkley not being able to accompany the party. It was quite a surprise, and accepted in a brief speech, with the same modest and courteous demeanor that marked her character, and won the respect of all as at the first visit to her.

Ye young ladies and gentlemen who are just entering upon the great work of teaching, and after the toil of days and perhaps weeks in our beautiful New England school houses, repining upon your calling as one conducive of no good to the immortal minds entrusted to your charge, take courage by calling to mind this little incident on the isolated island of Manitowish, and remember your co-laborer.—*R. I. Schoolmaster*.

—America, like ancient Greece, understands the importance of the education of the body, that it should keep pace with that of the intelligence and the heart. A large number of schools begin by exercises that amuse the children, while at the same time they develop their muscular force. At New York I visited a school containing 1,400 children. When I arrived the children were all ranged in columns along the sides of the large room. When the clock struck nine, one of the mistresses took her place at the piano, which instrument fills a con-

spicuous part in public instruction, and performed one of "Proven's" finest marches. In an instant all the columns bounded forward, going through the most graceful movements, forming living chains interwoven into each other, now uniting, now separating and all done with an accuracy that was really amazing. Suddenly a partition was removed, as if by enchantment, and there, upon a distant amphitheatre, hundreds of quite young children were going through the same evolutions. There was something fantastic in the whole scene. Independently of the pleasure it gave the mind, it charmed the eye as a fine landscape or a fine picture might have done. These exercises unite the advantages of both gymnastics and dancing, and are calculated to strengthen the muscles, particularly those of the chest, and to give lightness, elasticity, and grace to the body.—*Nine Months in the United States during the Crisis*, by the Rev. George Fisch.

—"Dr. Latham, in his Grammar, gives some curious instances of the misspelling of words arising from their sound, which error has led to the production not only of a form, but of a meaning, very different from the original. Thus *Dent de lion*, originally referring to the root, has been corrupted into *dandelion*, having reference to the flaunting aspect of the flower. *Contre-dance* has become *countryside*. *Shamefastness*, originally referring to the attire, has become *shamefacedness*, and applied to the countenance. *Cap-à-pié* has produced *apple-pie order*. *Folio capo*, Italian for the first sized sheet, has produced *foolscap*. *Asparagus, sparrowsgrass; Grassolet artichoke, Jerusalem artichoke. Massaniello*, the name of a famous Neapolitan rebel and the hero of the opera, is nothing but *Mus-Antello*, a corruption of the true name, *Thomas Aniello. Hogoumont*, famous in the annals of Waterloo, is properly *Chateau Goumont*."

—"The late Mr. Alexander Edward has bequeathed £1000 to the Dundee Public Seminaries, or High Schools of Dundee; said sum to be invested by the directors, and the produce thereof to be applied in the education of the children of poor but respectable parents. James Forrest, Esq., of Meadowfield, has bequeathed £150 a year for the education of 150 children, two-thirds of whom must be natives of Airdrie, the remaining third of Clarkston; and £110 a year for five bursaries in the University of Glasgow. The Misses Ettles, of Inverness, have founded an "Ettles Bursary," of £22 per annum, tenable for four years, in the University of Aberdeen; the competition to take place at the Inverness Academy. The same ladies have invested £500 to found a similar bursary in connection with Elgin Academy."

SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

—The ordinary belief of nine in every ten people who speak of the change of color in our forest trees in autumn is that it is due to frost alone, without even inquiring the reason why, if frost so changes the leaves, their color is not, in each variety alike?

As the change occurs in the season of frosts, they are unmindful whether it be previous to or after the first frosts have stricken them. Now, a thought or two upon the organic composition of those leaves would readily convince them that the changes were due to their gradual ripeness and decay, and that the frosts have nothing whatever to do with the high coloring they acquire, other than to affect, when it prematurely strikes them, the rich, luxuriant, and full development which, in the absence of frosts, they would, in every successive season, each in its kind acquire alike.

The leaves of every different species of tree or shrub are composed of chemical elements, intermixed in greater or less degrees, which, when fully matured, and in their process of ripening, act variously upon each other, and develop those beautiful colors so gorgeously displayed, and never so strikingly as on the wide breast of a hill or mountain forest in the month of October up to the time of their falling into decay; and never is this display so grand and luxuriant as after a fine, genial, season of full warmth, abundant rains, and a withholding of the frosts, giving the leaves abundant opportunity to perfect their growth and ripeness.

In all their thousand varieties, evergreens included,

"Leaves have their time to fall."

But accidental, or unseasonable influences may cause those times to be earlier or later. Thus an early drouth, a blight at the top, a canker at the root, a violence at the bark on its stem, or a long flooding of the tree with water, will cause a change of color in its leaves a month earlier than is its natural wont, even to the entire shedding of the leaf before a sign of frost is visible. When a sharp, early frost strikes the leaves of our trees while they are yet green, they turn pale, dull, lifeless and crisp. The flow of their sap is chilled and they die at once. The chemical action of the elements composing them is languid. Yet it does move to a degree, in the mild and sunny days which follow, sufficient to elaborate their natural colors approximating to ripeness, but not fully. The leaf stems wilt and become toughened, holding them to the branches, perhaps for weeks. They may waver in sickly life even to the end of the season, but they are "frost work," after all. There is a moral to be learned in this last fact by tree planters and those who wish to enjoy the full beauties and luxury of the material which embellish their grounds. The most luxuriant and well cultivated trees have thicker, heavier,

hardier leaves than those of slow, stunted growth on poor land. They withstand frosts better, and have their autumnal colors brighter and later than the weaker trees. Perhaps the fact is not generally observed, but investigation will prove it. At first thought, it may appear to be only a poetic or fanciful view we have taken of the subject, but we believe there is something in it.—*L. F. Allen, in N. Y. Obs.*

—On the subject of the Bread found at Pompeii M. de Luca has recently addressed two papers to the Academy of Sciences, which are not devoid of interest. The 81 loaves discovered at Pompeii on the 9th of August, 1862, in a Roman baking oven, he tells us, have not all been taken to the museum of Naples, where only a dozen are kept; the remainder are exhibited at Pompeii. They weigh from 500 to 600 grammes each, except four weighing 200 grammes more, and one of 1,204 grammes. Their form has been too often described to deserve repetition here; but their colour and substance offer some interesting peculiarities. Externally the colour is dark brown, nearly black at the circumference, but lighter towards the centre. The crust is somewhat hard and compact, but the crumb, which is porous, may be easily crushed between the forefinger and thumb, and has a lustre not unlike that of coal. This crumb contains at the centre about 23 per cent. of water, while the part adjacent to the crust only contains from 13 to 21 per cent. It loses some of its humidity when exposed to the air and the weather is hot. The crumb near the crust contains 2.8 per cent. of nitrogen; the crumb at the centre only contains 2.6. The crust does not contain more than 1.65 per cent. The composition of this bread was not easy to ascertain, because the quantity of carbon diminishes from the circumference to the centre, while the hydrogen, on the contrary, increases towards the centre. This shows that the external air has exercised some action on the bread, notwithstanding it was enveloped in a baking oven. The corn found in the baking establishment of Pompeii seems to have been wheat of good quality; it is now of a dark brown colour, porous, and easy to crush between the forefinger and thumb. It contains 11.2 of ashes, 68.9 of carbon, and 5.5 of oxygen, against 23.1 of ashes, 46 of carbon, and 43 of oxygen, contained in wheat gathered in 1836. The proportion of hydrogen and nitrogen is about the same in both cases. But the corn of Pompeii has lost its starch, since it is not coloured by iodine; nor does it contain any substance capable of reducing the tartrate of copper and potash, or fermenting with yeast. Hence, after eighteen centuries the corn of Pompeii has lost all its organic substances, and contains neither gluten, nor starch, nor sugar, nor any fatty substance; while the bread contains the elements which constitute organic matter more towards the centre than at the surface.—*Galignani.*

—A very remarkable time calculator, called a "Perpetual Indexed Almanac or Office Calendar," and invented by Mr. William Gibson, of South Granby, Sheffield, C. E., was shown at the recent Exhibition in 'con'nal. It marks the dates and days of the week in plain figures and letters, and will indicate in a few seconds the name of the day upon which any particular date will fall in the future, or has fallen in the past, however remote. Although literally a "wheel within a wheel," it is yet very simple, consisting of two circles, one of course revolving within the other. Its usefulness to the merchant, arithmetician, and indeed to any one that, unlike the poet, "takes note of time," cannot be questioned. The following problems, solved by it in a few seconds, will give some idea of its almost inconceivable power:

"Suppose a year so far advanced that it would take a line of figures of such a length to decipher, that the electric fluid would take a duodecillion of years to pass over the line of figures, of which year the four last figures are 4953—on what day of the week would the 10th day of this fall on that year? The answer is *Sunday*."

"To assist in explaining this problem, it may be stated that in order to point out the dates of a year having five inches of a line of figures to decipher it, so many of these Almanacs (called Perpetual) which point out dates for 100 years, would be required (supposing each Almanac to be 1 inch square and one-sixteenth of an inch thick) that they would cover over 4,590 worlds like this 1 mile deep; and it would take a man's labor 2,608 years to write a line of figures that the electric fluid would pass over in ten seconds of time."

—Benjamin D. Walsh, President of the Illinois Natural History Society, and well known as an entomologist, recently read a paper before the Society mentioned, on the cause of the blight, or the "fireblight" in the apple and pear tree. The conclusion to which he has arrived is, that the blight is caused by certain species of insects called leaf-hoppers. We give below a summary of the points laid down as the result of his investigations. It may not be amiss, however, to remark, that blight in pear trees has often occurred in this vicinity where no trace of injury by the insect alluded to (several species of which are well known here) could be discovered, even by experienced and careful entomologists. The following are Mr. Walsh's points:

1. Fire-blight in the apple and pear is caused by two species of leaf-hoppers (*Tettigonia*) described by me, in the *Prairie Farmer* last year, as *Chloroneura nalisica* and *Chl. maligna*.

2. In the autumn these insects lay their eggs, from 7 to 10 in number, in slits about $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch long, cut lengthwise, in the bark of twigs and branches, and easily recognized by their scaly, rough appearance.

They also pass the winter in large numbers in the perfect, or winged state.

3. As these eggs lie dormant for eight months before they hatch, and as the sapwood turns brown on each side of the egg slit, there must be some poisonous fluid deposited by the mother insect in the egg slit; otherwise the wound would grow over and heal up.

4. This poisonous fluid is absorbed into the system of the tree, and blight results the next spring, even before the young *Tettigonians* are hatched.

5. The bark of the *Tettigonian* appears to have some poisonous property, for the leaves turn brown when they are punctured by it. This is called, out West, "leaf-blight," and may also be seen on grape vines badly infested by their peculiar leaf-hoppers.

6. Almost every tree has one or more peculiar leaf-hopper. For example, two species occur on the crab, thorn, pear and apple, the same that I believe to cause the fire-blight; another on the white elm; another on the sycamore or button-wood—all three of them undescribed; and four distinct species on the grape-vine, two of which were first described by me in the *Prairie Farmer*.

7. On the elm it requires a very great number of egg-slits to cause blight; on the crab a less number; on the pear, a very small number.

8. On the elm and crab-apple, and most other trees, the egg is generally placed half in the sap-wood and half in the bark. On most varieties of the pear, it is generally placed in the bark, not penetrating into the sap-wood.

9. The most feasible remedy for "fire-blight" is to destroy the leaf-hopper eggs, as soon as possible after the fall of the leaf, either by trimming off the twigs containing them, or throwing them on the ground, or by shaving off a very thin slice of the bark with a sharp knife, wherever egg-slits are observed, so as to cut into the eggs. It is of no use to trim off twigs which are already blighted.—*Boston Cul.*

—The seventh annual meeting of the Social Science Congress opened on Wednesday, the 7th inst. A sermon was preached at two o'clock in St. Giles's Church, before a large audience, by the Rev. Dr. Arnot, and in the evening the general meeting of members and associates took place in the Free Church Assembly hall. Lord Brougham, president of the association, occupied the chair, and was enthusiastically received by the crowded assemblage. His Lordship delivered the opening address, which commenced with a touching allusion to the great man connected with Edinburgh who had passed away and left their example to guide the survivors. The address took a wide range, including a survey of the political horizon, as well as embracing the several topics of social science. Lord Brougham was relieved in reading a great portion of his address by Mr. Hastings, the secretary. Upon its conclusion the Lord Advocate proposed, and Mr. Napier seconded, a vote of thanks to the noble president, which was carried. Prince Alfred was present, and was loudly cheered. The correspondent of the *Aberdeen Free Press*, treating of Lord Brougham's personal appearance, says:—"His features are assuming more the form we are accustomed to in the caricatures, and he is bent with age; but there is a healthy glow on the face, good spirits, and the natural force of the mind is not abated. The discourse was written—had, indeed, been put in type—and those in the secret knew that it filled six columns. Of course it was read. The 'old man eloquent,' taking his 'glasses' very deliberately from his pocket and rising, held up the manuscript to his eyes with a firm hand and commenced. The voice, which used to be sonorous, and on occasions to suggest the comparison of thunder, is now mellowed—sweet, in fact—and obedient to the call of emotion, as when the aged man referred to companions of sixty years ago in tremulous accents."

Not the least interesting part of the proceedings of the association was a great meeting of working men, presided over by Lord Brougham, held on Friday the 9th inst. This meeting was one of the most numerous attended of any that have taken place for many years in the north. The tickets of admission were left to the distribution of a committee, and the number of applications for tickets exceeded 35,000. The place in which the meeting was held was a building called the *Circus*, which would contain between three and four thousand persons. Every nook and corner was crowded, and the scene which was presented by the densely-packed mass of human beings as they rose to cheer his Royal Highness Prince Alfred and Lord Brougham on their entering the hall was a most striking one. The object of calling the meeting was to enable the working men to hear addresses from Lord Brougham, Mr. Fawcett, M. Garnier Pagés, Rev. Mr. Channing, and other gentlemen whose opinions are known to be in sympathy with the working-classes of this country. The subjects chosen for these addresses by the different speakers were suitable to, and thoroughly appreciated by the vast audience. Lord Brougham, in opening the proceedings, said that the association paid more attention to what concerned the working part of the community than to all the rest of the community together. He dwelt upon the advantages of education, of the half-time system, and of the desirableness of not neglecting instruction while seeking entertainment. The noble Lord also urged his hearers to establish clubrooms for social intercourse, so that those who spend their mornings in labour might devote their evenings to conversation and improvement. In the course of his remarks his Lordship said, "Follow-workmen, I have been a workman, like you, all my life, and, even when old age has come upon me, the habit is so strong that I cannot give over working now; and

really it must be admitted that there is not only great profit and great usefulness, but great pleasure and comfort in work."—*Ill. London News.*

HISTORICAL INTELLIGENCE.

—The session of our Parliament has closed after the third attempt of the Opposition to defeat the government by a vote of want of confidence. The first was made on the address, the second took the form of a motion to censure the nomination of Mr. Sicotte to a judgeship, and the third of an amendment to the budget, proposed by Mr. Galt. The last left a majority of three votes in favor of the ministry. The retirement of Mr. Sicotte from politics was one of the conspicuous events of a session remarkable for its stormy debates, and its striking and almost dramatic incidents. Mr. Sicotte, who at an early age took part in the political contests of this country and who, before 1837, had attracted attention by a vigorous correspondence in the *Minerve* against the Legislative Council, did not make his appearance in Parliament until long after the Union. He was elected for the first time in 1851, and from that period his gravity and excellent bearing, the facility and measured exactness of his language, and the reputation due to his acknowledged abilities and impartiality gave him a *prestige* that easily secured for him a portfolio in 1853, when the appointment of Mr. Caron to the Bench rendered changes necessary in the Cabinet. But a difficulty having arisen with regard to the time of the settlement of the seigniorial tenure, Mr. Sicotte resigned his office before he had entered upon its duties. In the following session a vote of want of confidence was carried on his motion, and a dissolution took place. On the re-assembling of Parliament he was chosen Speaker of the Legislative Assembly by the opposition and accepted by the ministry, who after their own candidate, Mr. Cartier, had been rejected, accepted him to defeat the chances of Mr. John Sandfield McDonald who was held in reserve by their antagonists. After the retirement of Sir Allan McNab, when the McDonald-Cartier administration was formed and a new Parliament summoned to meet, Mr. Sicotte accepted the office of Commissioner of Crown Lands, which he exchanged for that of Commissioner of Public Works when the Cartier-McDonald ministry was called into existence. He resigned soon afterwards, on the question of the seat of government, and the opening of the last Parliament found him the leader of the opposition. Having defeated the administration, he became the head of the Lower Canadian section of the ministry, and, defeated with that ministry, he did not form part of the present administration, but proposed against them an amendment to the address.

The appointments of Messrs. Sicotte, Loranger and Laberge—though the last had at least temporarily retired from public life—deprive our political world of three of its most prominent men and eloquent speakers. This rapid consumption of public men is characteristic of our political system; and it is a somewhat remarkable fact that of the representatives who were in Parliament in 1844, only three remain in the Lower House; viz., Messrs. John A. McDonald, Cauchon, and John Sandfield McDonald.

—*Governments in France for the last seventy years.*—The following extract from the *Gazette de France* presents in a succinct form some curious information.—“In a period of 70 years, France has seen 13 Governments, each differing from the others in origin and in aim:—Louis XVI, and the Assemblies, May 5, 1789, to August 10, 1792; the Convention, with its revolutions and incessant changes, September, 24, 1792, to October 5, 1795; the Directory, October 5, 1795, to November 7, 1799; the Consulate for a limited period, December 24, 1799, to August 2, 1802; the Consulate for life, August 2, 1802, to May 18, 1804; the Empire, May 18, 1804, to April 2, 1814; the Restoration, April 24, 1814, to March 20, 1815; the Empire, March 27 to June 22, 1815; the Restoration, July 8, 1815, to August, 1830; the Government of July, August 9, 1830, to February 24, 1848; the Republic, February 21, 1848, to December 2, 1851; the Presidency for 10 years, December 20-21, 1851, to December 9, 1852; the Empire, December 9, 1852. During the same period of 70 years there have been promulgated 12 Constitutions which have had in France for a longer or shorter period, the force of fundamental law:—The Constitution of September 14, 1790; the Constitution of June 24, 1793; the Constitution of the 5th Fructidor, year III.; the Constitution of the 22d Frimaire, year VIII.; the senatus-consultum of the 16th Thermidor, year X.; the decree of the Senate of the 28th Floréal, year XII.; the Charter of 1814; the additional Act of 1815; the Republican Constitution of 1848; the Constitution put forth by the President, of the 14th-22d January, 1852; the same Constitution modified by the senatus-consulta of November 7th, 1852, and the plebiscitum of January 21st-22d, 1852. In all that, we have a specimen of the force and unity to which the revolution has sacrificed the rights and liberty of France! In both catalogues, we may add, we have omitted all that was simply ephemeral; and moreover, the suspension by the revolutionary Government of the Constitution of 1793. Is there in this double result anything surprising or astonishing, or which is not in accordance with common sense? Nothing. The principles laid down have borne their fruit, the premises that were established have produced their consequences; we have sown the wind and reaped the whirlwind.—*English Paper.*

—“A law case of some interest is now before the United States District

Court of Michigan. The Seigniorship of Sault Ste. Marie is claimed by the descendants of Chevalier de Repentigny, who died in Paris in 1786. The Seigniorship was granted to the Chevalier and to Sœur de Bonne in 1750 by the French Governor of Canada, and confirmed to them by Louis XIV in the following year. De Bonne was killed at the battle of St. Foye, before Quebec, in 1760. His share of the Seigniorship has passed from him, by will or sale, to a number of individuals, and is now owned by Lieut.-Col. Rotton in Her Majesty's service in India. If the claimants recover possession of DeRepentigny's portion, no occupant of the land will be interfered with, Congress having enacted a law to meet such cases, by which the claimants will receive land warrants as an equivalent for those sold on the Seigniorship.”

STATISTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

—“The British Consul at San Francisco, in his report this year, gives some interesting particulars of the progress of California. The product of wheat, barley and oats in 1862, reached 1,894,500 qrs. The number of horses was 124,000; mules, 21,700; stock cattle, 1,250,000; sheep, 1,500,000; hogs, 222,000. The clip of wool amounted to 5,530,000 lbs, nearly two-thirds consisting of middling to fine clothing and combing wools. The vineyards are becoming a source of great wealth. Considerably more than 1,000,000 gallons of wine were manufactured in 1862, but the great bulk is made without sufficient care, and is consequently inferior. The exports, other than gold and specie, amounted in 1862 to £1,965,500. The Consul states that there are about 15,000 British subjects in California, and a like number of French. The assessed value of real and personal estate (not including mines, which are not taxed) was £32,073,800 in 1862. The receipts of gold dust at San Francisco from the interior, amounted to £8,507,960 in 1862. The California mountains and rocks are just beginning to yield their precious ore; gold is found in quarters hitherto unsuspected of containing it, new lodes of silver, copper, and other valued minerals are announced in rapid succession. It is estimated that the Rocky Mountains will this year produce £20,000,000 in gold.”

—“It never rains but it pours.” This musty old proverb may well be applied to this country as regards the mineral wealth, which the hand of the explorer is almost daily turning up to the rays of the sun. A few days ago we noticed the discovery of Antimony in the township of Ham, of Gold and Silver quartz at Tyandinago, in the county of Hastings, and of further deposits of Copper in the rich belt of country which extends northward from Lake Memphremagog, to Point Levi. We now hear of lead deposits, said to be of unusual richness in the same county of Hastings. In the short space of half an hour forty pounds of pure soft lead were taken from a hole about two feet deep and three feet in circumference. The prospect seems favorable, and there is scarcely any doubt but that a mine of great wealth has been tapped. We also learn that the Mariposa iron and copper mines are again to be worked by a new company, principally from Quebec, who purpose commencing operations with a capital of \$1,000,000, and will endeavor to float half of it off in the moneyed centres in the Northern States. The mine in question will produce ore of good quality, equal in fact to any imported. The mineral wealth of the country promises in time to employ a large proportion of that hardy floating population which has in the past been attracted to the neighbouring States by the apparently high prices offered there, but if that employment is to be constant, steady, and secure, care will have to be taken that outsiders do not control the stock as they have done in one lamentable instance,—that of the Acton. That wealthy mine fell into the hands of some Boston speculators who paid \$250,000 for it and then formed a Company with a paid up capital of about \$3,000,000. This capital is entitled to 12 per cent., and the consequence is that although the mine is very rich, it does not pay expenses, the interest required to satiate the maws of the Boston cormorants exceeding the price at which Labor can be converted into Capital. This is clearly set forth in the last annual report of the company. It was expected that \$10,000 a month clear profit would be derived from the workings, but the fact is that it has merely paid its way. The “breakdown” should prove a warning. If the same trick be repeated, the wealthiest mineral country on the Northern continent will be brought into deep although unmerited disrepute.—*Montreal Gazette.*

—The fisheries of the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the coast of Labrador may be divided into two classes, the sea fisheries and the river fisheries.

The fish which form the most lucrative article of commerce are the herring, the cod, the mackerel, the salmon, the whale, the seal, and different species of shell-fish.

It is very difficult to obtain even an approximation to the actual annual aggregate value of the fisheries of the gulf and the coast of Labrador. It would be necessary to obtain accurate returns from France, the United States, Great Britain, and the British provinces. But both French and American fishermen leave the Great Banks, if the season be not successful and go to the Labrador, or into the gulf, so that the distinction cannot be made with an approach to accuracy as regards the French and the Americans. The British American fisheries, however, do not now include the Great Banks, so that a close approximation to the value of the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Labrador to the provinces may be determined. The following table shows the value of

the exports of fish, fish oil, and seal skins from British America during the year 1855, 1856, and 1857:—

	1855	1856	1857
	£	£	£
New Brunswick.....	47,193	64,311	71,190
Canada.....	79,842	82,900	98,271
Nova Scotia.....	568,086	564,342	397,422
Prince Edward Island.....			17,645
Newfoundland.....	1,028,388	1,254,737	1,529,607
	1,723,509	1,966,250	2,104,035

The exports of Nova Scotia being given for nine months only of 1857, the addition of one-fourth would not bring them up to the exports of the two previous years. But assuming that they were equal to those of 1856, the total value of British American fisheries in 1857, with respect to exportations alone, amounted to 2,280,559 l. sterling, or about eleven million dollars.

The value of the exports of fish from Nova Scotia reached, in 1860, the large sum of \$2,956,788 or within 44,000 of three million dollars. This colony employed, in that year, 3,253 vessels, with a gross tonnage of 248,961 tons, or a ton for each inhabitant.

When the fish and fish oil consumed by the inhabitants of the provinces are taken into account, there can be no doubt that the present annual value of the fisheries to British America exceeds \$15,000,000. That part of the catch on the Labrador coast which goes directly to Great Britain or the Island of New Jersey, is not included in this estimate. The value of the Labrador fisheries alone has been estimated by a very competent person at one million sterling per annum.

The total value of the fisheries of the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the coast of Labrador, as prosecuted under the enjoyment of 'concurrent rights' by the Americans, the French, the British, and the Provincials, cannot fall short of four millions sterling per annum, or about twenty millions of dollars.

The Canadian fisheries are yet in their infancy. It is only within the past half-dozen years that any attention has been given to this important subject by the government. In a recent Report of the Commissioner of Crown Lands, under whose supervision the fisheries are now placed, the following encouraging statement is made:—The aggregate production of this source of wealth during the past year (1860) adds another to the many existing proofs that, however severe may be exceptional and merely local failures, and however fluctuating individual success, the inexhaustible fisheries of Canada yield every returning season an increasing amount of wealth to reward the industry and enterprise engaged in them.

Table showing the value of the produce of Canadian fisheries from 1857 to 1861, inclusive:—

1857.....	540,113 dollars.
1858.....	718,296 "
1859.....	817,423 "
1860.....	832,646 "
1861.....	663,700 "

The protection afforded is utterly insufficient to secure the Canadian fisheries against unlawful usurpation. Complaints without number are made on the coast of the audacity and insolence of many American fishermen. It is quite reasonable to suppose that when so many thousand men visit our waters, hundreds among them will be inclined to take advantage of their numbers, and, in the absence of any controlling power, encroach beyond the bounds assigned to them by treaty. But their usurpations do not stop here. Too many instances have recently occurred of injuries and cruelties committed by them, which are permitted to pass unredressed, because no means of bringing the offenders to justice are within reach of the unfortunate and oppressed Canadian fishermen.

An attempt is now being made to establish oyster-beds in different parts of the gulf. As far as the experiment has been tried, it has proved successful. The consumption of oysters in America is immense. The annual value of the oyster trade of Virginia alone, before the outbreak of the civil war, was \$20,000,000, and the oyster trade of Baltimore exceeds the whole wheat trade of Maryland. The total value of the oyster and shell-fish fisheries of the United States is returned at \$25,000,000 per annum, or more than all the other fisheries put together. The extraordinary rapidity with which the oyster trade may become developed, may be inferred from the report by M. Coste, to the Emperor of the French, on 'the Organisation of the Fisheries,' wherein it is stated that the production of oysters recommended by M. Coste has taken such a prodigious development, that in the Isle de Ré alone, more than 3,000 men who had come from the interior have already established 1,500

parks, which produce annually about 387,000,000 oysters of the value of 6,000,000 to 8,000,000 francs.

There can be no doubt that of late years the government of Canada has exerted itself to improve the fisheries belonging to the Province, but not in a degree commensurate with their importance. The great fishing interests have been grievously sacrificed to others of less moment, and far more able to expand and grow indefinitely without legislative assistance. The Reciprocity Treaty shows how completely the British American fisheries have been placed at the mercy of the energetic and industrious New Englanders. The fact cannot be concealed, however, that the French Canadians—who ought, from the remarkable facilities they possess, to hold the Gulf fisheries (in common with their fellow-colonists of Newfoundland, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia) almost exclusively in their grasp—are elbowed here and there by their more active Yankee competitors, and see the rich treasures of their seas snatched from the threshold of their homes, with scarcely an effort to seize a tithe of the prize which might be their own.

The bounties paid by the Canadian Government for the development and encouragement of fisheries, are as follows:

1. Three dollars per ton for three months' consecutive fishing.
2. Three dollars and a half per ton for three months and a half consecutive fishing.
3. Four dollars a ton for four months' consecutive fishing.

Vessels from 20 to 40 tons to carry 8 men; from 40 to 60 tons to carry 10 men; and vessels from 60 to 80 tons to carry 12 men. The crew are to be three-fourths of Canadian origin, and one-third of the bounty is to be distributed between the crew in equal proportions, and the remaining two-thirds to the owner; or the bounty may be distributed as agreed upon by the parties engaged in the venture.

Enough has been said to show that the fisheries of the Gulf of St. Lawrence and of Labrador are of immense political and commercial importance. It will be readily seen that great advantage would accrue to this most valuable interest if—

- 1st. Permanent settlements were fostered on the north shore of the Gulf and the Island of Anticosti.
- 2nd. Schools established, where the elements of navigation could be taught to the children of fishermen.
- 3rd. A rapid communication with salmon rivers and coast stations kept up throughout the fishing season.
- 4th. Two armed steamers maintained for the protection of the fisheries from the encroachments of foreigners.
- 5th. United action on the part of Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland, in preserving, protecting, and developing the fisheries of the Gulf of St. Lawrence.
- 6th. A strict enforcement of the fishery laws.—*British American.*

USEFUL AND FINE ARTS.

— It appears by the last report of the Superintendent of Fine Arts in France that the collections of the Louvre, Luxembourg and Versailles comprised 10,000 paintings in 1850, and that over eighty pieces, representing the different schools, have been acquired since. Among the works thus added are, the *Conception* by Murillo, bought for 613,300 fr. at Marshall Soult's sale, in 1852; five pictures by Murillo, Zonbaran, and Herrera, which cost 300,000 fr.; a *Holy Family* by Perugino, bought for 53,382 fr. at the King of the Netherlands' sale, and a full length portrait of Phillip IV., by Velasquez, for which 23,600 fr. were paid. The cost of the other paintings varies from 3000 to 15,000 fr., the average being 5000 to 7000 fr. The immense value to which masterpieces of art attain with time may be seen from these figures. How many poets who died penniless, or, at least, in straitened circumstances, would have esteemed themselves rich had they but possessed a small share of the wealth reaped by their posthumous editors! How many poor painters would have been transformed into millionaires had they realized for even a few of their pictures during their life time the immense sums which posterity was to lavish upon them!

The collection of drawings in the museum of the Louvre comprises 36,000 subjects, of which 1150 were added since 1850, through numerous gifts, and purchases costing over 100,000 fr. A *Dead Christ* by Raphael was acquired for the sum of 15,000 fr. The drawings which the light threatened to destroy, including some of the most precious in the collection, have been withdrawn from exhibition and placed in cases that remain open only for two hours on a certain day in each week. Among the artists whose works are thus withdrawn from the light of day are Raphael, Leonardo da Vinci, Perugino, Michael Angelo, Titian, Albert Durer, Jules Romain and Claude Lorraine.

— It is well known that one of the most active causes of emigration from this country to the United States is the almost entire absence of manufactures among us. Every attempt to stimulate native industry, therefore, deserves to be encouraged, and it is with much pleasure that we are called upon to notice the exertions made in this direction by one of our fellow-citizens of French descent, Mr. Poitras, who has established, besides saw and grist mills, a cloth factory at St. Philippe, Chatham, county of Argenteuil. Mr. Poitras is an experienced manufacturer, having been employed a long time in an establishment of the same kind in Canada West. He had opened a factory at St. Scholastique which was destroyed by fire, but which he rebuilt and sold to a foreman in his employ before the mills now in his possession were

built. Cloth of Canadian manufacture is now abundant in our market and, for beauty and cheapness, will compete with goods of the same class imported from Europe and the United States. We believe that at a given price the quality will be found in its favor, especially as regards durability. For this reason, as well as for the sake of encouraging home manufactures, it should have the preference.

NECROLOGICAL INTELLIGENCE.

—John Sherren Bartlett, M.D., died last month, at his residence in New Jersey, in the 73rd year of his age. The funeral took place this morning at St. Paul's in this city, and the remains will be removed to Boston for interment. Dr. Bartlett was born in Dorsetshire, England, studied medicine in London, and received an appointment in the British navy in 1812. While on his way to the West Indies, he was taken prisoner, and held as such in Boston till 1813. After the war ended he married in Boston; and pursued the practice of his profession. In 1822 he removed to this city, and established the *Albion* newspaper, which he conducted for twenty-five years, and subsequently edited the *Anglo-Saxon*, in Boston. Dr. Bartlett was much respected, and was held in great regard not only by American citizens but by British residents. He was one time president of the St. George's Society, and in 1857 served as British Consul at Baltimore.—*N. Y. Evening Post*.

—“The *Persia* brings the intelligence of the death of one of England's most honoured soldiers, better known by his former name of Sir Colin Campbell. He was born in Glasgow, October 20, 1792. He entered the army in May, 1808, and was engaged in the descent upon Walcheren, at Barossa, Corunna, under Sir John Moore, and at the defence of Tarifa. He was severely wounded in the thigh at the passage of the Bidasoa, and was twice wounded in 1813, at the assault on St. Sebastian, at which place he displayed all the soldierly qualities which ever after distinguished his career. As Captain Campbell he was in active service in America in 1814-15, and in 1823, as brigade major of the troops, he was engaged in quelling the insurrection in Demerara.

From 1836 to 1840 he was governor of Nova Scotia, when he became governor of Ceylon. In 1842, having meanwhile become lieutenant-colonel, he was actively employed in China and towards the end of the year became a full colonel. His Indian career commenced about 1844, when he led the 39th at Maharajpore. Through the Punjab war (1848-9) he commanded the third division of the army under Lord Gough, and distinguished himself at Ramugger, at the passages of Chenab, and other hard fought battles. In 1849 he was created a K. C. B., and received the thanks of Parliament and of the East India Company for his services at Goojerat. Sir Colin returned to England in 1853, with his fame already established as a General of consummate ability. On the breaking out of the Crimean war he accepted the command of the Highland brigade. In 1854 he was promoted to the rank of Major-General, in consideration of his gallant services, and in the following year he was made a Knight Grand Cross of the Bath. In 1856 he attained the rank of Lieutenant-General. On the outbreak of the Indian mutiny, he was appointed to the chief command of the army in India. His exploits at Lucknow and other places are too well known to our readers to require repetition here. In 1858 he was created a peer by the title of Lord Clyde. He returned to England in 1859, where he received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament, and in 1860 was appointed to the Coloncy of the Coldstream Guards. For some months previous to his death his health was not good, and it was evident to his friends that he was destined soon to pass away. His death was hastened, it is thought, by the loss of his early friend, Lord Herbert, of Lea, whom he loved and mourned with deep affection.”

—General ‘Stonewall’ Jackson was a hero of no common order. He was not merely a military hero; he has left behind him the bright fame of one who possessed to an extraordinary degree that rare and noble quality—moral heroism. Had he been afflicted like Milton, he would have shown the same resignation under extreme personal suffering. Had his lot been cast with those who have spent their lives in the spread of Christianity among the heathen, he would have ranked side by side with Moffat and Williams. Had his duties of life consisted in alleviating the miseries of others, he would have stood on the same pedestal as Howard. If Science had claimed him exclusively as her own, his name would have been written on the same page as those of Davy, Arkwright, or Linnæus. In whatever sphere of life he might have been placed, he would have done his work well, and died at his post.

Thomas Jonathan Jackson, a Virginian by birth, was born in 1824. Leaving West Point, at the age of twenty-two he joined General Taylor in Mexico in 1846. After leaving Mexico, he resigned his commission, and was appointed Professor at the Virginia Military Institute where he remained until the Spring of 1861. On him was conferred the first military commission of the Southern Army of Virginia; and on the 3rd May, 1861, he proceeded with the rank of Colonel to Harper's Ferry. The origin of his soubriquet ‘Stonewall,’ is as follows: at the close of the battle of Manassas, the confederate troops were in a state of utter exhaustion. General Bee rode up and down the lines cheering on the men, and beseeching them by all they held dear not to give way, when he met Jackson and said “General they are beating us back.” Jackson replied, “Sir, we will give them the bayonet.” Bee gathered new life from Jackson's mien and courage, and galloping back to the remnant of his

command, he exclaimed, pointing to Jackson and his men, “There is Jackson standing like a stone-wall!”

Jackson's character is seen in his despatches: after the battle of Port Republic, he writes:—

New Port Republic, January 9th.
Via Staunton, January, 10th.

“Through God's blessing the enemy near Port Republic was this day routed, with the loss of six pieces of his artillery.

T. J. JACKSON,
Major General, Commanding.

Jackson was a man of very few words, of much earnestness and singleness of purpose. He possessed an extraordinary tenacity of will, and although always prepared for defeat, he never admitted that defeat was possible. He was a very close man, forming all his plans in secret, and never confiding them to any one. He constantly masked his design, and frequently appeared to be bent on doing what he intended should be the reverse of his actual operations. Personally he was awkward, and in his movements constrained and ungraceful. He was fond of soliloquy, and very absent minded.

Piety is represented to have been the absorbing and controlling sentiment of his life. He had the simplicity of a child, the gentleness and sweet smile of a woman, the nerve and will of a lion, and the gentle, unblinded, trusting heart of a Christian.

He always prayed on bended knee before going into battle, and whatever was best with him. His words, when he was told that he must soon die, “Very good, very good; it is all right!” showed where his faith and hope lay, and in whose strong arm he trusted, and on whose mercy he reposed.

The untimely fate of this truly heroic man, was most unfortunate, he was shot at Chancellorsville by his own men in mistake. He died shortly after the battle, amidst the heart burstings of those brothers in arms with whom he was fighting for his country's freedom and independence.—(*British American*.)

—The Nestor of the House of Lords, as he used to be called, is dead. The Right Hon. John Singleton Copley, F.R.S., D.C.L., was born in Boston, Massachusetts, May 21, 1772, dying at the advanced age of 91 years. He was a son of the artist Copley, went with his mother and sisters to England when he was three years old, and was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he took his B.A. degree in 1794 as Second Wrangler and Smith's junior Mathematical Prizeman. He was at first intended for “the Church,” but having been elected a Fellow of his College in 1797, he resolved to follow the law, and entered himself as a student at Lincoln's Inn. Having been also appointed “travelling bachelor” he visited the United States and Canada in the latter part of the last century. He returned to England in 1798, and was called to the bar in 1804. He laboured assiduously at the practice of his profession, and became the acknowledged leader of the Midland circuit. In 1817 he was brought permanently into notice by the part which he took in connexion with Sir Charles Wetherell, in the trial and successful defence of Watson and Thistlewood for high treason. So popular did his defence of these men become that the walls of London were extensively placarded with the words “Copley and Liberty.” His political opinions in earlier life were liberal, but he entered Parliament in 1818, under Tory auspices. The same year he became Solicitor General in the Liverpool Administration, and in 1824 was raised to the Attorney Generalship, which was rendered vacant by the elevation of Sir R. Gifford to the Mastership of the Rolls and a peerage. In 1820 he assisted in managing the trial of Queen Caroline by the House of Lords. In 1826 he was returned as a colleague of Lord Palmerston to represent the University of Cambridge, and a few months later was made Master of the Rolls. In 1827 he opposed the Catholic Emancipation, but accepted the Chancellorship soon afterwards on the retirement of Lord Eldon. On the 27th of April of this year he was created Baron Lyndhurst of Lyndhurst. He retained the Great Seal until November 1830, when he retired with the Ministry of the Duke of Wellington. In 1831, however, he was appointed by Earl Grey, despite his political opinions, Chief Baron of the Court of Exchequer, which he retained until the return of his party to power in November, 1834, when he was re-appointed to the Chancellorship by Sir Robert Peel. He again resigned the Great Seal in the April following; but was appointed a third time, in 1841, to the same high office, which he held until the advent of Lord John Russell to power in 1846, since which date he has been free from the cares of office.

Although at first opposing the Catholic emancipation bill, he found occasion to change his views on the subject, and in 1827 supported the measure. His official career was marked by but few very brilliant oratorical displays, but he introduced some useful measures of law reform. In 1831 Lord Lyndhurst was one of the strongest opponents of the Reform Bill in the House of Lords; and on May 7th, 1832 he carried in the committee on the bill, a postponement of the disfranchisement clauses, which the supporters of the measure regarded as the sign of a determination to reject that part of it. The Ministry of Lord Grey immediately resigned; but the House of Commons declared, by a large majority, its determination to stand by the bill, and the Ministry too, and dissatisfaction began to show itself in an alarming shape. In this crisis Lord Lyndhurst was intrusted by the King with the formation of a Tory Ministry, composed of persons who were not unwilling to con-

cede some portions of reform. He was forced, however, to abandon the task after a few days of unsuccessful effort. His Lordship was in the habit of reviewing the work of each session in masterly speeches, replete with the severest sarcasm. The attacks which he made on the Whig Government, in these speeches, are not yet forgotten. After his retirement from office in 1846 he acted the part of an exalted and impartial critic of the measures brought forward by Liberals and Conservatives alike, though he lent Lord Derby a stronger support than was deemed probable from his antecedents in office as the colleague of Canning and Sir Robert Peel. He was a warm advocate of the war with Russia, made a masterly exposition of the policy of Prussia in 1855, and denounced the peace concluded at Paris in 1856 as a virtual capitulation on the part of England. In his old age he continued one of the most attractive speakers of the House of Lords. When he spoke on an important question the House was crowded. Though not one of the first of English orators, his style of speaking was very captivating; his voice was one of the most clear and musical, while the clearness of his diction and the chaste elegance of his style were most remarkable. He frequently made allusions to classical literature; but they were always in good taste and applicable to the subject. He made a very forcible speech on the "Trent affair" and we are not aware that he spoke afterwards in the House of Lords.—*Leader*.

—One of the most noted members of the Church of England, who went over to the Roman Catholic Church, has paid the last debt of nature, at the Oratory, at Brompton, near London, England. Rev. Father Faber was one of the pioneers in the Tractarian movement; and a leading contributor to the "Tracts for the Times." His writings were condemned by the University of Oxford,—of one of the Colleges of which he was a Fellow, and those of our readers who remembered the proceedings which then took place in the Senate, will scarcely forget that when the vote *Placet* or *Non Placet*, was called from the members, the Rev. Mr. Oakley, another late convert, threw down his glove, and declared he had a right to hold all Roman doctrine, and still remain a priest of the Church of England. Mr. Faber is one of a remarkable trio, who has departed to his rest. Father Newman is the Superior of the Oratory, where his friend and more than brother, has passed away. Dr. Pusey still remains in the Anglican Church; but no one will regret the demise of Father Faber more. They were kindred spirits,—men removed from the common of mankind; who expected to achieve another great reformation in this century, but were foiled. A celebrated book, now out of print, but published some sixteen years ago, entitled "From Oxford to Rome," is said to give a full, true and correct account of the conversion of Mr. Faber, and his giving up wife and children, for his faith's sake. That he did so, there is no question. After he resigned his fellowship he married; and when he took orders in the Roman Catholic Church, his wife entered a nunnery as well. Father Faber was quiet, gentle, unassuming in his manners—a true servant of His Maker; and most devoted to the poor. "After life's fitful fever, he sleeps well," and there are few who belong to the religion he professed, who knew him even in Canada, that will not regret his loss.—*Montreal Transcript*.

—The death of one of the most prolific writers of fiction in the English language, Mrs. Trolove, is announced in the same paragraph which informs us of the death of Archbishop Whately. Mrs. Frances Trollope was seven years the senior of the Archbishop, having been born in 1780. She married Thomas Anthony Trollope, Barrister-at-Law, and for some time resided at Harrow; but in 1829 circumstances induced her to visit America. After three years residence in Cincinnati which was varied by occasional wanderings to other parts of the States, she returned to England, and produced her first work—"Domestic manners of the Americans," which created a sensation on both sides of the water. The Americans accused it of coarseness and untruthfulness, as they did the later work of her relative Anthony Trollope, who, two years ago, went over most of the ground travelled by his kinswoman at an early day. This work was so successful that the authoress embodied her views and impressions further on the same subject in a novel called "The Refugee in America." She then turned her attention to other subjects. In 1833 she published a tale in three volumes called "The Abbees," and one year later a second respect of travel, under the title of "Belgium and Western Travel"; in 1836 appeared "The adventures of Jonathan Jerker-on Whilaw," a novel representing the condition of the black and coloured races in the Southern States. During the same year she appeared again in "Paris and the Parisians in 1835." "The Vicar of Wrexhill," which succeeded this work, established the fact of her power as a novelist. Several works of travel and fiction succeeded this one up to 1839, when "The Widow Barnaby" appeared, which is a very amusing description of the career of a vulgar, scheming, husband-hunting widow; this was succeeded in 1840 by "The Widow Married," a continuation of the former work—three or four other books having intervened during the course of a year. Between this time and 1844 she published some five or six other works of travel and fiction. Since '44, she was given to the Press, "Petticoat Government," "Father Eastac," "Uncle Walter," and "The Clever Woman." Some years since she took up her permanent abode at Florence, where, we presume, she died. Her later works are considered inferior to those which came from her pen in her earlier days. Since 1836 she has disappeared

from the literary world, old age with its infirmities having crept in upon her.—*Leader*.

MISCELLANEOUS INTELLIGENCE.

—"In Australia the North is the hot wind, and the South the cold; the westerly wind the most unhealthy, and the east the most salubrious. It is summer with the colony when it is winter here, and the barometer is considered to rise before bad weather and to fall before good. The swans are black, and the eagles are white; the mole lays eggs, and has a duck's bill; the kangaroo (an animal between the deer and squirrel,) has five claws on his fore paws, three talons on his hind legs, like a bird, and yet hops on his tail. There is a bird (meliphaga) which has a broom in its mouth instead of its tongue. The cod is found in the rivers, and the perch in the sea; the valleys are cold and the mountain-tops warm. The nettle is a lofty tree, and the poplar a dwarfish shrub; the pears are of wood, with the stalks at the broad ends; the cherry grows with the stone outside. The fields are fenced with mahogany, the humblest house is fitted up with cedar, and myrtle plants are burned for fuel. The trees are without fruit, their flowers without scent, and the birds without song. Such is the land of Australia!"

—Alas for M. Nadar! Alas for the boast *sic itur ad astra*! Once more has the dauntless aeronaut tempted the fate of Icarus, and once more has he tumbled earthward; this time not without serious dislocations, almost warranting the assumption that he will be maimed for life. The "Géant" has ascended from the Champ de Mars, has drifted due north, has passed over the Belgian frontier at Bequelines—its conductors deriding the commands of the custom-house officers to descend and have their luggage examined—and has reached the Hanoverian territory; but in the chronicle of its successful progress ends. The big balloon became unmanageable, the anchors parted, the machine was dragged along the ground with frightful violence, and the aerial travellers were at last pitched out pell-mell. Mme. Nadar and M. Felix are, as well as the projector of the scheme, among the injured; and the whole party are said to have owed their lives to the courage and presence of mind of M. Jules Godard.

M. Nadar had better give up ballooning as a bad job. We have already aeronauts enough and to spare; but the Parisian public cannot afford to spare a very worthy, witty man, and a photographer who divides with Disdéri the palm of supremacy in vigorous and graceful portraiture. The "Pantheon Nadar" is a well-known work; surely M. Nadar is not ambitious to have a niche there in the character of Prometheus.

The unusual size and unwieldiness of the two-storied car seem to us to be literally at the bottom of the Géant's disasters. Mr. Coxwell, or any other really experienced aeronaut, will tell us that the conductor, to have his balloon fully under his command, should have it completely in view, and that, with the exception, perhaps, of a scientific associate or two, all amateur companionship is *de trop*. M. Nadar chose to be hampered by ladies and legs of mutton, camera-obscuras and printing-presses, and the result has been confusion, narrowly missing catastrophe. It is true that M. Nadar's object was to revolutionise the economy of aerostatics, and to convert a scientific toy into an engine of public utility; but he has failed twice; and surely his "two warnings" should be sufficient to make him dread the "third." The Eumenides are not to be trifled with.—*Ill. London News*.

—The Rev. Dr. Edward Hincks, Rector of Killyleagh, Ireland, son of the late Rev. Dr. Hincks, and brother of the Hon. Francis Hincks has had the honour of being appointed by the King of Prussia, one of the Chevaliers of the Order of Merit in Science and Arts. The order consists of 30 Germans and 30 foreigners, selected for their superior acquisitions. Dr. Hincks has long been known as a profound Oriental scholar.—*U. C. Journal of Education*.

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