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PENNSYLVANIA INSTITUTION FOR THE BLIND—PHILADELPHIA.

This Institution was incorporated by an Act of the Legislature of Pennsylvania in the year 1833. During the same year, and a few months preceding in time, the New England and New York Institutions were founded. These were the first of the kind in America.

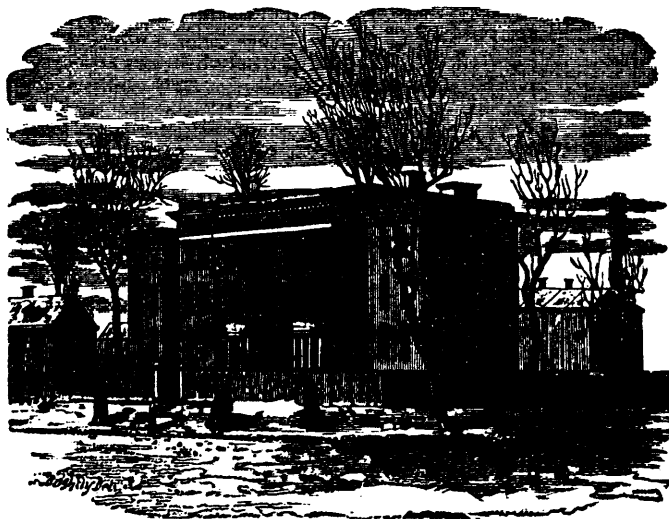
The progress of the Institution at Philadelphia has been rapid and encouraging. It now contains one hundred and thirty-three pupils, and other blind persons employed as teachers, or in the mechanic departments.

It is supported chiefly by the State of Pennsylvania; but the States of New Jersey, Delaware and Maryland also contribute for the education of their indigent blind in this Institution. Each State pays two hundred dollars annually for every pupil, for a period not exceeding eight years. Pennsylvania appropriates annually eighteen thousand dollars. The

Institution has an additional income of its own, of about seven thousand dollars annually, arising from a bequest of one of its former Vice-Presidents—the late William Y. Birch, Esq.,—an English gentleman, who left nearly all of his ample fortune to this noble charity.

The provision, therefore, is ample for the education of every indigent blind person in the Commonwealth. No applicant of proper eligibility has ever been denied.

The system of instruction



PENNSYLVANIA INSTITUTION FOR THE BLIND, PHILADELPHIA.

The library of the blind (printed in relief, to be read by the touch of the finger,) is very limited—embracing the entire Scriptures, and, perhaps, some forty or fifty other works. By means, however, of the oral plan of instruction, aided by tangible apparatus, no real difficulty is experienced in imparting a good degree of instruction—and, in many cases, the blind scholars make a remarkable proficiency.

embraces what may be called the literary or school branches, music and handicraft. In the school all subjects are taught which are usually pursued in our grammar and high schools—as, for example, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, grammar, Constitution of the United States, history, moral and natural philosophy, physiology, astronomy, rhetoric, algebra, geometry, &c.; biography, criticism, general literature, &c., not in the raised print, are read to the blind pupils daily.

Music forms an important and interesting branch of instruction for the blind, and great attention is paid to it in the Pennsylvania Institution. The orchestra is composed of thirty-four performers—all pupils—on the following instruments, viz: twelve violins, two violas, two violincellos, two contra basses, three flutes, two clarionets, two horns, three trumpets, one bass trombone, one orphicleide, one great drum,

one military drum, one set of cymbals and one triangle. The orchestra perform many celebrated overtures and other compositions of the great masters; among them are the overtures of *Midsummer's Night Dream*, by *Mendelssohn*; *William Tell*, by *Rossini*; *La Serment*, by *Auber*; &c.

The institution possesses a large church organ, with twenty-six stops, on which the pupils are daily instructed; and those having the requisite talent are prepared to become organists in churches, some are now actually so engaged, and others are being fitted for it. Some of the pupils are also engaged as leaders of church choirs, and teachers on the piano forte. There are twelve pianos in the institution, which are in constant use. Music is therefore taught as a profession, as well as a source of enjoyment. Shut out from the beautiful in nature, the blind receive from the harmony of sweet sounds.

Nearly all the pupils are engaged in acquiring some useful handicraft. The males are employed on brush-making, (which is the principal branch) broom making, weaving rug carpet and door mats. The last annual report to January 1856, shows that the male pupils and employed workmen, made, during the past year, thirty-three thousand, eight hundred and thirteen brushes, two thousand and twenty-one corn brooms, two hundred and forty-two whisks, two hundred and twenty-two door mats, one thousand eight hundred and forty-two yards carpet, and twenty mattresses; valued at \$8,744.78.

The female pupils made four thousand four hundred and seventy-five articles of bead work, two hundred and twenty-seven tidies and other articles, valued at \$1,224. Total \$9,968.00. The sales for the year amounted to \$10,243.76.

When pupils have remained their full term of eight years and have no home to return to, or fail to succeed elsewhere, they are received into another department of the institution, called, *The Home for the industrious blind*. They are employed, at regular wages, charged a very moderate price for board, barely covering the price of provisions, and are paid the balance monthly in cash. Some eighteen are now so employed. Many leave and support themselves on the professions and trades they have acquired.

The buildings of the institution are substantially built of brick, roughcast, large and conveniently adapted to their several purposes. The main edifice, with the two wings, has a front of one hundred and fifty feet, and a depth of about sixty feet, the centre building is four stories in height. These are divided into school and music rooms, dormitories, laundry, dining room, kitchens, &c., affording accommodation for one hundred and thirty pupils with their teachers and officers. The workshops are in a separate building, one hundred and seventy feet long and two stories high. Another building contains the infirmary, wash and bathing rooms. The second story of the main building, contains a fine music hall, eighty by forty feet in size, in which a musical exhibition by the pupils, with other exercises, is given every Wednesday afternoon, the public visiting day for citizens, and which is always crowded.

Blind persons from other states and countries are received on the same terms as those from Pennsylvania, viz., \$200 a year, which covers all expenses.—*Com.*

TEACHING COMMON THINGS.

In the Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools of the State of Connecticut, we find the following extract from the Report of the School committee of New London.

"In regard to the general course of instruction as pursued here and in the schools of the country generally, the committee believe that the attention bestowed, so almost exclusively, on arithmetic and other branches of mathematics, tends to the development of a power of the mind inferior to the reasoning powers; that mere calculation has been too much encouraged, and that observation of practical facts, the deduction of inferences, the relation of cause and effect, and, in short, the *power of reasoning*, have been too much neglected. With this view, the committee recommended to the principal, that in the course of instruction to be pursued, more attention should be paid to the cultivation of independent thought, than has heretofore been bestowed upon it.

This remark will apply equally well to schools of every grade. Young children are more easily taught through their powers of observation than by any other means. The abstract knowledge of facts in geography, or of principles in arithmetic, is difficult to be acquired by them, and is generally only an effort of mere memory. It is consequently acquired without interest, and by dint of a force put upon the attention, which is greater than should be expected from such young and tender minds; while, on the other hand, those same minds are interested, aroused, and taught to reason and to think, without effort and almost without knowing it, by illustration from common life. Thus, a simple story may be made the means of awakening interest, drawing out questions, illustrating principles, and conferring more

educational benefit, than weeks of poring over dry rules, or abstract statements of fact. Children, as a general rule, should not be forced to learn what cannot be explained to their comprehension. Learning a fact or a principle merely by rote, adds nothing to practical, useful knowledge."

We cannot help thinking that this extract points to a very serious defect in much of the teaching in our schools. It is not that the teaching *per se* is not good, but pains enough is not taken to adapt it closely to the wants, and connect it immediately with the experience of the child. The consequence is, that school and school learning stand in their minds as something apart from the rest of life, something which they take as a matter of course, with docility enough perhaps, but not seeing its real use and immediate application, not having it brought home to their own experience in any way, it awakens but a languid interest, makes but a faint impression, and is therefore soon effaced from their memory. The difference we speak of is not so much in the matter of the instruction, as in the manner. We will suppose two teachers, for instance, one with a dry and learned text-book on Mechanics, and a set of the most approved apparatus, elegant with mahogany, and glittering with brass and varnish, and another with no text-book at all, save the one at home in his own library, and for apparatus, we will say, the well-wheel and bucket in the yard, the fire-tongs by the stove, a rod and a few pound and ounce weights, a pair of scissors, and the school room door. Which of those teachers is likely to give his pupils of any grade below the High School, the clearer notions of the lever, and the wheel and axle? We say the former, if he has any teaching faculty; and if he has not he ought not to be in the school-room. For in the one case the subject becomes a reality to the child, and is connected with what he already knows by his own little experience; in the other, the only association is with the dry text-book, and the glass doors of the apparatus-case. One pupil will see levers wherever they are to be found; he will make plaything levers, and curiously compare the different kinds, and if he has a mechanical turn, everything out of doors will develop it; while it is a chance if the other does not lock up his mechanical knowledge with the apparatus, and forget all about it till he is bored with the next lessons. Or suppose the subject to be chemistry. Many a pedant teacher will manage to give learned instruction on oxygen and hydrogen and carbon, and manipulate with vessels of uncouth form, and dazzle his pupils' eyes with sparks, and blow himself with explosions, and though it is good fun to the boys, (especially the blowing-up part,) yet they will not dream of connecting the subject with the bread they go home and eat for dinner, the china plate they eat from, the skins they pass hanging in the tan-yard, or the soap their clothes are washed with. The utmost stretch of practical application will be perhaps to extend the subject as far as the apothecary, because his glass phials do look like those the teacher uses, and perhaps he writes himself chemist on his sign. We suppose the unhesitating faith with which his drugs are swallowed sometimes arises from the association with this still "occult" science.

Hence comes a wide-spread prejudice in the minds of many uneducated, but often very intelligent people against what they call "school-learning." They cannot see the use of it. They think their children's brains are "muddled" by it, and that they are spoiled for active and useful life. Better not to know such things, they say—they only spoil you for being useful. And so they cut short their children's education with the bare rudiments of reading, writing, and ciphering, put them early to a trade, which can never be to them, so ill prepared, any thing but mechanical drudgery for want of the very knowledge they thus, not without reason, are so prejudiced against.

We think there is no ground for this prejudice. So many teachers cram all sorts of learning only that they in turn may cram their pupils with it, so many make a dull, lifeless routine out of the most pleasing and interesting of subjects, so many are led away by the foolish desire of seeming learned, and of attaining some higher, and in their view more dignified position, that we are afraid there is a sad amount of this routine and *ex officio* teaching. We are greatly wanting in simplicity and homely thoroughness. Instead of being content with being more learned than we seem, we are too prone to desire to seem more learned than we are. The teacher who knows enough to become, with care and patience, a good primary instructor, is straining every nerve to get a grammar school, while the grammar teacher, instead of laboring zealously to perfect himself in his most important sphere, is striving to rise to the dignity of the High School. For our part we believe that the last name is the easiest kind of teaching, and that the difficulty, delicacy, and real importance increases as we descend the scale.

There is, on the other hand, a very foolish prejudice in the minds of many half-thinkers, against anything bearing the name of "practical." It immediately conjures up the image of Materialism, and the cry is raised, that schools are being unspiritualized. As though there were any necessary contradiction between the practical and the spiritual! As though learning were vulgarized by being made useful! Is not this the old monkish ascetic doctrine which we all in words repudiate?

What way so sure of elevating and spiritualizing the homely details of life, as that of teaching their scientific meaning, and showing thereby the literal truth of the word. Not a sparrow falleth to the ground without our Father,—that not the meanest event befalls in this great universe, but in obedience to those great laws that keep the stars in their courses? Is a piece of knowledge any less worthy to be known because it can be turned to useful purpose?—does that render it any less dignified? Lord Bacon did not think it so. Or is it inevitable that the knowledge of practically useful truth will be turned to some selfish and mercenary account? The history of all great discoverers and inventors contradicts it. Of this we are sure, that no firm foundation in the minds of youth for scientific knowledge, can be laid in abstractions, and that unless school knowledge is closely united with the child's own experience of life, it will be vain to hope for healthy progress, or look for maturity of fruit.

We have been led to these thoughts by observing a movement now going on in England in this direction. We believe it originated with the Rev. Richard Dawes, Dean of Hereford, an enlightened friend of popular education, who successfully attempted the introduction of practical elementary instruction in the science involved in common things in the schools of his neighbourhood. In 1847, Mr. Dawes published a little volume, full of good sense, called "Suggestive Hints towards improved Secular Instruction, making it bear upon Practical Life." The edition before us is the sixth. We have also a lecture on the same subject delivered by him at St. Martin's Hall in connection with the Educational Exhibition of the Society of Arts. Subsequently the subject attracted the attention of Lord Ashburton, (well known in this country as the negotiator of the North eastern Boundary Treaty,) who offered a series of prizes for the teaching of "common things" to the teachers of the district in which he resides. We have before us a small pamphlet, containing the proceedings of a meeting between Lord A. and the elementary schoolmasters, assembled at Winchester, and we extract the following passages from his very excellent speech on the occasion:—

"I do not require you to remit in the slightest degree your attention to the mechanical arts of writing and reading, or the practice of arithmetic; but I do ask you to turn your attention and the attention of your scholars to the acquirements, at the same time, of other principles of knowledge which will continue fruitful of improvement, as reading and writing are fruitful of improvement, in after life.

"I ask you to show, not only by your lessons in school, but still more powerfully by your example out of school, how the garden can best be cultivated; how the dwelling may be most efficiently and economically warmed and ventilated; upon what principles food and clothing should be selected; how chronic ailments may be averted by timely attention to premonitory symptoms, and recourse to the physician. You can teach the measurement of work, the use of the lever, the pulley, and the windlass; you can, in short, expound those methods suggested by ever-advancing science, by which toil may be lightened, and subsistence economized. All this is capable of being taught, and well taught.

"Why is one mother of a family a better economist than another? Why can one live in abundance, where another starves? Why, in similar dwellings, are the children of one parent healthy, of the other puny and ailing? Why can this laborer do with ease a task which would kill his fellow? It is not luck nor chance that decides these differences; it is the patient observation of nature that has suggested to some gifted minds rules for their guidance which have escaped the heedlessness of others.

"Why should not these rules, systematized by science, illustrated by your didactic powers,—why should not they be imparted to the pupils of your schools, to enable youth to start at once with the experience of age; or, if this be not in every case possible, why should not all be taught betimes to read those lessons in the book of nature from which some have derived such unquestionable advantage?"

After referring to the strikes among factory operatives, just then occurring, and the ignorance they showed of the simplest principles of political economy, Lord Ashburton proceeds to say:—

"After these remarks, it is but just that I should be called upon to explain distinctly what it is that I propose that you should teach, how the topics are to be selected, how connected, in what manner brought forward. Allow me to begin by reminding you that yours is not the only education given in life. There is yet another, beginning earlier, continuing later, producing greater results; and that is the education of Home. It is there that the child, by the side of parents, or of its neighbor, is familiarized, partly by inclination, partly by precept, with the rudiments of its future occupation. It is there that the girl is trained to love a mother's cares and duties; it is there that the boy learns to demean himself as a member of society, as a father of a family.

"Let any man pass over in his own mind the business of a given day; he will there see how much the larger, the more important part of that business he has learned at home. Let me give you an instance. The Chelsea school for the education of the female orphan children of

soldiers was given up, because it was found that the girls there educated became an easy prey to the temptations of the world. This was not because they were less religiously, less morally brought up than other girls, but because, being withdrawn as infants from a home education, they lacked that knowledge of the world which home alone can give; because the only experience they had gained at school was how to deal with their girl companions. They had no experience to guide them when brought into contact with other companions and other trials. Such children must have been equally incapable of performing the duties of good housewives, good mothers;—in short, they had received a mere school education, which, at the best, under the most careful, the most accomplished teaching, left them ignorant of the great indispensable duties of life. And be it remembered that when, with reference to orphan children, I speak of the advantage of home, I speak of a home under perhaps a harsh relation, or under a stranger more harsh, more unfeeling still. But even in that home, under that severe training, experienced from the tenderest years, nature provides compensations for the lack of a mother's care, which no school can give; for, thrown on her own resources from earliest infancy, in the midst of that world in which she was destined to live, the child grows in experience as danger springs up in her path. Her quickened perceptions, her rapidly matured character, become her safeguard.

"Now, with this education at home, it is not for us to compete, for it is the education of nature. It is acquired not through the medium of words only, but through the medium of the senses also, which senses God has given us to employ for that purpose, graciously allotting to each exertion of their powers its appropriate pleasure to sweeten and stimulate their use. Your education on the other hand, is an artificial education, imparted chiefly through the medium of words, appealing mostly to the reason instead of the senses, divested, I regret to say, too often through the fault of the teacher, of the pleasurable excitement which God intended to accompany the acquisition of each new idea.

"Your mission is to assist and complete the home education. Your care should be so to work as to stimulate rather than impair the instinctive craving for knowledge; the vigor of the attention, the retentiveness of the memory, the practical character of the understanding. You will do this best if you take the successive facts in the child's life; facts with which he is familiar; and upon his knowledge of those facts you engraft first the principle or theory which explains them, and then all the kindred facts,—deductions from the same principle,—which may be useful in after life. For example: the child sees the fire kindled by his mother at the bottom of the grate, and asks why. She cannot tell it why, but you can; you can do more,—you can not only explain why fire spreads upwards rather than downwards, but having done so, you light, by way of further illustration of the principle, a strip of paper; you hold it with the flame downwards, and show how instantaneously the whole is consumed. You light another and throw it on its side; it scarcely burns. You then proceed, upon these facts witnessed and understood, to build up other kindred facts, hitherto unobserved, but good for use and improving to the intelligence. You show how, if a girl's frock catches fire, she should at once, in obedience to this same principle, be like the paper shred, laid flat; and then you might further show how, in conformity with a second principle, illustrated by the way in which a candle is put out by an extinguisher, the air might be excluded from the burning frock, by throwing a cloak or mat over it, and the flame extinguished. Take another case. As the flame of the candle uses up the air confined under the extinguisher, and went out for want of more, so we also, sitting in large numbers in a small room, use up rapidly the vital part of the air, and sicken for want of more, and would absolutely die, were the doors and windows altogether air-tight.

"Again: water is brought in for breakfast. The child has pumped it. He has seen the pump repaired, and witnessed how his father strained to pull up the very same sucker by hand, which, with the help of the pump-handle, he has been working up and down with ease. This is one familiar fact whereon to rest the knowledge of the lever. The use of the spade presents another, when it enables the child to tear up a block of clay from its adherence to the soil beneath, which block he would vainly attempt to lift afterwards one inch with his hands. The water is put into the kettle, of which the bottom is purposely left uncleaned, on the plea that the water will on that account boil the more quickly. You confirm the fact; you explain why this is the case, and you show that two principles are involved; one principle teaches, also, that paint exposed to the sun should be of a light color, in order to stand without blistering; the other principle leads to the further result, that a bright metal teapot will retain its heat longer, and therefore make better tea, than one of crockery, black and unglazed.

"Again: the water boils in the kettle by the same law which diffuses the warmth of the fire in the room, and creates the draught in the chimney. By this law the cause of smoky and ill-ventilated rooms may be explained, and the proper remedies suggested." * * * * *

"Social questions are more difficult, not because it is less easy to explain them, but because the minds of children are less interested by their discussion. The child understands when and why nuts are

cheap. It would be no difficult task to extend the results of superfluity on price to the effect of over population in the New Forest, where numbers, exceeding the demand for their labor, have been attracted by the prospects of enjoying for their pigs, and geese, and ponies, unstinted rights of common. Again, the child knows by hard experience that the family must go on half rations when bread fails short on Friday night, and the shop gives no more credit. But ask it what England must do when there is but half a crop. Ask it who will do for England what their mother did for them, when she prevented them from consuming all they had at one meal. You may perhaps lead them, step by step, to see at last that the rise of price is our only safeguard against famine, and that this rise of price is not the work of any one man, or any set of men, but that it originates in the expectation of those who hold corn that they will sell dearer if they sell later. You may perhaps succeed in showing, further, that God has not left the many to be preyed upon by the avarice of the few; that, on the contrary, he has ordered things in this case, and indeed in all other cases, so to make it the interest of the few to consult the interest of the many, and to visit with actual loss those of the few who, out of ignorance, act in opposition to the interests of the many. If, for example, Farmer Styles holds back his supplies in spring, and, by refusing to sell at the price then offered, raises prices to such an extent as to prevent the spring from having its full share of the year's supply, the part of that share which has been unconsumed will be added to the share of the summer, and prices will then fall, when Farmer Styles expects to sell at an enhanced price.

"You may thus go on founding the unknown upon that which is known and familiar, gratifying and exciting, but never satiating the natural appetite for knowledge, inculcating what once, heard and understood, will never be forgotten, at the same time that you cultivate those faculties which distinguish the man from the brute; and you impart an elevation, a self-reliance to his character, which will tend more than anything to raise him above sensual pleasure. By such training as this you will give him more than mere information,—you will give him habits of observing, reflecting, and acting for himself.

"If I want to equip an emigrant for the backwoods, should I encumber him with ready-made articles,—with chairs, and tables, and stools? Do I not rather teach him how to make these articles for himself out of the materials beside him? You are fitting out the youth for the rude campaign of life. How shall he be equipped? Shall it be with cut-and-dried ideas, the fruit of the working and other men's minds,—or shall he go forth trained to gather, combine, and use ideas, the materials for which encompass him round about? You teach him to read, in order that he may in after life use the thoughts of the wise among men; teach him also to read nature, which is wiser and more powerful still. Books he may or may not have in his emergencies; nature is always with him. That is not the best army which has the most baggage. What the packs of hounds, and the bands of music, and the services of plate were to our Army in Afghanistan, the million facts of modern education are to the boy on his entrance in life; the first serious conflict, the first encounter with realities, dissolves the charm, and the hard-earned inutilities are discarded as superfluous lumber; and yet

'The world is still deceived by ornament.'

"By adopting my suggestions you will not satisfy the majority of those who attend annual inspections. Their admiration is reserved for the brilliant results which are to be exhibited by drawing from the minds of children thoughts transplanted there without roots, the produce of wiser minds. Your pupils will be of altogether a different stamp; they will know comparatively little, but the notions they have will be of home growth, of slender immediate apparent value, proportioned as they must be to the infant minds in which they have sprung, but capable of subsequent development, to meet the emergency which may require their use.

"The man of sense will distinguish at a glance their earnest, intelligent eye, their alert manner, their pertinent answers. He will give due credit to your work and to your system; but you must resign yourselves for a time to the fate of being decried and slighted by the majority, who are too apt to value things as they are, not as they are destined to be, and, above all, to underrate the sure and slow growth which is generally the characteristic of the highest merit. Our busy, thoughtless world is too disposed to despise little gains, and yet little gains store most wealth; little moral gains, triumphs over petty temptations, make the firmest characters. So also little intellectual gains, made hour by hour, and minute by minute, at every step in life, the result of early habit and wise education, do more to ripen the intellect, and even to mature the character, than any instruction that can be hammered in from without.

"It is given to you, teachers of the rising generation, to bend their minds in this direction. The misery which can be remedied by the charity of rich men is purely physical, the relief can extend only to few; it neither elevates those who receive it, nor their children after them. But the misery which the teacher can avert, by substituting

self-support and self-respect for dependence and beggary, has no limits to its amount; it multiplies blessings both on the present and on succeeding generations."

We think this is a very admirable statement of the true aims and objects of common school education, and that we pedagogues, cut off as we are in a measure from our fair share of the active life round about us, and too much shut up with children and books, are far too apt to grow pedantic, and to substitute a bookish and artificial aim for that true one of equipping our charge for a noble and manly contest with the labors of life. We are not wholly to blame. The parents who will not be satisfied with slow growth to a natural maturity, but must have well-crammed exhibitions and foolish shows of book-learning, are partly responsible. We wish they knew how cheap and easy to get up they are.

What Lord Ashburton has tried to do in England for the boys, the wealthy and benevolent Miss Burdett Coutts has done for the girls, by offering prizes at the Whitelands National Society's Training School, for the best knowledge of the science of such common things as are of most use to women in after life, not excluding that, to many shallow persons, most vulgar of all arts, Cookery. But what is Cookery, if not the application of chemistry to the preparation of food? And does it degrade chemistry to be so employed,—or need it be looked upon as any less a beautiful science for this, one of its useful applications? Why may not the result as well be to elevate the art, as to degrade the science? And is it a small advantage, that a needful manual employment, in which so many women must be every day of their lives engaged, should have associations that will raise it above becoming a low drudgery, and make it a rational employment for the mind? We verily believe that the proper teaching of this homely art to the girls of one New England generation would lengthen the lives of the next.

The following sensible observations of the London Times apply to this country quite as well as to Old England:—

"It should never be forgotten that household service is the only school that many women ever pass through, and to many a woman it is a pernicious school. If she has never learned to save in the midst of plenty, she cannot begin to save under the pressure of small means. As she has never had reason for turning small things to account,—to make the most of odds and ends,—she is often reduced, and reduces her husband, to a recurring vicissitude of one day's feasting and three or four days' fasting, with an intermediate day of scraps. And she is utterly ignorant of the thousand ways of dressing vegetables with a little meat or fish, so as to make the absence of a more substantial dish unregretted. And this happens in a million homes in a country which has, on the whole, the finest fish, the richest and most succulent meats, and produces or imports poultry, eggs and butter to an extent which precludes their excessive dearness at any season. And while this happens with us, the French peasant, with far lower wages, with fewer materials of food, is making savory dishes and healthy condiments out of the simplest produce of the field and the moor. Who can wonder, then, that while an English army is half starved, despite of numerous appliances and supplies, a French army feeds itself out of the rudest of Nature's gifts? Miss Burdett Coutts and Lord Ashburton, who took the lead which she has so well followed, will have earned the gratitude of the country, if they have done nothing more than set people thinking about the amelioration of their cookery, and lead high teachers to consider that the art of feeding is really a science which affects the well-being of some twenty million citizens in England, and may often affect the existence of some quarter of a million soldiers abroad: and our social reformers will do well by following her example, and teaching the people of England that which to the majority of them is still a great secret,—what food to buy, and how to cook it."

We might go on to ask what mother is really competent for the care of children, what nurse for the care of the sick, without a practical knowledge of the laws of health; what wife can undertake successfully the management of a household, if she is utterly ignorant of prices, commodities, and accounts,—but the applications are innumerable, and very obvious.

We hope we shall not be misunderstood as advising that superficial empirical teaching of the mere results of science, which will stand in the minds of some of our readers as a definition of a knowledge of common things. We believe that a successful teaching of the simplest practical fact can only be based upon a thorough knowledge of the scientific principle it involves. "Among all practical things," says a sensible writer, "nothing is so practical as a true theory, and among all unpractical things, nothing is so unpractical as practice without theory." We do not mean to lower our demands upon the teacher's knowledge, but rather raise them, inasmuch as we believe that this kind of teaching can only be successful in the hands of those who are thoroughly masters of the subject. It is a sad error to suppose that he or she who has to teach only a little, need only know a little. And we believe that of all school teaching, elementary teaching is the most difficult, and oftenest fails of success. What we want to see, is a change in the mode of teaching, by basing the sciences upon those practical realities

that are already familiar to the pupils' mind, instead of hanging them high in the air, out of the reach of all their sympathies. We do not believe in any antagonism between theory and practice, and have not the least fear of making science "vulgar" by making it useful.—*Massachusetts Teacher.* W. P. A.

State of Education in Various Countries.

I. THE INSTITUTIONS FOR PUBLIC EDUCATION IN GENOA AND TURIN, PIEDMONT.

BY THE REV. DR PULLICINO.

To the Editor.

Sir,—I hope that a few notices about the Institutions for Public Education which I visited last summer will not be unwelcome to you. I shall speak first of Genoa and Turin, in which cities there is at present much to observe. The political reforms of the year 1848 gave a great impulse to public instruction, especially elementary. The Institutions most worthy of notice are the Training Schools, the Technical Schools, and Colleges.

The Female Training School of Genoa contains at the present time about twenty young women, who, during four hours daily receive from different masters instruction in grammar, geography, natural history, Scripture history, arithmetic, penmanship, linear drawing, vocal music, and method. The scholastic exercises are conducted with much propriety and order. The method adopted in the teaching is the simultaneous. The School is superintended by a governess, who, in the intervals of repose from study, further exercises the young women in female occupations.

This school was founded towards the year 1848. Its utility is great, seeing how great is the necessity of preparing mistresses for conducting the elementary girls' schools, of which there are still but few in the district of Genoa. As compared with those for boys, they are not more than one fifth of the number.

This Training school is directed by Professor Vincenzo Troya, a gentleman who has published some meritorious works on education. Conspicuous endowments, both intellectual and moral, render him highly qualified for the honorable office which he holds.

There is a similar Training School at Turin for the education of mistresses for the elementary schools of that district. It has been founded but a very few years. It is divided into three large classes, each presided over by a mistress. This division corresponds to a three years' course of study, which the pupils have to go through in order to become qualified as mistresses. The three classes are attended by 150 young women, who daily receive instruction from different masters in a variety of subjects. Much care is taken to exercise them well in Italian grammar and composition. Nor is the care taken in vain. Many of the students of the upper class write with so much facility and grace that nothing further could be desired.

The education of elementary schoolmasters is provided for in a different manner. A chair for Pedagogy has been created in the University of Turin. Some young men, by following the lectures given there, learn the principles of method, of which they afterwards see the application in the boys' schools. The young men generally leave this University school qualified as masters of method. Distributing themselves over the different provinces of the kingdom, they communicate at certain periods of the year the same instruction to others who wish to qualify themselves as elementary schoolmasters. In this manner, the normal instruction is not only propagated through distant regions, but is elevated to the rank of other studies which have the University for their chief seat.

The lectures on method in the University of Turin are given by Professor Rayneri, a clergyman of great zeal for the progress of public education. Among some excellent works published by him, may be particularized one which contains the principles of the science which he professes, entitled *First Principles of method.*

Although the elementary schools at Turin and Genoa are already numerous, they are not so numerous as the population requires. Otherwise they are excellent, and, in the arrangement of the instruction, and in the methods adopted, they are modelled upon the best schools of Germany. They are each divided into four classes, corresponding to four successive courses of study to be completed in four years. At the close of each year the scholars pass by examination from one class to another. The instruction embraces reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, and the elements of geometry, geography, and history. Vocal music and linear drawing are not neglected. Great importance is attached to exercising the boys and girls in speaking and writing their native language correctly. Occasionally classes are met in which the number of pupils is too great: it not unfrequently rises to 90; nevertheless these classes are generally conducted by able masters. The method of teaching adopted in these schools is the simultaneous.

Several of the elementary schools of Turin are conducted by brothers of the Christian Schools (*Frères chrétiens*). These are particularly excellent, and in them the best arrangements of the others may be observed. Various books published for the use of the other schools are employed. The boys remain six hours a day, four in the morning, and two in the afternoon. The number of children who are at present being educated at Turin in the schools of this religious order amounts to about 2,000.

Besides the elementary schools, there are at Turin several Infant Asylums, in which the boys and girls are educated promiscuously. Some of these asylums are under the direction of the sisters of Charity. They are maintained partly out of public funds, and partly by private beneficence. These asylums do not appear so flourishing as were a few years ago those of Tuscany; which further afford me occasion to mention to you a notable person whom the City of Turin at present contains.

This person is the Abate Ferrente Aporti, who introduced the Infant Asylums into Italy. He is advanced in age, venerable in aspect, and infinitely amiable in manner. Some years ago he rendered valuable assistance in the re-organization of the elementary schools of Piedmont, by giving a powerful impetus to the study of method. He now occupies an eminent position in connection with Public Education, being Rector of the renowned University of Turin.

The Technical Schools, of which there is one at Genoa and another at Turin, may be considered as belonging in some measure to the elementary schools. They are schools designed to complete the scientific education of artists and artisans. They are partly modelled on the plan of the Conservatory of Arts and Trades of Paris. Although their utility is already evident, yet in the course of time it will not fail to make itself much more manifest.

The Technical schools of Genoa are united in one single institution, which was founded in the year 1847 by the Chamber of Commerce of that city. The principal schools are at present, one for navigation and naval architecture, a second for chemistry applied to the arts, a third for industrial mechanics, and a fourth for drawing applied to the arts. The schools are furnished with a good supply of instruments and means of study, which are provided by the liberality of the Chamber of Commerce. The object is to ameliorate the condition of the artisans, who have so great an influence on the state of the commerce of the country. These schools are all commendable for the manner in which they are organized, and the propriety with which they are conducted. The Technical schools of Turin occupy some buildings adjacent to the Carignano Palace. Here lectures of various kinds are given by able professors, sometimes in the evening, sometimes early in the morning, particularly in chemistry and in mechanics applied to the arts. These schools are provided with abundant means of instruction, including a large collection of objects of natural history, and an excellent museum of machines and mechanical models. These last are in great part the work of one of the professors, who is a truly great ornament of this institution.

I allude to Professor Gulio, a man of mature age, but youthful vigor. He is singularly remarkable, not only for his knowledge, but also for the admirable and easy manner in which he communicates his ideas. These endowments render him a true type of the perfect teacher of a school established for the benefit of artisans. He is very widely known in Italy for a valuable work on industrial mechanics which he published.

The colleges in Piedmont occupy a superior grade to that of the elementary schools. Those of early date are called Real schools, while the new ones, founded about the year 1848, are styled National. At Turin, that of the Carmine is distinguished both for its instruction, and for its discipline. About 200 youths reside within the walls, other 800 live outside, and only attend the instruction; altogether the students number 1,000. Many of them belong to the four elementary classes, which serve as preparatory to more advanced courses of study.—These are of two kinds: classical and special. In the special course, things applicable to the arts are studied, such as (inter alia) linear drawing. Various professors give instruction in literature and science in the higher classes. Among them may be mentioned Professor Dominico Capellina and Professor Emerico Sismonda. The former teaches Latin literature, the latter natural history. In many of the classes, both elementary and advanced, the youthful students exhibit much quickness of intellect; a result, without doubt, attributable in great part to the high ability of those who teach, and the good direction of those who govern.

Besides the colleges, an institution of a special character at Genoa merits particular attention: I mean the Real School of Marines. This school serves to educate boys for the naval service of the State. The boys are admitted by examination; and, after passing with approbation through a regular course of study, they go out to occupy posts in ships of war. The number of pupils amounts at present to 50. They receive from different professors instruction in Italian literature, French language, calculation, physics, and mechanics applied to the art of navigation. Further, they are practised in naval and artillery manoeuvres.

res. In the summer of each year they make a voyage of instruction in ships belonging to the State. Admirable order is observed in the college. The institution is provided with a physical cabinet, a library, and an astronomical observatory. This observatory is very well directed, and, being situated on an eminent point, it affords not a little convenience to the vessels which lie in the harbour.

The instruction in mechanics applied to the art of navigation is given by Professor Ciocca, a clergyman worthy of great regard for the attainments which adorn him, and the manners which render him infinitely amiable. He considers the extensive application which mechanics may have in the naval art as a point of the highest importance. With this subject he seriously occupies himself, and from his labors not only science, but the establishment to which he belongs, may one day derive great benefit.—*London Literary*.

II. EDUCATION IN INDIA.

This vicious system of *caste* has been found to be the bane of native India. Organization and co-operation of any kind is evidently impossible where almost innumerable degrees of what are there called *castes* exist, and where no two men who call themselves of different *castes* will eat, drink, or work together. However, Herculean as the evil seems, the Indian Government has determined to cope with it, and the great step toward effecting its removal is evidently by education. District colleges, with an admixture of British and native Professors at their head have been some time established, and their success has been of the most complete character. The Hindoos have welcomed them heartily, and the Parsees, a separate sect, possessed of great natural ability, quickness and perseverance, have seized on the educational benefits thus afforded them, with an avidity that might be envied in more civilized circles. This has been exemplified in a most interesting manner, in connection with the Elphinstone College at Bombay. The students of that institution were so impressed with the benefits which they derived from the instruction received by them under its auspices, that they started the idea of native schools, both male and female, at which they themselves should become volunteer instructors. Fortunately, at the time, there were gentlemen amongst the heads of the College readily disposed to favour the idea. Under the superintendence of Professors Patton and Reid, the attempt was made, and its success will be best understood, when it is stated that in the last report read by Mr. Reid before the Governor General at Bombay, we find it stated that the schools in that city and district contained no less than 2,000 pupils. The system of education pursued was altogether secular and voluntary. Its progress was assisted by liberal donations from the wealthy natives, and the adoption of a similar plan in other districts, encouraged by the publication of a magazine called *Dyan prasarack*, or "Knowledge diffuser," to which contributions were furnished in the Hindoo and Parsee tongues, by the students of the Elphinstone Institute. Of course the result of all this is greatly to diminish the narrow prejudices of *caste*. Once the light of reason is let in unobscured, the shadows of dark and absurd creeds are put to flight; and it is well known to the three Presidencies, that a society has been formed with a title equivalent to that of "Young India," which ignores all *caste*, and advocates the thorough adoption of European ideas. This body, which is said to have its ramifications in all places immediately under English influence, is at present obliged, from the existence of native prejudice, to work in secret; and though the obliteration of *caste* is a gigantic labour, which it may take ages completely to execute; still, with the exertions of the Government, and the encouragement of the people, the mitigation of its great evils may, perhaps, be compassed even in a generation.—*Toronto Globe*, 13th Sept.

III. EDUCATION IN THE TURKISH EMPIRE.

A special committee has been appointed to inquire into the best means to promote public instruction in general, and to devise a plan for the organization of the higher branches of instruction in the spirit of *hatti-humayoun*. In order to accomplish this, the non-Mahometan communities will each send a delegate to take part in the deliberations of the committee. According to the tenor of the *hatti-humayoun*, the primary and secondary instructions is left in the hands of the respective communities, and the state promises to provide for the higher instruction of all classes of the population indiscriminately. As on many other points, there are likewise many wrong ideas current in Europe about the state of public instruction in Turkey, which is supposed to be in such a neglected state that everything has as yet to be done. Formerly in Turkey, as in all other Mahometan countries, the principle of individual education was followed as in England; the expenses being defrayed by numerous foundations, and the state having only a right of general superintendence.

If one wanted a proof that the Koran is by no means averse to instruction, one has only to study the application of this principle. Not a Sultan died from the conquest of Constantinople till the end of the century, without making one or more foundations out of his private property. The conqueror Mohammed alone established eight schools

for higher instruction near the mosque which bears his name. This liberal example, given by the Sultan, was largely followed by the wealthy all over the empire, who preferred perpetuating their names by some foundation of this kind to squandering their riches in a Sybarite life. The result of this is that there is scarcely a village in whole empire which does not possess *mekteb*, or school for primary instruction, of ancient foundation, and where more than 95 per cent. of the whole Mahometan youth partake of this primary education. Constantinople alone numbered in the last century 1,500 of these *mektebs*, in which children were taught reading, a little arithmetic, and religion. Besides these schools for primary instruction, all the larger towns of the empire were provided with *medresses*, or higher schools, in which grammar, syntax, metaphysics, philology, rhetoric, geometry, and astronomy are taught. Stamboul alone has 300 of them at this present moment. Above these *medresses* were the colleges of the ulemas, in which jurisprudence and dogmatics were taught. Such was the system of education which formed itself under the old principle. The chief shortcoming of this system was the want of an intermediate link between higher and lower schools, which would have afforded an occasion for acquiring useful knowledge beyond the elementary instruction of the *mektebs*, without forcing the youth to make a profession of learning. It was a shortcoming which was felt until lately in England also. The *medresses* could scarcely be considered as answering this purpose; they are rather preparatory schools for higher instruction. When the reforms were introduced the attention of the Government was likewise turned to the subject of education, which was to be brought in harmony with the spirit of the new institutions.

In 1845 a commission was formed for this purpose, and the report of this commission is the basis of the present system of education. It changed the principle which left education to individual exertion, and substituted that of an education given by the state. In carrying out the principal of centralization the committee followed the educational system in vigor on the continent, especially that of France. It centralized the whole education in the Ottoman university with a permanent council of public instruction, divided the schools into three classes—elementary, secondary, and high schools. For the elementary schools, the *mektebs* were taken as the basis. According to the will of their founders these schools had been always attached to some mosque, which had the direction of them and administered their revenues.

The state was now substituted for the mosques. As these *mektebs* had arisen according to the fancy of the individual founders, they were unequally divided and some more favoured mosques had quite a superfluity. They were now divided according to the quarters of the different towns, and these which were not thought necessary altogether suppressed. Thus Constantinople, which formerly had 1500 of these *mektebs*, now possesses only about 400. The revenues of the foundations were put under the administration of the state, and the masters and other expenses paid out of them; formerly a nominal fee of two piastres a month was paid by those who could afford it; this was abolished, and instruction was declared gratuitous, nay, obligatory for every male or female child past six years of age, and in order to enforce this law no master or tradesman is allowed to accept an apprentice who has not a certificate from some *mekteb*.

The secondary schools were formed after the model of the French schools. The course of study lasts four years, in which the students are taught Arab grammar and syntax, writing, history, geography, arithmetic, and the elements of geometry. With these secondary schools, which were never brought up to the number of 14, originally decreed, the reforms ceased. Of the university only the shell exists, used now as the French hospital. The only thing done hitherto for higher instruction by the state is the foundation of some schools for special purposes; for instance, those founded by Sultan Mahmoud, and attached to the mosques of Sultan Ahmed and Sultan Suleiman, for the education of public functionaries; that of the Sultan Valide, for the same purpose; an *ecolé honnête*, for the formation of teachers; the School of Medicine, and some military schools—all at Constantinople.

It is, then, with this higher education that the newly-named mixed committee will have to deal. If it succeeds it will have conferred one of the greatest boons on Turkey, for it is this want of a sound superior education which creates considerable embarrassment in all spheres of Government, and which restricts the number of capable men in Turkey. With the means now existing it is all but impossible even for the most capable youth to educate himself in the country; while, on the other hand, those who go abroad acquire only a superficial knowledge, which creates a confusion in their minds, so that when they return, they have ceased to be Turks without becoming Europeans.—*London Times*.

MANNER.

Of all modifications of manner which are to be met with in society, perhaps the most generally pleasing is simplicity, even as that water is the purest which has no taste—the air the freshest which has no odor.

IV. ENCOURAGEMENTS TO EDUCATION IN ENGLAND. PRIZE SCHEMES.

In the year 1852 an interesting experiment was tried in our system of elementary education. It has been repeated every year since then—and repeated with a certain amount of success. We allude to what is called the Prize Scheme. It was first suggested by Mr. Tremenheere for the purpose of inducing children to remain at school somewhat longer than they were in the habit of doing. The necessity of some influence of the sort has long been felt. It increases as our schools increase. Indeed, it is a necessity which not only grows with the spread of education, but which appears to grow faster than it. In one of the reports of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, just presented to Parliament, we find it stated "That nearly one half of the children in elementary schools are under eight years of age, and that nearly one-third of their number have only been one year at school." After referring to the statistics of school attendance in the sixteen districts into which England and Wales is divided for the purpose of inspection, the same authority says:—

"It cannot be considered effeminate or pusillanimous to avow, in the face of facts which prove that the works accomplished in our primary schools is mainly infant education, and even this limited to a miserably scanty and insufficient period of time, that one is discouraged from speaking of merely technical matters, or from recording progress in certain points which have, relatively, a very inferior importance. It seems a kind of unreality to vaunt the improved qualifications of teachers, however reasonable the boast may be, when we have ascertained the character of their pupils, or to enumerate complacently the 'square feet,' a considerable arithmetical calculation, which make up the ever-increasing 'area' of school buildings, when we know how fitfully and vagrantly they are tenanted."

Of the districts in the county of Stafford where the prize scheme was first established, it has been stated that a large majority of the children went to no school at all; that the few who went to school did so at seven years of age, and attended three or four days in the week for little more than a year; and, as might be expected, that such scholars forgot in a short time the little they had ever attempted to learn.

The first association that was formed to check this evil subscribed £160 for prizes. A list of schools from which candidates could compete was prepared by Mr. Tremenheere, and the examination was conducted by the Rev. Mr. Norris, Her Majesty's Inspector. The prizes consisted of sums of money, of 4*l.* and 3*l.* each, and of books. On the first occasion eighty-six candidates were found to possess the necessary qualification; that is, to be eleven years old, and to have been two years at school. Of these ten boys received 4*l.* each, thirty boys received 3*l.* each, and forty-six received various small prizes. We learn from Mr. Norris's report that of the forty boys who got the money, seventeen put it in the savings-bank, ten laid it out on clothes five gave it to their parents, two were apprenticed with it, one purchased books, and five devoted it to the immediate needs of the family. We also learn the important fact, that some children who had left school actually returned to it for the purpose of qualifying themselves for the examinations.

Since '52 the scheme has been worked, though on a small scale, with great energy; and various modifications in its details have been made. The rules of one of the Staffordshire associations may be taken as a fair specimen of the present system:

"For the Quarto Bible.—Candidates to be boys or girls who can produce Certificates:—

"1. That they have attended for two years, and are still attending, some school or schools approved by the association and under Government inspection. (N.B. In the case of schools recently opened, attendance since the opening will be accepted.)

"2. That they have completed their eleventh year.

"3. That their character and progress in religious instruction are satisfactory.

"N.B. Regular attendance is defined to mean attendance on 176 days in the twelve months.

"For the £3 Prize.—Candidates to be boys or girls who can produce Certificates:—

"1. That they have already gained the preceding prize.

"2. That they have continued to attend, and are still attending, the same school regularly.

"3. That their character and progress in religious knowledge continues to be satisfactory.

"For the £5 Prize.—Candidates to be boys who can produce Certificates signed by their Minister, and also by some Member of the Association:—

"1. That they have gained one or both of the preceding prizes.

"2. That they have completed their fifteenth, and have not completed their eighteenth year.

"3. That they are employed in connexion with the works of some member of the association.

"4. That their character is good.

"5. That they have attended some Sunday school; a preference will be given to those who have also attended some drawing school or evening school."

The expediency of the principle was acknowledged by Lord John Russell in one of the Resolutions lately submitted by him to the House of Commons. Lord Granville is patron of the North Staffordshire Association, and other influential members of the legislature have in their own localities supported it. It has also attracted the attention of some of the educationists in our colonies, more particularly in New South Wales, where the Governor General has given it the warmest encouragement. In his Report for 1854-5, Mr. Norris discusses at some length the subject of rewards as a part of the philosophy of education, and lays down certain rules on which practical efforts should be based. His remarks are deserving of much attention. In one or two points we believe they are somewhat erroneous. He finds them, perhaps, on too high an estimate of human nature, and he does not appear to recognise sufficiently the force of habit and the influence of special circumstances. As an abstract proposition, he may convince his readers 'That prizes should not be given for good behaviour,' which is his third rule, but it seems to us that worldly experience, as well as moral precepts drawn from the very highest source, negative such a principle.

Nor can we concur with Mr. Norris, and the other managers of the prize scheme, as to the judiciousness of giving pecuniary rewards. They should remember that the labour market is competing with the school; that such competition is not essentially bad in itself, but is rather a symptom of general prosperity; and that it should be met, as far as inducement is concerned, in the most indirect manner possible. The children, and even the parents of the children, on whom these experiments are tried, cannot fully comprehend the object of the prize scheme. They know nothing about its principles, and are cognizant only of its immediate and practical influence. A child that gets half a crown a week for working in the potteries may be purchased off by a prize scheme that would give it £5 all at once. The parents would probably prefer to see the child earn the £5 by staying at school than by going to work. But this teaches the laboring population a very false lesson in practical political economy. No doubt some children care more for the honour of the prize than for the money. But if there are any children who have a different feeling, who esteem the prize, chiefly for its intrinsic value, then we must confess that to such children it does a certain amount of harm. But, apart from such considerations, we would impress upon the attention of the promoters of this scheme a principle which we believe will be found to be true in its general application, but which we cannot now stop to discuss—that the only influences which can be brought to bear with any success against the employers of labour are those which the employers themselves cannot use.

In contemplating any general extension of the prize scheme it is not unimportant to determine its position in a financial point of view. This appears to have been very much overlooked, and none of its advocates have put forward any definite conclusion on the subject. We have, however, taken some of the data in Mr. Norris's report, and have attempted to calculate what the average expense per child might be. We find that this average expense amounts to about £1 5*s.*, while the cost of educating a child is not much more, according to Sir J. P. Kay Shuttleworth, than 16*s.* per annum.—*Literary Gazette.*

LEARNING UNDER DIFFICULTIES.

It is related in a biography of Rev. Preserved Smith, of Rowe, Mass., that "his thirst for knowledge was so great that when in the field at work, he would seize every leisure moment in exercising himself in arithmetic, by the use of a piece of chalk on a log, or a piece of bark. It was at that early period that he met with a Latin grammar. It greatly excited his curiosity, and he resolved that from that hour, if his life was spared him he would acquire the knowledge of the language of which that little elementary work was the key. Thus often it is that trivial and apparently unimportant incidents give a direction to the course and destiny of life. This little occurrence became the germ, which afterwards ripened into impulses and motives, which led to his acquiring a collegiate education, and becoming a minister of Christ.

BOYS' MANNERS.

It is too much the fashion among boys to scorn gentle loving manners, or leave their sisters to learn such ways, while they try to be what they call *men*. A boy who wishes to be a *true man*, "the noblest work of God," must begin while he is young to be honest and honorable, and "do as he would be done by," for he will be the same person when he grows up that he is now, only stronger, larger, in mind and body, and better able to do good or evil. Let us by all means have "*honor among boys.*"—*N. Y. Independent.* M. E. W.

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Upper Canada.



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*. Parties in correspondence with the Educational Department will please quote the *number* and *date* of any previous letters to which they may have occasion to refer as it is extremely difficult for the Department to keep trace of isolated cases, where so many letters are received (nearly 600 per month) on various subjects.

EDUCATIONAL FEATURES OF THE RECENT PROVINCIAL EXHIBITION.

Last year we inserted such notices of the educational features of the Provincial Exhibition at Cobourg as were presented to the public on that occasion. We this year follow the same example; and, in doing so, we cannot but congratulate the country on the growing attention to the interests and claims of popular education, which is thus manifested at these interesting and useful exhibitions.

Education is at the foundation of all intelligent agricultural operations, as well as of all successful mechanical skill and enterprise. To connect, therefore, with the Provincial Exhibitions a purely educational feature; to incorporate that element in its yearly operations is both wise and appropriate. It is a just recognition of that great moral agent in the amelioration of the mental soil and character, as is appropriate culture and the introduction of suitable agents necessary to the amelioration of the soil of the earth. It is also in harmony with the public feeling and sentiment of Canada, where the education of the people is considered one of the most important duties and interests of the state.

To contribute to the promotion of this object as far as possible at the Exhibition of this year, the Chief Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada (in compliance with the wishes of some members of the Provincial Board of Agriculture) decided upon sending to it a collection of interesting and instructive objects from the Depository and Museum connected with the Educational Department. These objects comprised the following articles, viz.:

I. A collection of models of Agricultural Implements, arranged in three groups. 1. A series of about 40 models from the Kingdom of Wurtemberg, South Western Germany, which received the Gold Medal at the Paris Exhibition, 1855. 2. A similar series of about 20 from Austria, North Eastern Germany. And 3. A smaller series of 10 from Denmark.

II. A variety of interesting articles from the Provincial Educational Museum.

III. Specimens of Maps, Charts, Diagrams, Models and Apparatus for the Public Schools of Upper Canada.

1. The Agricultural Models were procured at the recent Paris Exhibition by the Chief Superintendent. Those from Wurtemberg received the Gold Medal. As a collection they are designed to illustrate not only the agricultural implements now in use, but also the various kinds of ploughs, &c., which have been used in these countries—in fact to exhibit by a series of models a comparative view of the *progress* of agricultural science and enterprise in the countries from which they

were obtained. The practical utility of such a comparison can well be understood by those who make the subject of agriculture and of agricultural progress in Canada their constant study and aim. In this spirit, as well as from a feeling of curiosity in the general public, these models attracted a good deal of attention at Kingston; and the importance of having accessible to our agricultural population so complete and varied a collection of models of implements in use in the great farming countries of Europe, was very generally felt and expressed at the Exhibition.

2. The articles from the Educational Museum included, among other things, a beautifully coloured series of French Maps, in relief, of all the countries in the world. That which attracted most attention was a large plan of the city and harbour, and famous dock-yard of Sebastopol. This plan also exhibited the physical features of the country for many miles round the city; together with the ports of Balaklava and Kamiesch; the line of railway, and the trenches, parallels and batteries of the besiegers and besieged, during the memorable contest. This map was an object of great interest to the soldiers in the garrison—many of whom gave evidence, both from their appearance and from the Crimean medal on their breast, that the scene was well known to them.

A large map, exhibiting in bold relief the physical features of France, divided into departments; also, maps of the Crimea itself, the Ottoman Empire, and other places of special interest at present, were also included in the collection—together with a series of large glass models, illustrative of the science of crystalization; models of human hands and feet in plaster, for drawing; samples of improved school furniture, &c., &c.

3. The collection of specimens from the Educational Depository comprised series of mechanical, astronomical, physical and anatomical diagrams; the National and Johnston's series of geographical maps, maps of Canada, models of steam engines, and a great variety of philosophical and school apparatus; prints and diagrams for use in the public schools. It also included specimens of the meteorological instruments recently imported from London by the Department, for the senior County Grammar Schools of Upper Canada.

The entire contribution from the Department was placed in the "Educational Court," or north transept of the Exhibition building. From each side of a staging in the centre of the transept were hung the maps, charts, diagrams and lesson sheets; and on the shelves at each side of the platform were placed the meteorological instruments, the models of steam engines and agricultural implements, and the philosophical and school apparatus, school furniture, &c. At the end of the transept facing the central fountain, and suspended from the ceiling by evergreens, were the words, "EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT, UPPER CANADA," in large letters. The beautifully executed copy of the arms of the Department,* of a large size, in relief, was placed immediately below; and beneath the arms were the raised models of Sebastopol, the Crimea, &c. On each side of the transept were placed the mottoes, in large letters, "CHRISTIANITY THE SOUL OF EDUCATION!" and "EDUCATION OF CANADA HER GLORY!" The *tout ensemble* of the court thus arranged, and decorated with flags and shields,

* The artistic beauty of these arms attracted the attention of the Committee on Fine Arts, who awarded to Mr. S. P. May, of the Educational Department, a prize and diploma in consideration of the skill manifested by him in the execution of the design.

was very striking, and contributed much to the general effect of the Exhibition when standing under the central dome of the building.

The practical utility of such an exhibition of school apparatus, maps, &c., was felt by every one who witnessed it; and the multitudes who thronged to the Educational Court and sought information and explanation of the varied objects which it contained, showed how general was the desire of the public to avail themselves of the facilities provided by the Department to supply the public schools of Upper Canada with these indispensable adjuncts to a successful teacher—those practical instruments of his profession, without which it is impossible from day to day to sustain a continued interest on the part of the pupils in the exercises and duties of the School room.

In connection with this feature of the Exhibition, the Chief Superintendent, at the special request of the Local Committee of the Exhibition, delivered an address on Agricultural Education, its advantages to the community and the importance of making it an element in Common School instruction; and on the use of visible illustrations and proper apparatus to facilitate its communication.

In regard to this feature of the Exhibition, the Brockville Recorder remarks that—

"The Educational Department of Upper Canada was represented fully. Between maps, charts, models, and other apparatus, we have never witnessed a more interesting collection. Such a display speaks well for the future of Canada. The collection formed one of the most interesting features of the exhibition."

In addition, we add the following from the correspondence of various newspapers:

From the Hamilton Spectator.

"We now pass to the north transept, which is occupied by the Educational Department. The Chief Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada, was fortunate enough to secure a variety of valuable and interesting models at the Paris Exhibition, all of which are shown here. They embrace Austrian and Prussian implements of husbandry of all kinds, and are great curiosities. It is probably the most complete thing of the kind ever got up in this country. In addition, there is a fine display of maps, philosophical drawings, and charts of various kinds. The collection is really a splendid one, and forms a grand feature in the Exhibition.

From the Newburgh Index.

We cannot, however, pass over this part of the Exhibition without referring particularly to the Educational Department. Its collection consisted of Maps, Charts, Models, and Apparatus of great variety and extent. It is doubtful if any country in America can show anything equal to it. For the United States this was conceded by enlightened Americans present.

From the Toronto Globe.

The southern division is appropriated to the Horticultural Department; the Educational Department of Upper Canada occupies a large portion of the northern division, with maps, plans, drawings, models, &c., under the charge of Mr. S. P. May. This portion of the Exhibition is very attractive. It comprises the numerous models of agricultural implements purchased by Dr. Ryerson at Paris, complete sets of electrical and other philosophical apparatus, maps in relief of many countries of Europe, showing very distinctly the mountains, rivers, &c., a large plan of Sebastopol in the same style, and many other objects which will receive hereafter more than this merely cursory mention. Dr. Ryerson, I understood, is expected to lecture in Kingston before the Exhibition closes. The Educational Department exhibits a philosophical curiosity under the name of Mechanical Paradox. The instrument is more than a pound weight. A metal wheel is made to revolve rapidly on the axis of a circle, also of metal, and at a right angle to the wheel. During the revolution of the wheel, the instrument sustains itself horizontally, its only support being a point at one extremity of the axis. So soon as the wheel stops, the instrument loses its balance and falls.

From the Montreal Herald.

THE EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT, TORONTO.

Over this department are the words, "Educational Department of Upper Canada," displayed with the coat of arms in relief, underneath which is an embossed map of the Crimea, &c., and immediately in front is a full set of school meteorological apparatus, a splendid electrical machine, and other philosophical instruments. In the aisle is the motto, displayed in black letters on pink, surrounded with evergreens, "*Education of Canada her glory*;" underneath which are various maps, both geographical and physical, &c., zoological diagrams, chemical charts, &c. The stand contains models of agricultural implements from the Kingdom of Wurtemberg and the Imperial Agricultural Society of Austria, with other agricultural models from the Paris Exhibition. On the same side are displayed mechanical drawings from the department of Science and Art, Pall Mall, London; plaster drawing models of the human hand, feet, &c.; dissected models of the eye, mechanical and philosophical apparatus, chemical laboratories, cabinets and minerals, and fossils. At the extreme end there is a most elaborate physical map of France, executed in relief, belonging to the Provincial Museum of the Educational Department; likewise various kinds of object lessons, school furniture, and Johnston's cases of maps. In the left aisle facing the Kingston Auxiliary of the British and Foreign Bible Society, is the motto, "*Christianity the Soul of Education*," underneath which is a full set of Marshall's physiological diagrams, executed by the lithographers to the Queen; a set of the national maps, some beautiful French lithographs of steam engines, &c., &c.; Johnston's philosophical charts, Mattison's astronomical charts, and Reynold's various pictorial charts of manufactures and useful arts. On the stand beneath are various natural history and other object lessons, Johnston's, Ide and Dutton's, Cornell's, Holbrooks', and other globes, a bell-engine in operation, with galvanic battery, magic lantern, phantasmagoria, slides, &c., and a cromatope; geometrical slides; dissected cubes, flexible slates, mathematical instruments, rules, &c.; reading and figure tables. In the centre of the stand is a beautiful illustration of the mechanical paradox, Sopworth's geological models, specimens of color from the Department of Science and Art, glass models of crystals from the Provincial Museum; atlases, models of steam and locomotive engines, showing the interior and exterior workings, air-pump, condensing syringes, and other philosophical apparatus. On the front are arrayed a full series of French embossed maps, showing elevations of mountains. Among the above was a splendid planetarium, a very large set of mechanical powers and a magic lantern, which is to be forwarded at the close of the Exhibition to the Hon. Mr. Chauveau, the Superintendent of Education, Montreal, completing a full set of apparatus purchased by that gentleman from the Educational Department, Toronto, for the proposed Normal School at Montreal.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN UPPER CANADA.

It is pleasant to turn from the strife of politics to review, occasionally, the progress which our country is making as well in her literary and scientific institutions, as in her material wealth. And in regard to the latter, which way soever we turn our eyes—whatever be the gage or test we adopt—the same fact stands out boldly, and challenges our admiration and congratulation, viz: the rapid extension and development of the resources of our country. If we look to the tables of Imports and Exports, the greatly increased tonnage of our rivers and lakes, notwithstanding the Railway facilities now brought into competition—the magnitude of the Railway traffic—the rise and extension of the local manufactures, and the character and quality of those manufactures, our astonishment at the amazing strides with which the enlightened spirit of the age hurries onward, keeps pace only with our unbounded admiration. Formerly our manufactures were of a rude kind—substantial, it may be, and suited to the circumstances of the times—but now there is a demand for finer articles: the cabinet shop can supply nothing too elegant: musical instruments of every description; books, maps, paintings, statuary, all that wealth can purchase or is indicative of its possession, seem to be in demand, and the standard of taste and social refinement is being every day raised higher and higher. Let us hope that the standard of morals will suffer no deterioration.

But our chief object in this article is to direct attention to our Academic and Educational establishments. And here, we are most happy to say, we have most unmistakeable marks of progress. Here in the quiet seclusion of our County Grammar Schools and Common Schools, as well as in our Colleges and Universities, is the foundation being laid upon which the superstructure of our national greatness must be reared. For what is wealth without intelligence? What is it shall serve to perfect and consolidate our institutions—to fortify as with a bulwark our civil and religious liberties and privileges—to give tone, strength and vigour to the body politic—to perpetuate the blessings of internal tranquility, and save us from becoming an easy prey to an avaricious

enemy, but the wisdom and intelligence of our rulers and statesmen? Let us never forget that the orator who to-morrow shall carry the Senate by storm, is the school-boy of to-day in his class.

We are delighted at the accounts of College and School Examinations which have been held in Montreal, Toronto, Kingston, Cobourg, and elsewhere, and which have been so interestingly detailed by many of our contemporaries. It is a good sign of the press, and every way worthy of its calling to take an interest in these things. It brings before its readers the all-important subject of education, and, by keeping the public mind alive to its desirableness and necessity, inspires to a greater ardor and zeal in its pursuit.

It stimulates the student also, to see his name appear in print as first in his class, or the winner of such and such a prize. It nerves those who have lost this year to greater exertions that their names may also appear next year. Nor can any thing be more grateful to the parents than to see their children praised and hear of their success in their educational career.—*Perth Standard.*

LAYING THE CORNER STONE OF THE DUNDAS UNION SCHOOL.

Our town has been prolific of gala days during the past week. On Thursday we had the celebration of the eleventh anniversary of the Loyal Dundas Lodge of Odd Fellows, and yesterday the imposing and interesting ceremony of laying the corner stone of the large and handsome building now in course of erection for the use of the Grammar and Common Schools.

As predicted the inhabitants exhibited due interest in the event by turning out, we might almost say *en masse*. Two o'clock was the hour named in the programme for the procession to move, but owing to some mistake the Rev. Dr. Ryerson did not arrive until about an hour later. The procession was then formed in the following order :

Marshal.

The Dundas Brass Band.

Major Notman's Volunteer Artillery Co.
Fire Company No 2.

The Pupils of the Common School.

The Head Master and Assistant Master.

The Pupils of the Grammar School.

The Head Master and Assistant Masters.

The Board of Common School Trustees.

The Board of Grammar School Trustees.

The Contractor,

The Reverend Egerton Ryerson, D. D.

Chief Superintendent of Education for U. C. accompanied by the Mayor and Town Council,

and the Chairman of the Board of Grammar School Trustees, the Chairman of Common School Trustees and the Building Committee in Carriages.

The Inhabitants, &c.,

proceeding along Main King Street, up King Street to Market Street, along Market street to Hatt Street, down Hatt Street to Ogilvie Street, along Ogilvie Street to King Street, thence to Gross Street to Melville Street, along Melville to Sydenham Street, and thence to the site of the building, where in addition to the large number forming the procession an immense concourse of people had assembled. A temporary staging was here erected for the accommodation of the members of the Council, and Trustees of the Common School. These gentlemen having taken their place on the platform, the Revd Dr. Ryerson was introduced by his worship the Mayor. The Revd Mr. Stark then offered up an impressive prayer, at the conclusion of which Thomas Robertson, Esq., Secretary of the Building Committee, deposited a bottle in the corner stone of the building, containing a copy of the Dundas *Warder*, another of the Dundas *Tribune*, a paper containing the names of the Mayor and Town Council, and another with the names of the Trustees of the Grammar and Common Schools. A heavy stone having been cemented thereon, the Rev. Superintendent of Education, to whom had been assigned the post of honor on the occasion, then stepped forward, and tapping it with his mallet, announced the corner stone laid. Returning to the platform, Dr. Ryerson delivered an eloquent and elaborate speech, which we regret our inability to give to our readers even in detail. The interesting ceremony closed by the Band playing "God save the Queen," followed by a salute of twenty-one guns from Major Notman's Volunteer Company.—*Warder.*

Papers on Practical Education.

THE TEACHER'S TEMPTATIONS.

The saying that the teacher's calling is surrounded with difficulties, is as "true as trite." It has connected with it, its perplexities, in common with all the honorable avocations of life. We feel no inclination to magnify either the trials or the joys of teaching. So far as our observation goes, there is no calling worthy to be followed which does not furnish opportunities for the exercise of those virtues that

adorn the character, as well as occasions for the exercise of those passions that deform our natures.

There is a class of temptations to which the teacher is peculiarly exposed, and to which we wish to call a thought or two.

1st. The teacher is tempted to become tyrannical. We have no sympathy with that class, who declare all wholesome restraint despotism. We know there are those who confound *liberty with license*. By such, a person possessed of decision of character, is called a despot—one who carries out his plans, a tyrant. But, still, there is a liability on the part of the teacher to lose sight of reason, and depend more upon impulse than justice. The teacher *can* be a tyrant, and the possibility ought to make him guarded. Those by whom he is surrounded cannot always vindicate their own cause. His will is law. If that will be not always governed by truth, the law must be wrong.

2nd. The teacher is liable to become dogmatic. He is seldom opposed by his equals. He seldom finds "foemen worthy of his steel." His opinions are not questioned. His mistakes are seldom ridiculed. He is not required to state the grounds of his opinions, and consequently forms the habit of *asserting* without *proving*. We ought to guard against those habits of thought or conduct, that tend to dogmatism. Let us often examine the ultimate truths upon which ought to be based all our teachings. Let us be especially careful, lest we find among them our own infallibility assumed. We ought, when it is not manifestly improper, to bring everything down to the comprehension of our pupils. "Prove all things," is a good old rule.

3rd. The teacher is tempted to become petulant. A thousand little things are constantly transpiring to irritate. Parents are indifferent or unreasonable. The teacher's motives are misunderstood—his acts misrepresented. Eyeless rumor with her thousand ears and tongues makes him her sport. He often violates those physiological laws that are essential to his happiness. He looks for results too soon—is disappointed if he fails to find the fruit at the time he has fixed upon. Tares spring up where he feels sure he has sown good seed. He wishes to cut down and cast into the fire before time of harvest.

4th. The teacher is tempted to become cruel. We feel an influence to inflict pain on one who has injured us. The teacher can often do so with impunity. The little sufferer is helpless. The teacher is blinded by passion. No eye, save one, sees the unmanly deed—it is past—forgotten—but it has made an impression on the teacher's heart that tears will not efface. His heart is *harder*. We ought to guard against all tendencies to cruelty. In the ordinary intercourse with our pupils, let the hand never touch them save in kindness. Unavoidable must be the feelings, or hard the heart of him, who notices his pupils shrinking from him, from fear of pain, at his approach. Above all, we ought never to strike the head of a child. Of all modes of torture invented, we know of none more fiendish than that of pulling hair or ears. Let us beware of giving way to this impulse of revenge. Where this spirit rules, all is flowerless—not a virtue can grow on its cold, barren soil. It begets a host of meaner passions in the breast of those towards whom it is exercised. The child must believe the teacher incapable of it, or his confidence in him is shaken. Be patient, forbearing, firm, and kind.

5th. The teacher is tempted to violate the conscience of the child. This may need explanation. We suppose every pupil under our charge possessed of a power of perceiving a difference in the character of acts.

These are a few of the evil habits that may grow in the teacher's heart; but there are virtues that may bloom there also. We believe that there is no profession more favorable to the growth of all that ennobles and refines character, than ours. If we are watchful, prayerful, and workful, flowers will spring all "around our paths." Life will not be a dull, dreary round of blasted anticipations and unrealized hopes.

The sculptor spends years in fashioning the soulless marble, but our work shall last when the marble has wasted away. The painter toils many a day, to represent on canvass what the eye can see and the taste admire, but we are each daguerreotyping on the soul those images that shall only be brought fully out by the light of eternity. The musician takes no note of time, if he can but arouse the hidden soul of harmony. The harp we play on has a thousand strings, and each should be touched with a master's hand.

Almost all can determine right from wrong, according to the usual standard. Now it is possible for a teacher to fail in securing the assent of the pupil's conscience in favor of a certain measure, although the measure may be right. In such a case he has done violence to the pupil's conscience, and consequently has injured him. This should be avoided. The teacher ought never to commit an act, the reason for committing which will not be apparent to the unprejudiced part of his school. Is it said, "there is no conscience to appeal to?" We answer the *germ* must be there—if it has not grown, let the teacher pour upon it the rain and the sunshine—let him devote all his time to this, until there is a growth sufficient to create a public opinion in the school, that shall be on the side of virtue. Were I in a penitentiary as overseer, I would never exact that of an offender which his conscience

did not approve, except in cases of moral insanity. Teachers ought to keep the conscience of the school on their side, otherwise the peace that reigns is desolation.

THE TEACHER'S WORK—HOW TO BE FITTED FOR IT.

Observation and self-discipline assist greatly in the attainment of useful qualifications. Neither treatises on education, nor training colleges, nor any system, however good, will alone suffice. Great helps they are, and to be thankfully used; but, in a measure at least, the schoolmaster must be formed by teaching. Besides profiting by the labor of other minds, he must have thought out plans for himself, and have brought them to the test of his own practice. Having clearly defined the purpose which he has in view, he will do nothing at hazard, but daily bring the result of deeper thought and wider experience to bear upon his round of duties. By the contact of his own mind with the minds of children, he will see more clearly, why he has failed in one point, or to what he may ascribe his success in another; and will learn to adopt the materials and the modes of his teaching to the wants which he has discovered. He daily observes fresh traits of character, and having learned how much belongs to the individual and how much to nature which is common to all children, he turns his observation to good account. Former plans are corrected, and the ground laid more securely for the future. No good schoolmaster will think that he has reached the utmost limit of improvement. Every day will find him making progress; every year will be a stage of advancement. The work is full of interest, ever growing, and ever new. Many of the best and ablest minds are intently occupied with what he has made the business of his life. If he has humility to come down to the level of a child's capacity, and patience to bear with the wayward and slow; if he has faith in the power of religious education, and love to children after the example, and for the sake of Him who is their best friend, he need not fear that he will want encouragement. Let him set his mark high. His strength by God's grace, will increase with the duty which calls for it; the ability will come as the work requires it. Trials and hindrances, and disappointments he must encounter; it is the common lot; but that he could have chosen a happier or a more useful life, who will venture to say?—*"The Church Schoolmaster,"*

THE CHEERFUL TEACHER.

A cheerful, kind hearted teacher will always be welcome to his pupils. They will rejoice to see him approach the school house, even if the hour of study has not yet arrived; because they know he rejoices in seeing them happy, and will not interrupt their amusements before the regular time. But the morose and ill-natured teacher is ever unwelcome, and hated by his scholars. He is regarded as the enemy of their happiness, and rarely enjoys the confidence of his school. On the other hand, the teacher, especially of larger boys, should not forget the dignity of his profession, nor place himself entirely on a level with his pupils. They should be taught to respect, as well as love and confide in him. While it is proper that he should witness, approve and control their recreations, we think it in general inadvisable for him to participate in them.—*Pa. School Journal.*

THE HAPPINESS OF CHILDHOOD—HOW IT IS BEST PROMOTED.

There are few things in the world more wonderful to a thoughtful mind, or more delightful to a benevolent heart, than the joy of children. We need not do anything to make the child happy. It is naturally happy in itself. From the joy which God sheds within its soul like sunlight, joy shines upon everything without, and is reflected back from all. No poet ever had a more brilliant fancy, no philosopher busier thoughts! It can create to itself an ocean from a cup of water, a ship from a bit of straw, and summon out of bits of paper, or out of nothing, men and women, kings and queens, to obey its commands and contribute to its amusements. It is planning, contriving, and enjoying, all day long. With all this, God has placed it in his own school of providence; and in ten thousand ways, too many to number, and too deep to understand, He is educating this babe, and teaching it lessons innumerable. . . . As a rule, I believe more harm than good will be done by attempting to apply any formal system of pruning and training to so tender a plant, beyond what is prompted by good common sense, guided by parental and Christian affection. If you must, in short, give it something, confine your generosity to wholesome plain food from your hand, love in abundance from your heart, with as much light, liberty, and air, as every day beneath God's sky can afford, and it will educate itself better than you can do. Let these conditions be fulfilled as far as possible, even in one of our vile and horrid streets or lanes, and the child will thrive better in soul and body than when confined, like a hot-house plant, in a splendid mansion, pampered with uxuries, or teased and fretted all day long by some injudicious parent or teacher, who insists on training or teasing it up to become wonderfully clever, or wonderfully well-behaved. Watch, control, lead, mould your children from infancy, if you will, but,

oh, let them be free and joyous!—*The Home School, by the REV. NORMAN MACLEOD.*

TRUTH IN CHILDREN.

Who does not desire to have that great blessing, a truthful child? But, oh! how few children are perfectly upright. Some writers, indeed, have gone so far as to say that all children are naturally liars. God forbid! Our own belief is that circumstances almost force children to become untruthful. Let us look at the delicate organization of a young child—its tender frame—its susceptible mind—its utter powerlessness against tyranny—its weakness and its ignorance. Can we expect from children a nerve and courage we do not ourselves possess? Does the fear of man, with us, never bring a snare, or lead us into a breach of truth? Is it not cowardice?—contemptible cowardice? And if we matured beings feel a fear that leads us into error, how gentle should we be to the young who suffer from it.

A mother may do much to make her child truthful. Her example will do much. If she is habitually open in her conduct, if her child never hears from her lips "Don't tell papa," if he never sees a lie acted, this will do much to teach him to value truth.

But more is needed. A mother must not content herself with saying, "I insist on your speaking the truth, it is wicked to tell a lie;" but she must show that no piece of childish wilfulness—no amount of mischief that might accidentally be perpetrated, is to be the cause of such severe punishment as a falsehood, however trifling. Indeed, it is unwise to punish any accident. Even if your best dress be spoiled by the careless upsetting of an inkstand, if your child's intention was to help you, look at the intention and not at the consequences, however inconvenient. Your child's truth is of more moment to you than all the dresses in Regent Street. Do not, therefore, terrify the poor little thing, who is already probably sufficiently grieved, by flying into a passion, or punishing it. Show your sorrow—speak of your regret; your child will sympathise with you, and be more careful; but never terrify it into telling a lie, or make no distinction in your punishment of a deliberate falsehood, and a childish, however wilful, fault.

Encourage, in every possible way, a love of truth. Foster the struggling virtue as earnestly as a good gardener would the tenderest hot-house plant. Let no cold blast of harshness check its growth—let no angry tone blast it. Let assurance of a perfect forgiveness of any error short of falsehood help the feeble resolution to confess the fault; and if you do promise forgiveness, keep your own word, in the spirit as well as the letter. Let pardon of a fault imply forgetfulness of it.

Never doubt a child's word until you have proof that its word is not sacred. By giving great importance to the inviolable nature of a promise, you will succeed in impressing the child's mind with the same feeling. "Are you sure, my dear, quite sure, you did not break the glass? Remember, if you have done it and tell me, I will not be angry; but if you assure me you have not, I shall believe you until I find you do not speak the truth. Then mamma would be sorry, for she could not believe her little boy any more. Think again, are you quite sure?" Some such speech, with action to correspond, will tend to keep your children in the right path.

One word more. Do not indulge in hasty, thoughtless, accusation of either children or servants, or even in too determined suspicion of them. Never condemn without open examination. Guilt is sure to develop itself some day; never, therefore, risk injuring an innocent person by punishing him for an assumed fault, however strong the probabilities may be of his having committed it. Remember, it has been frequently proved that perfectly innocent persons have even been hung on circumstantial evidence.

Moreover, children are keen critics. Let them once be sensible that you have committed an act of injustice, and much of your influence over them is destroyed. Children are rarely treated justly, they are either petted too much, or they meet with undue harshness. But they have inalienable rights, which ought to be as much respected as those of grown up persons: more so, indeed, since they cannot defend them; and therefore, parents ought to study, above all things, to be perfectly just to them, not one day allowing that which they prohibit on another, or acting so as to lose their children's respect, but to let all their conduct to them be *even, fearless, and truthful*, practising themselves, the uprightness they try to inculcate.—*Children, and how to manage them.*

THE JUST AND HONEST MAN.

They are not just because they do no wrong,
But he who will not wrong me when he may—
He is truly just. I praise not them
Who in their petty dealings pilfer not—
But he whose conscience spurns a secret fraud,
- When he might plunder and defy surprise;
His be the praise, who, looking down with scorn
On the false judgment of the partial herd,
Consults his own clear heart and boldly dares
To be, not to be thought, an honest man.

Miscellaneous.

THE TIMES OF PRAYER.

Go, when the morning shineth,
Go, when the noon is bright,
Go, when the eve declineth,
Go, in the hush of night.

Go, with pure mind and feeling,
Fling earthly thought away,
And in thy chamber kneeling,
Do thou in secret pray.

Remember all who love thee,
All who are loved by thee,
Pray too, for those who hate thee,
If any such there be ;

Then for thyself in meekness,
A blessing humbly claim,
And link with each petition,
The great Redeemer's name.

Or, if 'tis e'er denied thee,
In solitude to pray,
Should holy thoughts come o'er thee,
When friends are round thy way,

E'en then the silent breathing
Of thy spirit rais'd above,
Will reach His throne of glory,
Who is Mercy, Truth, and Love !

THE FALLS OF NIAGARA.

BY THE REV. DR. HANNAH.

In his address to the Conference on his return to England, Dr. Hannah remarked,—“ We went along to the Suspension Bridge, a mile below the Falls of Niagara, a river which comes out of Lake Erie, calm and beautiful, an image of placidity, and which, having flowed twenty or twenty-three miles, swells into a gradual commotion of waters, in consequence of the shelving bed of the river descending layer after layer. These are the rapids, and they become more and more rapid until the scene is one of perfect confusion. At length the river, three miles across in that place, rolls against a large island—Goat Island—and on the one side flows past the American shore, and on the other, the Canadian side. At the Falls of Niagara, the river becomes narrowed to half a mile. He held that all true sublimity was calm, and the great Falls of Niagara were calm. They descended in calm majesty, the white foam ascending, and the beautiful circular rainbows floating around them. The body of water in the falls amounted to 670,000 tons per minute. He seemed still to hear that voice of solemn music which they created, like one of the great organ-pipes of the universe.”

ENGLISH TRAITS.

BY R. W. EMERSON.

Mr. Emerson visited England twice—first in 1833, and again in 1847. He travelled over the greater part of the country, and saw all classes of the people. He met Wordsworth, Coleridge, Carlyle, Rogers, Hallam, Macauley, Milnes, Milman, Barry Cornwall, Dickens, Thackeray, Tennyson, Leigh Hunt, D'Israeli, Helps, Wilkinson, Bailey, Kenyon, and Forster ; the younger poets Clough, Arnold, and Patmore ; and, among the men of science, Robert Brown, Owen, Sedgwick, Faraday, Buckland, Lyell, De la Beche, Hooker, Carpenter, Babbage, and Edward Forbes.—He also conversed with Miss Baillie, Lady Morgan, Mrs. Jameson, and Mrs. Somerville. His impressions of the English are very flattering, and somewhat extraordinary for an American, he says—

England is the best of actual nations. It is no ideal framework, it is an old pile built in different ages, with repairs, additions and make-shift ; but you see the poor best you have got. London is the epitome of our times, and the Rome of to-day. Broad-fronted board-bottomed Teutons, they stand in solid phalanx foursquare to the points of compass ; they constitute the modern world, they have earned their vantage-ground, and held it through ages of adverse possession. They are well marked and differing from other leading races. England is tender-hearted. Rome was not. England is not so public in its bias ; private life is its place of honor. * * * The English mind turns every abstraction it can receive into a portable utensil, or a working institution. Such is their tenacity, and such their practical turn, that

they hold all they gain. Hence we say, that only the English race can be trusted with freedom,—freedom which is double-edged and dangerous to any but the wise and robust. The English designate the kingdoms emulous of free institutions, as the sentimental nations. Their outline is not an outside varnish, but is thorough and secular in families and the race. They are oppressive with their temperament, and all the more that they are refined. I have sometimes seen them walk with my countrymen when I was forced to allow them every advantage, and their companions seemed bags of bones. * * * England has yielded more able men in five hundred years than any other nation ; and though we must not play Providence, and balance the changes of producing ten great men against the comfort of ten thousand mean men, yet retrospectively we may strike the balance, and prefer one Alfred, one Shakespeare, one Milton, one Sidney, one Raleigh, one Wellington, to a million foolish democrats. The American system is more democratic, more humane ; yet the American people do not yield better or more able men, or more inventions, or books, or benefits than the English. Congress is not wiser or better than Parliament.—*N. Y. Com. Adv.*

POVERTY THE ALLY OF GENIUS.

Homer was a beggar ; Plutus turned a mill ; Terence was a slave ; Boethius died in jail ; Paul Borghese had fourteen trades, yet starved with them all ; Tasso was often distressed for a few shillings ; Camoens, the writer of the “ Lusiad,” ended his days in an almshouse ; and Vaugelas left his body to the surgeons to pay his debts. In England, Bacon lived a life of meanness and distress ; Sir Walter Raleigh died on the scaffold ; Spencer died in want ; Milton sold his copyright of “ Paradise Lost,” for £15, and died in obscurity ; Otway perished of hunger ; Lee died in the streets ; Dryden lived in poverty and distress ; Steele was in perpetual war with the bailiffs ; Goldsmith's “ Vicar of Wakefield ” was sold for a trifle, to save him from the grasp of the law ; Richard Savage died in Bristol for a debt of eight pounds ; Butler lived in penury and died poor ; Chatterton, the child of genius and misfortune, destroyed himself.

HUMANIZING EFFECT OF CLEANLINESS.

A neat, clean, fresh-aired, sweet, cheerful, well-arranged and well-situated house, exercises a moral as well as a physical influence over its inmates, and makes the members of a family peaceable and considerate of the feelings and happiness of each other ; the connection is obvious between the state of mind thus produced, and habits of respect for others, and for those higher duties and obligations which no law can enforce. On the contrary, a filthy, squalid, noxious dwelling, rendered still more wretched by its noisome site, and in which none of the decencies of life can be observed, contributes to make its unfortunate inhabitants selfish, sensual, and regardless of the feelings of each other ; the constant indulgence of such passions renders them reckless and brutal, and the transition is natural to propensities and habits incompatible with respect for the property of others, or for the laws.

Educational Intelligence.

EDINBURGH CHAIR OF LOGIC.

In the University of Edinburgh a great interest has been felt in the filling of the Chair, vacant by the demise of the distinguished Logician, Sir William Hamilton, it may gratify some to learn the proceedings connected with the election of his successor. The following is from a supplement of the *Edinburgh Advertiser*, of the 15th July :—

To-day (Tuesday) the Town Council of Edinburgh met at twelve o'clock, and proceeded to fill up the Chair of Logic and Metaphysics, vacant by the death of Sir William Hamilton. The Council Hall was crowded to excess long before the hour of meeting.

The Lord Provost proposed Professor Fraser ; who was seconded by Councillor Stephenson.

Baillie Kay proposed Professor Ferrier, seconded by Dr. Sibbald.

Dr. Renton proposed Professor Scott, seconded by the Dean of Guild.

On the roll being called, there voted for Professor Ferrier, 12 ; for Professor Fraser, 11 ; and for Professor Scott, 8.

The name of Professor Scott was then struck off, and the vote again taken, with the following result :—

For Professor Fraser 17

For Professor Ferrier 14

Professor Fraser was accordingly declared duly elected to the vacant Chair, amidst great applause.

Professor Ferrier is the author of a well-known metaphysical work, which has lately evoked some severe criticisms on account of the German

tendencies of the writer. Professor Frazer was the Editor of the *North British Review*, and has also published some volumes of Essays. Mr. Scott is Principal of the Owen College, Manchester. A great amount of feeling was called forth in Edinburgh in favor of certain candidates, and squibs of all kinds were freely distributed to damage one and elevate another.—*Globe*.

THE NEW FREE COLLEGE AND CHURCH, GLASGOW—LAYING THE FOUNDATION STONE.

The ceremony took place Monday afternoon, shortly after two o'clock. The intimation that Dr. Clark, the munificent originator of the undertaking, along with Dr. McCrie, Dr. Buchanan, and others, was to take part in the proceedings, drew together a large assemblage of ladies and gentlemen at the corner of India street and Linedock street, estimated at about 3,000 persons. A considerable number of clergymen and gentlemen were present. Dr. Henderson advanced and read a portion of a psalm, which the assembled company joined in singing, and thereafter he offered up an appropriate prayer. Devotional exercises being concluded, various articles were deposited beneath the foundation stone, and it was laid with appropriate ceremonies.

THE MAGEE COLLEGE, DERRY.

The interesting ceremonial of laying the foundation-stone of the Magee College took place yesterday (Monday,) at three o'clock, p.m., in the presence of the governor and members of the Hon. the Irish Society, and a large body of respectable gentlemen, representing the Town Council and the different professions of the city. There were present also a great number of the neighboring gentry and clergy, and at the time appointed for the ceremony the ground was densely occupied. The site of the college is in a beautiful rising ground, immediately above Lough Foyle, on the left side of the road leading out from the city, and it commands a grand view of the Lough, and the Derry Railway, and other interesting scenery. A pavilion fitted to contain between 200 and 300, was erected on the ground for the purpose of the entertainment, which was to follow the ceremony. The Rev. Dr. Brown, of Aghadowey, made a preliminary statement, on behalf of the trustees, in reference to the history of the college and the intentions of the trustees in respect to it. Alderman Humphrey, the governor of the Irish Society, then laid the foundation-stone, which bore the following inscription:—"The foundation-stone of Magee College was laid at Londonderry on the 18th day of August, 1856, by Alderman Humphrey, Governor of the Honorable the Irish Society of London, in presence of that honorable body, then holding a full Court in the City of Londonderry, and the Magee College Trustees—viz., the Rev. James Brown, D. D., Rev. Richard Dill, A. M., and James Gibson, Esq., Barrister-at-law; also in presence of his Worship, Alex. Curry, Esq., Mayor of Londonderry, and before a numerous and influential assemblage of the citizens of Derry and inhabitants of the surrounding districts, representing all religious denominations in the community." The party then entered the pavilion, and took their seats for dinner. Alexander Curry, Esq., Mayor of Derry, occupied the chair.—*Banner of Ulster*.

CHEAP DAY SCHOOLS IN DUBLIN.

This educational body have issued a prospectus of a cheap day school in Dublin for the middle classes so as to afford the most favourable opportunities for appointments in the civil service, &c. The school is to be managed by a committee, three of whom are junior fellows of Trinity College—namely, the Rev. Dr. Carson, the Rev. G. Longfield and the Rev. J. W. Stubbs. The instruction is to comprise English in all its branches, mathematics, and natural philosophy, with the addition of the modern languages when required; classics, however, are to be omitted. The terms are to be 20s. a quarter without foreign languages, for which there is an extra charge of £2 per annum.—*Saunders*.

THE PATRIOTIC FUND AND EDUCATION.

The liberality of the nation contributed so largely—nearly a million and a half sterling—to the Patriotic Fund; and the war was so short, that the Commissioners find that their means will permit them to provide permanent succour for the orphans of our soldiers and sailors. The terms of the Commission fully warrant them in this appropriation of the funds. They have resolved to devote £160,000 for providing a school where 300 daughters of soldiers, sailors, and marines, will be maintained and educated—£20,000 for the erection of a building, and £140,000 to be funded to provide an endowment of £5,000 a year.

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION

Held its sixth annual meeting at Detroit, Aug. 13 and 14. The papers which were read, and the discussions that followed, were marked with unusual ability. One topic of peculiar interest occupied the attention of the Association, and elicited an earnest discussion;—the subject of the establishment of Graded Schools, from the Common School proper to the University, in its highest and most extended sense. The discussion established the fact that some of the finest scholars, the most earnest thinkers, the most indefatigable workers in the educational field, in every part of the country, without concert, had studied, and thought and worked out the same results, all tending to the conclusion that the time had come for a decided advance in the character and extent of education that the State was bound to provide for her youth.

Literary and Scientific Intelligence.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE.

This distinguished body has been holding its tenth annual session at Albany, during the past month, attended by a greater number of members, scholars and savans than has ever been gathered before. The exercises of dedicating the new Dudley Observatory, the State Geological Hall, and the expected presence of some eminent men of science from Europe, may have contributed to augment the attendance: though there has been a growing respect for the association, as well as confidence in the utility of its discussions and influence, for many years. As the only association of the kind in this country, it creates a desirable bond of union and intercommunication between scientific men in different parts of the country, and furnishes one of the best possible means of testing their value and bringing to light the discoveries and speculations going on among us. In its scope, the Association is not unlike the British Royal Society, and may achieve for science something of the admirable results which that venerable organization has effected. The presence of foreign scholars which had been expected, was not vouchsafed.

The Association was divided into two principal sections—one for Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry, and the other for Natural History and Geology. Prof. Bache was made chairman of the first section, which met in the Assembly Chamber; and Prof. W. B. Rogers, of Boston, of the other, which met in the Senate Chamber.

One of the first exercises was a most elaborate and curious paper from Prof. Peirce, of Harvard, on Potential Arithmetic. Prof. Bache gave a valuable sketch of the Coast Survey: Prof. Dana, of Yale, read an elaborate paper on the Plan of Development in the Geological History of North America. The following programme of subjects will shew the extent and nature of the investigations carried into operation:

SECTION OF MATHEMATICS, PHYSICS AND CHEMISTRY.

1. On the next appearance of the Periodical Comet of thirteen years; by Dr. Peters.
2. Conclusion of Paper on Potential Arithmetic: by B. Peirce.
3. On Ammonia in the Atmosphere; by E. N. Horsford.
4. On the possible Modification of the methods of ascertaining the density of the earth; by Stephen Alexander.
5. Investigation and calculation of the results of a general process of causation; by John Patterson.
6. On the Law of Human Mortality; by C. F. McCoy.
7. Analytical discussion on the motion of a body under the action of central forces; by Benjamin Peirce.
8. On Acoustics as applied to public buildings; by Prof. Henry.
9. Notes on the progress made in the coast Survey, in prediction tables for the Tides of the Coast of the United States; by A. D. Bache.
10. On the History and Theory of the instruments known as retoscopes, gyrosopes, etc.; by W. B. Rogers.
11. On various Cyclones of Typhoons of the North Pacific Ocean, with a chart shewing their course of progression; by W. C. Redfield.

SECTION OF NATURAL HISTORY AND GEOLOGY.

1. On the Volcanic Phenomena of Kilauea and Mauna Loa, and on the dynamical theories of earthquakes, etc.; by C. F. Winslow.
2. Exhibition of living Garpikes; by J. E. Gavit.
3. Notes on the Geology of Middle and Southern Alabama; by H. Winchell.
4. On some points in the Geology of the Upper Mississippi Valley; by James Hall.
5. Parallelism of Rock Formations in Nova Scotia, with those of other parts of America; by J. W. Dawson.
6. Proof of the Potozoic age of some of the altered rocks of Eastern Massachusetts, from fossils recently discovered; by W. B. Rogers.
7. On Carboniferous Reptiles; by Jeffries Wyman.
8. Permian and Triassic Systems of North Carolina; by Ebenezer Emmons.

The following notices, taken from various sources relate chiefly to the representatives from Canada :

ON THE VALUE OF PHYSICAL CONFORMATION AS AN ELEMENT OF ETHNOLOGICAL SCIENCE, BY DR. WILSON, OF TORONTO.

In treating this subject, Professor Wilson prefaced it by various interesting details relative to the ancient arts, and the indications of progressive civilization pertaining to very early, and unquestionably to ante-Christian periods, which have brought to light in the North of Europe. He then drew a comparison between these and the remains discovered under like circumstances in the British Isles, and pointed out the great value of such, as opening up to us entirely new chapters of European and British history, altogether prior to those which constitute the initial chapters of its written story. Such traces of primitive arts had been the subject of study and research in Britain long prior to the present time; but the inquirers proceeding on false premises, and guided entirely by preconceived ideas, chiefly derived from a too exclusively classical education, had missed the most important deductions, which we now owe mainly to the investigators of Copenhagen and Stockholm. But in addition to these purely archaeological evidences, the attention of distinguished Scandinavian naturalists had been directed to the osteological remains pertaining to the same period of Ancient Europe, and the results of the researches of Retzius, Nilsson, and others on the Continent, and various zealous labourers in the same track of discovery in the British Isles, had disclosed the former existence of a European race differing no less remarkable in certain features of physical conformation—shewn by the bones found in ancient graves—than they did in the arts practised by them, and the tools and weapons which they employed. One special characteristic disclosed by these ancient osteological remains is the form of the head, which the Professor described as square in form, having its longitudinal diameter very slightly in excess of its patristal diameter. This peculiar conformation he illustrated by sketches on the blackboard, and then drew a comparison between these crania and the skulls of the ancient race of Central America, as well as of those found in the great mounds of the Mississippi and Ohio valleys; pointing out, at the same time, several other respects in which the ancient osteological remains, both of Europe and this continent, differ from the Anglo-Saxon type. In doing so, Professor Wilson referred to the great work by the late Dr. Morton, of Philadelphia, on the crania of America, and an invaluable contribution to ethnology, and a monument of patient industry and scientific zeal, peculiarly creditable to this country. He next discussed the question raised by Dr. Morton, and since followed by others, as to an assumed general uniformity of physical characteristics pertaining to the whole native races of the American continent, both ancient and modern, with the exception of the Esquimaux. This he combatted, shewing that if the shape of the cranium was accepted as the test, the difference between the ancient race of Central America, or of the Mississippi Valley, and some of the modern Indian tribes, such as the Chippewas, exhibited nearly all the difference between brachycephalic and dolichocephalic crania, or, in other words, all the difference which is traceable between the remains of ancient and apparent extinct races of Northern Europe and the modern historic races. He then entered into comparative details, pointing out the most striking points of correspondence and difference; such as a certain tendency towards a conical or wedge shaped vertex appearing to be traceable to a great extent among the whole Indian occupants of the continent, and also a considerable uniformity in the bones of the face. Having discussed the points of agreement and of difference thus brought forward, the Professor proceeded to indicate their importance by drawing attention to the diversities unmistakable in the existing varieties of the human race, as in the negro, the Mongol, the Malay, the red Indian, &c. Some of the most noticeable of these, such as the character of the hair and color of the skin, are not traceable in the skeleton; but others, such as the cranial peculiarities of the negro, the prognathous jaws, the pelvis, elongated heel, &c., are markedly apparent. He next discussed the influence of the intermixture of diverse races, as shewn in the contrast between the modern European and Asiatic Turk, and as illustrated in so many ways on this continent, as in the Red River half-breeds, the Zambos of Resmaraldas and Rio Verde, and in our whole colored population.

The value of such facts in relation to ethnological science were unquestionable. In so far as they went they were, the Professor said, even more certainly reliable than the invaluable contributions of the philologer; for while language, if employed on this continent as an ethnological test, would frequently seem to reduce to nearly one homogeneous race the Anglo-Saxon, German, Celt, Spaniard and negro, the ethnic physical distinctions remained unimpaired. He therefore urged the accumulation of facts, and the in-

creased attention of ethnologists to this aspect of the subject, while he deprecated hasty generalizations, and crude or fanciful theories relative to the initial stages of ethnic development as premature, ill-timed, and calculated to retard rather than to advance the science.

This communication gave rise to a lively discussion, Professor Agassiz, Professor Dawson, of Montreal, Professor Anderson, of Rochester, and others taking a part in it.

Prof. Agassiz regretted that this subject could not be discussed without seeming to many to involve a religious prejudice. But he was bold to affirm that differences exist between the races of men, greater than do exist between animals of different species. Take the family of monkeys, our next cousins. The monkey family, as truly as the human race, constitutes a family—all monkeys sharing the same structural endowments, capabilities and propensities, even as men share theirs. The monkey family is a unity, even as the human family is—and no more so. *I never have denied the unity of the human family*; on the other hand, I insist upon it. Its unity is recognized in its physical, intellectual and moral endowments—the three points of superiority over all other animals that constitute its indivisible unity. And there is the same unity in the monkeys; in them the same identity of structure, instincts, wants. And yet the Orang, the African type of monkey, is so different from the Chimpanzee, the Asiatic type, that Zoologists make them two distinct genera. Now between the races of men there is a greater difference than between the Ourang and the Chimpanzee. For instance, nature seldom causes the relative position of the upper and lower teeth to differ in the individuals of the same genera; yet the teeth of the race of men do differ more than the teeth of these two genera of monkeys. That word species, said the Professor, very much distracts us, so loosely is it used. Let us not quarrel about words, however. Let us study conscientiously the difference between the races, and when they are found to be so great that one race positively could not be derived from the other, then it is time enough to inquire how they originated. In immediate prospect, however, for our investigation is the question of the natural bounds of the races. There are facts enough in the animal world to justify the expectation that we may *then* find that there were independent and repeated origins for men.

Principal Dawson, of McGill College, Montreal, took up the gauntlet. He spoke very modestly, but to the point. He did not waver in his faith that when our organic natures have passed away we should recognize in all men our brothers. Archæology, geology, ethnology had each in its turn been regarded by the believers in a revealed religion as threatening to overturn the Bible History, but each in its turn, as discoveries progressed, proved its indorser. And so zoology, he did not doubt, when more of its facts were manifested, would be found testifying with revelation that of one blood all the nations of the earth were made. He doubted the parallelism between the families of men and monkeys. It was the habit to refer species having the same distinctive characteristics to the same origin. Limitation in space was one of the most marked characteristics of species, as Mr. Agassiz insists. But animals of a high organization extend themselves, over the earth by virtue of the exercise of intellect. The monkey is indeed, closely allied to man in his structure, but the parallelism fails utterly in the limit of the range of the monkey and the man. In Africa we have the negro man and the negro orang. In Asia we have the Asiatic man and the Asiatic monkey, while in America we have the American man and the long-tailed monkey—similarity of circumstances utterly failing to produce between the American man and American monkey the similarity of structure that might have been expected from analogy. Again, man's range of limit is almost boundless—the monkey's is exceedingly narrow. Man extends his limit every hour, and with it he exchanges his characteristics, but animals do this to the very smallest extent only, and *man is the chief agent* of the extension of their limit, and of the small alteration of their characteristics. Any one species of the monkey is almost invariable, but man of every race is very variable. The Professor proceeded to illustrate by the varieties of the horse found in America, and said that if the historical testimony were lacking, horses, too, would be reckoned as of different species.

Mr. Agassiz protested against the method of argument. The doctrine of identity is not a scientific one but traditional. He did not reply to Prof. Dawson's argument, but added to the points of his previous parallelism. The debate was conducted in a masterly manner.

PROFESSOR CHERRIMAN'S PAPERS.

We regret that we are unable to do more than notice the very able papers of Professor Cherriman. With the exception of Professor Pierce, Professor

Cherriman was the only one who communicated anything on the higher Mathematics.

In the Mathematical subsection, Prof. Cherriman read a paper on the "Rotation of a Rigid Body," which was a review of Poinso's *Memoire sur la rotation du corps*, in which he pointed out a class of analogies and properties that had escaped the notice of Poinso and his followers. Among which was the existence of a point in a certain case of motion, for which he proposed the name of the "centre of parallel rotations," being the analogue of the "centre of parallel Forces" in the case of equilibrium.

Professor Cherriman also read a paper "on the Interpretation of certain cases of apparent geometric discontinuity." This paper referred to the mode of interpretation of imaginary quantities in the tracing of curves, which was proposed by Gregory, but whose legitimacy has since been disputed. Prof. Cherriman here brought forward a class of cases which appeared to show that this interpretation was not only legitimate but absolutely necessary. The subject is one of much interest among Mathematicians, but is too purely abstract to admit of description.

In the subsection of Physics and Meteorology, Professor Cherriman read a report on the present condition of the Observatory at Toronto; giving an account of its history since its abandonment by the Imperial Government, its present organization, and the mode of observation carried on.

At the close, it was agreed that the next meeting of the Association should take place in Montreal, on the 12th August, 1857. It was also resolved that invitations should be extended to foreign savans to attend the future meetings. The following gentlemen were next elected office-bearers for the ensuing year:—

President—J. W. Bailey, of West Point.

Vice-President—Alexis Caswell, of Providence, R. I.

General Secretary—John Le Conte, of Columbia, S. C.

Permanent Secretary—Joseph Lovering.

Chairman of the Local Committee—Sir Wm. Logan.

For Local Committee—(with power to add to their number)—Sir Wm. Logan, the Mayor of Montreal, the President of the Natural History Society, the President of the Board of Trade, the Hon. Sir L. Lafontaine, the Hon. Mr. Chauveau, Luther Holton, Esq., M. P. P., A. A. Dorion, Esq., M.P.P., and Messrs. Beaujeau, Lyman, Viger, and Judge Day.

ALGONQUIN LANGUAGE.

The following are notices of interesting papers read to the Association:—

Mr. Henry Schoolcraft read a paper on the structure of the Algonquin language. Language, he said, was one of the best and most reliable means of ascertaining the mental organization of the natives. There are few architectural monuments of the Indian race. Its lingual structure is its chief monument. The introduction of the animals and implements of civilized life made a great change in Indian habits. Peaceful Mexican tribes, by the adoption of the horse, had been converted into the warlike Camanches. The conquering Iroquois, surrounded by civilized men and customs, now harness the ox and follow the plow. It is only by tracing their linguistic connections, that we learn that a large genus of Indian tribes speak languages all derived from one stock.

The Algonquin language has been more cultivated than any of the Northern Indian dialects. It has been called the Court language of the Indians. The French early learned it. The English colonists found its varied forms among the Chippewas, the Kickapoos, and numerous other Northern and Western tribes.

The musical cadences of Ontario, Ticonderago, and other Algonquin names, will perpetuate their memory long after the race has vanished.

The Indian is always fearful. He fears all things and persons around him. He is cautious in speech; alert to hear and watch whatever occurs around him.

The similarities of conception and thought among the different tribes, are even more indicative of the one origin of the language, than its coincidences of sound. No Indian is an analyst. He looks at things in the gross, and speaks of them in the same way.

In speaking of loving, hating, &c., he distinguishes the class of objects to which the emotion refers.

The Algonquin cannot say, "I love a woman," and "I love a pipe," with using inflections to distinguish that the word applies in one case to an animate, in the other to an inanimate object.

He puts the main object first, thus, "Fish give me." "A man I see." "Bread I want." "Wampum, have you any?" and not the reverse form used in English.

There is no accomplishment he values so highly as oratory. Even the greatest warrior's reputation is inferior to that of Red Jacket. The Indian orator sways his excitable auditory with immense power. He alluded in conclusion to the effect of the Christian religion on the tribes.

CONNECTION OF GEOMETRY AND LANGUAGE.

Prof. Gibson remarked upon a curious connexion of geometry and language. Three letters occur in almost all primitive languages. They are a line, an angle, and a circle—thus: I. A. O. In almost all languages these letters are used in the word expressing Divinity. In Hebrew I O A is a name of Divinity. Greek, A I O the root of *aionios* "the eternal." In Hindoo, Japanese, and other Asiatic tongues, the same letters are used similarly. In Indian, these letters occur in *Manito*, the word for Spirit. These letters in the old Greek or Phœnician alphabet are the first, last, and middle letters, (Alpha, Iota, and Omega.) There they signify the beginning, middle and end.

Departmental Notices.

NOTICE.—SCHOOL TRUSTEES WISHING TO SECURE THE SERVICES OF A NORMAL SCHOOL TEACHER,

Should apply to the Chief Superintendent of Education, Toronto, before the 15th of October, as the Summer Session of the Normal School will close at that date, and some fifty or sixty teachers will then be prepared to take schools. Each application should state whether a male or female, a first or second class teacher is desired, and what amount of salary will be given. The trustees making the earliest application, and offering the highest salary, will be most likely to succeed. The applications for teachers trained in the Normal School have been much more numerous than the teachers thus trained; and persons intending to teach, ought by all means to avail themselves of the advantages of the Normal School, as teachers trained in it, and going forth with its certificate, are authorised to teach in any part of the Province—are able to teach with more success and satisfaction than they could otherwise do, and are most eagerly sought after, and offered the highest salaries. The Winter Session of the Normal School will commence on the 15th of November, and close on the 15th of April.

SPECIAL NOTICE TO TEACHERS.

Public notice is hereby given to all Teachers of Common Schools in Upper Canada, who may wish to avail themselves at any future time of the advantages of the Superannuated Common School Teachers' Fund, that it will be necessary for them to transmit to the Chief Superintendent, without delay, (if they have not already done so), their annual subscription of \$4, commencing with 1854. The law authorizing the establishment of this fund provides, "that no teacher shall be entitled to share in the said fund who shall not contribute to such fund at least at the rate of one pound per annum." This proviso of the law will be strictly enforced in all cases; and intimation is thus early given to all Teachers, who have not yet sent in their subscriptions, to enable them to comply with the law, and so prevent future misunderstanding or disappointment, when application is made to be placed as a pensioner on the fund.

To Municipal and School Corporations in Upper Canada.

PUBLIC SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

The Chief Superintendent of Education is prepared to apportion one hundred per cent. upon all sums which shall be raised from local sources by Municipal Councils and School Corporations, for the establishment or increase of Public Libra-

ries in Upper Canada, under the regulations provided according to law.

In selecting from the General and Supplementary Catalogues, parties will be particular to give merely the catalogue number of the book required, and the department from which it is selected. To give the names of books without their number and department, (as is frequently done,) causes great delay in the selection and despatch of a library. The list should be written on a distinct sheet of paper from the letter, attested by the corporate seal and signature of the Trustees; or by the corporate seal and signature of the Reeve or Clerk of the Municipalities applying for libraries. See accompanying Form.

SCHOOL MAPS AND APPARATUS.

The Legislature having granted annually, from the commencement of 1855, a sufficient sum of money to enable the Department to supply Maps and Apparatus (not text-books) to Grammar and Common Schools, upon the same terms as Library Books are now supplied to Trustees and Municipalities the Chief Superintendent of Education will be happy to add one hundred per cent. to any sum or sums, not less than five dollars, transmitted to the Department; and to forward Maps, Apparatus, Charts, and Diagrams to the value of the amount thus augmented, upon receiving a list of the articles required by the Trustees. In all cases it will be necessary for any person, acting on behalf of the Trustees, to enclose or present a written authority to do so, verified by the corporate seal of the Trustees. A selection of articles to be sent can always be made by the Department, when so desired.*

* *The Form of Application should be as follows:*

SIR,—The undersigned, Trustees [*Reeve, or Clerk*] of _____, being anxious to supply the Section (*or Township*) with suitable school requisites, [*or library books,*] hereby make application for the [*maps, books, &c.,*] enumerated in the accompanying list, in terms of the Departmental notice, relating to maps and apparatus, [*or library books.*] The [*maps or library books*] selected are, *bonâ fide*, for the use of the school [*or municipality*]; and they hereby pledge themselves and their successors in office, not to dispose of them, nor permit them to be disposed of to any private party or for any private purpose whatsoever; but that they shall be appropriated exclusively to the use of the school, [*or municipality,*] in terms of the Regulations granting one hundred per cent. on the present remittance.

In testimony whereof, the Trustees [*Reeve, or Clerk*] of the _____ above mentioned—hereto affix their names and seal of office this—day of _____, 185—, at _____.

We hereby authorise _____ [*Name.*] _____ [*Seal.*] to procure for us the _____ above mentioned, _____ in terms of the foregoing application. [*Name of Trustees, &c.*]

TO THE CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION, TORONTO.

NOTE.—A Corporate Seal must be affixed to the foregoing application, otherwise it is of no legal value. Text-books cannot be furnished on the terms mentioned above. They must be paid for in full at the net catalogue price. The 100 per cent. will not be allowed on any sum less than \$5, which must be remitted in one sum for either library or maps and apparatus.

SCHOOL REGISTERS.

School Registers are supplied gratuitously, from the Department, to Grammar and Common School Trustees in Cities, Towns, Villages and Townships by the County Clerks—through the local Superintendents. Application should therefore be made direct to the local Superintendents for them, and not to the Department.

LICENSED TEACHERS FOR THE COUNTY OF YORK.

At a Meeting of the County Board of PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, for the County of York, on the 28th August, LICENSES were granted for the year ending 30th September, 1857, to the following named TEACHERS, viz.:

For First Class, examined at the City of Toronto,—To Wm. Hackett, Jos. Hodgson, Henry Brown, Thos. Welsh, Wm. Spotton, Donald McKay, Mrs. Mary Ann Brown, Mathew Long.

Second Class.—To Wm. Watson, Andrew Sturgeon, Stewart Mulvey, Wm. Speedie, Thos. McDonald, Thos. Milne, Jas T. McClelland, Geo. Leitch, Richd. Brown, Henry Mathews, Jas. Fleming, John Irving, Wm. Steel, Jane McGinnis, Mrs. Elizabeth Mitchell, Mrs. Esther Coady, Jas. Strigley.

AT RICHMOND HILL.

First Class.—To Alexr. Robinson, F. B. Wouch, Duncan McCallum, Robert Kerr.

Second Class.—To John O'Leary, Jas. Hollinghead, Jn. McCaffrey, Thos. Ainslie, Alexr. Smith, Alexr. Campbell, Wm. Irvine, R. J. Steele, J. W. Wouch, Thos. S. Nealy, Oliver Lane, Jos. Huggill, Wm. J. McKeown, J. C. McKeown, Wm. Stiver, Jas. Harkins, Leander Taylor, Jas. A. Oves, Robt. D. McKeown, Robt. Innes, Wm. Logan, Jas. Bouner, John Morrow, Chas. Comerford, Mary A. McGinnis, Melinda Clarke, John Bruce, Wm. Davidson, Jas. Lynn, Chas. Whitwell, John Macey, Gilbert Barker, Caroline Lane, Adam Scott, Anne Bannerman.

AT NEWMARKET.

First Class.—To Wm. Anderson, Jno. B. McGann, J. C. McNally, Jno. C. Moulton, Andrew Power.

Second Class.—Wm. Brodie, Crawford McPherson, Hugh Allan, Benj. Bond, R. H. Evans, Mathew Green, Isabella Hutchinson, Robt. Hamilton, John Halliday, W. H. Meredith, Danl. Murphy, Louisa Miller, M. J. Maltby, P. O'Leary, Jos. Ross, Robt. C. Stewart, Geo. T. Webster.

Third Class.—Jos. Boug, Thads. O'Reilly, John Pointer, Chas. A. Seculin, Jane Waite.

* * Licenses to First Class Teachers received on producing Certificates of good moral character from their Ministers and Trustees.

All Teachers to whom Certificates are awarded are to apply to their Local Superintendents for them.

GRAMMAR SCHOOL MASTER.

A Gentleman who obtained a First-class Degree in Trinity College, Dublin, wishes for an engagement in a Grammar School, or would take private pupils. Advertiser has had much experience in teaching, and obtained the highest distinctions in his Academical career: including Exhibitions, High Place at Entrance, and First Rank Honors. His course of instruction comprises Latin, Greek, History, Geography, Grammar, Arithmetic, &c. Young Men preparing for, or in College, would find in Advertiser a valuable assistant. Testimonials can be produced of the highest order, touching his moral character and literary attainments.

Address, "DELTA,"
Office of the *Leader*, Toronto.

October 7, 1856.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, TORONTO.

THURSDAY, the 2nd Day of October, is appointed for the commencement of Lectures in the following departments, viz.:

Ancient and Modern Languages,	Mathematics and Natural Philosophy.
History.	Chemistry.
Metaphysics and Ethics	Zoology and Botany.
Logic and Rhetoric.	Mineralogy and Geology.

During the winter, courses will be delivered on Agriculture, Meteorology and Histology.

University College, Toronto, Sept 24, 1856.

VICTORIA COLLEGE, COBOURG.

MEDICAL DEPARTMENT AT TORONTO.

THE COLLEGE has directed the following PROFESSORIAL ARRANGEMENTS FOR THE SESSION, to commence on the FIRST of OCTOBER next, and to continue for Six Months.

The New College Building will be arranged to afford the necessary Theatre and accommodation for the Department.

The Hospital now affords the necessary facilities to the Students.

The Fees correspond to those of Queen's College, Kingston.

For particulars as to Curriculum, Graduation, &c., apply to the Subscriber, Dean of the Faculty; Residence, Gerrard Street, West.

JOHN ROLPH, Dean, &c.

Toronto, Aug. 23, 1856

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

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