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RECENT LITERARY AND EDUCATIONAL SPEECHES IN ENGLAND AND CANADA.

1. THE RIGHT HON. LORD BROUGHAM, LL.D.

THE PROGRESS OF SOCIAL SCIENCE.

Lord Brougham delivered the inaugural address before the Association for the promotion of Social Science in Glasgow, on the 24th ult. In his introductory remarks, he said:—In the outset of our proceedings we are naturally led to mark the progress of social science in past times, as well as its state at this day. The novelty of the name to designate what was before unknown in its various branches proves how little till of late years men had devoted themselves to these inquiries in the aggregate, although particular subjects might more or less have engaged the attention of different classes without regard to the relation subsisting among them. But, indeed, we cannot go far back in the history of statesmen and lawgivers, and of the community at large, without the conviction that the attention of any class fixed exclusively upon one or other of the branches is only to be observed in the more recent period of our social annals. We shall best ascertain the progress of our science by casting an eye over the history of the parties which have divided both the rulers and the people, and observing what attention was given to it, and how far it entered into their controversies. That men of rare endowment flourished in those times—indeed of the highest qualities ever displayed in public life—is undeniable; and that their talents fitted them for government in an extraordinary degree is as certain as that by their eloquence they were masters of debate. Besides Walpole, there were Cartaret and Pultney, of first rate distinction as orators—nay,

Bolingbroke, according to all tradition the very first of modern times. But their lives were in council devoted to the intrigues of party, in the Senate to party eloquence, in office to preserving all things as they had found them; and when Lord Chatham, somewhat later, was at the head of affairs, either in opposition or in the minority, not only were his whole attacks upon his adversaries confined to purely party grounds, but his own policy shows him so little in advance of his age, that, as regarded France, it was grounded upon the narrow, antiquated notion of natural enmity; and, as regarded America, upon the equally narrow and antiquated notion of natural sovereignty. To work out those great principles—to attack all invasion of the one either in alliances or in war, and of the other in government, was the object of his public life. Yet so powerful is habit, such the force of routine, he seemed wholly unable to comprehend that it is our first duty by all means to cultivate peace with our nearest neighbour, as the first of blessings to both nations, each being able to do the other the most good in amity, the most harm in hostility; but he could only see glory, or even safety, in the precarious superiority grasped by a successful war. In like manner, as often as the idea of American independence crossed his mind, he instantly and utterly rejected it as the destruction of our national existence, instead of wisely perceiving that to become the fast friends of the colonies which we had first planted and long cherished under our protection, would benefit both ourselves and them the more by suffering them in their full growth to be as independent as we had always been. Was Lord Chatham singular in those feelings? Not at all; but he was not at all wiser than others. The American war had raged for years before the word separation crossed the lips of any man in either House of Parliament—the mismanagement of the war and ill-treatment of the colonists being the only topics of attack upon the Government from those whose avowed object was to prevent the necessity of separation. But out of this war and this revolution arose fundamental differences of opinion upon the great questions of allegiance, of popular rights, and, generally, of civil liberty—opinions carried still further by the greater Revolution (not unconnected with that event) which convulsed Europe a few years later; and parties became marshalled according to principles thus entertained by many, professed by more; and the end of the century was distinguished, as had been the greater part of the century before, not by the absence of all party and personal combination, but by important principles on matters of Church and State becoming the ground

of attachment or opposition to persons, or of the ties that held parties together. But in the course of time, and improvement of men's views touching their real interests, their attention was turned to opinions and principles among the most important of all, but on which the leaders of particular classes could not fasten so as to appropriate them, because they so plainly concerned the whole community, or were of such unquestionable soundness and truth that no dispute could arise respecting them, any diversity of views being necessarily confined to points of detail, and, consequently, they were placed beyond the field of party conflict. The duty and the expediency of philanthropic policy in one sense comprises all the subjects belonging to this class; but even in a more restricted acceptation it embraces some of the most remarkable. One characteristic of these opinions has just been noted, their not lending themselves to party controversy; another and equally striking is their being held by those who had no special interest in them.

**ERRORS IN EDUCATION—DISPARITY BETWEEN THE NUMBERS OF TEACHERS AND PUPILS—EMPLOYMENT OF EDUCATED-WOMEN.**

After alluding to the necessity of public education, his Lordship continued:—There are two subjects of a more general description, one of which has often come under discussion, and is not unattended with difficulty: but the other of great importance, and by no means of difficult consideration. A great error was at one time committed, at the establishment of schools upon the plan of Bell and Lancaster. The facilities afforded for teaching great numbers under a single master gave rise to a prevailing impression that cheapness of instruction could best be secured by these means, and there was too great a disposition to make this the ruling principle. But experience has proved, what a little reflection might earlier have shown, the great advantage of numerous teachers. In truth, this is essential, not only for securing thorough instruction, but for maintaining that discipline, that influence of moral authority which is the most important benefit conferred by attendance upon a school. It is to be hoped that the whole of this subject will be fully considered by the department, and the facts, which are the result of men's actual experience, be gathered together, and the inferences to which that experience leads be distinctly pointed out. But though education and training, imparting sound knowledge, religious and moral, and exalting the character, as of rational beings, is the most important of all our duties towards the humbler classes of our fellow-citizens, it is by no means to supersede the care of their temporal welfare, or to be taken as a substitute of that other imperative duty. A wide field is thus opened to social science, and it is one which only in modern times has received any cultivation. Count Rumford was a great benefactor to the world in promoting the more important of its branches. His plans, for the most part, were well devised to increase the comforts of the poor, and, carried into execution while he held high court and military employment in Bavaria, deserve the greatest of attention; and the study of his essays, in which they are minutely detailed, is a duty incumbent upon all well-wishers to the prosperity and the peace and order of society. The subject hardly to be surpassed in importance, the employment of educated women, was discussed at the last congress, and a society was soon after formed for promoting it. Last Easter it became connected with this association; and the laudable exertions of Miss Bessie Parkes, whose interesting paper had mainly led to its formation, and of Miss Faithful and of other fellow-labourers in this good work, have already been attended with marked success. Several papers upon various views of the subject will be read at this meeting. It may now only further be stated that the meeting held in last June, presided over by Lord Shaftesbury, was very numerously attended. The great object of finding employment suitable to educated women was fully considered, and our secretary, Mr. Hastings, took a prominent and useful part in the discussion. Among other occupations, law-engrossing, book-keeping, and printing may be mentioned as well fitted for educated women. The printing press, conducted under Miss Faithful's superintendence, has been eminently successful, and since the meeting in June has received a high sanction of the Queen's approval, signified in a gracious letter by Her Majesty's commands. It is very gratifying to find that the experience of this press has removed most, if not all, the objections which were at first raised against the plan. It is fit to add that the energy, perseverance, and discretion of Miss Faithful have mainly contributed to this happy result.

**[2. RIGHT HON. SIR JOHN COLERIDGE.**

**TENDENCY OF THE TIMES AND THE CONSEQUENT NECESSITY FOR EDUCATION.**

Sir John Coleridge, in a recent lecture at Tiverton, "on Public Schools," commenced his remarks by an observation which he had made before, and he repeated it now, that the irresistible tendency of the times was not so much to increase education as to bring into

activity the political power of what were called the lower classes of the country. This was so marked a tendency, it was so regular in its advance, so vigorous in its springs of action, that it could not be overlooked. It therefore became their duty to strive to make the classes in question fit to exercise the functions cast upon them. Again, in order for the other classes to preserve their places in society, they must be diligent in their own education. It would not do to rest upon tradition or upon privilege, for if they still desired to lead they must make themselves fit to be leaders. They must strike out with the most skilful swimmers in the race. While all around the underwood of the forest was making vigorous shoots, their own growth must not be neglected, lest they were overgrown. Let them feel no dismay, for the stream which might overwhelm if they attempted to stop it would become a source of abundant blessing if they directed its course aright; but the ability to do so could only come by diligent self-culture.

**CHARACTERISTICS OF ETON COLLEGE EDUCATION.**

The greater public schools of the country were more especially the subject of his lecture, but, as he had abandoned the idea of including the Universities, so he should confine his remarks and illustrations principally to Eton—not merely because he knew more about it than any other, but partly because he conceived, from its size and composition, it was at once the most important and complete of its class. With regard to Winchester, Harrow, Rugby, and other schools, their merits were well and widely known, and they had reason to be proud of their distinction. Tracing the origin of Eton to Henry VI., and giving an elaborate sketch of the history and character of the school, the Right Hon. Gentleman said that Eton and her fellow-institutions had ever fulfilled, and were still fulfilling, their glorious mission; adapting themselves in form to the changing manners of the times, but always preserving their identity and spirit. Every educational institution had its idea—that which, so long as it was consistently carried out, influenced all its details. The idea of Eton was the union of liberty of action and independence of thought in the boy with that maintenance of discipline and subordination without which no school could exist, much less the scholars maintain progress in learning. Many of the schools seemed to have their idea founded upon the problem, how much of restraint and discipline was consistent with the maintenance of the vigour of the intellect and the warmth of the heart. Boys were trained to walk regularly rather than to fly high or far. Safety for all was sought rather than excellence for many. These principles, however, admitted of qualification. Each school, perhaps, had its merits, and England had room for all. The judicious parent would select a school according to his son's peculiar disposition, intellect and circumstances, for

"The child is father of the man."

There was, it must be admitted, for many children, danger in the Eton system. Even with men, liberty often trembled on the edge of licence, and it required great firmness, discretion, and skill, so to govern a school on this principle as to maintain constant regularity, obedience and willing application of the mind. The tendency of the Eton system was to make a boy generous and firm-minded, to teach him to exercise his common sense and feel his responsibility, and to make him act under the influence of generous shame and emulation,—in short, to make him a manly boy, trusting because he was trusted. This was a favourable picture of the tendency of the system. Many might fail to be influenced by it, but these were its natural results. The traditions of an ancient school had great influence upon the working out of its idea; and the Eton traditions were favourable to these results. Eton boys loved their school while there, and would leave happy homes to return to it with none of the usual schoolboy's regret. They were often idle, noisy, and not proof against temptation—they might desire, but could not easily make their boys faultless; but there were many faults from which an Etonian was free, in part, at least, because he was an Etonian.

**PROFESSION vs. PRACTICE IN SCHOOL STANDARDS.**

After bestowing praise on the system of teaching adopted at Eton the lecturer said, it had been commonly remarked that Eton boys did not bring to the University and to the competitive examination that sound knowledge of the mathematics which Eton professed to teach, and the suspicion got about that there was a want of reality in mathematical teaching. It was, however said that within a few years a great apparent change had been made, but without corresponding results, as tested in the Universities and elsewhere. This was much to be lamented, if true, for if there was one principle more sacred in schools than another, it was that nothing should be professed more than was performed, and that what was taught should be taught well. Was the other department of teaching sacrificed to this? He believed not, and yet the scholarship of the pupils appeared to him to be below what it had been, and the composition less accurate. And he spoke the opinion of those who examined the boys

for the Newcastle scholarship. He did not say that the best boys were inferior in the knowledge of metres, but they did not appear to grasp the ideas of the great writers as good Eton scholars used to do, and in composition they showed less of the manliness and simplicity of the great classical masters, and too much of Italian conceit and false brilliance. Scholars could distinguish what he spoke of; Lucretius would not have been ashamed of Dr. Keates' poem on the "Immortality of the Soul," and Virgil would have admired the verses of the Bishop of Lichfield. Some might smile, perhaps, and think he attached too much importance to these things, but they indicated a less perfect command of the language.

**PRESENT CONDITION OF ETON COLLEGE—PRIZES AND EXAMINATIONS EXCESSIVE—SCHOOL SPORTS.**

He did not think this was the result of too much attention devoted to other studies. The boys used to be incited to exertion by the honours they might gain, and the honours for competition were sent up for "good" and for "play" in the sixth form. The headmaster read them aloud to the assembled class in the former instance, and the sending up of a good exercise was the condition upon which the half-holiday depended. By modern practice, however, he thought these honours had been made much too cheap—too much the reward of good behaviour rather than of good composition; and the boys were content to reach the standard. He thought, too, that the number of prizes and examinations was excessive, and tended to distract boys from regular application. These prizes, however, were useful as testing results, and were most satisfactory when they were preceded by no specious training of the lads. With reference to the sports, he had watched the cricketing, boating, and drilling of the boys with increasing interest as some indication of the general well-being of the school. It was a bad time for the study of the school when the sports languished.

**RELIGIOUS TRAINING—NECESSITY AND VALUE OF PARENTAL INFLUENCE.**

There was, he was glad to say, marked improvement in the religious training of the school, in the knowledge of the Scriptures and ecclesiastical history, which was in some degree owing to the Newcastle scholarship, the influence of which had extended throughout the school, even to those who might never be in a condition to compete for the prize. On the subject of parental influence, the right hon. gentleman said that some parents expected everything good and great from their boys through the instrumentality of public schools, forgetting how many other agencies operated upon them, and doing nothing themselves to aid in the production of the virtues they desired. Some deliberately and almost avowedly disregarded the studies of the schools, rather leading their sons to consider that their first objects were the formation of good connexions for after life, and the acquisition of good manners. The boys, in such cases, were the victims of bad homes rather than bad schools. The sons of such parents were very injurious to the schools, and it was the duty of masters to give such boys ample warning and trial, but if these failed to send them away, as one would send away an infectious patient, as kindly as might be, and with as little disgrace as possible, so that the removal might not fail to produce a good effect upon the school, while it could not injure the boy himself, but might do him good. There was great wisdom in the maxim, "Learn to depart."

**INFLUENCE OF HIGHER PUBLIC SCHOOLS ON THE ENGLISH CHARACTER.**

In conclusion, he said the public schools of England had a powerful influence on the English character. To have been together at Eton, Harrow, Winchester, or Rugby was a tie for life; and to have been friends there was a charm which made the holiest friendship more holy. Even to have been in the same class, and the same chapel, was a link which bound together old and young, great and humble, soldier and civilian, and made personal strangers at once familiar by common associations. And so Wellesley, the stately and puissant governor of millions, and Charles Metcalf, a boy from Eton, commencing his course in life, met first on the banks of the Hooghley, and felt themselves the sons of the same mother. A feeling such as this operated on the character, and it spread so widely and deeply as to leaven the mass. But this was not all—for the education itself was of a kind to favour the growth of certain qualities. Of course a strong and uncongenial nature might overpower it, but it tended in itself, with a silent force, to make men ready to oblige, affable, and self-reliant; it helped to the development of common sense and dexterity in the ordinary concerns of life; to make men cheerful in retirement, agreeable in society, no less than to bear their parts gallantly and cleverly in the tumult and conflicts of public life. In a word, it fostered that assemblage of qualities which, combined with the higher ones of integrity and goodness, constituted the accomplished gentleman.—His last words then were,—*Eto perpetua.*

**3. THE REV. J. TRAVERS LEWIS, LL.D.,**

(Local Superintendent of Common Schools, Town of Brockville.)

**CAUTION AGAINST RELYING TOO MUCH UPON THE BOASTED PROGRESS OF THE HUMAN MIND.**

In his recent opening lecture before the Ontario Literary Society, Toronto, Dr. Lewis, after some introductory observations, remarked: That as a consideration which should serve to repress undue boasting, we should never forget, among other things, that centuries before the Christian era, science was so successfully cultivated in lands now given over to desolation that even the prostrate columns of their temples are deemed worthy of transportation to England and America, the sculptor's art having never since reached similar perfection. Layard has disinterred from a grave of two thousand years specimens of art and proofs of luxuriant refinement which seem even now extraordinary. Let us not forget, too, that the orators and learned of modern times acknowledge as their masters and models the Grecian and Roman who spoke and wrote for immortality. In the new world also, in Central America, have been discovered incontestable remnants of nations strong and civilized, barbarians only in their Paganism, but in the luxuries and refinements of life vastly superior to many countries of the present day, and those none of the most contemptible. Nay, when we would give utterance to our expression of the magnificence or grandeur, or would illustrate the power of man, do not the Temple of Solomon and the Pyramids of Egypt instinctively recur to our imagination, and, not to lengthen the catalogue of ancient glories, is not the oldest volume in the world the noblest specimen of sublimity of style? And yet what are the results in their birthplace, of these works performed in the infancy of the world? Little but the fragments all but miraculously preserved. Luxury and wealth induced immortality; immortality produced decay, until actual barbarism rioted where once philosophy and the arts flourished so eminently. From a settled conviction that possesses the human mind that the destiny of man is ever progressive, and that a relapse into an inferior position is almost impossible, we do not concede to the nations of antiquity their due meed of praise. We glance hastily at their biography and our eye rests on the page which records their degradation and mental slavery, and we hastily assume that the antecedent civilization is overrated, and but for the monument of their knowledge and power which the ravages of time have spared, but for the treasures which our libraries and museums present to our astonished gaze, we should unhesitatingly conclude that the wave of human progress has ever been advancing uniformly with a flowing tide, that the current of civilization had never ebbed, that storms and tempests had never dashed the wave back, nor broken it on the quicksand and the rock.

**RELATIVE INFERIORITY OF THE MODERNS TO THE ANCIENTS**

Let me not then be thought partial when I venture to say that notwithstanding our great and absolute superiority, we are relatively inferior to the men of old time. Only let us take into account the advantages possessed by the present age, and any of those periods of the past which is famous for its learning or civilization, contrast the facilities possessed by each for the propagation and perfection of knowledge, and we shall be at no loss in ascertaining to whom the palm is to be ascribed. Compare the productions of Greece and Rome in the field of Science and Art with those of our time, and before adjudicating the prize to either bear in view the difficulties to be encountered in the infancy of any Art and the facilities possessed by us who have the experience of ages for our guide, and then say whether we progress in so surprising a ratio. We are contrasting, be it remembered, the works of an age when a manuscript was well nigh the toil of a lifetime, with those of a period when a useful idea is scarcely suggested, before it is diffused so rapidly and extensively by the Press as to excite our thanks and admiration. Who can deny that the Alexandrian Library, with its four hundred thousand manuscript volumes in the days of Cæsar, was not a more wonderful monument of human industry and skill than any Library of the present day? \* \* \* If, therefore, we compare the ability of the ancient with our own to cherish and foster literary and scientific pursuit, of the power to educate and reform the mind which our vast wealth bestows be taken into account, we shall find little cause for congratulation. Facts speak convincingly. The English people spend on the single item of ardent spirits more money than on all their religious and educational establishments combined; while the American people spend in their gratification in the single item of cigars a larger sum than is expended on all the Common Schools of the Union. The influence then is inevitable that literature and art must have been more highly prized and more ardently cultivated, for their own sake, by the nations of antiquity than by us, when we honestly estimate their difficulties and our facilities, their poverty and our resources.

## OUR ANTIDOTE AGAINST THE FATE OF OTHER NATIONS.

Where now in the scale of nations is that land to which we owe our Geometry, and Algebra, and Arithmetic? Hindoos and Arabs bequeathed these triumphs of genius to us, and yet they are fallen as a people, they are degraded as nations. What is now the social and political position of Greece and Rome; nations which once dictated to the world, and are so associated in the students' mind with the arts of war and peace, that it is difficult to believe in their present poverty of mind and imagination—

"Eternal summer gilds them yet,  
But all except their sun has set."

But why mention other examples of civilization corrupted, knowledge perverted and glories departed? The splendour of the Italian Republics is gone. Nothing remains in memory of the departed glory of the empires of the past save their venerable ruins and incomparable public works, which even now bewilder by their vastness. And does analogy (it is the point which concerns us more immediately) justify us in dreading a like decay of Anglo-Saxon knowledge and power? No! There are certain safeguards, if we but employ them, which render the destruction of our civilization improbable, nay impossible. The bulwarks against that worst of barbarisms, corrupted civilization, are the diffusion of useful knowledge and our Christianity.

## NOTHING NEW UNDER THE SUN—SECURITY AGAINST THE LOSS OF OUR DISCOVERIES.

It is almost certain that there is scarcely an invention in Art or Science of modern times which was not known in theory to some of the Philoſophic ancients. Among recent discoveries we may single out the Stereoscope as an illustration of an invention singularly beautiful and creditable to the eye, and yet the principle of the instrument was known 1,500 years ago. But with the inventor perished the invention. The manuscript that contained the treasure was neither understood nor valued, and thus acquisitions to human knowledge were lost. In the present day, the diffusion of every Scientific and Literary achievement, through the aid of printing, renders such a disaster almost impossible, and thus perpetuity is guaranteed to our discoveries. Hence it is that we should hail with joy the advent of every means by which learning is disseminated and the masses enlightened. Hence it is that we should rejoice in the attainment of every new motive to literary and scientific distinction. Therefore it is that the true philanthropist hears with satisfaction of every new school of science, and of every additional university, of every well regulated mechanics' institute. He knows full well that knowledge imparted does not diminish the store of the teacher, and he sees in every new improvement in the education of a people the surest means of retaining to the human family the blessings of past experience.

## CHRISTIANITY THE GREAT CONSERVATOR OF KNOWLEDGE AND VIRTUE.

I have spoken of one of the securities possessed by the present age against the sudden decay of our knowledge. Let me now allude to another, to one which can save our literature from corruption and consequent decay, which can foster and promote science while it preserves it from perversion, which can direct our research to what is good and divert it from what is evil, a bulwark against the abuse of learning and the aversion to it which is sure to follow—I mean the Christian religion. In the present age, we have no reason to dread that our arts and sciences will ever degenerate into superstitious or senseless theorizing. Astronomy in our hands will never again become Astrology. We may safely affirm that Chemistry will never more resolve itself into Alchemy and Magic, but we have other more substantial dangers; we may dread lest our Philosophy may outstrip our virtue. We should scorn the fallacy that there is no difference between denouncing the evil of knowledge and the knowledge of evil: it is the latter only that the Christian Philosopher may deprecate; he knows that it is not unusual to transform blessings into curses, or to use the instruments of our civilization as weapons against ourselves. The same railway which, by facilitating the intercommunion of nations, promotes knowledge and obliterates prejudices may, and often does, become an engine of widespread disaster. The same Press which can delight the reader with details of what otherwise he might never have heard, which can carry him in imagination into the universal world, which can please while it instructs, and prove a friend to the solitary and a guide to all; that same engine for incalculable good may poison the mind with pestilential productions; it may, and does cater to the diseased appetite of a corrupt nature; it may disseminate falsehood as well as truth; it may print the Bible to-day; it may pollute the innocent mind to-morrow. Alcohol, so necessary to many arts—who can recount the horrors of its abuse? Unless the corrective influence of Christianity accompany the prodigious force of modern invention; unless the spirit of benevolence (and who can possess it so disinterestedly as the Christian) keeps pace with our mechanical progress, unmitigated evil may

result; and the reason is obvious, for knowledge is evil when undirected by benevolence; knowledge, to prove beneficial, must progress beneath the sheltering wings of Christianity, and then we need not dread that abuse of the gifts of Providence which has ever led to woful re-action.

## FINITE LIMIT OF HUMAN INVESTIGATION.

The philosopher alone can understand the littleness of his own attainments; the magnitude of every fresh discovery fills his heart with wonder and humility, from a consciousness that he is but treading the threshold of the temple of science while his intellect is overpowered by the bare conjecture of the majesty of what may remain in reserve for future discovery within the penetralia. This was the feeling which filled the mind of Newton, who could compare the extent of his noble investigation of natural laws to the work of a child gathering pebbles on the shore. Strange as it may sound, the simplest facts in nature are still bewildering mysteries. Phenomena, which from familiarity we deem intelligible, when regarded philosophically, fill us with astonishment. It would seem as if Providence had permitted the human mind to triumph most in those subjects which lie remotest from itself, lest man becoming as well known to himself as other works of creation, should say in his heart, There is no God. How else does it happen that, while subjects relating to life and happiness are comparatively unknown, men whose names we reverence are permitted to pierce through the vault of Heaven and make such discoveries of other worlds and systems as keep the mind in suspense whether it is more delighted with the increasing precision of man's demonstrations or overwhelmed with the majestic vastness of the universe. We naturally wonder and admire when we hear that Leverier, by the aid of purely mathematical reasoning, could with certainty affirm that a planet as yet unseen, would be discovered in an assigned region of the heavens. The telescope is eagerly directed to the prescribed spot and the planet is detected. What a perfection of science is revealed in the fact that Murchison was able to announce that in Australia veins of gold must exist, though as yet not a particle had been discovered. By the aid of science we can predict with the certainty of personal knowledge, that when ages on ages have rolled by the glorious Southern Cross will again be visible on these Northern latitudes. But why dwell on such intellectual grandeur? Man turns from such contemplation to self, and he shrinks again into conscious humility. His success in the investigation of nature might intoxicate, if his failure in the knowledge of self did not recall him to sobriety. Yes! the field in which the mind can work is as infinite as the mind itself. Any moment may introduce us to some new discovery which may throw all former triumphs into the shade. On every side is the material open to experiment and observation, inviting every lover of nature to explore and wonder.

## INCENTIVES TO FUTURE EFFORT—ACCIDENTAL DISCOVERIES OF GREAT FACTS.

It may perhaps appear paradoxical to urge the student of nature to perseverance by reminding him that many of the most brilliant discoveries have in every age been the result of accident, yet such is the case, and even here we can see the disposing hand of Providence allowing man to achieve miracles in the acquisition of knowledge, yet under such circumstances as must humble him. The discovery of the power of the telescope to pierce the firmament was like that of the glass of which it was composed, altogether casual. Galvani introduced us to the science of electricity by an accidental application of zinc and silver to the muscles of a frog. We owe the wonders of the magnetic telegraph to the unexpected discovery of Orested that a galvanic current deflected a magnetic needle. Brinkley established the prodigious velocity of light while he was investigating a totally different phenomenon. Hargraves was indebted for his remarkable improvement in the spinning jenny, which so greatly influenced the commerce of England, to his child, who upset the wheel at which he worked; the wheel continued to work the spindle in a vertical position, he seized on the idea and multiplied immensely the power of the instrument. Had not Watt been employed as a workman to repair an atmospheric engine we might still have been ignorant of the power of the steam engine. Had not an apple fallen at the precise time it did at the feet of Newton we might still have been unacquainted with the law of gravitation. It was the simple observation that silver was blackened by the sun's rays which led to the discovery of the chemical power of light. Of these and many other discoveries the origin was in great measure accidental, not in the sense of a blind chance, but in their being introduced into the world under circumstances which loudly proclaim the hand of a disposing power, man appropriating to his use phenomena thrust (as it were) on his observation. The time again when these grand master-pieces of discovery were wrought prove the same conclusion. Who is there who does not see something more than a happy coincidence in the fact that the facilities of working the coal-mines of England were acquired at the precise

time that the steam engine required them, and when it would have been comparatively useless without them. The mariner's compass and astrolabe were so plainly preparatory to the discovery of America, that we cannot fail to see the providential design. Again, we can scarcely resist the inference that the gold deposits of California and Australia were permitted to be discovered at the precise time when an over-crowded population in Britain and Eastern America required a field for their labor and industry, while the tide of emigration to the shores of the Pacific may be a stride of civilization, on its way to avail itself of the opening of Japan and the convulsions in China. Thus, no ardent lover of science need be deterred from the pursuit of his favorite study by the idea that it is the innate force of intellectual organization which makes the most useful or wonderful discoveries. "The works of God are great, sought out of all them that have pleasure therein."

#### TRUE SOURCE OF INTELLECTUAL PLEASURE AND REFINEMENT.

Let only the love of a science add a zest to our examination of it, and we will even be content to forego the claims of originality when we begin to taste the pleasure of being able to sympathize with the knowledge, the happiness and the ability of others. And here, after all, is perhaps the true stimulant to knowledge—the pleasurable emotions ever derivable from its possession. There is in the very acquisition of new ideas, a feeling of delight to every well regulated mind; and as the ways of the Most High are investigated and acknowledged, we obtain a glimpse of what the mind is capable of knowing and enjoying, and we rejoice in the foretaste. The philosophy of history will reveal its lessons, as well as convey pleasure to the honest student. The biography of individuals as well as nations will minister to our delight when in the perusal we transfer ourselves in imagination to ages past, and become in aspiration the admiring disciples of the great and good. Yes, there is a refinement of happiness in mental cultivation which is as ennobling to the soul, as ignorance and sensuality are debasing to it; and there is scarcely a reflection more fraught with seriousness than that there are multitudes of young men especially, whom dissipation and folly are keeping in ignorance of the real nobility of their nature, and whom a taste for literature would have preserved from worldly misery or even untimely death.

#### INCREASED NECESSITY FURTHER TO PROVIDE EDUCATION AND LITERARY CULTURE.

Who can estimate the magnitude of the loss society sustains in the many intellects, which, had they been developed, would have increased the glorious company of philosophers and philanthropists. How many an aspiring heart has been, through the want of encouragement and direction, condemned to an unhappy ignorance, when it might have throbbed happily in the investigation of truth instead of being despised for its unavoidable debasement. How should the men whose wealth and station load them with responsibility, labour to elevate and cherish those whose capacity only requires to be eked forth by education and encouragement, in order to dazzle and delight the world. I am not now referring to the children of poverty, many of whom, had justice been done them by their fellow men, would have embellished the world with their works; and who, had they been taught to read, would have themselves been read for profit and delight; but I allude to the number of young men whose situation is raised above that of want, and who are yet deterred from the paths of science and pleasure of literature and peace, by the chilling apathy with which such pursuits are regarded by many of the affluent and influential. But let not the young candidate for literary or scientific distinction be faint-hearted even though encouragement be withheld by the world of fashion. There is still some recompense in the elevation of mind and dignity of feeling consequent on a dedication of our faculties to the knowledge of whatever is exalted and noble in the range of science. The inherent beauty of every work of nature, the brilliancy of every sunbeam, the tint of every cloud-streak, the majesty of every mountain, the glory of every setting sun, the beneficence of all creation, the realization of Almighty Power in every thing, these will all constrain the enthusiastic worshipper of God as seen through the medium of his works, to feel that in the estimation of reason there is no happiness comparable with the ability rightly to appreciate the wonders of the universe.

#### ACTIVITY OF THE HUMAN MIND—ARGUMENT FOR PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

The surprising activity of the human mind warns us that a wise selection of matter to employ that activity is indispensable, because employment it will have. Many a premature victim of dissipation would have been snatched from destruction had he been imbued with virtuous resolution by a timely acquaintance with the writings of the good and the wise. Had the beauties of nature and art been presented to the reason and imagination in the vacant hour of the idle holiday, many a such disposed mind would have been preserved

from ruin, and would have spent on happy reading or thoughtful study the hours which were squandered in idleness and sin. Men whom disaster and misfortune have reduced to frenzy, would have been blessed with fortitude had they been taught the dignity of their nature. The human mind abhors a vacuum. How great then the responsibility to pre-occupy with wisdom what must otherwise inevitably be possessed by folly. The soul will not remain a blank; it must be brightened by the knowledge of good, or darkened with the knowledge of evil. It is the province of literary association to induce candidates for knowledge to make trial whether they do not possess in the capacity of their mind to grasp the beauty and excellence of literature, a source of pleasure at once exquisite and inexhaustible. Of all the satisfaction (apart from religious feelings) we are capable of enjoying, few can compare with the acquisition of knowledge in a favourite pursuit, for as Sullust has observed, *verum enimvero is demum mihi vivere atque furi anima videtur, qui aliquo negotia intentus proclari facinoris actus atque bonae famam quærit*. I would add there is no attitude for the restlessness, ennui, or dissipation of life, like the devotion of those hours which duty can spare to the obtaining a glimpse, however feeble, of the majesty of glory which is spread before the eye in every work of nature in this world of ours.

#### 4. REV. W. F. CHECKLEY, B.A.

(Head Master of the County Grammar School, Barrie.)

#### TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS NECESSARY WHERE NORMAL SCHOOL TRAINING CANNOT BE HAD.

From a recent address by Mr. Checkley to the County of Simcoe Teachers' Association we select the following: It is not to be supposed—and we who are actually engaged in teaching best know this—that every man who possesses a sufficient amount of knowledge, together with certain moral requisites, is *properly*, though he may be *legally*, qualified to take charge of a school. Much has to be learned both as to management and the best means of giving instruction. Of the vast number of Common School teachers in the Province, (upwards of 4,000) comparatively few have ever received any preliminary training. They have undertaken a task which requires peculiar qualifications, and special preparation,—and though earnestness of purpose, with natural *tact* and well-informed minds, may enable many of them to succeed, yet a very large proportion prove at best respectable failures. Now it is obvious that for many years to come the majority of Common School teachers in Canada will be taken from a class who have never had the advantage of Normal School training, and these surely may derive some benefit from the experience of their fellow-laborers. And even where the advantage of systematic training has been had, still it will often be found very difficult to adopt a system which is suited to a large town, where the attendance is regular, where the teachers are in sufficient numbers, and where the means and appliances of teaching are abundantly supplied, to a country school, taught by a single master, with a scanty supply of books and other requisites, with an average attendance varying from 20, perhaps, in the summer, to 40 or 50 in the winter months. In all these cases much good would follow from a free and kindly interchange of opinion among teachers. There are many points, too, connected with the position and influence of the schoolmaster, which may well be brought before such an Association. Many questions, on which it would be well for teachers to have the means of expressing a *deliberate* and *collected* opinion. Our School System is now very excellent in its organization, and much praise is due to the clear judgment, the energy, and the perseverance by which, in spite of opposition and misrepresentation, it has been placed on its present footing.

#### EVILS OF THE PRESENT TEMPORARY CHARACTER OF THE PROFESSION OF TEACHING.

It is a great drawback to the cause of education in Canada, that teaching is so seldom looked upon as a man's permanent employment—that so few determine, at the outset, to make it their profession, and study it as such. We know that most of those now teaching Common Schools in the country districts throughout the province are only so occupied because they cannot at once get anything more lucrative to do. That they intend to seek some other method of obtaining a livelihood as soon as they have acquired sufficient means, and a suitable opportunity offers. The necessary result of this is, that they do not care to qualify themselves for the efficient discharge of an office which they do not mean to retain: that they are listless in the performance of their duties, and more or less indifferent to success or failure; for, whatever may be a man's honesty of purpose—however sincerely he may intend to perform his duty, from a principle of *conscience*, yet if it does not accord with his tastes, and if his interests are not to a great extent dependent on it, he will be satisfied with something less than thoroughness.

LOW ESTIMATE OF THE DUTIES OF THE PROFESSION BY TEACHERS THEMSELVES.

It is a serious but not uncommon mistake to suppose that a degree of knowledge, but slightly superior to the amount you are required to impart, will be sufficient to enable you to teach successfully—you you must stand on a far higher level, or those whom you instruct will, in some way or other, discover your deficiencies, and, finding you wanting, will not give you credit for the knowledge you do possess. It is often supposed, also, that little or no training can be requisite for teaching such simple subjects as are taught to the juvenile classes in Common Schools, reading, arithmetic, &c., but, in fact, the truth is quite the reverse—the more simple the subject—the more difficult to teach. It is a far harder task to interest a large class of little children in an ordinary reading lesson, to keep alive their attention, to preserve order and convey ideas, than it is to instruct a larger number of elder and more advanced pupils. In the latter case the subject is generally itself engaging, and the pupils better know the necessity for attention; while, therefore, a *senior* class demands more *knowledge*, a *junior* one requires more *tact* on the part of the teacher. No degree of knowledge or skill, however, will enable any man to teach successfully who goes to his work each day without any previous preparation or arrangements. An habitual neglect of this will assuredly cause such a loss of time, and introduce such uncertainty and confusion into a School as cannot be counterbalanced by any literary or other qualifications of the master.

PRACTICAL DUTY OF EACH MEMBER OF THE PROFESSION.

While we are all desirous of making good instruction accessible to every child in the community, let us act like practical men; and, instead of imagining that we are competent to legislate on school matters, instead of contenting ourselves with *talking* about school systems, let each do the duty that lies nearest—endeavour in earnest to bring his own school to the highest state of efficiency. If we do this we shall not only be more happy ourselves from the consciousness that we are not hirelings, but we shall more really serve the cause of education, than by any amount of learned deliberation on school questions. I wish you all to look upon this Association as a thing altogether secondary to that which it is meant to promote, the improvement of your several schools. The educational system of this province, commencing with the Common Schools and culminating in a noble University is very complete as a whole. Here and there a defect may be pointed out, but the general desire, I repeat, is good, and grand, and time and experience, enabling the master builders to correct and to enlarge, will gradually remove whatever faults there may yet be in the conception. It remains, however, for us, the workmen, to carry out the plans into thoroughly successful execution; and it must ever be remembered that if the welfare of a community is promoted by the diffusion of education, then the Common Schools of the Province, which educate more than nineteen-twentieths of its inhabitants, are far more connected with the progress of the country than either the Grammar Schools, or the University itself. And you, gentlemen, are each responsible to your fellow-men and to your God, for the due discharge of an office, the importance of which cannot be over-estimated.

5. MR. ANGUS MCKINNON.

(Common School Teacher in the County of York.)

POSITION AND DUTIES OF COMMON SCHOOL TEACHERS.

From a recent essay before the Teachers' Association of the County of York we make the following extracts in regard to the office of teacher: The question now may be asked, What are the benefits derived from *this office*? or, in other words, what is the end of teaching? The answer is beautifully given in the words "To bring forth all the powers of the mind and body for the discharge of the duties of this life and the life to come." God, in his infinite wisdom, appointed the Levites the temporal and spiritual instructors of the children of Israel. As then, so also in our day, it is still highly necessary that some, at least, devote their time and energies to the diffusion of knowledge and the improvement of society. It is to the culture of the mind we owe all our God-like pre-eminence. What little perfection man may possess, is acquired and not inherited. We may inherit the means wherewith to acquire knowledge, but never knowledge itself. If our mental powers are not cultivated, thorns and briars will soon spring up to choke what good there is in us. Let the work of improving man mentally and morally be discontinued, and the decomposition of society would speedily follow—the bulwarks of liberty and civilization, one after another, would totter and fall—the props of all our institutions, civil and religious, would gradually decay—those grand and stupendous monuments of science and of art, that occupied ages in building, would soon moulder to dust. Let teachers, too, bear this in mind, and *value* their calling, and much more will be done to elevate man than has

hitherto been accomplished. "If you do not value your profession, others will not do it for you;" this is an important truth that should be deeply impressed upon the mind of every teacher. Did every instructor of youth feel the truth and force of what has been said, the cause of education would progress much more rapidly, and be attended with far greater success. Lukewarmness is a crime too prevalent, and is productive of much mischief; it amounts to actual robbery. Parents and guardians are thus robbed of their money—robbed because the careless teacher renders no adequate service for the money he receives; and, what is more criminal still, he knowingly robs the *time* of the youth under his care—time, infinitely more precious than any of their lifetime; for now is the season in which their characters are to be moulded and their destiny fixed with a greater or less degree of certainty. The future history of this country—a country whose mineral and forest wealth is inexhaustible, and whose soil is as rich as could be desired—a country possessing all the material elements of an opulent and mighty nation—its future history, I say, lays, [?] lies to an almost incredible extent, in the hands of the teachers of the present generation. The manner in which they now discharge their duties will be fully illustrated in the characters of those who are to be the rulers and possessors of this fine country, on a day not far distant. Let this be borne in mind, and new life and vigour will be infused into our schools. Canada, then, will rise in the scale of knowledge and greatness to that point which destiny indicates for her sons. Let this thought inspire our hearts and stimulate us to redoubled effort, that knowledge may be sown broadcast over the land, until every man, woman, and child enjoys the benefits of a liberal education. Nothing gives more satisfaction to the faithful teacher, than to see knowledge increasing and the light of science shining around him. It cheers his heart, lightens his toil, and propels him on his mission of benevolence. The consciousness of making men wise, causes him to double his diligence. Fortunate are they who have a teacher who earnestly and unremittently labors to advance his pupils—inestimable is the fruit of his toil.—*Markham Paper*.

## II. Biographical Sketches.

### No. 24.—JOSEPH LOCKE, ESQ., M.P.

Our great engineers are falling fast. We have lost this year Brunel and Stephenson, and death has this week struck down Mr. Joseph Locke, the Member for Honiton, whose name has been intimately associated with every great railway undertaking of the last thirty years, and who was an excellent as well as an able man. He died in Scotland suddenly and unexpectedly, to the great grief of his numerous friends. Mr. Locke was born in 1805, and was the junior of the two distinguished engineers who have preceded him to the house of clay. Connected with the school of engineers, of which the elder Stephenson was the founder, Mr. Locke has made a princely fortune by his profession, and has risen to a social position higher, perhaps, than any civil engineer of his day. His private fortune is little less than a million sterling. Twenty years back it was well known that his pecuniary affluence was in advance of that of any member of his profession. He started life with the advantages of a good education, and with an amount of mathematical knowledge which materially advanced his subsequent career. He was George Stephenson's favorite pupil, and superintended, under his eye, the Liverpool and Manchester line of railway, the success of which has given such an impetus to the modern mode of travelling. In Parliament Mr. Locke's career was creditable but unostentatious. He spoke occasionally, and always with tact and judgment, and his votes were invariably in favor of progress and reform. On the death of Mr. Robert Stephenson he was elected President of the Institution of Civil Engineers. For his railway services in France, King Louis Philippe decorated him with the Cross of the Legion of Honour. He was also a Fellow of the Royal Society, and has passed from the world respected and regretted by all who knew him, having left the world largely his debtor.—*English Paper*.

### No. 25.—RIGHT HON. JAMES WILSON.

The *London News* announces the death of the Right Hon. James Wilson. The event is said to have occurred at Calcutta on the 11th of August. The disorder is believed to have been cholera. Mr. Wilson, who was editor of the *London Economist*, entered Parliament in 1847, and soon after he was appointed by Lord John Russell to one of the Joint Secretaryships of the Board of Control. In 1852 Mr. Wilson was made one of the Secretaries of the Treasury, a post that he filled until 1858. In 1859 he was appointed Vice-President of the Board of Trade, but was soon afterwards promoted to the post of Finance Minister of the Supreme Council of India, in

the discharge of the laborious duties of which he has now sunk into an untimely grave. His death has been a heavy blow to the hopes of reformed administration in India.

#### No. 26.—HON. JOHN MACDONALD, OF GANANOQUE.

The mournful intelligence of the death of the Hon. John Macdonald, of Gananoque, has just reached this city, where that gentleman was long and extensively known and highly esteemed for his moral worth. Mr. Macdonald died after a brief illness, aged seventy-three years and seven months. He was a native of Troy, N. Y., but he has been a resident of Gananoque during the last forty-three years, and was, perhaps, the oldest inhabitant of the village. He came here in 1817, when this section of the country was a dense wilderness, with here and there a small clearing; when the farms which are now under profitable cultivation, were an almost unexplored forest; when the roads which now lead east and west through the township were mere bridle paths without a habitation for miles. He was a member of the firm of C. & J. McDonald and Co., who established a large flouring mill, a grist mill, saw mill, nail factory, &c., and who kept the first store opened in the village.—He was also the first postmaster appointed at Gananoque, which office he held for over thirty years, and resigned it in 1854. About the time of the rebellion he was called to the Upper House, the seat of Government then being at Kingston, and he continued to occupy his seat until the Government was removed to Quebec, when he found that he could not remain in the House and attend to his business at home at the same time. It was at that time a long and tiresome journey to Quebec, especially in the winter season, and he was therefore obliged to absent himself until his seat was declared vacant. During the rebellion, he took a strong and active part in favour of the Crown, and the officers of the army and the officers and members of the militia who were stationed in this vicinity during that exciting time, remember with emotion the many little acts of kindness for which they were indebted to Mr. McDonald. No amount of time or money, or personal exertion and inconvenience, was for a moment considered when their sacrifice would be productive of comfort and happiness to his fellow soldiers. As a father, a husband, a neighbour, and a citizen, he was not surpassed. His death, although not altogether unexpected, caused quite a gloom in the village. All business was suspended during Friday and Saturday; the stores remained closed and the factories were idle from the time of his death till his burial, which took place on Sunday afternoon, a very large number of his friends following the body to the grave.—*Kingston and Gananoque Papers.*

#### No. 27.—HON. PETER BOYLE DEBLAQUIERE.

It is with extreme regret we have to record the sudden decease of the Hon. Peter Boyle DeBlaquiere, for many years a member of the Legislative Council of this Province. Mr. DeBlaquiere held the title of "honourable" in his own right independently of his position as a member of the Legislative Council, being youngest son of Lord John DeBlaquiere, of Ardkill, County Londonderry. He was born in Dublin, on the 26th of April, 1783, and was thus at the time of his death, in the seventy-eighth year of his age. When very young, he entered the Navy and served as a Midshipman under the celebrated Captain Bligh, of the *Bounty*, at the battle of Camp-perdown. He was also present at the mutiny of the *Nore*. Leaving the navy, however, at an early age, he devoted himself to more peaceful pursuits, and emigrated to Canada in 1837. Here he soon attained to the highest honours. In 1858 he was selected as a fit person for a seat in the Legislative Council, which he continued to hold until the time of his death. On the remodelling of the Toronto University, he was appointed to the honourable office of Chancellor, but subsequently resigned. He was also a member of the Anglican Synod, where he commanded great respect. By that body his loss will be severely felt. Mr. DeBlaquiere was the descendant of a noble French gentleman who emigrated from France in consequence of the revocation of the edict of Nantes, and settled in London as a merchant. In 1772 his fifth son, Lieutenant John DeBlaquiere was appointed principal Secretary to the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland; and in 1774, as a reward for the services he rendered, invested with the order of the Bath. In 1784 he was sworn one of the Irish Privy Council, and in 1784 appointed Grand Almagier, an officer whose duty it was in olden times to measure and examine woollen cloth, and fix upon it the Royal seal. The post was abolished by an Act of William. At the death of Sir John DeBlaquiere, the title devolved upon his eldest son, (brother of Mr. P. B. DeBlaquiere,) who in the year 1800 was elevated to the peerage as Baron DeBlaquiere of Ardkill. The title is now held by his grandson John. So far as regards the honourable gentleman's descent and ancient lineage—they are among the least of his claims upon our regard. There are few men

of whom we can speak in higher terms of respect. As a member of the Legislative Council, although it was our fortune frequently to differ with him in his political views, yet we ever recognized the fact that he did that which in his own eyes he thought best for his country. He was a man of strictest honour. He never sought by a trick to keep the letter of the law while manifestly breaking through its intent. During the first year that he occupied a seat in the Legislative Council, he did not take a very active part in its affairs, but of late he had become the leader of a large section of the House. Whenever he rose to speak, the strictest silence was observable, he was listened to with the greatest respect and attention, and no matter how heated the debate, how severe the contest, no opponent thought of using a harsh word towards him—the sentiment of the House would not have tolerated it. His courtesy was of that character which can only be manifested by the thorough gentleman and sincere Christian. Prudent, of a kind heart, and a well cultivated mind, he was an exception to the rule applicable to most men, that as they increase in years the more Conservative opinions they hold. Although nominated by the Crown he was one of those who voted for the Bill rendering the Speakers of the Upper House elective, and it is probable that had he lived he would have been elevated to the chair. The respect in which he was held would have ensured the utmost deference to his decisions. In the Synod, he at least twice moved for the abrogation of the Episcopal "Veto," but met with very great opposition. On the day of his death he was to all appearance in good health. Although so old a man he was remarkably agile, and appeared much younger than he really was. The immediate cause of his decease was undoubtedly apoplexy.—*Globe.*

[In connection with the foregoing sketch of Mr. DeBlaquiere's career, it may not be inappropriate to mention, that as Chancellor of the University of Toronto, and as an enlightened legislator, he always felt a deep interest in the education of the people, and in the success of the operations of the Educational Department for Upper Canada. When that Department was unjustly assailed in 1858, he expressed his warm sympathy with its efforts to promote the intellectual improvement of the country, and his readiness to defend its operations in his place in Parliament should a favourable opportunity offer for his doing so. In reply to a note of thanks for his spontaneous services on such an occasion, and enclosing some documents for his use, he thus expressed himself on the subject:—

[Copy.] LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL CHAMBER, May 18th, 1858.

SIR,—I beg to acknowledge the receipt of your note, and feel much obliged for the catalogues and pamphlets connected with the Depository which you have kindly sent to me, and which I hope you will permit me to retain with a view of showing them to several members of the Legislative Council. I have only been enabled as yet to cast a hasty glance through them, but I have seen quite enough to satisfy me that the view I long since took of the effects of the Normal School upon the whole educational establishment of Upper Canada, including that most important branch of it which is so admirably carried out by the Depository in all its details, remains fully confirmed; and that a deep debt of public gratitude is eminently due to the Chief of the Department, as well as to all those who have so ably assisted him in laying down a system of public education upon such sound principles. If the establishment of the Depository is merely considered as having substituted true and intellectual learning in the stead of the vile trash inundating our public schools before it took effect, this alone would demand the firm support of every well-wisher to the prosperity of the rising generation, and I regret from the manner in which the attack has been made upon this valuable institution, (the petition having only been presented to the *House of Assembly*) that no present opportunity offers for advocating its interests in the Legislative Council—you may, however, rest assured, that to the utmost of my feeble power, I shall be at all times ready to do justice to a noble institution alike an honour and a glory to our common country.

I remain, Sir, your very obedient servant,  
(Signed,) P. B. DEBLAQUIERE.

J. George Hodgins, Esq., M. A.,  
Deputy Superintendent of Education.]

SCHOOL DISCIPLINE.—In Coleridge's time, the discipline at Christ's Hospital was ultra-Spartan; all domestic ties were to be put aside. "Boy!" Coleridge remembered Bower saying to him once, when he was crying the first day after his return from the holidays, "Boy! the school is your father! Boy! the school is your mother! Boy! the school is your brother! the school is your sister! the school is your first cousin, and your second cousin, and all the rest of your relations! Let's have no more crying."—*The Leisure Hour.*



### III. Papers on Practical Education.

#### 1. GUARD AGAINST MONOTONY IN SCHOOL EXERCISES.

All teachers have felt the creeping shade of depression and enervation, which naturally results from a regular order of exercises in the school-room. The teacher is not the only sharer of this incubus of monotony; the same is both felt and acted in the person and spirit of the pupil. This is the rock upon which so many of the craft are ruined. This, with that other and not less dispiriting cause, the departure of a class of mind that held the front rank in the school-room, upon whose characters the teacher has given the last stroke of his skill, ere crossing the threshold to struggle in life's battle. With them too often goes the life, the energy, and the courage of the teacher. Having smoothed the rough boards of the minds, and fitted them for their position in the social fabric, he feels disheartened as a new supply of the rough material rolls itself up before him for the same care, handiwork, and burnishing process as before.

The mind, upon which any one of these so operate as to discourage and unfit it for labour, needs to look well to the nature of things, and see if there is not a remedy for this evil, which loses to the profession many of the noblest and most careful of workmen. We think that the cause lies in the fact of keeping within the narrow limits of instruction, and not enriching and amassing intellectual wealth—current truths connected with every branch we teach—to be imparted as freely as obtained. In so doing, we invigorate our own thoughts, keep in constant expectancy the minds of those we instruct, and dispel wholly that appalling cloud of monotony, so begrimed with gloom and despair. Every task should be made a living embodiment, a real life, created anew, stripped of formality and dull verbiage. To effect this the teacher must be an eclectic, a gleaner, a kaleidoscope, turning up new shapes and beauties at all hours of the day. Let us do this and the flickering shadows of monotony will be lifted, and an intellectual sunlight will be felt reciprocally by both teacher and pupil.—*N. Y. Teacher.*

#### 2. SCHOOL HOUSE INFLUENCE ON THE MORALITY OF OUR SCHOOLS.

We have heard many complaints against the operation of the common-school system; but that which gave us the most concern was the charge of immorality. It has been often said that immorality is a necessary incident of the *common school*, inasmuch as the pupils are drawn from all classes and grades of society, even the lowest and most degraded, and that, necessarily, there must be, by imitation and contact, a coarseness, rudeness, and vulgarity, not found in those denominated by way of special distinction, *select schools*.

Without desiring to draw an offensive comparison between two systems, each good in its sphere, it would be well to make some investigation of the subject; and in so doing we will be pleased if even the *select schools* may derive some benefit from the operation, as we have no doubt the common schools will.

It is easy to see that a pupil enjoys good health; it is easy to demonstrate that he has acquired the multiplication-table or the binomial theorem with its applications; and if this may be done in one case, a whole school may be brought to the same test. But how shall we test the morality of a school? Perhaps some one will answer, 'Just as we test its intellectual growth, by an examination of the teaching imparted and of the corresponding knowledge acquired, on moral and religious subjects, from Bible-reading, commandments, catechisms, and moral lectures.' Yes, my dear friend, these are all very good, admirable, indispensable; for we esteem the Bible as the only revelation of God to man, and the only true standard of morality; but still, perhaps, you don't understand our idea—how shall we know the practical morality of the school, not so much what they *know* as what they *do*? Theory and practice do not always accompany each other, for one of the most immoral schools we have known was the most religious—we do not mean the most Christian, but the most religious. How may I assure myself of the safety of my son and daughter when I commit them to the care of any school? The evil influences may be stronger than the precepts of virtue, and they may be ruined by 'evil communications' before I am aware of it; for the inclinations of the human heart are always in the direction of vice and opposition to virtue. I will try to answer the question.

It is a part of our philosophy that ethics and esthetics are as nearly allied as Christianity and cleanliness. If you would render the moral character of a school pure, you must cleanse and purify your school-building and its appurtenances, and keep them so. While we would form our opinion of the practical of the moral instruction by the general deportment of the pupils in and out of

school—by their profanity, quarrelling, vulgarity, and rudeness, or the reverse,—we would not consider these indications infallible, as a very profane boy may not, and probably will not, indulge in that vice in our presence; and the fact that the boy does not quarrel and swear in our presence is no proof that he may not when we retire. Under our observation children rarely do wrong; and the great query is to know the value of our influence when our observation is withdrawn. This we may learn as Robinson Crusoe did the presence of humanity on his desolate island—*by the tracks*.

It is a very delicate subject to point out all the tracks which indicate vicious indulgence in and around the school. It is certain, however, that they who might be shocked the most are they who understand the subject least, and have most to learn that the moral character of a school and their fitness as teachers are indicated by the *moral character of the building and its premises*.

Can children be virtuous who are daily brought in contact with vulgar, profane and obscene associations about the school house, shocking to every sense of decency and virtue? Can the best precepts of morality, daily uttered, overcome that taint which is patent in, on and around the school-building? Can that teacher's influence be virtuous, whatever attention may be given to instruction in the duties of morality, who goes in and out daily before the school, and is too blind to see or too careless to cure those vices which are indicated by such tracks?

Perhaps these things are so common that they are esteemed the inseparable concomitants of the school, and not regarded as powerful immoral forces operating on the susceptible minds and passions of children. That they are common enough we know; but that they are inseparable we do not believe.

Were we seeking to know the intellectual and physical character of a school we would go where the children *are*. Did we desire to learn the moral character of a school, we should go where they *have been* and find their 'tracks'—around the school-house and back of it.—*Illinois Teacher.*

#### 3. CONDITION OF OUR SCHOOL-HOUSES.

No travelled man, even of moderate observation, can have failed to notice the sad condition of some of our country school-houses. They are a libel on the thrift of our people. In no other single thing do you so neglect beauty, convenience, utility, and your own personal interests. Even your church-yards are pleasanter, better cared for and better situated.

We speak advisedly when we say, the majority of our farmers have out-buildings for their cattle, sheep, and horses, better situated, in better repair, and more comfortable than some school-houses. This lamentable state of things is not the result of ignorance or poverty;—but of *habitual neglect—carelessness*.

The characteristics of these old school-houses it is not necessary to enumerate. We all have painful recollections of the wild, barren locality, the shed-like building, the dilapidated door, the patched and broken, blind-less and curtain-less windows, the cracked and banded stove with smoking funnel, or the older and less comfortable fire-place, the high, hard, uncomfortable benches, the high and scarred desks, and the mephitic air of the low, unpainted, unpapered, unventilated room.

But modern ingenuity has done as much to improve school as dwelling-houses. It only needs to be appropriated to make them as comfortable, convenient, healthy and attractive.

The prime secret of the difficulty is here: new school-houses, especially in small districts, ease the purse-strings somewhat; and it is an outlay of money the people do not expect to realize any immediate benefit from. And it is too much the character of our people to make all their calculations in dollars and cents. And so the fathers cover their love of money by saying "the school-house is as good as when they went to school; the seats are as easy, the desks as convenient, the room as comfortable, the books and instruction better." They "don't hold to falling in with all these new-fangled notions." They pride themselves on being conservative men. But conservatism is no more synonymous with foggism, than love with moonshine.

If there is any reason why every school-house should not be pleasantly situated, surrounded by appropriate play-grounds, and built in modern style, there is none why they should not be furnished with every improvement of modern invention. The teacher's desk ought to be deemed no better furnished without a standard Dictionary than the pulpit without a Bible. And suitable and reliable maps and charts are as appropriate and necessary on the walls of the school-room, as frescoes in churches and parlors. We think they would be of more benefit to children. Children, generally, don't love their books any too well; and don't study any more than is necessary in our common schools. Therefore it should be the study of parents to make the school-room in every respect as pleasant, convenient, and attractive as possible; as it is the study of educators

to make their text-books interesting as well as useful. *Utile cum dulci* should be the motto of every one who has influence with children, everywhere. It would save a great deal of the labor of making crooked characters straight. Let "beauty and utility dance together" always, when they will.—*New Hampshire Journal of Education*.

#### 4. HOW TO MAKE DESKS AND SEATS.

[There are several places in this Province where school-desks and seats are made. Messrs. Jacques & Hay, of Toronto, furnish excellent hard-wood ones at \$4 50 per set of two seats and one desk.]

The problem of an easy seat and desk for a school-room is a very important one, which, like many other problems, has not yet received its only good solution. I send you the following, as the result of my own labor and study. I have tried it by years of actual use, and know the plan and proportions to be good.

Make the seat from half an inch to an inch lower than one-fourth of the person's whole height. Make the back from one to two inches higher than one-fourth of the person's height. Make the desk (level) one-sixth of the person's height above the front edge of the seat (Reasons for this may be seen by referring to the Oxford Drawing Book.) Thus, for a person about six feet high the seat should be seventeen inches, the desk twenty-nine inches from the floor, and the back nineteen inches from the seat. For one three-and-a-half feet, the heights would be ten, seventeen, and twelve inches.

In a room for pupils of all sizes the seats may vary from ten to sixteen or seventeen inches high; the desks from seventeen to twenty-eight or twenty-nine. In a primary department seats may vary from ten to thirteen inches, and desks from seventeen to twenty-one. In an intermediate department seats from twelve to fifteen inches, and desks twenty to twenty-four. In a higher department seats fourteen to seventeen inches, desks twenty-three or twenty-four to twenty-eight or twenty-nine. In all cases seats should be graded with care, and pupils seated according to their sizes—the tallest in the back of the room.

Incline the seat from the front downward one inch in one foot. Incline the back one inch in six, except the back of the seat next to the wall, which should be about twenty-five inches wide and slant one in five.

The seat for the largest size should be full twelve inches wide, and the top (or lid) of the desk eighteen or nineteen. The ends of all boards should project an inch over the standard, for firmness in nailing. Nail-heads should not be set, so as to require putty for children to pick out.

Every projecting corner of the seat, back, and desk, should be rounded to a quarter circle of a radius of three or four inches; every outer edge of the same to a semicircle. Desks for two should be from three-and-a-half feet to three feet nine inches in length for larger pupils; while three feet is long enough for a primary department. To vary the size, after making enough for one row across the room, cut off from the top and bottom of the standard each quarter of an inch; from the width of the lid and back each quarter of an inch; and from the width of the seat one-eighth of an inch. The seat should never be less than ten inches wide. These variations may be two or three times as great in a promiscuous school.

The standard may be, at each side, an inch or more narrower than the top and seat to be nailed upon it.

The shelf should be rabbeted (I think that is the term) into the standard; and the latter be nailed to the floor. Both are stronger and neater than cleats.

The whole, made of well-seasoned whitewood (which is less liable to split than pine), nicely grained and varnished, give a room a very neat appearance, are comfortable, and not so likely to be cut to pieces as those not well-finished.—*Illinois Teacher*.

#### 5. PROGRAMME FOR DRAWING.\*

[The subject of Drawing, as yet, hardly begins to receive the attention which its true importance demands. A knowledge of the principles of this art will be found exceedingly useful in all departments, and an ability to apply these principles to practical use will prove almost invaluable in some instances.]

There are several imperative reasons why drawing should be taught from the blackboard, the most important of which is, that it deprives the pupils of the means of mechanical measurement from the patterns. All instruments for the purpose of measurement must be excluded. The pupil is required to produce the same figure on a different scale and preserve the same proportions, that the eye and taste may be improved by intelligent comparison of its different parts.

For children from eight to ten years, teaching the elementary parallel straight lines, in different positions and at equal distances,

of not less than six to eight inches in length, during the same exercise, showing and explaining to the pupil what is the length of one, two, three, four, &c., inches, also of a foot and more; in this way the eye of the pupil will soon measure the size of everything he sees; this is to teach him how to see correctly, and is very practical. With the straight lines, let the pupil form the right, acute, and obtuse angles, the triangles, and last the square. The pupil has taken a vast step when he can draw a correct square by the eye. He should then be taught to draw from the cube, and also from other prismatic figures placed before them in the simplest position; the rules of the perspective to be explained; he should also draw tables, books, and any natural object composed of straight lines.

Next step advance to the curve lines, then make simple figures of the same curves; as leaves, &c., following the same particular rules as in the straight lines.

Next draw the *ellipsis*, and, when thoroughly mastered, draw simple figures which are composed of the ellipsis and curve lines; as vases, &c.

Next step, advance to the circle, and if mastered, draw the scroll, and when able to draw these correctly, in size not less than five to six inches diameter, you will be prepared to advance to simple symmetrical ornaments, both from plaster and from the blackboard.

Children from ten to twelve years may commence with geometrical definitions and geometrical drawings with the use of the compasses,\* constructing the angles, erecting perpendiculars, dividing, drawing the geometrical figures, triangles, quarter-angles, polygons, &c., simple practical lessons in perspective, and map drawing. Ornamental drawing should be continued, only somewhat more complicated; for the study of outlines, they should be symmetrical figures, that is, both sides should be alike, it being the most critical training for the eye, the slightest inaccuracy being at once detected; all the figures should be analyzed and resolved into their elementary lines, as a word is resolved into the letters of which it is composed; the anatomy of a drawing, thus taken to pieces and put together again, becomes so fixed in the mind of the pupil that a perfect understanding of the principles of drawing can not fail to be the result. By these means every pupil learns, while by mechanical copying the pupil without talent makes no proficiency at all. In drawing from plaster models, the same explanation is given.

After having drawn the figure, both from plaster and blackboard, understandingly, the patterns should be removed, and the pupils should be required to draw the same from memory; thus he retains the forms in his mind, he is prepared to use the different parts of the figure in other combinations, and becomes not a mere copyist, but a designer. (We can never teach designing unless the pupil has some ideas already in his mind to use in new combinations). Pupils frequently draw for years, without being able to produce a figure mentally; and this alone is what we want, independent mental operations, to enable one without patterns to make new combinations.

The drawing should first be studied and understood; next, it should be fixed upon the memory; it should be taught as a mental acquisition, not a mere outside exercise for the fingers; talent is discovered by a happy combination of the elements. Modelling of simple ornaments in clay or wax can also be commenced.

Pupils from twelve to fourteen years should be taught geometry, with reference to mensuration and surveying; also, descriptive geometry, shades and shadows, with a view to architectural and machine drawing; for these latter a few models are required. The five orders in architecture, the architectural terms, &c., also linear Perspective in simple short lectures with aid of the blackboard.

Isometrical drawing, for this is one of the most useful departments for all the mechanical trades, as the workman can take every measure from such drawings, and it is at the same time a kind of Perspective.

All the lessons which require the aid of mathematical instruments should also be taught from the blackboard; first and last it saves a text-book; the pupil should have a blank book neatly prepared in which to make his geometrical drawings, and write the explanations; all his drawings should be thus prepared for the future use of the pupil and examination by the visitor. A pupil will really learn more from the blackboard in half an hour than from the text-book in a day, thus saving much time. As the pupil acquires more power of combining and analyzing more complicated figures, shading may be taught both from plaster models and good patterns. If shading is taught too soon it is a great loss, as the time can be more profitably employed in outline drawing.

Ornamental designing should now be commenced, and the different styles of ornaments must now be explained.

If the pupil pursues other than mechanical occupations, he may now draw the human head and figure, and, when prepared, draw both from plaster; also, landscape drawing may be taught. He

\* It may be well to show the pupils how to make a simple pair of compasses of wood, and so save the expense of buying the instrument.

\* For list of Drawing Materials in the Educational Depository, see page 178.

will, with his previous preparations, be able to do something which is valuable; he may also learn to draw on stone.

Modelling on a more extensive scale should be taught.

If the pupil enters a High School, architectural, machine, and all kinds of mechanical drawing should be pursued with reference to the different occupations in every-day life; also, designing.—*Connecticut Common School Journal.*

### IV. Papers on Colonial Subjects.

#### 1. IMPERIAL TABLE OF COLONIAL PRECEDENCE.

The following Table of Precedence is to be observed in Her Majesty's Colonial Possessions:—

1. The Governor or Lieutenant Governor or Officer Administering the Government.

2. The Lieutenant Governor, (not Administering the Government) or the Senior Officer in command of the Troops, if he is to succeed to the Administration of the Government, in case of the death or absence of the Governor, Lieutenant Governor, or Officer Administering the Government.

In the event of hostilities, the Senior Officer in Command of the Troops will take this Precedence under any circumstances.

In those Settlements at a distance from the Seat of the Colonial Government, which are under the immediate authority of a Superintendent, that Officer within the Settlement precedes all persons except the Officer in the Administration of the Government of the Colony.

3. The Bishop.

4. The Chief Justice.

5. The Members of the Executive Council. Their relative Precedence is established in each case by Her Majesty's "Instruction" to the Governors of Colonies.

6. The President of the Legislative Council.

7. The Members of the Legislative Council.

8. The Speaker of the House of Assembly.

9. The Puisné Judges.

10. The Members of the House of Assembly.

11. The Colonial Secretary, (not being in the Executive Council.)

12. The Commissioners, or Government Agents of Provinces or Districts.

13. The Attorney General.

14. The Solicitor General.

15. The Senior Officer in Command of the Troops, except in the cases already provided for.

16. The Archdeacon.

17. The Treasurer, Paymaster General, or Collector of Internal Revenue.

18. The Auditor, or Inspector General of Accounts.

19. The Commissioner of Crown Lands.

20. The Collector of Customs.

21. The Comptroller of Customs.

22. The Surveyor General.

23. The Clerk of the Executive Council.

24. The Clerk of the Legislative Council.

25. The Clerk of the House of Assembly.

Not being Members of Executive Council.

&c., &c., &c.

26. In Courts for the Trial of Piracy, the Members to take rank according to the Order in which they are designated in Her Majesty's Commission; except in the case of the Naval Commander-in-Chief, (where there is one) to whom, as a matter of courtesy, the Chair on the right of the President of the Court is assigned.

#### 2. INFLUENCE OF PUBLIC WORKS ON PRIVATE PROPERTY—THE WELLAND CANAL.

The Hon. W. H. Merritt on his recent election to the Legislative Council, referred to the Welland Canal, (the great work of his life,) in the following terms:—"While here, (at Allanburgh,) I cannot refrain from reminding you that, in 1818, the Welland Canal was commenced on this spot, by running a water level between Chippawa and the source of the 12 Mile Creek. In 1823 a subscription of \$16 was raised and the first spirit level run; an Act of Incorporation obtained, stock subscribed, and on the 30th November, 1824, the first sod was removed, on the farm where we now stand; and notwithstanding the poverty of the country, scarcity of money, general want of confidence in its usefulness, and the prevailing opinion that it could not be finished, the work was not retarded a single day, until two vessels passed through from Lake to Lake, on the 30th Nov., 1829—five years from its commencement. It is unnecessary for me to point out to you who were on the spot, the difficulties incurred

in procuring the means. At the close of each year debts were incurred to the amount of many thousand dollars, without knowing where the money could be had to commence again in the ensuing year; but, by fairly representing the magnitude and importance of the undertaking, appealing to the Governments of Upper and Lower Canada, Great Britain, and procuring individual security for the payment of interest, it was opened to Gravelly Bay, on Lake Erie, in 1832. What has been the result? Your lands were purchased from Lake to Lake, from \$2 50 to \$20 per acre—not exceeding in all \$8,000; while about 20 years after, you received for the construction of the Welland Railway (for one-half the quantity) nearly \$100,000—more than tenfold that amount.

#### 3. THE CANADIAN VETERANS OF 1812.

The *Leader* thus refers to the old veterans who crossed in the steamer from Toronto to meet the Prince at Brock's monument:—It was a curious study to watch the Veterans as they slowly paced up and down, or else sat silent and apart from the noisy and merry crowd which swarmed over the ship. No doubt many of them must have recalled the time when they were as blithe as the gayest volunteer then on board—when their step was as firm, and their bearing as erect—their countenances as bright. It was almost enough to provoke a smile to see some of those old braves with their swords carefully wrapped up in a newspaper—probably the same sword which had been worn in those days when carpet knights were at a discount—when hard knocks were their pay, and a fatherland the cause they fought for. Not a few of them had been present at the famous battle of York—the shadow of which was dimly seen in the uncertain light of daybreak—and could point out to their admiring friends the spot where General Pike landed at the head of the American army, and drove the outlying pickets back on "Muddy Little York." There were some who had heard the thundering crash of the explosion when the magazine which stood where the Garrison Common now is, was blown up by our troops, giving the signal for retreat which ended in the capture of our now famous Toronto. There were also present those who had charged up the Heights of Queenston side by side with the immortal Brock, and had joined in that ringing cry "Revenge the General!" which burst from the lips of the maddened troops as they dashed up the hill and drove the enemy up its steep sides and over its brink. The man who buried Brock must not be forgotten. He is an old man, and ever since he assisted to place that hero in his grave, as if in commemoration of the event, he has followed the "undertaking business." Scores of other notables were also present. Men who had a hand in a hundred scrimages and could tell a thousand stories of campaigning life—of hair-breadth escapes by flood and field. But to pursue the subject farther would be tedious.

#### 4. BARNETT'S NIAGARA FALLS MUSEUM.

We take from the *Drummondville Reporter* the following description of the new museum erected at the Falls by Mr. Barnett—an edifice that is really a credit to the country, not only architecturally, but more so on account of its varied and well arranged contents, which make it by far the best collection in Canada.

It gives us much pleasure this week to announce to our readers that the new and beautiful Museum of Mr. Barnett, of Niagara Falls, is now nearly completed, and will be opened for the public about the 6th of June.

At present much yet remains to be done in arranging the specimens, and it would be impossible for us at this time to give even a faint description of the manner in which they will be classified. The galleries are semi-circular, and the cases so arranged that the entire forest scene will be presented. The galleries are well lighted from the top, over 1800 panes of glass having been used.

The plan of the building was prepared by Mr. Otis, architect, of Buffalo; the style is modern, and presents to the eye of the visitor a grand and imposing appearance. It is three stories high, built of cut stone, and is roofed with slate. Its dimensions are—

	Feet.
Width of front .....	102
Depth .....	128
Height of top of cupola .....	76
Height of ceiling of Museum .....	37
Area of gallery space.....	3,312
Length of galleries.....	389

On the top is a promenade, extending over an area of 946 feet, from which a most delightful panoramic view is presented, embracing the rapids and islands above the Falls, a full view of the Horse-shoe and American Falls and the foaming waters of the river beneath; Table Rock, Goat Island, the Ferry, and many other points of

interest are all stretched out in beautiful array to the eye of the visitor. The pleasure garden, with its flowers and shady retreats, presents a very inviting appearance, and we feel sure that no visitor will ever regret the time spent in viewing the many attractions Mr. Barnett has in store, and lovers of Natural History will find one of the noblest institutions for its study and advancement on this continent.—*Niagara Mail.*

### 5. BISHOPS' COLLEGE, LENNOXVILLE.

Between the French parishes which line the Southern bank of the St. Lawrence, in Lower Canada, and the frontier of the United States, there is a tract of some hundred miles in length, and from thirty to fifty in breadth, which is being rapidly occupied by a population of Anglo-Saxon origin. The climate is eminently salubrious, though the winters are sometimes long and severe. The country abounds in minerals; and is well adapted for the rearing of cattle, and for most kinds of farm produce; and the beauty of its lakes and mountains is not easily surpassed.

In the heart of this romantic and little-known region is situated Bishops' College—an institution of which many of our readers may know the name, and probably but little more. As our object is to be an organ of the Canadian Church at large, and to give an account of Church work and Church progress throughout the country we need make no apology for devoting a few paragraphs to a sketch of the present state and prospects of an institution from which much may be looked for hereafter, and whose progress we shall watch with unfeigned interest.

The College itself is built on a rising ground, at the junction of the rivers Masawippi and St. Francis, close to the pretty village of Lennoxville, and about three miles from the rising town of Sherbrooke. It was founded to supply the want of a seminary for the education of candidates for the ministry of the Church of England, after the secularization of McGill College, Montreal. The site was fixed at Lennoxville chiefly on account of its central position as regards the English-speaking population of Lower Canada, regard being also had to the beauty and salubrity of the locality, and the moderation it promised in the scale of expenses. A considerable sum—nearly £3,000—was also offered in the neighbourhood.

The College-building consist of a plain and unadorned pile of brick, comprising rooms for some twenty students, with a residence for the Principal, and a chapel. The latter is of architectural pretensions, and was erected in 1856, at a cost of about £1,200, by contributions from England. It will accommodate about 120, and is arranged after the Oxford and Cambridge model. The windows are all of stained glass. The eastern triplet—by Clutterbuck, of London, England, a so-called "Literary window" was presented by the friends of Bishop Mountain. The north-east window is in memory of a student of great promise, who died on the eve of ordination. The chapel was consecrated in 1857, and has been in daily use ever since. The library consists of about 4,000 volumes. There is also a philosophical apparatus not yet complete, and the nucleus of a museum.

The endowment proceeds mainly from grants made by the Societies for propagating the Gospel and promoting Christian knowledge; from an annual grant of £500 from the Legislature; and from a noble donation of £6,000 sterling by an English friend of the Bishop of Quebec,—T. C. Harrold, Esq.,—whose name the Professorship of Divinity now bears. There is also a sum of about £400 per annum available for the assistance of students for holy orders, derived from the Society for the propagation of the Gospel.

The present staff includes a Principal, who is also Professor of Classics; a Professor of Divinity and Hebrew, a Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy, the Rector of the junior department and Grammar School, and a Bursar. Of these, two are of Oxford, two of Cambridge, and one of King's College, Aberdeen. There are at present twenty students in the College,—four in Divinity Hall and sixteen in Arts; and about sixty boys in the Grammar School. The students, for the most part, reside in College, and the expenses are on the most moderate scale. The subjects read in the Arts' course are those usually required in the Universities at home. The Divinity course begins after the B. A. degree, and extends over two years. The Bishops of Quebec and Montreal may however, give permission to any one they think duly qualified, to enter this latter course at once; and to such the University grants the title of Licentiate in Theology, if, after two years' residence, they pass a satisfactory examination. They can then proceed, if they please, to B.D. in due course. We may observe, in passing, that the College is by no means exclusively a theological one, as has often been supposed. The Medical and Law Faculties have not yet been organized, but the Arts' course is open to any one, whether a member of the Church of England or not, who chooses to avail himself of it. Since 1845, the College has sent forth, besides lay-graduates, about fifty clergymen,—thirty of whom are now labouring in Lower

Canada, and the remainder in Upper Canada, the United States and England.

Considerable changes have recently been introduced, which, it is hoped, will render the whole institution more widely useful. The Grammar School is to be incorporated with the College, and the Professors are to take part in the instruction there given. The study of modern languages is also to be more extensively pursued. In these reforms, Kings' College, London, has been kept in view, as being better adapted to the circumstances of the country than the older foundations.

To provide the requisite buildings and an endowment for the Rector of the School, and generally to increase the efficiency of the College, an attempt is now being made to raise a sum of \$50,000. About one-third of this amount has been promised, and the Principal and Professors are still engaged in bringing their appeal before the friends of public education throughout the Province. Committees have been nominated to co-operate in Quebec and Montreal; and a public meeting has been held in the former city, with very satisfactory results. We heartily wish the College God speed; and trust that she will not only send out of the University a succession of well-trained and earnest men to serve God in the Church and in the State, but also succeed in the arduous task of building up, as her junior department, a permanent and efficient Public School.—*Montreal Paper.*

## V. Papers on Physical Geography.

### 1. THE SAGUENAY RIVER OF CANADA.

From the letters of the correspondent of the *London Times*, written during the tour of the Prince of Wales, we select the following graphic sketch of the river Saguenay:—The Saguenay is only some 120 miles distant from Quebec; but, as the river is of its kind the most extraordinary in the whole world, it was arranged that the Prince should spend at least two days in fishing and boating between the tremendous cliffs which hem it on every side. Gloomy black clouds rested on the mountains, and seemed to double their height, pouring over the ragged cliffs in a stream of mist, till, lifting suddenly with the gusts of wind, they allowed short glimpses into what may almost be called the terror of the Saguenay scenery. It is on such a day above all others, that the savage wildness and gloom of this extraordinary river is seen to the greatest advantage. Sunlight and clear skies are out of place over its black waters; anything which recalls the life and smile of nature is not in unison with its high naked cliffs, raw, cold, and silent as tombs. An Italian Spring could effect no change in its deadly rugged aspect, nor does winter add an iota to its mournful desolation. It is a river which one should see if only to know what dreadful aspects nature can assume in her wild moods. Once seen, however, few will care to visit it again, for it is with a sense of relief that you emerge from its sullen gloom, and look back upon it as a kind of vault,—Nature's sarcophagus, where life or sound has never entered. Compared to it the Dead Sea is a blooming garden, and the wildest ravines look cosy and smiling. It is wild without the least variety, and grand apparently in spite of itself, while so utter is the solitude, so dreary and monotonous the frown of its great black walls of rock, that the tourist is sure to get impatient with its sullen reserve till he feels a positive antipathy to its very name. Some six miles above it is the little town, or, as in England we should call it, village of Tadoussac. It is more than 300 years since Jacques Cartier, the discoverer of Canada, the adventurer who, through his misinterpretation of the Indian word "welcome," gave the present name to the country, landed here. It was almost his first real resting place, and the first mention which we hear of the Saguenay is one which now well befits its savage aspect, for Cartier sent a boat and crew to explore its rocky chasm which were never more heard of. From that day to this the river has had a name which, allowing for the difference of times and creeds, only the Styx can equal. At the mouth of the Saguenay the water varies in depth from 10 to 16 fathoms, but once between the walls of the river and the depth from end to end is never less than 100 fathoms, generally 150. On either side, at a distance of about a mile apart, the cliffs rise up thin, black and straight, varying in perpendicular height from 1,200 to 1,600 feet, and this is the character of the river Saguenay from its mouth to its source. On the right bank the cliffs are poorly mantled here and there with stunted pines, but on the left there is scarcely a sign of life or verdure, and the granite rocks stick up, white and bleached, in the gloomy air like the bones of an old world. At two places, St. Marguerite and between Capes Trinity and Eternity, where smaller tributaries pour their contributions into the deep, black stream, a breach occurs in the wall of rocks, as if some giant hand had torn them forcibly back, and left them strewn and baffled of their power in uncouth lumps over the valleys beyond. But these

are the only openings, the only means of escape, if they may be so called, from the silent gloom of this dead river. The Saguenay seems to want painting—wants blowing up, or draining—anything in short to alter its morose, eternal quiet awe. Talk of Lethe or the Styx; they must have been purling brooks compared with this savage river, and a picnic on the banks of either would be preferable to one on the Saguenay. \* \* \* Before the Prince left for a trip up the river, Captain Hope of the *Flying Fish*, received orders to get up steam and take all the officers of the squadron on an excursion up the river. The *Flying Fish* has the honor of being the first man-of-war that ever passed up the Saguenay. From St. Marguerite the smart little sloop steamed on to where the wild scenery of the river culminates at a little inlet on the right bank between Capes Trinity and Eternity. Than these two dreadful headlands nothing can be imagined more grand or more impressive. For one brief moment the rugged character of the river is partly softened, and, looking back into the deep valley between the capes, the land has an aspect of life and wild luxuriance which, though not rich, at least seems no comparison with the previous awful barrenness. Cape Trinity on the side towards the landward opening is pretty thickly clothed with fir and birch mingled together in a color contrast which is beautiful enough, especially when the rocks show out among them, with their little cascades and waterfalls like strips of silver shining in the sun. But Cape Eternity, which well becomes its name, is the very reverse of all this, and seems to frown in gloomy indignation on its brother cape for the weakness it betrays in allowing anything like life or verdure to shield its wild, uncouth deformity. Cape Eternity certainly shows no sign of relaxing in this respect from its deep savage grandeur. It is one tremendous cliff of granite, more than 1,500 feet high, and inclining forward some 200 feet, brow-beating all beneath it, and making as if at any moment it would fall and overwhelm the deep black stream which flows down so cool and motionless below. High up on its rough gray brows a few stunted pines show like bristles their scathed white arms, giving an awful aspect to the mass, blanched here and there by the tempests of ages, stained and discolored by little waterfalls, in blotchy and decaying spots, but all speaking mutely of a long-gone time when the Saguenay was old, silent, and gloomy, before England was known, or the name of Christianity understood.

Unlike Niagara, and all other of God's great works in nature, you do not wish for silence or solitude here. Companionship becomes doubly necessary in an awful solitude like this, and though you involuntarily talk in subdued tones, still talk you must, if only to relieve your mind of the feeling of loneliness and desolation which seems to weigh on all who venture up the Saguenay. The *Flying Fish* passed under this cape slowly with her yards almost touching the rock, though with more than a thousand feet of water under her, and even the middies and youngsters from the squadron were awed by the scene into a temporary quietness. The solemn and almost forbidding silence at last became too much. The party had not come out to be overawed, chilled, and subdued by rocks, however tremendous, so it was carried *nem. con.*, that dead and stoney as they were, they must have the echoes, and the time was come to wake them. In a minute after, and Captain Hope having good-naturedly given his consent, one of the largest 68-pounders was cast loose and trained aft to the face of the cliff. From under its overhanging mass the *Flying Fish* was moved with care lest any loose crag should be sufficiently disturbed by the concussion to come down bodily upon her decks. A safe distance thus gained, the gun was fired. None who were in the *Flying Fish* that day will ever forget its sound. For the space of a quarter of a minute after the discharge there was a dead silence, and then, as if the report and concussion were hurled back down upon the decks, the echoes came in crash on crash. It seemed as if the rocks and crags had all sprung into life under the tremendous din, and as if each was firing 68-pounders full upon us, in sharp crushing volleys, till at last they grew hoarser in their anger, and retreated, bellowing slowly, carrying the tale of invaded solitude from hill to hill, till all the distant mountains seemed to roar and groan at the intrusion. It was the first time these hideous cliffs had ever been made to speak, and when they did break silence they did it to some purpose. A few miles further on the *Flying Fish* passed under Statue Point, where some 1,000 feet above the water a huge rough Gothic arch gives entrance to a cave in which, as yet, the foot of man has never trod. Before the entrance to this black aperture a gigantic rock, like the statue of some Titan, once stood. A few years ago, during the winter, it gave way, and the monstrous figure came crashing down through the ice of the Saguenay, and left bare to view the entrance to the cavern it had guarded perhaps for ages. Beyond this, again, is the Tableau Rock, a sheet of dark coloured granite, some 600 feet high, by 300 wide, as straight and almost as smooth as a mirror. After passing this the interest in the scenery declined, so the *Flying Fish* turned about and made the best of her way

down the river. Passing St. Marguerite the Prince was still busy with his fishing, and a Royal salute was fired, the echoes of which I believe, are still wandering in search of rest to this very hour.

## 2. FIRST DISCOVERY OF THE GREAT SALT LAKE IN UTAH.

The first allusion to the celebrated sheet of water known as Utah, or Great Salt Lake, is supposed to have been made by Baron le Hontan, who as early as 1689 wrote an account of his discoveries in that region. The description, however, is so vague, if not incorrect, that some have regarded the body of water referred to as the Pacific Ocean; while others have looked upon the whole account as fabulous. In 1776, Father Escalante travelled from near Santa Fé, New Mexico, to the great Colorado, and thence to the Gila river. In his report he states that the Indians informed him of a lake to the Northward, whose waters produced a burning sensation when they touched the skin. Those savages of the interior could probably come no nearer the reality in explaining the taste of the salt. A river (Timpanogos,) which they described as flowing into that lake, is still pointed out on the map as one of its tributaries. Mr. Robert Campbell, of St. Louis, whose connection with the fur trade has made him an authority on the subject, considers James Bridger the first white discoverer of the Great Salt Lake. He states, from testimony considered trustworthy, that a party of trappers who had ascended the Missouri in 1824, being obliged to spend the following winter on Bear river (west of the mountains) a bet was laid between two of them as to the course of the stream, whereupon Bridger was appointed to follow it to its source and decide the wager. This took him to the region where the river passes through the mountains, and there he discovered Utah Lake. He went to the margin and tasted the water, reporting the circumstance to his companions. For a time it was supposed to be an arm of the Pacific Ocean; but in the Spring of 1826 it was discovered to have no outlet. During the previous summer a party of trappers from Hudson's Bay, under the leadership of Peter Ogden, discovered Humboldt's river, which for a time received the name of Ogden river or St. Mary's. The present name was given to it by Colonel Fremont, when he traversed that region in 1844. Up to about thirty years ago it was believed by many that Salt Lake discharged its surplus waters into the Pacific by two streams, one of which was the Buonaventura, already mentioned. In general, the country beyond the Rocky Mountains was looked upon as the counterpart of the Eastern slope, numerous large streams running nearly due West to the Ocean. Of the Sierra Nevada and even the coast range in California, little or nothing was known. The additions made to geographical knowledge by Captain Bonneville were numerous and important. The sources of those rivers, which rise in the Rocky Mountains for 150 miles North of South Pass, were determined so carefully that his map is still considered the best original one of that region. The long chain of lakes at the end of Humboldt's river was also first discovered by that division of the expedition under command of Walker. For the first time it was ascertained that the sources of the Missouri, the Platte, the Columbia, and the Colorado, pursuing so different directions, approached to within a short distance of each other.

## 3. VEGETATION AT THE RED RIVER.

In the summer season the vegetation in this Settlement is very luxuriant. The limitless prairies which environ us are fragrant with the perfume of a thousand wild plants and flowers. Lillies, blue-bells, roses, white bell flowers, and countless others of rare beauty, now bloom on these plains. Clumps of grey willow dot the land, and mark its most fertile portions; whilst the green willows scattered over its surface indicate the marshy sections, and they are more numerous this year than usual, the season having been very humid. In these swampy places the cattle find excellent feeding. They resort thither regularly—keeping together in large bands—and at eventide “the lowering herds wind slowly o'er the lea” homeward. Wild fruits are also very prolific in Red River. Everywhere, hiding in the thickets and in the long wavy grass, the strawberry plant flourishes, but the berries have all been plucked long since. Raspberries are abundant, and generally wear that rich ruddy colour which betokens a good and ripe flavour. Saskatome berries, gooseberries and prunes grow in great quantities in the woods which skirt the main river and its tributary the Assiniboine. All these wild fruits enter largely into the household economy of the guide-wives of the settlement, who use them in preserves and other delicacies. The number and variety of herbs and plants, are not less noticeable than the amazing size which they attain. The soil absolutely teems with them, and in many places they tower to a height of six and seven feet. Hops, and parasitic plants innu-

merable entwine in wild and beautiful mazes, and combine in making scenes entirely lovely. The cultivation of fruits and flowers is not yet, we are sorry to say, receiving anything like a due share of attention generally. In a few instances one gets a view of a really tasteful garden, well laid out and trimly kept. But in the great majority of cases, a flower or two is all that can be seen. The difficulty of procuring seed has, doubtless, caused this state of things to some extent; but the primary source of the evil is, we think, not unjustly attributed to neglect. In some gardens rhubarb, the best of its kind, was fully grown on the 14th of June, and peas were culled three weeks ago. Melons ripened in hot-houses on the 1st of July. Peas were matured several weeks since, when they had attained a growth of six feet. The numerous other vegetables sown here look well, and are growing rapidly, under the influence of the rains and warm weather. The yield of currants in this and some other gardens is something wonderful—the bushes being bent down under the weight of their rich fruit.—*Nor<sup>w</sup> Wester.*

#### 4. MARVELS OF THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER.

The difference of level between high and low water at Cairo is fifty feet. The width and depth of the river from Cairo and Memphis to New Orleans is not materially increased, yet immense additions are made to the quantity of the water in the channel by large streams from both the eastern and western sides of the Mississippi. The question naturally arises what becomes of this vast added volume of water? It certainly never reaches New Orleans, and as certainly does not evaporate; and of course is not confined to the channel of the river, for it would rise far above the entire region south of us.

If a well is sunk anywhere in the Arkansas bottom, water is found as soon as the water level of the Mississippi is reached. When the Mississippi goes down, the water sinks accordingly in the well. The owner of a saw-mill, some twenty miles from the Mississippi, in Arkansas, dug a well to supply the boilers of his engine, during the late flood. When the water receded, his well went down till his hose would no longer reach the water, and finally his well went dry. He dug a ditch to an adjacent lake, to let the water into his well; the lake was drained, and the well was dry again, having literally drank ten acres of water in less than a week.

The inference is, that the whole valley of the Mississippi, from its banks to the highlands, on either side, rests on a porous substratum which absorbs the redundant waters, and thus prevents that degree of accumulation which would long since have swept New Orleans into the Gulf but for this provision of nature, to which alone her safety is attributable. In fact, if the alluvia bottoms of the Mississippi were like the shores of the Ohio, the vast plain from Cairo to New Orleans would to day be part and parcel of the Gulf of Mexico, and the whole valley a fresh water arm of the sea. Were the geological character of the valley different, the construction of levees, confining the water of the Mississippi to its channels, would cause the rise in the river to become so great at the south, that not sufficient levees could be built. The current would be stronger and the accumulation of water greater, as the levees are extended north of us.

Such results were, reasonably enough, anticipated; but if the water, instead of breaking the levees, permeates the porous soil, and the overflow is really beneath the surface of the swamps. Such it seems to us, are the wise provisions of natural laws for the safety and ultimate reclamation of the rich country south of us. We believe that the levee system will be successful, and that the object of its adoption will be obtained. The porousness of the materials used in making them has caused most, if not all, the crevasses. Men may deem it a superhuman task to wall in the Mississippi from Cairo to New Orleans, but our levees are the work of pigmies when contrasted with the dykes of Holland. The flood tide of the Mississippi is but a ripple on the surface of a glassy pool, compared with the ocean billows that dash against the artificial shores of Holland. The country to be reclaimed by our levees—all of which will not, for fifty years, cost the people as much as those of the Dutch when originally built—would make one hundred such kingdoms as that over which a Bonaparte once wielded the sceptre.—*Memphis Avalanche.*

ENGLAND THE CENTRE OF THE EARTH.—If we divide the globe into two hemispheres, according to the maximum extent of land and water in each, we arrive at the curious result of designating England as the centre of the former, or terrene half; an antipodal point near New Zealand as the centre of the aqueous hemisphere. The exact position in England is not far from the Land's End; so that if an observer were there raised to such a height as to discern at once the half of the globe, he would see the greatest possible extent of land; if similarly elevated at New Zealand, the greatest possible surface of water.—*Quarterly Review.*

## VI. Miscellaneous.

### 1. THE DEATH OF WOLFE.\*

BY CHARLES SANGSTER, A CANADIAN POET.

"They run! they run!"—"Who run?" Not they  
Who faced that decimating fire  
As coolly as if human ire  
Were rooted from their hearts;  
They run, while he who led the way  
So bravely on that glorious day,  
Burns for one word with keen desire  
Ere waning life departs!

"They run! they run!"—"Who run?" he cried,  
As swiftly to his pallid brow,  
Like crimson sunlight upon snow,  
The anxious blood returned;  
"The French! The French!" a voice replied,  
When quickly paled life's ebbing tide:  
And though his words were weak and low  
His eye with valor burned.

"Thank God! I die in peace!" he said;  
And calmly yielding up his breath,  
There trod the shadowy realms of death  
A good man and a brave;  
Through all the regions of the dead,  
Behold his spirit, spectre-led,  
Crowned with the amaranthine wreath  
That blooms not for the slave.

### 2. SIR ISAAC BROCK, "THE HERO OF UPPER CANADA."

A Poem written on the occasion of the inauguration of the new Monument to Brock.

No tongue need blazon forth their fame—  
The cheers that stir the sacred hill  
Are but mere promptings of the will  
That conquered them, that conquers still;  
And generations yet shall thrill  
At Brock's remembered name.

Some souls are the Hesperides  
Heaven sends to guard the golden age,  
Illuming the historic page  
With records of their pilgrimage;  
True Martyr, Hero, Poet, Sage:  
And he was one of these.

Each in his lofty sphere sublime  
Sits crowned above the common throng,  
Wrestling with some Pythonic wrong,  
In prayer, in thunder, thought, or song;  
Briareus-limbed, they sweep along,  
The Typhons of the time.—*Ibid.*

### 3. DIRECTIONS FROM A PARENT TO HIS SON, ON HIS ENTERING INTO MERCANTILE BUSINESS.

1. You are to give your constant attendance at the counting-room or store, (business or no business) during office hours, except you are sent out by Mr. — or go by his permission.

2. When out on business, finish it with dispatch, and return immediately.

3. Keep your store in the most regular and neatest order, especially your desks, books, and files of papers.

4. Whatever business you may have on hand, execute it, not in a hurry, but in the best style, instantly without delay. "Procrastination is the thief of time."

5. Whenever you deliver an article, see that it be charged the very first thing you do. It will require your utmost attention and consideration to enable you to execute your duties faithfully and correctly, especially till practice makes business familiar.

6. The last and most important: you are inviolably to keep your master's secrets; relate none of his business, not even to your most intimate friends. A breach of this injunction would be treason on your part, and the reason will be obvious to you. Mr. — will cheerfully grant you every indulgence. Should you want to be absent an hour, or even more, he will not object; but you must

\* From a volume of poems recently published by Mr. Lovell, of Montreal.

be careful never to ask these favours when your presence is necessary in the store. Think it not derogatory to perform any work amongst the goods in the store; the exercise will be useful to strengthen your muscles and preserve your health. Be careful to improve your handwriting by copying in the best style, and when you write a letter, you should do it as if it was to be inspected by all your acquaintance, and you should never write fast.—*Hunt's Magazine*.

#### 4. A SCORE OF IMPOLITE THINGS IN WHICH YOUNG PERSONS RENDER THEMSELVES VERY DISAGREEABLE.

1. Loud and boisterous laughter.
2. Reading when others are talking.
3. Reading aloud in company without being asked.
4. Talking when others are reading.
5. Spitting about the house, smoking or chewing.
6. Cutting finger nails in company.
7. Leaving a Church before Public Worship is closed.
8. Whispering or laughing in the House of God.
9. Gazing rudely at strangers.
10. Leaving a stranger without a seat.
11. A want of respect and reverence for seniors.
12. Correcting older persons than yourself, especially parents.
13. Receiving a present without an expression of gratitude.
14. Making yourself the hero of your own story.
15. Laughing at the mistakes of others.
16. Joking of others in company.
17. Commencing talking before others have finished speaking.
18. Answering questions which have been put to others.
19. Commencing to eat as soon as you get to the table; and—
20. In not listening to what one is saying in company—unless you desire to show open contempt for the speaker. A well-bred person will not make an observation whilst another of the company is addressing himself to it.

#### 5. THE OXFORD MIDDLE CLASS EXAMINATIONS.

In 1859 the number who presented themselves was 896, of whom 299 were seniors and 597 juniors. This year the seniors are 292, and the juniors 573, the total number examined being 875. The result of the examination exhibits in some respects an improvement upon the preceding year. In 1859, out of 299 senior candidates 151 satisfied the examiners; and out of 597 junior candidates 332. In 1860, of the 282 seniors 152 received certificates, and of the 573 juniors 346. Thus, not only the proportion, but the actual number of successful candidates is greater. Conversely, the failures are absolutely, and not only relatively fewer. In 1859 as many as 413, in 1860 no more than 367 were rejected by the examiners. So far, the result appears satisfactory. When, however, we inquire into the causes of failure our satisfaction gives place to a very different feeling. The great improvement in the examination of 1859 over that of 1858 consisted in the difference observable with respect to the "preliminary examination." In 1858 nearly one-half the candidates failed to satisfy the examiners in this respect, while in 1859 the proportion rejected on account of it was not much more than one-third. It might have been expected that in 1860 we should have had a further considerable diminution. This, however, is not the case. Whereas in 1859 out of 299 seniors only 89 failed in their "preliminary" work, in 1860 the number who failed was 118 out of 282. Of the 89 senior candidates who failed in the preliminary examination of 1859 only six were rejected as below the mark in more than two points of the preliminary work. In 1860 the number deficient in more than two points was 39. Thirty-three seniors failed in arithmetic in 1859; 26 in spelling; 12 in geography; while in 1860 the failures were, in geography 32; in spelling 46; and in arithmetic no fewer than 79. The deterioration is nearly as great in the case of the juniors. In 1859 39 junior candidates only were rejected for failing in more than two points; in 1860 the number so rejected was 82. The failures in arithmetic from 15 to 85. Further, it is to be noted that a considerable number of those whose more advanced work would have entitled them to honorable distinction, and even some whose place would have been among the very highest, failed in the elementary part of the examination. Thirty candidates, 17 senior and 13 junior—are in this unenviable predicament; and among the 17 seniors are seven who would otherwise have obtained double, triple, or even quadruple honors. Arithmetic and spelling, either separately or in combination, proved fatal to all but one of these; and, indeed, 18 out of the 30 who lost their honors on account of a deficiency in their preliminary work, owe their failure to ignorance of the elementary branches of knowledge. The total honors awarded amounted, in 1859, to 335; in 1860, they furnish but 61. In England, 72 were distinguished in the former year; 51 only in the latter. In languages, the numbers are respect-

ively 37 and 32. In mathematics, they are 34 and 32. In physics, they are 24 and 10. Music and drawing are the only two subjects in which the advantage rests with 1860. Twelve names appear in the lists of 1860 against six in those of the year preceding. Unless there has been an important change in the standard—which we believe is not the case—the difference must be regarded as indicating a considerable falling off in the character of the work done. The excitement which at first existed has probably died away, and neither boys nor masters make such efforts as they did when the examination was a novelty. We should be inclined to ask the university authorities whether the time is not come for some considerable modifications in the divinity arrangements of this examination. Oxford can scarcely be content to certificate annually some 500 youth, of whom less than one half show any acquaintance with the rudiments of religion.—*London Times*.

### VIII. Educational Intelligence.

#### CANADA.

— WATERDOWN SCHOOL TEA MEETING.—A very interesting social tea-meeting of the pupils in the Grammar and Common school at Waterdown, was held on the 27th ult. The correspondent of a local paper says: After tea the Principal addressed them on the reciprocal duties of teachers and scholars, and all seemed inspired with a desire to persevere till they should at least obtain some of the most precious pearls of knowledge. Then we had appropriate addresses from the teachers of the Common School Department, and from one of the scholars of the Grammar School,—all of which were as sincerely and as enthusiastically cheered as heart could desire. So ended our tea-party, and such is a sure index of the tendency of our age, that of progression and social happiness, such as can only flow from a sound system of education, practically developed and freely spread over the length and breadth of our country. The office of education is not merely to give a certain amount of instruction; it has a far higher aim, to touch the strings of youthful feeling and affection, and so move them to seek the *just* and the *good*, till they understand the one and love the other. Such effects flow from school discipline when based on a system which fully provides for the cultivation of all the mental faculties, and for the development of the moral affections by the laws of truth and kindness. There are still many deficiencies in our educational institutions, and no small number of faults, but we have been set on the right way to attain the highest point of which humanity is susceptible, and, therefore, with the action of time and that of mind with mind, and by the demands of the growing prosperity of our country, these deficiencies will be gradually supplied, and fault by fault removed from our seminaries, till literature and science shall be as efficiently taught in city, town, and village as our broad fields are now cultivated by persevering and enterprising husbandmen.

#### GREAT BRITAIN.

— COLLEGES FOR ORIENTALS AT CAMBRIDGE.—The Rev. George Williams, B. D., Senior Fellow of King's, Cambridge, has proceeded to Armenia for the purpose of assisting the Oriental churches in establishing hostels at Cambridge, for the education of youths from the East, the Patriarch of Armenia having expressed a great desire for a nearer communion with the English Church. The Russian Government has determined upon laying the foundation of a Russian Hostel at Cambridge, and a hope is expressed that the Catholics of Etch-Miazin will follow the example by sending a Bishop of the Armenian Church, with a number of the Armenian youths to England, to be educated in the University. Dr. Wolff has presented the nucleus of a library for the use of the students of the Russian hostel.

— UNIVERSITY OF ABERDEEN.—The Queen has appointed among others Mr. Alexander Bain, to the Professorship of Logic in the University of Aberdeen. The appointment to the chair of Logic has caused much local interest and feeling, if not on account of its intrinsic importance, on account of the merits and claims respectively of the two more prominent candidates. Dr. M'Cosh, a man of acknowledged ability as a thinker, and of high standing as a teacher, had the sympathy and support of a large party. His opposing candidate, Alexander Bain, the Aberdeen weaver lad, who, by hard study, chiefly while at the loom, had fitted himself to enter Marechal College, where, notwithstanding his disadvantages, he soon distanced all his class-fellows, and by the force of original talent and assiduous culture gained the position of Examiner in Logic and Moral Philosophy in the University of London while yet comparatively quite

young man, was objected to by many on the alleged ground that in his philosophico-religious views he belongs to what is known as the school of Positivists. However, we believe the Home Secretary, in making these appointments, has, to a large extent, formed his judgment on his own independent enquiries. The testimonials from men of the highest standing—including Sir William Hamilton, professors Owen and Nuxley, Dr. Carpenter, and Mr. Grote, the historian—to Mr. Bain's profound knowledge of the mental and moral sciences, and his ability as a teacher, are most emphatic. But the fiat of the University Commissioners, the new college arrangements came into effect, and Mareschal College ceases to exist as an institution after to-day. On the 17th September 1505, Bishop Elphinstone founded King's College; and on the 15th September, 1860—just 355 years after, except two days—it may claim to start as the college at Aberdeen, an honourable rival, with many hallowed associations being extinct.

— NATIONAL EDUCATION IN IRELAND, 1859.—The report of the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland—their twenty-sixth report—states that at the close of the year 1859 they had 5496 schools in operation, and the average daily number of children in actual attendance in the year had been 269,203—an increase of 3112 over the previous year. The average number of children on the school rolls was 519,175, and the total number whose names appeared on the rolls at any time during the entire year was 806,510. The Commissioners trained during the year 289 teachers, and had in their service at the end of the year 5,636 principal and assistant teachers, but of these only 2,791 had been trained. 83.9 per cent. of the children are Roman Catholics, only 5.1 per cent. belonging to the Established Church, 10.5 Presbyterians. Of the Protestant children about 18 per cent. attend schools where the teachers are exclusively Catholics; of the Catholic scholars 3½ per cent. attend schools where the teachers are exclusively Protestant. The Commissioners direct their inspectors, in any cases where they find the children of one faith receiving religious instruction from teachers of another faith, to use their utmost vigilance to discover whether any compulsion or inducement, contrary to the fundamental rule on this subject, has been used to cause those children to be present at such religious instruction. But there really appears to be no proselytizing going on. The head inspector, who reports on the Clonmel "model school," mentions that all the young persons of different creeds trained in it from its opening in 1849 have remained steadfast to their religious principles; most of them are now in charge of National schools under Roman Catholic clergymen, some have become nuns, others have been appointed to situations in Roman Catholic seminaries, one in the Catholic Bishop of Waterford's college. The condition of the elementary schools appears to be encouraging. It is stated that there is a gradual improvement going on, and that the desire for rudimentary education is very great among the lower classes, and is growing, and the number of useful teachers is increasing. Mr. Vere Foster has generously expended upwards of £2000 in the purchase of school apparatus, which he has distributed among 785 schools. The demand for the labour of even children causes great irregularity of attendance, and the inspector revisiting a school after the lapse of four or five months may find half the children he left there are absent or gone. The reports of the proficiency in elementary knowledge vary greatly. Lessons in reading are very seldom given, and numbers of untrained teachers in rural districts never heard a good reader in their lives. It is stated that there is too much rote teaching and "hard driving" to secure apparent proficiency without thorough grounding in elementary principles. Boys who can work all the exercises in the arithmetic-book fail in the practical questions of every-day market life, and are shamed by an uneducated countrywoman, who will solve them "upon her tongue." These are defects to be remedied, but they are not peculiar to Ireland, and we learn that the reading and writing are satisfactory, and the arithmetic is fairly taught, in six of every ten schools. The girls are said to read better than the boys, but not to understand arithmetic so well. The children who are taught in the model schools get an education of a superior character, and in one of the ordinary National schools at Nenagh, the inspector was rather surprised to find that the parish priest had introduced Latin and Greek, and they are taught in a very creditable manner, and without neglecting the more essential branches of education. The advanced class construed *Horace* very correctly, and on the inspector giving 27 of them an improvised and difficult passage as an exercise in dictation, 19 wrote it with ease and correctness. In this school, with a daily average attendance of only 41, the school fees for the year amounted to £100; but in the rural districts the amount received from the parents is small. The sums paid by the children in 1859 in aid

of teachers' salaries, together with the local subscriptions, amounted to an average of only 3s. 3d. per pupil. There are a few industrial schools for girls, who devote part of the day to literary instruction and part to work, and thus earn wages and obtain an education at the same time; and there are 143 agricultural schools (including 58 workhouse schools), besides the Albert Agricultural Training Institution and Model Farm, the inspector of which states that several agricultural colleges have recently been established in America upon a similar system of combining literary and agricultural instruction.—*English Journal of Education.*

— PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF BRITAIN.—During the past year there had been an increase of 171 in the number of schools, and of 58,387 in the number of children attending them. There was also an increase in pupil teachers of 1,200, in certificated teachers of 90, and of students in training 85. The increase in the number of children upon whom the capitation grant was paid had been 52,119; 247 new school houses had been built, with 178 dwellings for teachers, and 280 schools had been enlarged—altogether affording accommodation for 58,000 children. The estimate for the present year was £798,167; last year it was £836,920, showing a diminution of £38,753 in the amount. The diminution was rather apparent than real—for in the estimate of last year was included the sum of £75,566 made up of the accumulated deficits of the three previous years. Deducting this amount the estimate for the last year was really £761,000, showing an increase for the present year of about £37,000.

— EXPENSE OF EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.—It appears from a return just published that the sum expended in erecting schools in England, since the year 1853, under the minutes of the Privy Council of Education, is £1,187,112. Of this large sum £632,398 was supplied by local rates, £79,735 by non-local subscriptions, and £424,979 was furnished by parliamentary grants.

## UNITED STATES.

— UNIVERSITY OF THE SOUTH.—The Nashville *Union* publishes an account of the ceremonies attending the laying of the corner stone of the new University of the South, on the Sewanee mountain, near Winchester Tennessee, on the 10th of October. The number in attendance was variously estimated at from 2,500 to 5,000, among whom were many distinguished gentlemen connected with the Protestant Episcopal Church. There are nine Bishops and a large number of the clergy and laity. At about eleven o'clock a procession was formed, and on arriving at the site the visitors and citizens opened ranks, and the Bishops and clergymen, clad in white surplices, the architects, choir and band passed through into the palisaded enclosure, where the corner stone was to be laid, and formed a circle round it. After reading of Scriptures, exhortation and prayer, by Bishops Rutledge, of Florida; Atkinson, of North Carolina; and Cobbs, of Alabama, Bishop Elliott, of Georgia, announced the deposits in the corner-stone. The choir then chanted the "Benedicite," with instrumental accompaniment, after which the procession was re-formed and marched to the place prepared for the delivery of the address of the Hon. John S. Preston, the orator of the day. Col. Preston then arose, and for about one hour and a half addressed the audience in a strain of eloquence which often rose to sublimity. An impressive prayer was then offered up by Bishop Smith, of Kentucky, after which the benediction was pronounced by Bishop Otey. Then the audience dispersed. Shortly afterwards the invited guests sat down to a sumptuous collation. The elevation of Sewanee mountain is about one thousand nine hundred feet above the level of the ocean, and it possesses a mild and genial climate in summer, which is but little colder in the winter than that of the surrounding lowlands. As the trustees say, the salubrity of the climate is beyond all question.

— IMPROVEMENT OF ST. CHARLES COLLEGE, MARYLAND.—St. Charles College, Maryland, is at present being greatly enlarged and improved. In 1859, when the improvements were commenced, the college presented a façade of eighty-four feet, built of granite. It was then determined to erect a centre building to be attached to the original portion of the college. This addition, which is now finished, is four stories in height, and has a front of sixty feet. Early last spring was commenced what might be termed a duplicate of the old structure, the whole design to present a façade of a centre building with wings on each side, making in all a front of 226 feet. About the same time was begun a large chapel at the west end of the college, 44 feet in width between walls, 120 feet deep, with a ceiling 50 feet high, inlaid with gothic ribbling. The chapel has now so far advanced as to be under roof. The whole block of college buildings are in the gothic style of the fourteenth century.



VIII. Departmental Notices.

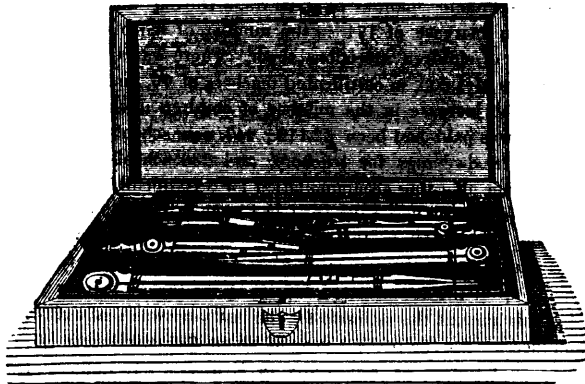
APPOINTMENT OF SCHOOL AUDITORS, DEC. 1st.

Trustees of Rural School Sections, by referring to the Act published in this *Journal* for June, will see that it is their duty to appoint an Auditor of their School Section accounts before the 1st of *December*, and to call a meeting not later than the 15th for the election of a second Auditor by the Section on

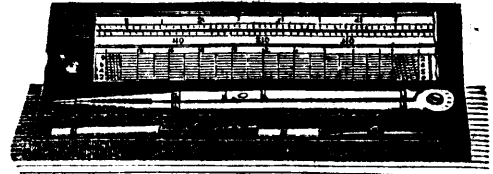
the 21st of *December*. (See also the other provisions of the amended School Act on the same subject.)

LOCAL SUPERIN'TENDENTS & TRUSTEES' BLANK FORMS.

At the close of this month, the yearly and half-yearly blank forms for Rural Trustees, together with a supply of School Registers, will be sent to the County Clerk for distribution by the Local Superintendents. Other forms and documents will also be sent out as soon as printed.



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References.—T. J. Robertson, Esq., Head Master of the Normal School, Toronto. Rev. R. A. Fyfe, D.D., Principal of the Canadian Literary Institute, Woodstock. Address to the care of Rev. J. King, "Canadian Baptist," Toronto.

Toronto, 7th November, 1860.

lt. gr.

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