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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER:

	PAGE
I. SCOTTISH POPULAR EDUCATION.....	145
II. PAPERS ON PRACTICAL EDUCATION—(1) Teachers always in Trouble. (2) Pictures in the School Room. (3) Early and Secondary Education. (4) Oral Religious Instruction. (5) Character the ultimate end of True Education	147
III. PAPERS ON PHYSICAL SCIENCE—(1) A Neglected Chapter of School Geography	140
IV. PAPERS ON LITERARY SUBJECTS—(1) General Wolfe and the Elegy in a Country Churchyard. (2) The London Times Printing Office. (3) The Pecuniary Perils of Journalism. (4) Correct Speaking. (5) The Talk of Authors and Sound Men. (6) The Name of the Deity	151
V. EDUCATION IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES—(1) Education in France. (2) Lib- raries and Education in Russia	153
VI. PAPERS ON COLONIAL SUBJECTS—(1) Noble devotion of a Canadian Woman in the War of 1812	153
VII. BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES—No. 41. George Benjamin, Esq.	154
VIII. PAPERS ON PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY—(1) Crystal Cavern in Switzerland. (2) The Kingdom of Italy	155
IX. MISCELLANEOUS—(1) An Hour at the Old Play-Ground. (2) The Queen's Book. (3) Truthfulness as a Habit (4) Obedience the Mainspring of Education. (5) London and the Queen. (6) Taking Children by the Heart. (7) The way to Eminence. (8) Welcome. (9) Give the Boys Tools	155
X. EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE	158
XI. LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE	160

SCOTTISH POPULAR EDUCATION.

A HISTORICAL SKETCH.

PREVIOUS to the Reformation in 1560, our knowledge regarding common schools in Scotland is scanty, and somewhat uncertain. This only is established, that they were in existence in considerable numbers long before that period. The precise date at which they were first introduced is hid in obscurity. Probably they were coeval with the introduction of Christianity, about the year A.D. 565. Education was a special object of regard to Columba and his followers, who about this time took up their abode on the surf-beaten shore of Iona. Young men flocked to their seminaries from all quarters, even from distant Norway and Sweden. To these was given such a training as was well suited to fit them to become missionary pioneers and heralds of the glad tidings that Columba had come to Scotland to announce. To a mental training, extended, yet minute, was added a physical training, not less necessary, to enable these primitive teachers not only to be self-supporting, but to lead the way in the arts and improvements in civilization. There is nothing new under the sun. Industrial schools, supposed by many to be a feature peculiar to modern educational effort, are found in Scotland coeval with the dawn of history. In one thing the system of St. Columba, otherwise so admirable, is surprisingly deficient. It not only fails to recognise, but positively brands as dangerous, one of the educational agencies that now-a-days is justly held to be among the most powerful and effective. We refer to the elevating and humanising influence exercised by the mothers of a people. Not only was no special provision made for training women to the proper discharge of

their important duties, as holding in their hands the future destinies of nations, but their very presence in the holy isle was guarded against. Cows were not permitted to come within sight of Columba's sacred dwelling, for this very cogent reason, "Where there is a cow there must be a woman, and where there is a woman there must be mischief." These opinions would no doubt become modified among his followers, the Culdees, but to what extent we know not. The curtain of darkness falls upon Scotland, and for five hundred years we can but guess her probable educational condition.

Charlemagne, who became sole King of France in 771, we know, held the principle, by many supposed to be comparatively a modern one, that wherever there was a church there should be a school. The intercourse between France and Scotland was, from the remotest ages, peculiarly close and intimate; in the time of the great ruler, markedly so. The most favoured guests at his table were learned men from Scotland. Scots scholars founded the University of Paris, 791; and thus procured privileges to their own nation which feudal subjects of the French king did not possess. Nor are proofs altogether wanting that Scotsmen, or the scholars of Scotsmen, founded the University of Shafhausen, as well as several of those in Switzerland, Germany, and Franche Compté.* Perhaps Charlemagne owed his liberal views on education to his Scottish friends, perhaps not. In either case, it supplies fair presumption that the rule of church and school may have been adopted in our own country. Be that as it may, we find schools in existence in various parts of Scotland at almost the earliest period in our documentary history. In 1124 we find one of the witnesses to a charter of confirmation styling himself "Berbeadh, rector of the schools of Abernethy." "Master of the schools of the city of St. Andrews" appears also in a charter between 1211 and 1216. "Adam, master of the schools of Perth," was, about 1213, one of the judges named by Pope Innocent III. for settling some controversy that had arisen between the monks of Paisley and William, clerk of Sanquhar. There were schools in Perth even earlier than 1213. Robert, bishop of St. Andrews between the years 1152-1159, confirmed to the monks of Dunfermline "the church of Perth and that of Stirling, and the schools." And again, in the period 1163-1172, Bishop Richard grants "to the Church of the Holy Trinity of Dunfermline, the school of Perth and the school of Stirling, and all the schools which

* See Muller's History of Switzerland, published at Vienna about 1796.

belong to the said church, free and quit of all claim and exaction for ever." On the same kind of evidence, viz., designations in contemporary charters, we find there were schools in Linlithgow in 1187; Edinburgh, 1124-1153; in Roxburgh, 1147-1152; in Ayr, 1234; in Berwick-upon-Tweed, 1279; in Aberdeen, 1262-3; and at Brechin in 1429.

Now if we look at the nature of the evidence on which the preceding statements are made, incidental references in charters of corresponding dates, we are quite warranted in drawing the inference, that even so early as the twelfth century, that is, several generations before the days of Wallace and Bruce, Scotland occupied no inferior position as an educated and educating nation. There are many probabilities against the preservation of those special charters referring either to school or schoolmaster, or, if Macaulay's New Zealander, moralizing over the ruins of London Bridge, have no other means of estimating our present educational position, but contemporary charters that may then survive, we much fear he will hardly do justice to the philanthropy of 1864.

Of the supervision and internal economy of such schools we know but little. They seem to have been entirely under the control of the church in the hands of the various great monasteries scattered through the country. By the constitutions of the cathedral of Aberdeen, settled in 1256-7, we find "it was of the chancellor's office that he should provide a proper master for the government of the schools of Aberdeen, able to teach the boys both grammar and logic." It was a part of the duty of this "master of the schools at Aberdeen" to see to the due attendance at matins and high mass, on all the greater festivals, of four singing boys, two who carried tapers, and two who bore incense. The chancellor of each diocese exercised entire control over all schools within his bounds. In the end of the fifteenth century, we find the chancellor of Glasgow successfully shewing, that from time immemorial he and his predecessors had had the unquestioned right of instituting and removing the master of the grammar school at Glasgow, and of taking care, rule and oversight of the same, so that without the leave of the chancellor for the time being, it was not lawful for any one to hold a grammar school, or publicly or privately to teach and instruct scholars in grammar. About the same date we find an ordinance of the chapter of Moray, that "a common school shall be erected and built in Elgin, by those who are bound to erect and build the same: and that the chancellor shall appoint and ordain a fit person to rule and govern the same, and to teach those who resort to it, and instruct them in grammar." In Brechin cathedral constitutions it was provided, that the college of choristers, founded in 1429, should have two chaplains, one to teach the "sang school," on the part of the cantor, the other to teach the grammar school on the part of the chancellor. But the rule of this dignity was not quietly submitted to in all parts of the kingdom. In 1418, on the presentation of the provost and community of Aberdeen, a schoolmaster was inducted by the chancellor, who "testifies him to be of good life, of honest conversation, of great literature and science, and a graduate in arts." A little after, in the same fair city of Aberdeen, we find that a master of the grammar school "inquired of the provost whomof, he had the said school—granted in judgment, that he had the same of the said good town—offerand him redde to do thame and thair birnis service and plesour at his power, and renouncit his compulsator of the curt of Rome in all poyntis, except that it suld be lesum to him to persew the techaris of grammer within the burgh." This renunciation of the "compulsator of the curt of Rome" was made a considerable time before the Reformation.

The means by which subordination and obedience were enforced in these early schools, were identical with what has been more or less considered the ultimatum in common schools even to the present time—to wit, the rod. In Reginald's gossipin: *Libellus de admirandis Beati Cuthberti virtutibus*, there is one of his miraculous passages which gives us a glimpse of light on this part of our subject. Reginald, the writer, was a monk of Durham in the twelfth century. "There is," says he, "in the foresaid village," (he is speaking of Norham on the Tweed) "a church, founded in ancient times, named in honour of the blessed Cuthbert, in which, by a custom now common enough," (remember, he is writing in the twelfth century) "boys frequently pursued their studies: sometimes drawn by the love of learning and knowledge, and other times, the master being angry, driven by the fear of rods. Whence one of the boys, Haldane by name, rendered cunning by fear, began anxiously and secretly to cogitate with himself, by what manner of means he might escape the blows and pains of the rod for his laziness. At length, therefore, he conceived that, with foolhardy temerity, he would steal the key of the church of the blessed Cuthbert, and no one hindering him, would throw it with all celerity into the river Tweed. So he immediately ran to a place called Padduwell, of infinite depth, which almost seems a sea for its immense profundity, and forthwith hid the key of the church, by throwing it into the

deepest profound. And then he hid himself where neither the curious nor the officious would be able to touch him. And thus he fondly reckoned to have deceived his master, and, with the wished for freedom, to be able at once and forever to escape the slavery of learning. For he did not imagine that another key could be found by any means, and so he fell to congratulating himself with immense joy of heart." The poor rogue rejoices ere he is safe. At vespers the people assemble, the key can't be found, the master attempts to break open the door of the church, but finds it, as befits those warlike times, harder to do than he thought of; he desists, goes home much concerned, at length falls asleep; the blessed Cuthbert appears, and angrily demands why the ordinary services are not performed in his church? The priest confesses that the key is lost. "To whom," says the blessed Cuthbert, "to-morrow with the dawn, go to the fishers of Padduwell, on the Tweed, and buy at any price the first draught of their nets." The master gladly obeys. The fishermen agree to give the first draught for the love of the blessed Cuthbert alone. The nets are drawn, and they enclose one huge salmon. It is almost equal to the pleasure of eating a slice of the fish well seasoned, to read the thrilling account of the capture, in the garrulous Latin of the old chronicler. Reginald must have been a keen fisher himself, hence his enthusiasm. It is consoling to think that, though barings out, and other equally naughty tricks of the present day, prove that the race of cunning, lazy, self-deceiving Haldanes, is still found among youth, the teaching profession can, at the same time, still produce masters of the gentle craft. Space forbids further extract. Let us refer our curious readers to cap. lxiif. of the fore-cited history, which certainly exhibits the king of fishes in a somewhat new light. Suffice it to say, that the missing key was found stuck across the gills of the fish, with the ring protruding to serve for carrying both home. The consequences to the astute Haldane, the chronicler saith not. Most probably his glorious freedom had had an ignominious termination.

Our information regarding the books used in these pre-Reformation schools, though certain enough, is anything but comprehensive. A writer who seems to have flourished about the commencement of the thirteenth century thus describes a child's first book of that period:—

"Quon a chyld to scole xal set be
A bok him is browt,
Nayld on a brede of tre,
That men callit an a be ce
Pratylych i-wrouit.
Wrouit is on the bok without,
V. paraffys grete and stoute,
Rolyd in rose-red,
That is set withoutyn doute
In tokenyn of Cristes ded."

That is, when a child is set to school, he gets a book called an A B C, nailed on a wooden board. This book is wrought very prettily on the outside with five great large nails coloured red, that without doubt betoken Christ's death on the cross. This is most probably the same book as is referred to by Lydgate, who lived in 1430, when he says, in one of his minor poems,—

"How long ago lernyd ye, 'Crist cross me speede!
Have ye no more lernyd your A B C?"

The name, "Crist cross me speede," applied to this first of school-books, was very likely given from a large red cross on the first page. It is described in its appearance and uses, by a writer subsequent to Lydgate, probably about the end of the fifteenth century. He says:

"Crosse was made all of red
In the begynning of my boke
That is called God me jped,
In the fyrste lesson that j toke
Thenne I lerned a and b
And other letters by her names
But always god speede me."

From the praiseworthy minuteness of this ancient versifier, we can gather that phonetics were in no particular favour with the pedagogues of those days. He "lerned a and b, and other letters, by her names." Unfortunately, we have no indication of the contents of this educational manual of the days of old. Most likely it had contained a summary of religious beliefs; thus serving the double purpose of teaching to read, and imprinting firmly on the memory the various articles of the church's faith. Books solely to teach the art of reading are quite modern. Wynton, the contemporary of Chaucer, 1328-1400, in the fifth book of his *Cronykil of Scotland*, thus writes:—

"Donate than wes in his state,
And in that time his libell wraite
That now Barnys oysys to lere
At thaire begynnynge of gramere:

And Saynet Jerome in thair yberis
The best was callid of his scoleris."

About two centuries later, 10th January, 1519, we find in the records of the Town Council of Edinburgh, the following:—

"The quhillk day, the provost, baillies, and counsall, statuts and ordains, for reasonable cause moving thaim, that na maner of neighbour nor indweller within this burgh, put their bairnis till ony particulare scule within this toun, but to the principal grammer scule of the samyn, to be teichit in ony science but alanerlie grace buke, prymar, and plane donat, under the pane of x sh : to be tane of ilk ny'bo' thet breke or dois to the contrair hereof."

The book referred to in each of the two preceding extracts was a small grammatical treatise, written by Donatus, the celebrated preceptor of St. Jerome, who lived about A.D. 354. So long had this *donat*, as it was shortly called, been in use for initiating youth into the mysteries of grammar, that the name became synonymous with elementary knowledge of any kind. Thus Chaucer says, "Then drave I me among drapers my *donat* to learn." It is another proof of its popularity, that it was one of the few *block-books* that made their appearance in the half-century immediately preceding the invention of printing. Several editions are said to have appeared in Holland between 1400-40.

These, *Crist cross me speede, the grace buke, the prymar, and the plane donat*, are the only school books we have got trace of previous to the Reformation. About that time, and shortly after it, the number was considerably increased. To these we cannot refer more specially just now. As the great Reformation sun dawned, history shines with a clearer and steadier glow. In 1496, the national legislature is first found interesting itself in educational affairs, by passing an act ordaining all barons and freeholders of substance to put their eldest sons to school. As a leading the van in scholastic legislation, we give the act *in extenso*:—

"Item, It is statute and ordanit throw all the realme, that all Barronis and frehaldaris that ar of substance put their eldest sonnys and airis to the sculis, fra thair be aucht or nyne zeiris of age, and till remane at the grammer sculis quhill thair be competentlie foundit and have perfite Latyne. And thaireftir to remane three zeiris at the sculis of art and jure, sua that thair may have knowledge and understanding of the lawis. Throw the quhillkis justice may reigne universalie throw all the realme, sua that thair that ar sheriffis or jugis ordinaris under the kingis hienes may have knowledge to do justice, that the pure pepill suld have na neid to seik our soverane Lordis principale auditouris for ilk small injure. And quhat baroun or frehalder of substance, that holds nocht his sone at the sculis as said is, haifand na lauchfull essonge, but failies herein, fra knowledge may be gotten thair of, he sall pay to the king the soume of xx li."

Pinkerton, with his usual caustic temper, in his history of Scotland, sneers at the wisdom of the legislature in rendering it penal to neglect sending eldest sons to school, before inquiring if there were schools in existence to which to send them. From what we have already seen, we can have little difficulty in believing that there were schools in reasonable quantity. The fact that we find a considerable number of schools, in different parts of the country, referred to incidentally when they might just as likely have been passed over in silence, coupled with the additional fact of a special act of legislation, evidently taking for granted the existence of these in numbers sufficient to meet the exigencies of the time, amply warrants us in drawing the conclusion, that Scottish popular education did not originate in the Reformation, but only received a new development and fresh vigour, to suit the immensely increased intellectual and spiritual energy of the people.—*English Museum*.

II. Papers on Practical Education.

1. TEACHERS ALWAYS IN TROUBLE.

There is a variety of gifts in teaching; and most good teachers are characterised by some peculiar qualification which is mainly the secret of their success. And not only does this variety hold good in regard to the means by which teachers succeed, but it also pertains to their deficiencies and faults which prevent success. Some are wanting in firmness and decision; others, in kindness and sympathy. Some have neither judgment nor tact; others are cruel or indolent, or wanting in enterprise. And thus it would be very easy to make the list a long one. But of all the faculties which characterise teachers, we know of no one whose legitimate fruit, sooner or later, is so surely failure, as what may appropriately be called the faculty of always being in trouble. We do not mean to say that teachers are the only persons who have this faculty. Far from it. It is found in people of every calling in life; but in occupations where its possessors come less in contact with the public and

their interests, and whose duties are less delicate, it does not always become so manifest nor produce consequences so fasting and injurious, as in the case of the teacher.

This faculty may not, perhaps, be defined with precision in mental philosophy, nor in the Phrenological Guide, but it surely exists. Of this, fellow teacher, you probably have not the slightest doubt. You have known such teachers. If there is any one thing they can do better than another, it is, to use a common, but a very meaning expression, to get into hot water. It is their forte; and they certainly appear to be very ambitious to magnify their calling. Now it is a very unfortunate combination of qualities and habits that constitutes such a character. It is a constant source of unhappiness to the teacher, making his life one continued scene of fretfulness, trouble, and dissatisfaction; and keeping up a state of discontent and turmoil in the school and neighbourhood. And it is the more to be regretted, from the fact that it is all unnecessary and easily avoided by the exercise of a moderate degree of discretion and common sense.

There are teachers who have very exaggerated and very ridiculous ideas of the authority with which they are vested, upon becoming the presiding geniuses of the 'schoolroom.' To make a display of that authority, and to create a sensation, seem to be the leading object of their work. It almost seems as though they supposed schools were established to give them an opportunity to show that they are masters, and that they wield the sceptre in their little kingdoms. Such teachers will fail of doing a good work, and will have trouble, for various reasons. They have no true conception of their duties as teachers, and can not, therefore, discharge them acceptably. In the discipline and management of their schools they will overdo in every sense of the word. That will engender unkind feelings on the part of the pupils, and make antagonists of those who ought to be friends and co-workers. The malicious and the mischievous will feel irritated and provoked, and will accept the teacher's indiscretions and officiousness as a challenge for a trial of skill and mastery. Even the best of pupils will gradually, and sometimes unconsciously, assume an attitude which, if not hostile, is certainly wanting in cordiality. In such circumstances the relation between the teacher and pupil promises little good, but much harm. Not only will that degree of harmony and good feeling requisite for a successful school be wanting, but aversion and hostility will continually exist. This will greatly impair and generally destroy the usefulness of any school. It is very true; we admit, there often will be conflicts in school, and the teacher will be obliged to grapple with opposition and insubordination, and to put them down effectually. But no teacher can afford to be continually at war with the adverse elements of this school. The campaign against them may be vigorous and decisive, but it should not be a protracted one. If a peace can not be conquered speedily, it will be better to change tactics or generals.

This class of teachers are very frequently affected with jealousy of any interference, real or imaginary, with their rights and authority. Of course they are on anything but pleasant terms with school committees, and the parents of their pupils. Not unfrequently there is a state of mutual recrimination and backbiting. Now, in the first place, every person who proposes to enter the school room as a teacher, should previously understand fully the relation, duties, and rights of committees, teachers, and parents, respectively, as defined by the law of the State where employed; and in the next place, such persons should know that it is possible for a teacher to be supreme in the school room, and at the same time to recognize the rights of other parties, so far as they actually exist, and to respect them accordingly. The teacher who is unable to reconcile the existence and compatibility of the rights of others with his own, may, and most likely will, often quarrel with the school committee or superintendent; while the one who fully understands and acquiesces in the relation of all parties will, with proper discretion, seldom find occasion for any considerable trouble in that direction. We know very well that all kinds of people have the charge and oversight of schools; but it can not be denied that they are generally men of intelligence who share to some extent at least, the public confidence; and we strongly incline to the belief that they are, for the most part, as easy to deal with as any class of our fellow men.

We earnestly beg of you, therefore, fellow teacher, if you have any trouble with your committee, not to prosecute a quarrel until you have seriously enquired who is the aggressor; and also whether you are entirely free from a foolish and perhaps groundless suspicion of interference, when no interference is attempted or meditated. Remember that many people suffer more from the anticipation and dread of troubles that never come, than from all the troubles that actually take place.

A similar spirit of jealousy is often exhibited in reference to the interference of parents. We are free to acknowledge that many parents are meddling in school matters, assuming not only to

advise the teacher, but also dictate to him in the discharge of his duties. The provocations from this are frequently such as to require great discretion and magnanimity to rise above them. Bear in mind that parents have a peculiar interest in their own children, and that it is one of the weaknesses of many parents, that they deem it necessary to superintend, and to have a voice in all that is done for their children by others. Furthermore, schools, and especially public schools, are considered as a kind of public property in the management of which every one has a right to take a part. Such being the fact, it is very natural that injudicious parents should often seem altogether too officious in their intercourse with teachers and schools. Unpleasant as such intermeddling is, it need not generally be a source of much trouble or anxiety to the teacher. It is to be treated on the let-alone-principle. If resented or allowed to bring on disputes or altercations, it surely will increase tenfold; for a testy temper and angry words in a teacher are a sufficient provocation for fault-finders to do their worst. It is by such fuel that the flame of contention is usually fanned to its intensest heat. Not so, however, if it is met with an unruffled temper and with respectful silence. It can not flourish under neglect. It is a good rule to listen calmly and attentively to all the advice, and abuse even, that may be offered, or heaped upon you; and then, avoiding immediate action if possible, to follow your own judgment.

Many teachers very foolishly bring much trouble upon themselves by injudicious talk in school, or before their pupils elsewhere about their parents. A teacher of some promise, occupying a good situation, had occasion to reprove a lad, and to make some changes in his studies which his own good and that of the school seemed to require. The mother of the boy injudiciously made some petulant remarks about it, but would probably have forgotten the whole affair in a month, had the matter ended there. But her remarks found their way to the teacher's ears, whose want of judgment allowed him to bring the matter up before the school, and to indulge in violent language, abusing the boy, his mother, and meddlers in general. The result was he lost his situation and thereby received a just reward. Pupils should never hear from their teachers an unkind or disrespectful word about their parents.

It should be a principal object with the teacher, to keep out of trouble and to live on terms of peace and cordiality with pupils and parents, and with all others concerned. This must be done by the exercise of prudence and good judgment, and by a desire to deal fairly and justly with all. Care must be taken, however, not to vacillate where promptness is required, nor to shrink from the line of duty; for where that plainly leads he must go, cautiously, indeed, but fearlessly. But most of the troubles which this class of teachers encounter may be avoided by a determination to keep clear of them, as we have hinted above. Learn a lesson from the folly of the serpent, which is not always "wise." When a coal of fire is held towards one of our common field snakes, the spiteful reptile darts its forked tongue about it, and then, in wrathful folds, encircles it with its whole body. Result: A burnt offering uncalled for and ineffectual. So do not thou, fellow teacher. Repress the controversial element in your character; let your policy be pacific but firm; and by your fidelity and persistent magnanimity win the good-will and approbation of pupil and patron.—A. P. S., in *Mass. Teacher*.

2. PICTURES IN THE SCHOOL ROOM.

Our remarks under the head of "the Schoolroom as a Teacher" in the March number of the *Teacher*, have called forth some half a dozen letters of inquiry as to the schoolroom which we said had been called "the pleasantest in the State." One unknown friend, who signs himself "A Constant Reader," wants to know where it is, and adds:

"Ought you not, in justice to your readers and the 'not wealthy man' who made it so pleasant, to tell us, and to tell us when and how the pleasant thing was done, that others may be incited to go and do likewise?"

The room referred to is that of the *Oliver High School*, at Lawrence, and it owes its adornment, as it does its name, to Hon. Henry K. Oliver, for many years a resident of that city, now Treasurer of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, everywhere and always an enthusiastic friend and zealous advocate of our public school system.

In 1866, he took charge of the school as instructor, during the interregnum between the resignation of one teacher and the inauguration of his successor. He drew his pay for this service, but some time afterward returned it, with liberal interest, by the donation of two engravings with busts of Plato, Socrates, Demosthenes, Cicero, &c., and statuettes of Goethe, Schiller, Dante, Tasso, Petrarch, Ariosto, Galileo, and Bowditch. In a Lawrence paper of the time, which a friend has obtained for us, we find the correspondence between the donor and the donees of this generous and

tasteful gift. We cannot refrain from quoting a portion of Hon. Mr. Oliver's letter to the School Committee, believing that his statement of the motives that influenced him in making the donation will serve, as our correspondent has said, to incite others to go and do likewise:

"These pictures I desire to have suspended upon the walls of the schoolroom, in full view of the pupils, that they may look upon them not merely as representing great historical facts, but as typical of great epochs in the history of religions and political freedom. And I desire further, that they may see in the great events thus portrayed before them, the perils which our fathers willingly and fearlessly encountered, to secure for themselves and for their children, the immeasurable blessings of free thought, of free speech, and of freedom with all its legitimate limits and safeguards. May they never be unworthy of the heritage!"

Again, referring to the busts and statuettes, he says:

"I present these, not merely to beautify and render interesting in its associations, the place wherein our children spend so many valuable hours, but that by a kind of visible presence, their youthful minds may enter into communion with the majestic minds of these great men, and may feel the force of Cicero's glowing and glorious words:—'pleni sunt omnes libri, plenae sapientium voces, plena exemplorum vetustas! * * * Quam multas nobis imagines, non solum ad intuum, verum etiam ad imitandum, fortissimorum virorum expressas, scriptores et Graeci et Latini reliquerunt! Quas ego mihi semper proponens, animum et mentem meam ipsa cogitatione hominum excellentium conformabam!"

"I risk all charge of pedantic display in quoting these words, so familiar to every scholar, and I venture upon no translation, because none can adequately embody the admirable sentiments expressed by the great Roman orator and philosopher, and certainly none can be needed, in addressing those to whom the city has confided its highest, as well as its humblest educational interests.

"May the daily sight of great and good men, and of great and good deeds, awaken in the breasts of our children, the desire and resolution to be great and good likewise; but,

'only great as they are good.'

We may add that this was not the first, nor the second time that the school had been indebted for valuable donations to the generous patron whose name it bears. He had previously given it an excellent philosophical, chemical, and astronomical apparatus, and a set of maps and globes, besides adding many volumes to its library.

The large hall of the Oliver Grammar School, in the same building, is also adorned with many paintings, engravings, and busts, not a few of which it owes to the thoughtful liberality of the same gentleman. In this case, as in others of the kind, the generosity of one has led others to emulate his example; and we trust that, through the influence of the *Teacher*, the good deed may prove the seed from which, in many another city and town, good fruit may come.

Apropos of this subject, we find in a recent Report of the Board of Education, of Chicago, the following remarks:

"In most of the schools, the walls are still entirely destitute of ornamental paintings and engravings. If some of the parents in the several districts would furnish a few paintings, engravings, and other works of art, for the adornment of the schoolrooms, they would greatly aid us in our efforts to elevate and refine the taste of their children."

There is no neighborhood, not even the poorest, in which something of the kind may not be done. *Beauty is cheap*, as Mrs. Stowe has so admirably shown in her "House and Home Papers" (if, indeed, their value can be estimated in money,) and just as cheap, just as economical, in the schoolroom as in the home. Would you protect the schoolhouse from the jack-knives of juvenile vandalism, *make it beautiful!* Every picture you put on its walls will save its cost, the first year, in the diminution of the bills for "incidental repairs."

The more elegant these artistic adornments of the schoolroom, the better; but, as we have before said, if you can have but a few cheap lithographs, it is better than nothing. The best lithographs, indeed, as we remarked in a notice of *Bufford's Catalogue of Prints, etc.*, in the *Teacher* for April, are often mistaken for steel engravings, and may deceive even a critical eye. We have seen a lithograph of Scheffer's "Dante and Beatrice," recently published by Bufford and sold for one dollar, which reproduces the beauty of the original painting as perfectly as the steel engraving for which you must pay six or eight dollars. There are those, indeed, who think that in softness and mellowness of effect, the cheap lithograph is superior to the costly engraving, and more faithfully represents the painting.

It must be understood that it is only the best lithographs to which these remarks apply. Among those which are appropriate for adorning our schoolrooms, are those of historical personages,

which are suited to all grades of schools from the highest to the lowest. In the rooms occupied by the younger children, we should be glad to see the "Fairy Tales," "Reading the Psalms," "Vacation Over," "The Volunteers," and a few other charming things of the kind.

Busts and statuettes, too, excellent copies from the antique or from the best works of modern art, can be obtained at quite moderate prices. There are few places where it would not be possible, by a little subscription among the people, to purchase at least two or three such ornaments for a High School-room. Will not some of our readers make the experiment, and send us an account of their success, (for they cannot but succeed,) to encourage and stimulate others to "go and do likewise?"

3. EARLY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION.

The great work of man's education commences under the most sacred and benignant auspices. Providence seems to have taken it upon itself, by confiding it to the heart of a mother; it is the gift of watchfulness and love.

Let infancy rejoice at its weakness and feebleness, since they obtain for it the happiness of being under such tender and faithful protection in childhood. Many individuals have hardly any other education than the maternal; it continues a long while in many, by means of the salutary and profound influence which a virtuous mother exerts over her children, and which is more powerful than any other. Blessed are the mothers who really understand this noble prerogative with which they are invested! Happy the children who are allowed long to reap the benefits of it! All ages might find in this education of the cradle a model and a subject of study, for the directions they need, and yet, do we think of studying it? The pupil learns the use of his senses, and the exercise of his faculties, he is taught also the use of two things which will help him to learn all others, he acquires language, and he learns how to love. Afterward comes, under the direction of tutors, that artificial education which should be the continuation of the preceding; but which seldom preserves its spirit. With the direct instructions of masters are mingled others less perceptible, yet more powerful, perhaps, and more lasting, such as those which the youth receives from his ever increasing intercourse with others, particularly his companions, and such as he receives from circumstances. This second education is so much the more profitable, as it trains the pupil to act for himself, and thus favours the progressive development of the gifts that he has received from nature. So far as it prepares him to study and improve, it educates him; but it does not give him science and virtue; it only puts him in a way to discover the one, and to love the other. It then calls for his own co-operation, which becomes more important from day to day, in proportion as his strength increases, and his experience is enlarged. At last tutors retire: and in the eyes of superficial men, the whole education seems finished. Yet the means alone are changed; and, under its new form, it acquires peculiar importance and usefulness at this third period. To external succeeds spontaneous education; or, rather the internal education; which, secretly, having seconded, more or less, the education received from without, renders it efficacious, and remains to influence the rest of life.—*Degerando on Self Education.*

4. ORAL RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

[Prof. Stowe thus describes the method of imparting oral religious instruction in the German schools. The pupils in the class of schools referred to, were from six to eight years of age.]—*Ohio Educational Monthly.*

The main studies are, of course, the elements—reading, writing, numbers, and singing. But in addition to these studies, one of the stated, regular exercises of the school is a familiar conversation between the teacher and the pupils, intended to cultivate their powers of observation and expression, and also their moral and religious sentiments. The teacher brings the scholars around him in an informal sort of way, and engages them in lively conversation with himself, sometimes addressing all together and receiving simultaneous answers, and sometimes addressing individuals and requiring individual answers.

The subject of conversation varies, of course, from day to day. Suppose it to be a garden. The exercise would proceed somewhat thus. If a garden is given to a class for a lesson, the pupils are asked the size of the garden; its shape, which they may draw on a slate with a pencil; whether there are trees in it; what the different parts of a tree are; what parts grow in spring, and what parts decay in autumn, and what part remains the same throughout the winter; whether any of the trees are fruit trees; what fruits they bear; when they ripen; how they look and taste; whether the

fruit be wholesome or otherwise; whether it is prudent to eat much of it; what plants and roots there are in the garden, and what use is made of them; what flowers there are and how they look, etc. The teacher then reads them a description of the garden of Eden in the second chapter of Genesis—sings a hymn with them, the imagery of which is taken from the fruits and blossoms of a garden, and explains to them how kind and bountiful God is, who gives us such wholesome plants and fruits, and such beautiful flowers for our nourishment and gratification.

5. CHARACTER THE ULTIMATE END OF TRUE EDUCATION.

Whatever is done in the work of education in a true way, must not only be done with design and skill, but there must be also an ever-present, ever-constraining reference to the question of its influence upon the character of the pupil, the final issue of all the labor bestowed upon him there. True education makes the man himself, and not some mere outside addition to him, however beautiful or imposing. Everything else is but a means to this great end; the building up of the inner temple of the soul, or the transfusion of as many divine elements of thought and feeling, as possible, into the whole inner framework of one's being, as its permanent characteristics and its great ruling force. Without such ideas and aims in his work the teacher walks in a low and narrow path indeed; but with them he walks on the very highway of holiness, on which prophets and apostles and God's great army of heroes have ever gone up into the skies.

All true mental and moral growth is self-growth, progress made for one's self by continued effort in a right direction, under the perpetual stimulus of a right will. Not a few who without many advantages yet distinguish themselves, but all, with advantages or without them, are self-made; some, indeed with greater facilities, purer models, and more inspiring influences than others; but all, self-made. A splendid character is but the splendid accumulation of a vast number of right choices, and right deeds the soul's own pile of all its past ideas and hopes; itself, in everything that it has done and desired to do throughout its entire history.—*Selected.*

III. Papers on Physical Science.

1. A NEGLECTED CHAPTER OF SCHOOL GEOGRAPHY.

Of all studies pursued by the young, History and Geography most admit of being treated in a picturesque and pleasant fashion; and in no way can the physical structure and qualities of a land be better impressed upon the mind of a youthful student, than by regarding it as a theatre, in which great acts of History have been performed, the swell or sinking of whose surface, and the conformation of whose shores, have modified the plot and action of the tremendous drama of Time. Looking with a broader view, and aiming at a somewhat stronger grasp than usual, we propose in the present paper to sketch a phase of geographical study, which has been either entirely ignored, or but very faintly touched, in our standard text-books.

Taking Europe, both as the great centre of modern history, and as the corner of the world most interesting to ourselves, we proceed to shew in broad outline how the Physical Geography of its various countries has affected the destinies of the nations dwelling in them. Since the theme is too rich for exhaustive treatment in a sketch like this, we shall confine our remarks principally to the effects of *coast-line and surface.*

And, first, casting a glance upon the map of Europe, we observe the extraordinary gapping of its coast-line with inlets, and the consequent connection of all its countries except one with the sea. The harshest comparison of Europe with Africa, in this respect, will suggest why a little corner of the huge land-mass we called the Old World has played so prominent a part in the work of civilization while the enormous lump of earth and rock to the south of this favoured spot has done little more than nurture the victims of slavery, and supply an arena where travellers and gorilla-hunters may gather materials for museums and for books. The unbroken coast-line of Africa must always prevent Timbuctoo from starting up in rivalry of Paris. It will easily be seen that the really important part of Europe, the part whose history is fuller and grander than all the history of the rest, assumes the peninsular form, and spreads its branching arms of every size and shape into the western and southern seas. A line, drawn from the head of the Black Sea to the mouth of the Vistula, cuts off this great historic peninsula, which repeats its own serrations almost without end. It will afterwards be more fully apparent, how the sea has influenced the history of Europe. The situation of nearly all Europe within the limits of

the temperate zone has also done much to develop civilization there; for nations, like individuals, prefer to occupy a comfortable home; and can thrive better, where there is a happy mixture of sun to warm and frost to brace, than in those extreme regions where men risk transformation into icebergs or cinders.

Before I cease to view the map of Europe as a whole, let me give two cases, in which, on a splendid scale and with a splendid success, her physical form has proved her salvation. At two points our continent almost touches the other masses of the old world; and at both the sworded apostles of the Koran assailed her with transient triumph.

Early in the eighth century the Saracen scimitars flashed across the strait now called Gibraltar, and spread desolation among the Visigoths of southern Spain, driving them from sierra to sierra, until they found at last a refuge amid the woods and rocks of the Asturias. Then over the great Pyrenean wall swarmed the turbaned host, rejoicing in the fair grape-land that spread before them as they pressed on to the Loire. But a giant warrior obstructed the way. Charles the Hammer smote them on the plain of Tours with a stroke so sore that they fled back behind the great mountain barrier, and contented themselves with a dominion rooted for a time in southern and central Spain. Pepin and Charlemagne completed this work of repulsion, which could never have been accomplished, if a great natural rampart of granite and grauwacke had not reared its pine clad slopes between the basins of Ebro and Garonne. Let us not forget, however, that a rampart, no matter how strong, is next to useless, if there stand not behind it a gallant nation, keeping its line of defence with eagle watch and stalwart arm. This service the Franks rendered in an hour of imminent peril to western Europe. And then, when the Arabs, driven to the south of the Pyrenees, were locked up in an isolated corner of the continent they had intended to overrun, the southward pushing began, which drove them, century after century, down the inclined plane, until they were forced at last to abandon even the red towers of the Alhambra.

What the Pyrenees and the Asturias did for western Europe, the Danube accomplished in the East. Many a time did the Mohammedians dart across the little belt of brine, which severs Scutari from Constantinople, and recoil scorched with the Greek fire, which shrivelled up their ships, before the fierce rush of 1453 admitted the victorious Turks to the city of the Cæsars. It was then not long until the Turks began to push north-east-ward with fierce intensity. But there rolled the Danube with its broad swift stream; there, queen of the river-forts, stood Belgrade, where the tributary Save comes plunging in from the mountains of Carniola; and there, too, stood the human obstacle to their further progress, with strength greater than rolling water and endurance more lasting than stone, the brave sons of Hungary—Magyars, who, in the polish of civilization, had not lost the wild warlike fire they had brought from the gorges of Ural—born soldiers, whom arts and refinement had only changed from rough iron into glittering and elastic steel. To their valour, manning the great line of the Danube, and supplemented on the waters of the Mediterranean by the nautical prowess of Venetian sailors, did Europe mainly owe her safety from Moslem invasion on the Asiatic side.

Thus to a range of mountains and the current of a giant stream do we partly owe the fact, that western Europe is still the heart of Christendom. Ugly as it is, we would rather retain the hat than don the turban. We prefer the solemn grandeur of a Christian cathedral, with its shadowy aisles and the prismatic splendour of its painted oriel, to the barbaric tinsel and fantastic spires of a Mohammedan mosque. And we confess to liking the plate-glass windows and civil shopmen of Oxford Street, much better than the bearded tricksters who sit, smoking and silent, among their diamonds, silks, and perfumes in the bazaars by the Bosphorus. Our freedom from Moslem life and all its belongings may in a sense be traced to the Pyrenees and the Danube.

We all know how the insular position of Britain has rendered her a great outpost of the European continent, girded by a wall of brine stronger than stone or steel; how the commodious clefts in her eastern and the sheltered portions of her western shore have nourished seaports brimming with the riches of the world; and how the protecting mountain-wall, which shelters her lowlands alike from the eating force of Atlantic billows and the blighting breath of Polar storms, has also afforded a refuge to the lingering remnants of that old Celtic race, which formed the foremost wave of the human flood streaming westward from Babel.

In France, we find a compact pentagon, whose river-basins afforded an irresistible temptation to the barbarians of the early Christian centuries. Two sides are washed by the western sea; on the south, we find rock and bridle; the east is guarded by the Alps, the Jura, and the Vosges, but the north-east is unprotected by any natural barrier. Here then might France expect attack. How the absence of a physical defence in this frontier has moulded her

destinies, the most cursory reader of French history can remember. What nature had not given, are supplied in the shape of those monster stars and polygons of stone, built by Vauban and his kind along the whole line from Dunkirk to the Moselle. The eruption of huge stone fortresses spread itself over the flats of Belgium too, where existed many great and rich cities, whose only security from plunder lay in locking themselves up in double and triple walls. In a land all encrusted with such erections Condé and Turenne won laurels to be woven with the Bourbon lilies; William of Orange fought nearly all his battles; and John Duke of Marlborough earned that splendid renown, which a mean nature and a vicious life have scarcely availed to dim. In our own century, too, Belgium has vindicated its title to be called one of the two great battle-grounds of modern Europe, for there at Waterloo in fierce collision closed the military history of two marvellous men of war.

It was a favourite dream of the first Napoleon to extend this defenceless and ever-shifting frontier of France to the Rhine, which seemed to him the natural boundary of the land on that side. But here the balance of power came into question. If Europe could have been sure that the Rhenish frontier would not be made a base for pushing the empire eastward to the Elbe, the Oder, the Vistula, or where you will, this might have been allowed. But there being no security, Napoleon was beaten from flood to flood, until France had shrunk to her proper size.

The nation inhabiting the irregular little patch of Rhine mud, which we call Holland, has more than once defended her liberty and her faith, by permitting the billows again to sweep the level fields. And, when the smiling gardens that edge the trim canals proved too small for the employment of a growing nation, Holland, turning to that friendly sea again, founded a navy and a commerce, which enabled her to fight the good fight of freedom with singular success.

What meadows surrounded by the sea did for Holland, mountains achieved for that Alpine country, whose particles, washed down by the Rhine, may be said to have formed the flats by the Zuyder Zee. Switzerland, a cluster of green cups with rims of ice and snow, is the only European country without a sea-coast. But she possesses two great outlets in those rivers of similar name, which pour the waters of Constance and Geneva into different seas. By means of these and certain passes, which zig-zag over the Alps, the toys and trinkets of Swiss industry reach the marts for which they have been made.

A land, equally divided between Lowland and Highland, is the fittest home for a nation combining enterprise with love of freedom. The mountains of Switzerland would avail little, if the deep-green pastures did not brighten between. Scotland and Hungary, both lands of the patriot, present remarkable examples of this historic law. Too little stress has been laid upon the effects of Lowlands in moulding national character in its highest forms. Take from Scotland the lowlands of Forth and Clyde and Tweed, from Hungary the basin of the Theiss, and you leave behind regions, capable indeed of nourishing a free, brave, and hardy people, but devoid of those fair and fertile spaces, which subtly refine the character of a nation, and supply both room and material for the development of the arts of civilization.

The sea saved the Dutch Republic from extinction. It saved Portugal, too, from being completely swallowed by Spain. Suppose the country we call Portugal to have been on the inner or Mediterranean side of Spain, what power would have availed to save the sloping stripe from a strong neighbour, holding the central sierras and the southern rock? Leaving out of account her internal barrenness, and the historic fact that her princesses—plain and pretty—have secured for her the support of some of the leading powers in Europe, we can easily perceive that Denmark also owes much to the sea.

There is another European plain, besides Belgium, upon which the battles of the nations have been fought. When France and Austria have had recourse to the arbitration of the sword, Lombardy has reddened with the blood of the contending nations. All Italy, indeed, dowered with the fatal gift of beauty, has undergone a career of brilliant misery, and has nearly always been a piece of patchwork upon the map of modern Europe. Ever since Odoacer raised his throne upon the ruins of Rome, Italy has been torn to pieces by the convulsions resulting from internal disorganization and external assault. The republic cities of the Middle Ages gave a brilliance to Italian history, but no strength to Italian nationality, for even the cohesive power of a common name, a common language, and a common faith proved too weak to bind these splendid fragments into a united state. That a strong neighbour should step in and help himself, is only what all history teaches us to expect. And we accordingly find the eagles, single-headed and double-headed alike, picking poor Italy to the very bones, and building their outpost eyries to the south of that great mountain-wall, whose

very existence is a physical denial of any right which Austria or France may assert to the possession of the basin of the Po.

Another nation, holding a central place in Europe, has assumed the form of a collection of states, preserving distinct boundaries, and often possessing dissimilar constitutions. But there is strength in Germany which does not exist in Italy, a strength born mainly of Protestantism and commerce. The geographical reason why Germany and Italy consist of a cluster of loosely-jointed states rests in their central position, which filled them with torrents of barbarians during those turbulent centuries, when the map of modern Europe was forming, when all the broken barriers of the old Roman Empire were floating about, and conflicting waves of Goths, Huns, Vandals, Alans, Franks, Sueves, Saxons, Celts, and Lombards washed restlessly and stormily round the heart and through the limbs of the continent, until Time brought abatement, and the mountain-tops of History were seen again emerging from the bosom of the flood. That great deluge, concealing for a time the effete world of the past, left behind a sedimentary deposit which nourished a new crop of peoples to act out the drama of modern history. It so befel that the river basins, cup-like valleys, terraced table-lands, or maritime flats of that part of Europe, lying between Jutland and Sicily, retained some portion of nearly every race that battled in the surging chaos; and partly from this arose that variety of states, which marks distinctively the maps of Germany and Italy.

The hold which Austria has upon the Danube, and the girdling ranges of mountains which lock her closely round, are the chief sources of her power, so far as it depends on physical geography. But the possession of these advantages is counterbalanced by the lack of a good sea-coast, Venetia and her Istrian and Dalmatian provinces being the only parts of her empire accessible to ships. But her central position has rendered her capital the trying-place of the nations, where men learned in diplomacy meet to play that great game of treaty-making, in which deceit is not unknown.

When the centre of civilization, which is always shifting from shore to shore, came over the waters of the Levant from its ancient dwelling by the Nile, it found a land of rock and valley, bathed in a delicious atmosphere, deeply cleft by gulfs, and so garlanded with emerald islands, sleeping in the sea, as to possess every temptation of a luxurious dwelling-place, and every physical quality of a prosperous home. Greece rose to the head of the ancient world in arms, in letters, and in arts. Corinth lay between two seas, drinking wealth from east and west; and Athens, not far off, lifted to the sky those pillared fanes whose copied beauty decorates our streets. To soil and sky, to gulf-indented island-sprinkled shore, to that happy mixture of green valley, breezy upland, and sky-piercing hill, which constitutes the surface of Greece, the land owed much of her ancient splendour, and owed especially those creations of beautiful fiction, which fill our galleries with her sculptured stone, and in her mythology supply our poets with material for the exercise of their finest art. Centuries of slavery and degradation have all but crushed out the old Greek fire, which, seemingly unquenchable, had its emblem in the blazing naphtha that so often scorched the Turkish galleys into charcoal. Nor is there any likelihood or hope that Greece shall ever rule the world again, until at least New Zealand has had a turn. But the old heroic spirit, nurtured as well by silent rock and speaking river as by the historic memories that haunt the soil, occasionally shows itself in sudden flashes round the mountain-tops of Greece. Of this the late war, miserable as it often was, displayed many examples. And we are not sure that we should not recognize in Montenegro—that little Switzerland of the Adriatic, which penetrates the side of Turkey like a sharp and rankling thorn—a mountain-cradle of heroes, who may yet exercise no small influence upon the destinies of Europe.

There is another land, which resembles Greece in peninsular form, a deeply indented shore, a fringe of islands, and a central structure of mountains. But wanting the splendid sky and sun of Greece, Norway lacks her splendid history too. Yet, even with icy winds and an iron sea, the mountainous half of Scandinavia, whose grand physical use is to form a barrier against Arctic storm and surge, has played a respectable part in the history of modern Europe, and now, although the salmon fishers of London and Paris, who rent the rivers every season, are importing something of the vice that seems inseparable from the life of civilized capitals, is honourably distinguished among its neighbours for a religious faith, strong as the mountains that have nourished the feeling, and a national chastity pure as the snow that whitens for ever on their tops.

An easy journey carries us from Norway to Russia. That portion of the monster plain, which belongs to the map of Europe, is washed by three different seas. In the fact that not one of the three is available for the purposes of perfectly unrestricted commerce or war, we may find the weakness which prevents the Giant Bear from devouring his neighbours right and left. The White Sea is locked up nearly all the year with ice. The Baltic line of

coast has its ice too in less degree; but the grand difficulty here consists in the narrow necks, through which the Russian fleets must seek the open sea. Five nations guard the Sound and the Belts; and, even if a navy struggled through, there stand the two great powers of Western Europe, ready to suite and scatter the armadas of the Czar. Even greater difficulties beset the Russian shipping in the Black Sea. It would be simply impossible to run the gauntlet through the Bosphorus and Dardanelles, and down the whole length of the Mediterranean to that worst pass of all, where British guns lie couched in the heart of the Rock, if all the nations that border the great inland sea had combined to prevent such a movement. The war between Russia and Sweden, in which Peter the Great and Charles the Twelfth measured their strength at Narva and Pultowa, may be simply explained as a fierce effort on the part of the former to gain possession of that piece of Sweden, which borders the Kattegat and faces a comparatively open sea. To the same desire for a useful shore may be traced the repeated attempts of Russia upon Turkey, and that mysterious way she has of aiming at India through Persia and Herat,—a stealthy kind of strategy, which comes to the surface now as an Afghan War, and now as an Indian Mutiny.

The climate of the Russian plain, though certainly one cause why her national wealth is not proportioned to her colossal size, is yet a defence of the securest kind. When the madman of the North wanted to shew the world how really he deserved the name, he invaded Russia with a host of 80,000 men, wading through heaps of snow to the field of Pultowa, where the wreck of his army suffered total defeat. And, untaught by this historic lesson, the Corsican Emperor of France did the same mad thing, to meet a still more disastrous defeat. "Worse than the Cossacks were the wind and the snow. The land spread before them one vast winding sheet of drifted white. The blinding flakes fell thick around them as they stumbled on, marching between files of their comrades who had been frozen to death." Wiser and warier, in the late Russian War, we attacked the Bear, as negroes attack the crocodile by thrusting their fingers into its eyes. We burned out one eye which had long kept dragon watch on the Black Sea: we peeped in to that other, which glares out of the deep socket formed by the Gulf of Finland, but, not liking the wicked look of Cronstadt, we adopted the safer plan of pounding out with our cannon the granite teeth which stud all the neighbouring shore. But we never ventured towards the heart of the land, or beyond the safe base of operations afforded by our ships. In the trenches and in the tents our men had quite enough of a Russian winter to know how dreadful a weapon it might be, and has been made, for the destruction of an invading army.

Lying between Russia and Prussia is a rich defenceless plain, formed chiefly of the basins drained by the Vistula and the Niemen. It is the unhappy heroic Poland, a wonderful exception to the geographical laws which mould the history of nations. The intensity of Polish patriotism, and the force of Polish courage supplied the place of natural barriers, and long kept together, in the midst of neighbours growing stronger every day, a gallant nation of cavaliers, until disunion sapped their strength, and the vultures swooped upon their unguarded prey.

We have thus rambled over the map of Europe, touching lightly those physical features which have more or less influenced the history of the nations. The subject is full of interest and instruction; and, if presented to students in a systematic form, would do much towards interweaving the twin studies of History and Geography, and would bring into play upon both that faculty of association, which works so subtly and strongly beneath the current of our thoughts. The still life of the world, to speak in painter's phrase, is too closely linked to the history of nations to be ever properly kept apart in teaching. And we shall act as stupidly in our geographical teaching, if we regard countries as just so many variously shaped pieces of earth, containing certain populations, and put together like the pieces of some huge dissected toy, as we should do by making a jumble of disembodied names and colourless events supply the place of real and living history.—*English Museum.*

IV. Papers on Literary Subjects:

1. GENERAL WOLFE AND THE ELEGY IN A COUNTRY CHURCH YARD.

Until lately very few reading books for public schools could be found which did not embrace in their poetical selections "*Gray's Elegy in a Country Churchyard.*" It has probably been read by hundreds of thousands of boys and girls who saw no more of moral or religious sentiment in it than in the multiplication table. Yet it may be doubted whether any human composition can be found, from which more wholesome and impressive lessons can be drawn,

for the great mass of the children and youth of our public schools than this same simple elegy of a former century. That it is not more thoroughly impregnated with the spirit of the Gospel may be regretted, but a truer or more life-like picture of the folly of human ambition and the wisdom of a contented spirit it would be difficult to find. The anecdote with which the following sketch is introduced renders a brief sketch of the poet the more interesting :

An early tribute to the merits of Gray's *Elegy in a Country Churchyard* occurs in an anecdote related by Professor Robison, of Edinburgh, and then a midshipman on board the "Royal William," one of the fleet engaged in the taking of Quebec. He happened to be on duty in the boat in which General Wolfe went to visit some of his posts the night before the battle, which was expected to be decisive of the fate of the campaign. The evening was fine ; and the scene, considering the work they were engaged in, and the morning to which they were looking forward, sufficiently impressive. As they rowed along, the General, with much feeling, repeated nearly the whole of Gray's *Elegy* (which had appeared not long before, and was yet but little known) to an officer who sat with him in the stern of the boat ; adding, as he concluded, that he would prefer being the author of that poem to the glory of beating the French to-morrow."

Goldsmith, having published a "Life of Parnell," with the zeal of a biographer thinks it necessary to exalt his hero above everybody else, and says, "The 'Night Piece on Death' deserves every praise ; and I should suppose, with very little amendment, might be made to surpass all those night pieces and churchyard pieces that have since appeared." On which Johnson remarks, "The 'Night Piece on Death' is indirectly preferred by Goldsmith to Gray's *Elegy* ; but, in my opinion, Gray has the advantage in dignity, variety, and originality of sentiment."

Johnson himself had criticised the poems of Gray with severity which appears almost malignant ; but when he comes to the *Elegy*, his tone is entirely changed. "In the character of his *Elegy* I rejoice to concur with the common reader. The churchyard abounds with images which find a mirror in every mind, and with sentiments to which every bosom returns an echo. The stanza beginning 'Yet e'en these bones' is to me original. I have never seen the notions in any other place ; yet he that reads them here persuades himself that he has always felt them. Had Gray written often thus, it had been vain to blame and useless to praise him." Robert Hall thought Gray's *Elegy* "the finest thing ever written."

Mr. Gray was born in Cornhill, November 26, 1716. His father was a Mr. Philip Gray, a scrivener of London. His mother's brother, Mr. Antrobus, was assistant to Dr. George, at Eton ; and under him Mr. Gray was educated at that celebrated school. At eighteen he left school, and entered a pensioner at Peterhouse, in Cambridge. Five years afterwards, in 1739, he travelled in France and Italy as companion to Horace Walpole, whose friendship he had gained at Eton ; but unfortunately they quarrelled in the course of their tour, and Mr. Gray returned alone. Mr. Walpole took the blame of their disagreement on himself. In 1741, he retired to Cambridge, and became Bachelor of Civil Law, and excepting occasional absences, he passed at Cambridge the rest of his life. When the British Museum was first opened, he took a lodging near it, where he resided three years, reading and transcribing. In 1768 the Duke of Grafton appointed him Professor of Modern History at Cambridge. He died of gout in the stomach, producing strong convulsions, on the 30th of July, 1771.

Gray was a man of great learning and research, but he did not mix much with the literary society of his time. He was timid and reserved, but very affectionate to the few friends whom he admitted to his confidence ; and he merits much of our compassion, as being subject to the dreadful malady of low spirits. "Melancholy marked him for her own." He had the most unbounded contempt for the infidels and sceptics of former days and his own—the Shaftesburys, Voltaires, and Fredericks, who did their worst to discredit Christianity. We can only wish that the philosophic and virtuous author of the *Elegy* had gained a clearer knowledge of the consolations which the gospel holds out to those who, with a meek and thankful gratitude, are enabled to embrace it.—*S. S. World*.

2. THE LONDON TIMES PRINTING OFFICE.

A correspondent of the *New York Evangelist* has paid a visit to Printing House Square, and passed through the various offices of the *London Times*, excepting the "Licen's den," which no one is permitted to enter, or have communication with unless by writing. This is the office of the editors-in-chief. The writer says :—

At the right hand of the square is the office for advertisements, looking like a busy and crowded post-office—the advertising of the *Times* is immense. Everything about the *Times* office is done with the utmost system and economy—there is a place for everything, and everything is in its place. There is a perfect division of labor,

and a place for each division. You enter a long room on the first floor where the *form* is got ready for stereotyping ; for with the exception of a single page left open till the last moment for the latest intelligence, every particle of the paper is stereotyped before it goes to press. A part of this room, as well as one of the same size above it, is used by the compositors ; these are always at work, day and night, having two sets of hands.

In another room were two telegraphic apparatuses—one communicating with the office of Reuter, the king of telegraphs, the other with both Houses of Parliament. What comes from Louis Napoleon or Palmerston's brain, is here almost as soon as it is there. The department of proof-readers is prominent and complete. Every word and point undergoes the utmost scrutiny.

The stereotyping was to me a point of culminating interest. To set up a single page of the *Times* takes six men eight hours, and there are sixteen pages. From the moment the "form" is finished until it is reproduced in stereotype is exactly twenty-five minutes. Away it is whirled to the press, and another page quickly follows. In stereotyping, tissue paper is laid on the types, and over that paste-board ; the whole is subjected to heavy pressure—the impression thus obtained is inclosed in a mould, the metal is poured on it, and the work is done. Sixteen tons of paper are consumed each day. From the *Times* office 130,000 sheets are sent forth daily.

I have not time to speak of the luxury of the reporters' room, of the library or the multitude of things, curious and useful, that were shewn to me.

"And now," said I, when the gentleman conductor had taken me through the establishment, "can you let me see the Jupiter, the head thunderer?" He answered solemnly, "He is invisible.—He is to be communicated with only in writing."

3. THE PECUNIARY PERILS OF JOURNALISM.

A London journal portrays the shady side of journalistic enterprises in that city, and the story has its parallel in the experience of American journalism. The London paper starts with the fact that, leaving the great *Times* out of the account, the entire press of London does not pay expenses ; that is, the profits of those which do pay are less than the losses of those which do not. The *London Daily News*, the chief rival of the *Times*, spent half a million dollars before it paid expenses, which it barely does now. With several other special facts of this description, our authority goes on with its story thus :—"There is scarcely a newspaper in London in which three or four fortunes have not been sunk, and by which as many persons have not been ruined. The usual history of a journal is this : A, thinking to make a fortune, starts a journal. He spends a thousand pounds upon it, and finds it still exhibiting a loss. Money goes very fast in a newspaper, for the drain is a steady one, week by week, without pause—a process that will soon empty the wealthiest pocket. Having spent so much, he does not like to stop there. He proceeds, and another £1000 vanishes. He stakes his last £500, and that goes too. Then he is obliged to sell at any price. He perhaps gets £100 for that which has cost £2,500, and he is ruined. Then the buyer expends another £2000 in like manner, and he is ruined, and sells to a third for £200 perhaps. The process may be continued even for a fourth or a fifth, until even hope dies, and the enterprise is abandoned. But sometimes it happens that the fourth or fifth fortune has succeeded by the mere force of living on, and the journal is made to pay. But even then, what is the profit, commercially considered? True, it is a fair profit for him who bought it for £100 and expended £2000. But the actual cost of establishing it was the three previous fortunes of £7,500 ; add these, and the expenses of establishing the journal were in fact £10,000 ; and the profits do not pay as well as any other occupation would do for such a capital as that. Try it thus : what annuity could not be bought for £10,000, and would not that annuity be greater than the profits of the journal, successful though it may appear to be? These results may occasion surprise ; but when we show what are the expenses of establishing and conducting a journal, and what are the receipts, the reader will cease to wonder at the ruin in which journalism involves so many, and at the certain sinking of capital that is occasioned even by the most successful of these enterprises.—*Prescott Telegraph*.

4. CORRECT SPEAKING.

We advise all young people to acquire, in early life, the habit of correct speaking and writing, and to abandon, as early as possible, any use of slang words and phrases. The longer you live, the more difficult the acquisition of correct language will be ; and if the golden age of youth, the proper acquisition of language, be passed in its abuse, the unfortunate victim of neglected education is, very properly, doomed to talk slang for education. Every man has it in his power. He has merely to use the language which he reads,

instead of the slang which he hears; to form his tastes from the best speakers and poets of the country; to treasure up choice phrases in his memory, and habituate himself to their use, avoiding at the same time, that pedantic precision and bombast which show the weakness of vain ambition rather than the polish of an educated mind.

5. THE TALK OF AUTHORS AND SOUND MEN.

Bulwer, in one of his late publications, has the following:—

Every man of sound brain whom you meet knows something worth knowing better than yourself. A man, on the whole, is a better preceptor than a book. But what scholar does not allow that the dullest book can suggest to him a new and sound idea? Take a dull man and a dull book; if you have any brains of your own, the dull man is more instructive than the dull book. Take a great book, and its great author; how immeasurably above his book is the author, if you can coax him to confide his mind to you, and let himself out.

What would you not give to have an hour's frank talk with Shakspeare if Shakspeare were now living? You cannot think of yourself so poorly as not to feel sure that, at the end of the hour, you would have got something out of him which fifty years' study would not suffice to let you get out of his plays. Goldsmith was said by Garrick to "write like an angel, and talk like poor Poll." But what does that prove? Nothing more than this, that the player could not fathom the poet. A man who writes like an angel cannot always talk like poor Poll. That Goldsmith, in his peach-colored coat, awed by a Johnson, bullied by a Boswell, talked very foolishly I can well understand; but let any gentle reader of human brains and human hearts have got Goldsmith all to himself over a bottle of Madeira, in Goldsmith's own lodging—talked to Goldsmith lovingly and reverentially about "The Traveller," and "The Vicar of Wakefield," and sure I am that he would have gone away with the conviction that there was something in the well-spring of so much genius more marvellous than its diamond-like spray—something in poor Oliver Goldsmith immeasurably greater than those faint and fragmentary expressions of the man which yet survive in the exquisite poem, incomparable novel.

6. THE NAME OF THE DEITY

Is spelled with four letters in almost every language. In Latin, Deus; French, Dieu; Greek, Theos; German, Gott; Scandinavian, Odin; Swedish, Codd; Hebrew, Aden; Syrian, Adad; Persian, Syra; Tartarian, Idgy; Spanish, Dias; East-Indian, Esgi or Zeni; Peruvian, Lian; Wallachian, Zene; Etrurian, Chur; Irish, Dieh; Arabian, Alla.

V. Education in Foreign Countries.

1. EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

M. Renan, having declined the post offered him, on the 1st of June, in the Imperial Library, his nomination to it was cancelled, and his removal from the Hebrew Chair in the College of France confirmed on the 11th of the same month. It seems to be admitted on all hands that, in the first and only lecture which M. Renan delivered from the above chair, he transgressed the instructions which accompanied his appointment to it on the 11th January, 1862. From these instructions the following is an important extract:—"The professor, like all the citizens, is bound to observe the caution and respect which are due to the sacred character of the Bible; he will leave to the theologian his proper field, confining his own inquiries to literary and philological subjects; keeping aloof from religious discussions, he will devote himself entirely to researches that may promote enlightenment, and a science so important as the comparative study of the Semitic languages."

The heads of the Imperial Lyceum are henceforth to enjoy a little more freedom in the selection of prize books. Whilst the Government list of prize books is still to be kept in view, should any book, not in the list, be preferred, its substitution is allowed, provided always the proper authority be communicated with, and its sanction obtained.

The *Courier des Ardennes* reports the continued prosperity of classes for adults in the north-eastern provinces, adding that the classes best attended are those of drawing, hygiene, singing, and French. The Minister of Public Instruction, in congratulating the promoters of these classes on their success, thus defines their place: "After the elementary school there is nothing for our whole working population, and from twelve to twenty years of age most of them forget the little they have learned. Something must be placed along

their route; for the less ignorance the more morality, and the more knowledge the more wealth even."

The following is a vidimus of the Government schools in Algeria:—

- 3 Boys' elementary schools, taught by laymen.
- 4 Boys' elementary schools, taught by friars.
- 1 Protestant boys' elementary school.
- 1 Protestant girls' elementary school.
- 1 Girls' elementary school, taught by a lay female teacher.
- 5 Girls' elementary schools, taught by nuns.
- 2 Jewish boys' elementary schools.
- 1 Jewish girls' elementary school.
- 3 Infant schools, superintended by nuns.
- 1 Jewish infant school.

—22

In some of these schools there are evening classes for adults, which are well attended both by work people and by soldiers.

According to statistics obtained by a special inquiry in 1860, there were then in Paris of workmen able to read and write, 344,500; to read only, 5,000; to neither read nor write, 47,500. At this rate one eighth of the total number could neither read nor write; and of this eighth by far the greater part belonged to the building and clothing trades.—*English Museum*.

2. LIBRARIES AND EDUCATION IN RUSSIA.

Moscow is at present the centre of an enthusiastic movement for the establishment of public libraries, and galleries of painting and sculpture. The rich are vying with each other in the contribution of books and works of art from their private collections, as well as of money, and in some places they have even given up their houses for the temporary accommodation of the articles contributed.

On the 20th November, 1863, the six universities of Russia counted nearly 5,000 students, distributed as follows:—St. Petersburg, 672; Moscow, 1,892; Vladimir, 647; Kasan, 413; Charkov, 703; Dorpat, 568.

VI. Papers on Colonial Subjects.

1. NOBLE DEVOTION OF A CANADIAN WOMAN IN THE WAR OF 1812.*

Nor was this all. One bold and successful feat of arms infused *morale*, and inspired another. On the retreat of the American force, Vincent had been followed up, and established his outposts at his old position, Beaver Dam. Decau's house was occupied as a depot for stores. It was guarded by a small detachment of the 49th, about 30 men, under Lieut. Fitzgibbon. Fitzgibbon was one of the paladins of the war, a man of nerve and enterprise, of much vigor of character, and great personal strength. An incident characteristic of the man had occurred on the spot. On taking up his ground at the Beaver Dam, he had driven out the American pickets. Attempting to intercept them, he encountered alone at the back door of Decau's house two of the enemy, each armed with a musket and bayonet. Both charged upon him. Fitzgibbon grasped the musket of the more advanced man, and by main strength threw him upon his fellow, whose musket he also grappled with the other hand, and although both struggled desperately, he as resolutely held on until his men came to his aid, and his antagonists surrendered.

Such was the man to whom on the night of the 23rd June there came a warning inspired by woman's wit, and conveyed with more than female energy. The commandant of Niagara, chagrined by reverses, and anxious to reassure his own people, resolved to beat up the British quarters, to attack Decau's house, and destroy the depot of stores. The surprise of this outpost would have led to further surprises, and to an officer inspired with half the enterprise of Harvey, would have opened the way to Burlington Heights. The outpost was within striking distance, and exposed. The adventure was promising. He ordered, therefore, Lieut.-Col. Boerstler of the United States Army to prepare for this service, rapidly and secretly. He was in command of the 14th United States Infantry, one 12 and one 6-pounder field gun, with ammunition waggons, &c., a few cavalry and volunteers—amounting altogether to 673 men.

In despite of all precautions, rumours of the intended expedition eked out, and reached the ears of one James Secord, a British militia soldier, who resided at Queenston, then within the American lines. He had been badly wounded the preceding autumn at Queenston Heights, and was a cripple. He hobbled home to his house

* From "The War and its Moral." By Colonel Coffin. Published at Montreal by John Lovell.

with the news. The pair were in consternation; they were loyal Canadians—their hearts were in the cause. If the design succeeded—if Fitzgibbon was surprised, de Haren in the rear would follow. Burlington Heights might be carried, and their country would be lost. Mrs. Mary Secord, the wife, at the age of 88, still lives in the village of Chippewa to tell the story, and wakes up into young life as she does so. What was to be done? Fitzgibbon must be warned. The husband in his crippled state could not move, and moreover no man could pass the line of American sentries. She spoke out, she would go herself, would he let her. She could get past the sentries; she knew the way to St. David's, and there she could get guidance. She would go, and put her trust in God. He consented. At three in the morning she was up, got the children's breakfast, and taking a cracker and cup of coffee, started after day break. To have left earlier would have aroused suspicion. Her first difficulty was the American advanced sentry. He was hard to deal with, but she pointed to her own farm buildings a little in advance of his post, insisted that she was going for milk, told him he could watch her, and was allowed to pass on. She did milk a cow, which was very *contrary*, and would persist in moving onwards to the edge of the opposite bushes, into which both she and the cow disappeared. Once out of sight, she pushed on rapidly. She knew the way for miles, but fear rose within her, in spite of herself, and what "scared" her most was the distant cry of the wolf—they were abundant in those days; and twice she encountered a rattlesnake—they are not infrequent even now. She did not care much for them, as she knew they would run from a stick or a stone, and they did not wait for any such exorcism. At length she reached a brook. It was very hot, and the water refreshed her, but she had some difficulty in crossing. At last she found a log, and shortly after got to the mill. The miller's wife was an old friend, and tried to dissuade her from going on; spoke of the danger, spoke of her children. The last was a sore trial, for she was weary and thoughtful, but the thing had to be done, so she was resolute, and having rested and refreshed, proceeded on. Her next trouble was the British outlying sentry, but she soon reassured him, and he sent her on with a kind word, warning her to beware of the Indians. This "scared" her again, but she was scared still more when the cracking of the dead branches under her footsteps roused from their cover a party of redskins. The chief, who first sprang to his feet, confronted her, and demanded, "Woman! what do you want?" The others yelled "awful." The chief silenced them with his hand. She told him at once that she wanted to see Fitzgibbon, and why. "Ah," said the Indian, "me go with you," and with a few words to his people, who remained, he accompanied her to Fitzgibbon's quarters, which she reached about nine on the evening of the 23rd. A few words sufficed to satisfy him. He sent off forthwith to his Major, de Haren, in the rear, and made his own preparations. She found friends in a farm house near, for in those days everybody knew everybody. She slept "right off," for she had journeyed on foot twenty miles, and safely, God be praised.

In the meantime the American expedition had silently assembled at Fort George, and within a few hours rapidly followed on her footsteps. At twelve of a fine night in June, they had taken up their line of march on St. David's, and at daybreak came upon Kerr and his Indians, already on their guard, and keenly expectant. They numbered about thirty warriors, Mohawks, chiefly of the Grand River; but Kerr saw at a glance the insufficiency of his force to resist, and had recourse to Indian tactics to retard and harass the enemy, and to spread alarm to remote posts. He threw himself, therefore, at once on the rear and flank of the Americans, and opened a desultory fire.

The Americans, throwing out sharpshooters in reply, still pressed forward, but the Indians were neither to be repulsed or shaken off. The track through the forest was narrow and broken. The guns and store waggons defiled slowly to the front. The yells and rifles of the savages rang in the rear. A horror of the war-whoop hung then on the national conscience, and sensational stories, for the most part, had the usual effect of such stimulants on nerve and brain.

Boerstler and his men had emerged from the forest into an open space, a clearing close by the present village of Thorold. Their guns, waggons, and other encumbrances had reached a hollow in the road, overhung by a bank clad with beeches. This now forms a basin of the Welland Canal. The spot, which then rang with the outcries of the combatants, now resounds with the hum of industry and the working chaunt of the sailor.

* * * * *

In the hollow, below the beech ridge, where the war-whoop of the Indian has now given place to the shriek of the steam-whistle, Boerstler found a fresh foe. From the wood above, on the hill-side, came the ring of the militia musket, and the echoes of the forest multiplied the reports and the fears they created.

Old Isaac Kelly, born and raised on 48 Thorold, a septuagenarian,

hale and hearty, who still lives not a mile from the spot, tells how, when he was a boy of 18, and was in the act of "hitching up" his horses for the plough, he heard the firing in the wood, and the outcries of the Indians; how he ran to his two brothers, both a-field; how the three got their muskets—they were all militia-men, home to put in a crop; how, led by the sounds, they crossed the country to the beech grove, meeting eight or ten more by the way, suddenly roused like themselves; how, from behind the trees, they opened fire on the American train, and on the guns, which were then unlimbering to the rear; and how the Americans, more worried and bothered than hurt, changed their position and took up ground in David Millar's apple orchard.

In the meantime Fitzgibbon had taken rapid measures. Major de Haren, of his regiment, was at some distance in the rear with three companies, cantoned near where St. Catharine's now stands. An estafette, borne by James Cummings of Chippewa, one of the still surviving veterans of that day, had put this force in motion. Fitzgibbon himself was under arms, and on the way, attracted by the fire.

Suddenly he came upon the head of the enemy's column, and found all in confusion. The men were scared out of their senses. The officer in command had lost his head. Fitzgibbon made the most imposing display possible of his thirty men; and advanced at once with a white handkerchief. He found Boerstler ready for a parley. Fitzgibbon stated who he was—his rank, that he commanded a detachment of British troops, that his commanding officer, de Haren, with a large reinforcement, was close by; and by a judicious disposition of his men, and some passing allusion to his scarecrow Indians—like Robinson Crusoe, when he out-mancœuvred the mutineers—he magnified his numbers in the imagination of his foe.

Boerstler was in a "fix." The Indians yelled horridly; the militia-men fired without compunction; the red coats in front barred the way; a large reinforcement was in their rear—he was, in fact, surrounded, and, like wild beasts driven into an African corral, he and his men were bewildered by sights and sounds of fear. He took but short time to deliberate. He surrendered at once—himself and his whole force.

The surrender was embarrassing. Fitzgibbon was, in fact, nearly caught by his own captives. He did not dare show his weakness. He knew not the number of the Indians; but he did know that the militia force was scant indeed. "Why, sir," says Isaac Kelly, "when he gave in, we did not know what to do with him; it was like catching the elephant."

Fitzgibbon had presence of mind equal to the emergency. The American officers were called together, and a capitulation framed and penned. In the meantime, de Haren hastened on, and scarcely was the capitulation signed when he came up with 200 bayonets at his back.

The American force which surrendered consisted of 542 men, two field guns and ammunition waggons, and the colours of the 14th United States regiment.

[It will be remembered that the Prince of Wales visited Mrs. Secord while in Canada, and gave her £100 in acknowledgment of her heroism.—*Ed. J. of Ed.*]

VII. Biographical Sketches.

No. 41.—GEORGE BENJAMIN, ESQ.

The Belleville *Intelligencer*, which he formerly edited, says of him:—Mr. Benjamin was born in Sussex, England, on the 15th day of April, 1799, and was consequently 65 years, 5 months and 8 days old when he died. He came to Belleville in 1834, where he has since resided. Before coming to Canada he had resided in North Carolina, one of the Southern States of America, from whence he emigrated to Toronto, where he formed the acquaintance of the late Mr. Samson, who at that time was the leading barrister of Belleville, and through him and others was induced to purchase a printing office, and started *The Intelligencer*, which he continued to publish until 1848, during which time the paper consistently and fearlessly sustained and defended the Conservative party, whose principles he never for a moment deserted. He was always true to his friends, whether he found them labouring in adversity or exulting in victory; to him it was always the same. The first office of public trust he held was that of Township Clerk of Thurlow. This was before the separation of this County from the Midland District, and some time before the introduction of Municipal Institutions, and was appointed a Commissioner by the Bench of Magistrates to settle the monetary difficulties between the old Midland District and this County arising out of the separation, for the satisfactory settlement of which he received the thanks of the Bench. He was afterwards Clerk of the Board of Police of the

Town of Belleville, and subsequently, for many years, an active and energetic member of the Town Council. During a part of this time he was also a Councillor and Reeve of Hungerford, and Warden of the County, which office he filled for thirteen years. During the time that he was connected with the Council, he was unremitting in his labours to develop the resources of the North Riding, bringing his whole energies to whatever would tend to their material interests and welfare. It was he who first endeavoured to induce our people to build the plank road from Belleville to Canifton; failing in this he persuaded an American to undertake the task, which proved to be the best paying stock in Canada. From this time commenced the wish on the part of the people for a more extensive system of Plank and Macadamized Roads, until we have now over 130 miles of free Macadamized Roads in the County, and we hesitate not to say that it was to his indomitable energy and perseverance that the people are indebted for them, and though many have found fault, the County will yet bless his memory, and appreciate his services, when those of his traducers have long been forgotten. In 1849, he was presented by the County Council with an elegant Silver Mug, with an inscription engraved thereon, expressive of their high appreciation of his services to the County. And when he left the Council, a very flattering resolution was passed expressive of regret at his retirement from municipal life.

During the Rebellion he was an active loyalist, and though not the kind of man, from his portly figure, who would be likely to do active service, yet he, though holding a captain's commission, volunteered, and under the command of the late Captain Wellington Murney, proceeded to Gananoque, and did duty upon the shores of the St. Lawrence as a private soldier, remaining with the company until it returned home.

For his services to his party he received the appointment of Registrar of the County of Hastings, which he held until 1846, when through an error on the part of a clerk in the office, for which, as Registrar, he was responsible, he was dismissed by the Baldwin-Lafontaine ministry, more on account of his political proclivities than from any wrong that had been done; for so far as he was concerned it was clearly shown that he had nothing whatever to do with the transaction. In 1854 he contested the North Riding with the late Hon. Edward Murney, and was unsuccessful. In October, 1856, when Mr. Murney resigned to contest the Trent Division, Mr. Benjamin again ran for the North Riding, and was elected by a majority of 646. He continued to represent the North Riding of Hastings until the last general election in 1863. During the time he was in the house he was esteemed by his friends as a reliable man, and by all as one of its most useful members. As a member of the Printing Committee he did good service to the country, effecting a saving of \$500,000 dollars in one Parliament. For his labours upon this committee he received the thanks of Parliament and a grant of \$2,000. Few men were missed more than George Benjamin on the re-assembling of Parliament in 1863, by both sides of the House, and it will be a long time ere North Hastings be represented by a man his equal in point of talent and industry. Mr. Benjamin was for years an active member of the Orange Society, to which he steadfastly adhered until he died, taking a lively interest in all its deliberations and all pertaining to its welfare. He was elected Grand Master in 1846, and continued in that office until 1853, when a division occurred in the Order, arising out of a question of internal government, and though re-elected that year, he repeatedly expressed a wish to retire, in order that he might not be in the way of a reconciliation, but his friends insisted upon his maintaining the position until the end of 1854, when he insisted upon retiring.

VIII. Papers on Physical Geography.

1. CRYSTAL CAVERN IN SWITZERLAND.

Switzerland, already so rich in beautiful scenery, has had a new feature added to its wonders of nature. Near St. Maurice, in the Canton de Vaud, a grand crystal cavern has been discovered, at which one arrives by a boat on a subterranean lake. The cavern lies 400 metres or 1,300 feet below the surface of the earth, and is said to be beautiful beyond description.

2. THE KINGDOM OF ITALY.

The Italian Government has just published the result of a census taken since the annexations which constituted it as it is at present. It contains some curious facts of which the accuracy cannot be doubted. The Kingdom of Italy contains a population of 21,777,334 souls. It is, consequently, the fifth Power in Europe as regards its inhabitants; superior to Spain, of which the territory is twice as

extensive, and to Prussia, of which the area is likewise greater.—Were the unity of Italy accomplished its population would amount to 27,000,000. The average population of a commune in Italy is 2,821 inhabitants, while the average in France is only 978 inhabitants. There are nine communes in 300 square kilometres. In France, on the contrary, there are 18 in a similar space. The population is most crowded in the south of the island of Sardinia; it is least numerous in the Marches and in the Æmilia. Italy contains on an average 84 inhabitants to the square kilometre—a figure higher than that of France or Prussia, but lower than that of England, Holland, or Belgium. Lombardy and Sicily are the provinces in which the population has increased most rapidly of late years. Sardinia and the Neapolitan provinces come next. The increase of population has been much slower in Piedmont. The wars of 1848 and 1849 have tended to that consequence.

IX. Miscellaneous.

1. AN HOUR AT THE OLD PLAY-GROUND.

BY HENRY MONFORD.

I sat an hour to-day, John,
Beside the old brook stream,
Where we were schoolboys in old time,
When manhood was a dream.
The brook is choked with fallen leaves,
The pond is dried away—
I scarce believe that you would know
The dear old place to-day.

The school-house is no more, John,
Beneath our locust trees;
The wild rose by the window side
No more waves in the breeze;
The scattered stones look desolate,
The sod they rested on
Has been plowed by stranger hands,
Since you and I were gone.

The chesnut tree is dead, John,
And what is sadder now—
The broken grape vine of our swing
Hangs on the withered bough;
I read our names upon the bark,
And found the pebbles rare
Laid up beneath the hollow side,
As we had piled them there.

Beneath the grass-grown bank, John,
I looked for our old spring
That bubbled down the alder path
Three paces from the swing;
The rushes grow upon the brink,
The pool is black and bare,
And not a foot this many a day,
It seems, has trodden there.

I took the old blind road, John,
That wandered up the hill;
'Tis darker than it used to be,
And seems so lone and still!
The birds sing yet among the boughs,
Where once the sweet grapes hung,
But not a voice of human kind
Where all our voices rung.

I sat me on the fence, John,
That lies as in old time,
That same half-panel in this p
We used so oft to climb—
And thought how o'er the bars of life
Our playmates had passed on,
And left me counting on this spot
The faces that are gone.

2. THE QUEEN'S BOOK.

A ROYAL WIFE'S TRIBUTE TO HER NOBLE HUSBAND.

It has long been known that the Queen of England was engaged upon a species of biography of her late noble consort. The work,

only recently finished, has now been published in London, under the title of

"SPEECHES, ETC., OF THE PRINCE CONSORT."

The book bears on the title page the name of a Mr. HELPS, as "editor," but in a recent speech which that gentleman delivered at Manchester (already referred to in the *Express*), the confession was made that the book was entirely the "labour of love" of Queen VICTORIA.

It is extremely interesting to the general reader, as telling what this model wife thought of her model husband; and "useful," too—as the royal writer says herself—"to the future historian, who has to bring before himself some distinct image of each remarkable man he writes about, and who, for the most part, is furnished with only a superficial description, made up of the ordinary epithets which are attached, in a very haphazard way, to the various qualities of eminent persons by their contemporaries. We really obtain very little notion of a creature so strangely complex as a man, when we are told of him that he was virtuous, that he was just, that he loved the arts, and that he was good in all the important relations of life. We still hunger to know what were his peculiarities, and what made him differ from other men; for each man, after all, is a sort of new and distinct creation."

Therefore at the outset we have Her Majesty's opinion of

The Prince's personal appearance.—"The Prince had a noble presence. His carriage was erect; his figure betokened strength and activity; and his demeanour was dignified. He had a staid, earnest, thoughtful look, when he was in a grave mood; but when he smiled (and that is what no portrait can tell of a man) his whole countenance was irradiated with pleasure; and there was a pleasant sound and a heartiness about his laugh, which will not soon be forgotten by those who were wont to hear it.

"He was very handsome as a young man, but as often happens with thoughtful men who go through a good deal, his face grew to be a finer face than the earlier portraits of him promised; and his countenance never assumed a nobler aspect, nor had more real beauty in it, than in the last year or two of his life.

"The character is written in the countenance, however difficult it may be to decipher; and in the Prince's face there were none of those fatal lines which indicate craft or insincerity, greed or sensuality; but all was clear, open, pure-minded and honest. Marks of thought, of care, of studiousness, were there; but they were accompanied by the signs of a soul at peace with itself, and which was troubled chiefly by its love for others, and its solicitude for their welfare."

This is flattering. It reads like a young maid's confidential letter to "a dear friend," describing her "first love," and this we know Prince Albert not to have been. But now Her Majesty tells us of

His originality of Mind.—"Perhaps the thing of all others that struck an observer most when he came to see the Prince clearly, was the originality of his mind; and it was originality divested from all eccentricity. He would insist on thinking his own thoughts upon every subject that came before him; and whether he arrived at the same results as other men, or gainsaid them, his conclusions were always adopted upon laborious reasoning of his own.

"The next striking peculiarity about the Prince was his extreme readiness—intellectually speaking. He was one of those men who seem always to have all their powers of thought at hand, and all their knowledge readily producible.

"In serious conversation he was perhaps the first man of his day. He was a very sincere person in his way of talking; so that when he spoke at all upon any subject, he never played with it; he never took one side of the question because the person he was conversing with had taken the other; and, in fact, earnest discussion was one of his greatest enjoyments. He was very patient in bearing criticism and contradiction; and, indeed, rather liked to be opposed, so that from opposition he might illicit truth, which was always his first object.

"He delighted in wit and humor; and, in his narration of what was ludicrous, threw just so much of imitation into it as would enable you to bring the scene vividly before you, without, at the same time, making his imitation in the least degree disgraceful.

"There have been few men who have had a greater love of freedom, in its deepest and in its widest sense, than the Prince Consort. Indeed, in this respect, he was even more English than the English themselves.

"A strong characteristic of the Prince's mind was its sense of duty."

The trait next described was really the noblest one of all his characteristics:

His aversion to intolerance.—"Another characteristic of the Prince (which is not always found in those who take a strict view of duty) was his strong aversion to anything like prejudice or intolerance. He loved to keep his own mind clear for the reception of

new facts and arguments; and he rather expected that everybody else should do the same. His mind was eminently judicial; and it was never too late to bring him any new view, or fresh fact, which might be made to bear upon the ultimate decision which he would have to give upon the matter. To investigate carefully, weigh patiently, discuss dispassionately, and then notawfully, but after much turning over the question in his mind, to come to a decision—was his usual mode of procedure in all matters of much moment.

"There was one very rare quality to be noticed in the Prince—that he had the greatest delight in anybody else saying a fine saying, or doing a great deed. He would rejoice over it, and talk about it for days; and, whether it was a thing nobly said or done by a little child or by a veteran statesman, it gave him equal pleasure. He delighted in humanity doing well on any occasion and in any manner.

"This is surely very uncommon. We meet with people who can say fine sayings, and even do noble actions, but who are not very fond of dwelling upon the great sayings or noble deeds of other persons."

The ensuing extracts speak for themselves, and for their captions:

Shyness of the Prince.—"This defect (if so it can be called) in the Prince consisted in a certain appearance of shyness which he never conquered. And, in truth, it may be questioned whether it is a thing that can be conquered, though large converse with the world may enable a man to conceal it. Much might be said to explain and justify this shyness in the Prince, but there it was, and no doubt it sometimes prevented his high qualities from being at once observed and fully estimated. It was the shyness of a very delicate nature, that is not sure it will please, and is without the confidence and the vanity which often go to form characters that are outwardly more genial.

"The effect of this shyness was heightened by the rigid sincerity which marked the Prince's character. There are some men who gain much popularity by always expressing in a hearty manner much more than they feel. They are delighted to see you; they rejoice to hear that your health is improving; and, you, not caring to inquire how much substance there is behind these phrases, and not disinclined to imagine that your health is a matter of importance which people might naturally take interest in, enjoy this hearty but somewhat inflated welcome. But from the Prince there were no phrases of this kind to be had—nothing that was not based upon clear and complete sincerity. Indeed, his refined nature shrink from expressing all it felt, and still less would it condescend to put on any semblance of feeling which was not backed up by complete reality."

Aversion to Flattery.—"The Prince had a horror of flattery. I use the word 'horror' advisedly. Dr. Johnson somewhere says that flattery shows, at any rate, a desire to please, and may, therefore, be estimated as worth something on that account. But the Prince could not view it in that light. He shuddered at it; he tried to get away from it as soon as he could. It was simply nauseous to him.

"He had the same feeling with regard to vice generally. Its presence depressed him, grieved him, horrified him. His tolerance allowed him to make excuses for the vices of individual men; but the evil itself he hated."

His Love of Knowledge.—"He was singularly impressed with the intellectual beauty of knowledge; for, as he once remarked to her who most sympathised with him, 'To me a long, closely connected train of reasoning is like a beautiful strain of music. You can hardly imagine my delight in it.' But this was not all with him. He was one of those rare seekers after truth who carry their affections into their acquisitions of knowledge. He loved knowledge on account of what it could do for mankind.

"He never gave a listless or half-awake attention to anything that he thought worth looking at, or to any person to whom he thought it worth while to listen. And to the observant man, who is always on the watch for general laws, the minutest objects contemplated by him are full of insight and instruction. In the Prince's converse with men, he delighted in getting at what they knew best, and what they could do."

His Love of Art.—"He cared not so much for a close representation of the things of daily life as for that ideal world which art shadows forth and interprets to mankind. Hence his love for many a picture which might not be a masterpiece of drawing or of coloring, but which had tenderness and reverence in it, and told of something that was remote from common life, and high and holy."

A Defect.—"It has been said, that, if we knew any man's life intimately, there would be some great and peculiar moral to be derived from it—some tendency to be noted which other men, observing it in his career, might seek to correct in themselves. I cannot help thinking that I see what may be the moral to be derived from a study of the Prince's life. It is one which applies only to a few

amongst the highest natures; and, simply stated, it is this—that he cared too much about too many things.”

Abiding Youthfulness.—“Finally, there was in the Prince a quality which I think may be noticed as belonging to most men of genius and of mark. I mean a certain childlike simplicity. It is noticed of such men that, mentally speaking, they do not grow old like other men. There is always a playfulness about them, a certain innocence of character, and a power of taking interest in what surrounds them, which we naturally associate with the beauty of usefulness. It is a pity to use a foreign word if one can help it, but it illustrates the character of such men to say that they never become *blases*. Those who had the good fortune to know the Prince, will, I am sure, admit the truth of this remark as applied to him, and will agree in the opinion that neither disaster, sickness nor any other form of human adversity, would have been able to harden his receptive nature, or deaden his soul to the wide-spread interests of humanity. He would always have been young in heart; and a great proof of this was his singular attractiveness to all those about him who were young. One gift that the Prince possessed, which tended to make him a favorite with the young, was his peculiar aptitude for imparting knowledge. Indeed, the skill he showed in explaining anything, whether addressed to the young or the old, ensured the readiest attention; and it would not be easy to find, even among the first professors and teachers of this age, any one who could surpass the Prince in giving, in the fewest words and with the least use of technical terms, a lucid account of some difficult matter in science which he had mastered—mastered not only for himself, but for all others who had the advantage of listening to him.”—*Ottawa Citizen*.

3. TRUTHFULNESS AS A HABIT.

Sometimes a child contracts a habit of untruthfulness from mere carelessness. A natural dullness of apprehension, or, on the other hand, an excessive quickness, may thus prove a snare. Some children, too, unconsciously mingle their own thoughts about a fact with the fact itself, and thus, even without designing to do so, get into the habit of misrepresentations. They must, therefore, be taught to observe carefully and relate accurately. The well known anecdote of Dr. Johnson and Mrs. Thrale so aptly illustrates this point that its repetition here may be very readily excused. “Accustom your children,” he said to Mrs. Thrale, “constantly to this: if a thing happened at one window, and they when relating it, say that it happened at another, do not let it pass, but instantly check them; you do not know where deviation from truth will end.” Mrs. Thrale objected to so strict an application of the principle, and replied, “Nay, this is too much.” * * * Little variations in narrative must happen a thousand times a day, if one is not perpetually watching.” Johnson rejoined, “Well, madam, and you ought to be perpetually watching. It is more from carelessness about truth than from intentional lying that there is so much falsehood in the world.”—*S. S. World*.

4. OBEDIENCE, THE MAINSPRING OF EDUCATION.

Obedience is the mainspring of education. In a child, docility holds the place of reason; little by little, reason will be developed, and the mother will relax the absolute authority of her will. She will explain why she orders, but she will do it only by degrees, and will preserve, up to the last moment, the important right of saying, “I command you.” There are many mothers who do not make up their minds to order a child, until they have vainly used caresses and promises; then, all at once, the inefficiency of their efforts renders them impatient, and they order in a fit of anger; the child submits with a bad grace, and silently criticises the will which he has been thus taught to oppose. On the contrary, a prudent mother, if sometimes she judges proper to explain the order which she gives, does so only after having been obeyed; and the condescension is a recompense to the child for his submission, and a proof that he had reason to submit.

The orders which a mother gives, should be the result of her reflection; they should be expressed with deliberation, and they will be obeyed without trouble. Why should she not occasionally employ the absolute expression of her will in commanding a child to do something that may be agreeable to him; as, for instance, to play or to take a walk? This would be a means of separating the idea of constraint from that of obedience; but in all cases, agreeable or otherwise, let the order be irrevocable. It is the habit of obedience which forms the character. Learning, wit, talent, genius—these precious fruits of study or of nature—are too often spoiled by defects of character. The habit of obedience does not diminish courage, or generous independence, or strength of resolution; for a child submits entirely only to reason, and this salutary habit destroys the vague rebellion of the mind. Prepare him thus to have

respect for laws, to yield submission to necessity, and to possess resignation, the most powerful consolation in his misfortune. But to females it is especially useful to learn to obey. In this, is found the true source of their happiness.

5. LONDON AND THE QUEEN.

I was speaking in my last letter of the moral dimensions of London; let me mention a few of its big things physically. And it may seem incredible at first that London's greatest wonders and its most striking improvements just now, are under-ground. For example, the Metropolitan Railway is a very successful experiment in subterranean locomotion. This road traverses the city beneath roadways and houses, having large and well-lighted stations at intervals, so that passengers can easily find their way to and from the city above. This is probably but the beginning of extensive improvements yet to be made in this direction. It is a noteworthy thing in reference to all these great works of internal improvement, that they are constructed with a solidity and expensiveness which are perfectly astonishing. It is difficult to see how the companies can afford to buy their way through the heart of London, and to build at such an immense cost.

In passing along Fleet street, which is one of the Broadways of London, I saw the foundations of a splendid railroad bridge, which is to cross the street within pistol-shot of St. Paul's. London is persecuted by railway projects even more than New York. I was assured that the proposal for railroads in London which were laid before this Parliament, contemplated the use of an amount of space which would equal one quarter part of the entire city! One of these plans proposed to tunnel beneath the Religious Tract Society in Paternoster Row, and even under St. Paul's Cathedral! In one case it fell out that a single piece of property lay in the track of three railroad schemes, and three different surveying parties visited the premises in the same day. A joint Committee of the two Houses of Parliament was raised to consider these projects—a method seldom resorted to—which resulted in throwing out some two-thirds of the proposition at once.

A still more novel and wonderful thing in London, and perhaps the most remarkable affair in town, is the Pneumatic Dispatch, by which mails are forced through a subterranean tube from one district to another, in a very brief space of time. The atmosphere is first churned in a vast reservoir by steam power, and being thus concentrated, is suddenly admitted into the tube, forcing all before it. It is proposed to have the London mails distributed according to the postal sections on the trains as these approach the city, and on arriving, each mail is to be shot through to its place at once. And besides this an experiment is being made at the Crystal Palace grounds of propelling passenger cars by the same principle. Think of being shot through a huge pipe, underground, in two minutes, from the Battery to Harlem! A still greater subterranean enterprise is going on in London in what are called the Intercepting Sewers. You will remember the excitement which occurred in London a few years ago, about the impurities of the river Thames, and how Parliament was almost driven out of St. Stephen's Palace, by the stench of the river, which runs right by the edifice. Immense quantities of the chloride of lime were dumped into the river to sweeten it, and to prevent infection. At that time all the sewers of London poured their contents into the Thames. This of course, could not be endured. To remedy this, three immense intercepting sewers are being constructed on each side of the river, at a depth on the north side of some sixty feet below the pavement, so as to drain all the conduits and cess-pools of the city. These vast arteries are to convey the impurities of the city to a point on the river ten or twenty miles below London. It is intended to have a reservoir in which these drainings can be confined at will, so that they may be let out with the ebbing tide, and be carried quite into the ocean.

These great sewers will require six years to complete, and will cost one hundred millions of dollars. It is easy to see some such plan as this is the only way in which the Thames can ever be made sweet and healthy. But how few would think of this, or appreciate the vastness of the enterprise, as one which promises to be all controlling by and by in making London habitable and healthful.

Hyde Park. I was in Hyde Park the other Saturday between twelve and two o'clock, to see the aristocracy on horseback. It is notable, indeed, that at this time may be seen five hundred ladies and gentlemen, dukes and duchesses, noblemen and their wives and daughters, riding back and forth in a space of a mile long. By the side of this roadway is a promenade where as many fashionable people are gathered on foot, probably less aristocratic. What seems most curious to me is that this spot has but one name in London, and that is “Rotten Row;” or as the cockney calls it, “Wotten Wo.” I have been curious to find out the origin of this most extraordinary name; and the most satisfactory explanation is that it

is a popular corruption of the French "*Route de Roi*." London is never tired of seeing Equipage and Splendor. The Queen held a "Drawing Room" the other day, the reception being made by the Prince of Wales and his Royal Lady. The streets were crowded in the vicinity of St. James' Palace. The elegance in dress, carriage, harness, horses, liveries, and all that sort of thing is strange enough to republican eyes.

In the Royal Academy of Arts, I saw lately two daughters and a young son of the Queen. They were busily looking at the paintings in company with some noble gentlemen. They carried themselves very quietly and charmingly. They were of course the observed of all observers, while they acted as if they did not know it. There is something very pleasing in the devotion of the English to the Queen and her family. It is a feeling stronger than loyalty. It is affection. Royal blood is sacred in their eyes, and they throw around the royal family all the reverence and admiration which they are capable of feeling. I confess to being a very sturdy and incorrigible republican. I almost smiled the other day when I read that "His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, had been graciously pleased to send fifty guineas to help a charity;" but yet let it be considered that this is a feeling which includes at once beauty and solidity. I am not dazzled with the glitter of royalty, but I am forced to feel a sympathizing appreciation of those sentiments which underlie the most fixed and unflinching loyalty. When I was in a vast assembly recently not less than ten thousand being present, the choir sang "God save the Queen." It was in the Crystal Palace, where hats were worn, and at the first sound of the tune, every man rose and uncovered. I could not help doing the same thing.

6. TAKING CHILDREN BY THE HEART.

A short biography of the late Professor Gaussien, of Geneva, has lately been given in a Swiss religious publication. There we find the following passage relative to his boyhood.—"The vivacity of his ways, which yet were full of attractiveness, sometimes disquieted his mother, charged as she was with his education, and drove his teachers to despair. Yet his naturally tender and affectionate disposition placed a much-needed rein upon the outbursts of his wild gaiety. His mother and a little sister were the objects of his most tender care. Accordingly, when some new giddiness of the future theologian led to a visit from one of the Professors, 'Take hold of my son by the heart,' said his mother, and Louis Gaussien was taken." Is not this the secret with most lively children?

7. THE WAY TO EMINENCE.

That which other folks can do,
Why, with patience, may not you?

Long ago a little boy was entered at Harrow school. He was put into a class beyond his years, and where all the scholars had the advantage of previous instruction, denied to him. His master chid him for his dulness, and all his efforts then could not raise him from the lowest place on the form. But, nothing daunted, he procured the grammars and other elementary books which his class-fellows had gone through in previous terms. He devoted the hours of play, and not a few of the hours of sleep, to the mastering of these; till, in a few weeks he gradually began to rise, and it was not long till he shot far ahead of all his companions, and became not only leader of the division, but the pride of Harrow. You may see the statue of that boy, whose career began with this fit of energetic application, in St. Paul's cathedral; for he lived to be the greatest oriental scholar of modern Europe—it was Sir William Jones.

When young scholars see the lofty pinnacle of attainment on which that name is now reposing, they feel as if it had been created there, rather than had travelled thither.—No such thing. The most illustrious in the annals of philosophy once knew no more than the most illiterate now do. And how did he arrive at his peerless dignity? By dint of diligence; by downright pains-taking.—*Life in Earnest*.

8. WELCOME.

"Papa will soon be here," said mamma, to her three years old boy, "what can Georgy do to welcome him?" And the mother glanced at the child's playthings, which lay scattered in wild confusion on the carpet. "Make the room neat," replied the bright little one, understanding the look, and at once beginning to gather his toys into a basket. "What more can we do to welcome papa?" asked mamma, when nothing was wanting to the neatness of the room. "Be happy to him when he comes!" cried the dear little fellow, jumping up and down with eagerness, as he watched at the

window for his father coming. Now—as all the dictionary-makers will testify—it is very hard to give good definitions; but did not little Georgy give the very substance of a welcome?—"Be happy to him when he comes."—*Congregationist*.

9. GIVE THE BOYS TOOLS.

In man there is what may be termed "making instinct," and our houses, garments, ships, machinery, and, in fact, every thing we use, are the practical results of instinct. How important, then, that this faculty be cultivated, and that the idea be at once and forever abandoned that none but mechanics require this great element of usefulness and happiness. Whatever a man's occupation, whether he be a farmer, a merchant, an artist, or a mechanic, there are hourly occasions for its practical application. Being thus general in its usefulness, the cultivation of this constructive faculty should be a primary consideration with parents. Skill in the use of tools is of incalculable advantage. It gives useful employment to many an idle hour. It prompts one to add a thousand little conveniences to the house, which, but for his skill, would never be made. In a word, it is the carrying out, in a fuller sense, of the design of the Creator, when he implanted the faculty of constructiveness within us. Let it, then, be cultivated in children. Indulge the propensity to make water-wheels and miniature wagons, kites and toy-boats, sleds and houses—any thing, in fact, which will serve to develop it and render it practically useful. Give the boys good pocket-knives, and, what is better, give them a good workshop. Employed in it, they will not only be kept out of mischief, but will be strengthening their muscles, exercising their mental powers, and fitting themselves for greater usefulness when they shall be called upon to take their place in the ranks of men.—*Scientific American*.

X. Educational Intelligence.

CANADA.

—UNIVERSITY OF MCGILL COLLEGE.—THE CHANCELLORSHIP.—Under the recently amended statutes of the McGill College, the Governors are empowered to elect one of themselves as President and Chancellor of the University, the Principal becoming *ex-officio* Vice-Chancellor. The Governors have just unanimously elected the Honorable Chas. D. Day, LL.D., to be the first Chancellor. Peter Redpath, Esq., of the firm of John Redpath & Son, Sugar Refiners, and President of the Board of Trade, has been elected a Governor of McGill College University in place of David Davidson, Esq., who returned to Scotland to reside some time ago.

—BEAR CREEK SCHOOL.—The London *Free Press* learns that Thos. Scatcherd, Esq., M.P.P., who has always taken a liberal part in advancing the interests of education, lately presented the pupils of Bear Creek School, under the charge of Mr. John A. McDonald, with a valuable lot of books, as a token of his good wishes toward the above named school.

—WESLEYAN FEMALE COLLEGE, HAMILTON.—The Wesleyan College is a proprietary institution, the ownership being vested in a Joint Stock Company, of which the members are principally residents in and around Hamilton. The want of a Seminary to supply the educational demands of the rapidly increasing Wesleyan body in the Western section of the Province had been long felt. The "Burlington Academy," established in 1846, and discontinued in 1851, was the fruit of private enterprise, and its success, although not such as to warrant a single individual in embarking, unaided, upon a design of such magnitude, still was sufficient to give the present institution birth. Ten years elapsed ere the idea could be carried to its present practical issue. In 1859 and 1860 the enterprise was deliberately taken in hand. The project was thenceforward hurried on to rapid and successful completion. Stock-books were opened, and a few months saw the estimated fund raised; twenty-five thousand dollars was considered adequate, and at once appropriated for the purchase of an essential site and building; the "Anglo-American Hotel," at that time the largest structure west of Toronto, was in the market, selected, purchased and fitted out, and on the 19th of September, 1861, was inaugurated the Wesleyan Female College, of Hamilton, C.W., the clergy of the various denominations with a large body of citizens being in attendance, together with forty pupils whose names were entered for the first year. The Building is five stories in height, with cellar basements, extending east and west 200 feet, with an extent north and south of 120 feet. The College is situated on the south side of King Street, and commands a full

view of the "Gore," park and fountains; it combines admirably the three essentials of clear light, shady coolness, with ever varied and animated scenery. The building is of cut lime stone, painted brown, and designed to accommodate 250 boarders. A pavement, 20 feet broad, fronts the entrance, rendering egress cleanly in the worst of weather. Grounds supplied with appurtenances of gymnasia and kindred exercises occupy considerable space in the rear of the building, while covered walks enclosing an spacious play ground lend a pleasing appearance to the eye, and conduce to the healthful physical action to the inmates. Taking the exterior of the building as it is this portion may be said to comprise every requisite compatible with the space and material with which the projectors had to work, while that with which they had to work, comprised every essential to an incipient and future perfect Female College.

The Interior.—From the pavement you enter a hall 20 feet broad, in the centre of which stands the principal stair case of carved rose-wood. Branching from either side are rooms four in number. That on the right comprises the library and museum. On the left are the offices of the Institution. Passing onward, and at the extremity of the hall is the dining apartment, used for public examinations, lectures, &c. This room is ornamented with elegant designs of fresco and panel work, coat-of-arms of England, with the Americas; is 36 feet long by 70 wide, and serves admirably the double purpose to which it is applied, visitors and pupils being accommodated with ample room. The offices of the Institution on this flight are supplied with desks, tables, and every usual requisite. The hall paper is embellished with substantial landscape paintings, in oil, geological fossils, among which the *Icthyosaurus*, a reptile of the secondary period is noticeable. A number of rooms in the wings of minor import, conclude this floor. The principal rooms are on the second story, which comprises the Institution Drawing Room, 25 by 60. This room, used for the reception of visitors, and also by the pupils on particular occasions, commands a prospect of the city and fountains, and is furnished in the best style. Recitation rooms, and various apartments for the division of classes are also on that flight, together with sleeping apartments, sixteen in number. The apartments of the left wing are occupied by the several teachers and had professor's studies and resident rooms; there are six in number. Bath-rooms properly furnished, and supplied with hot and cold water, are constantly accessible, and are situated in the rear of this story. The rooms throughout are lofty and supplied with glass ventilators, and the air generally leaves impression of purity and health.

The Library.—This is a spacious apartment, furnished with tables and furniture for the accommodation of pupil readers and temporary visitors. The museum of the Institution is also a part of this division. Glass cases ranged the length of the apartment are crowded with tastefully disposed shells, aquatic remains, fossils and foliage specimens, forming in the main a substantial collection. Additions are being weekly made to this most interesting and useful department. The Library numbers 500 volumes. The works appear standard, and we could wish more numerous, but being at times augmented, the library will doubtless take its place as a College Library shortly. We cannot glance more than summarily at the course of instruction and discipline, &c., of the Wesleyan Female College. To obtain an outline of the various machinery in the working, our readers must themselves visit the establishment. The "Faculty" consists of a Principal and ten assistants, each, however, independent in their several departments. Natural Sciences, Classics, Mathematics, Music, Painting and Drawing in all its branches, together with the French, German and Hebrew languages are amongst the list of curriculum here taught. With regard to discipline, all harshness is discarded. Appeals to the better feelings of the pupil have always been made, and the remonstrance of such kindly spirit has invariably met with success. Expulsion in extreme cases from the Seminary is the only severity resorted to. Pupils attend whatever church they may belong to, and we are told that they number several Episcopalians, Presbyterians, and kindred bodies. Hours of study are from 9 a. m. to 4 p. m., with intermission, and each morning the exercises open by the reading of a passage of scripture by all the pupils in unison. The city of Hamilton sends many day-scholars, which omens well for the standing of the College. The first year 40 pupils were enrolled. In 1862 the list increased to 100, which is stated to be the aggregate at present, though an increase is expected at the September opening. We may add that the design of the Academy was to form a link between the common and private schools of the country, for females, on the same principle that the Grammar Schools are preliminary to the University for

males. The College, thus far, has fulfilled the most sanguine expectations of the projectors, and we have no doubt in the present judicious hands it will continue to do so.—*Hamilton Spectator.*

BRITISH AND FOREIGN.

— **BRITISH AND FOREIGN SCHOOL SOCIETY.**—The fifty-ninth general meeting was held on May 9th, immediately after the public examination of the male and female students. In the absence of Earl Russell, the chair was occupied by Earl Granville. An abstract of the Annual Report was read by Mr. E. D. J. Wilks, from which it appeared that there were 196 young people of both sexes preparing for the work of teaching in elementary schools for the poor. At the Christmas examination for certificates, the result proved very satisfactory. Allusion was made to the appointment of Mr. J. G. Fitch, M.A., as one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, and the appointment of Mr. J. C. Curtis as his successor in the Principalship of the Normal College in the Borough Road. The attendance in the Boys' Model School in the Borough Road averaged 587, making a total admitted of 66,204. The report stated that there would be a diminution of nearly £2000 in the funds of the society for the next year, owing to the operation of the Minute of Council effecting training schools, and concluded with an earnest appeal for pecuniary assistance for the maintenance of the present important agency. Resolutions were passed approving of the report and the Society's proceedings; and addresses were delivered by Mr. S. Gurney, M.P.; the Rev. Messrs. Newman Hall, Titcomb, and Spurgeon, and Earl Granville.

— **A WOMAN DOCTOR.**—A woman has, for the first time in England, passed a first medical examination. She had applied to the University of London and of St. Andrews, to the College of Surgeons of London and of Edinburgh, and to the College of Physicians of Edinburgh—but all in vain. Each of these learned bodies refused to allow her to compete for the degree which would have given her legal qualification to labor in the cure of human ills, and finally she appealed to Apothecaries Hall, and having been examined in anatomy, physiology, chemistry, botany and materia medica, which she had studied for the prescribed five years, was successful in passing. A further course of eighteen months study is required, when, if proved duly qualified, she will receive a license to practice.

— **EDUCATIONAL EMIGRATION.**—The *Tyrawley Herald*, an Irish paper, states that the President of one of the Colleges of the Christian Brothers, in the United States, is at present in the West of Ireland, and is engaged in taking down the names of national and other school boys, of from fourteen to twenty five years of age, who are willing to go to America to have their education completed there, under the care of the Christian Brothers, and be thus fitted for filling positions of trust in connection with the Roman Catholic Church in this country. This offer, the same paper states, is being eagerly accepted by the young men, who are expecting, after a few years' drill, to take high stations in the Church and in the State.

— **ROYAL COLLEGE OF SURGEONS.**—The first statue to the memory of John Hunter, the greatest physiologist England has produced, and to whom the medical profession and the public generally are indebted for the finest anatomical collection in Europe, and upon which the Council of the College has expended nearly £1,000,000 sterling, has just been placed in the Hunterian Museum. It is executed in marble, and is from the studio of Henry Weekes, R.A., who well maintains in this statue his reputation as one of the first sculptors of the day. Hunter is represented in deep thought, seated in the chair which has been modelled after the one made by his own hands, and which the curious may see in the office of the conservator of the museum. The sculptor in producing this fine work has availed himself of the large picture of Hunter by Reynolds, which is now rapidly fading, notwithstanding the great care taken of this *chef d'œuvre* by the authorities.

— **SCHOOLS IN RUSSIA.**—Eight thousand school-houses have been erected in Russia since the emancipation of the serfs took place.

— **UNIVERSITY OF WILNA.**—The Czar is about to establish a Russian University in Wilna, "for the better representation of Russian interests in Lithuania," in place of the Polish University formerly existing there.

— **EDUCATIONAL PRIVILEGES IN FRANCE.**—Among the pupils, fully 6000 in number, of the lycées and colleges of Paris and Versailles, there has been customary an annual competition for three great Emperor's

prizes, as they are called, the winners of which, besides hearing their names proclaimed at the festival of distribution, the grandest in the academic year of the Parisians, are exempted from conscription, and admitted without fee to all Government Schools. A like privilege has just been granted to the pupils, nearly ten times as numerous, of the provincial lyceums and colleges. The pupils of each academic district are first to compete among themselves in order to ascertain the presumptive prizemen—*lauréats*—in each; the *lauréats* of all the provincial academic districts will then compete for three, equal in every respect to those competed for in the metropolitan district. So great a value was set on the Emperor's prizes, given till now only in the metropolitan district, that the provincial lyceums and colleges very generally lost such of their pupils as had any chance of succeeding in the competition for them; and the present extension of the privilege aims expressly at "reviving provincial life, and rekindling centres of light, more than one of which burned brightly in the past."

— The Quakers are establishing a college in Pennsylvania. It is incorporated as Swathmore College, and about \$40,000 have been paid towards the enterprise.

— WILLIAM H. WELLS, Esq.—This distinguished educator has been compelled to resign the office he has honored so long as City Superintendent in Chicago, and henceforth promises himself easier work, with more money, in other fields of labor. The Chicago papers contain the announcement in the following terms:—"The Resignation of William H. Wells, Esq.—Yesterday, at the meeting of the Board of Education, William H. Wells, Esq., the Superintendent of the Public Schools of Chicago, resigned his office, the resignation to take effect at the close of the present school term. We understand that he resigns the post of School Superintendent to take charge of the Illinois Branch Office of the Charter Oak Life Insurance Company. As was felt by all, the retirement of Mr. Wells is a calamity to the public schools of Chicago. Able, accomplished, and thorough in all things, he practised a courtesy that reached all hearts, and a firmness that commanded universal respect. He is a man among thousands, and difficult indeed will it be for the board to find any person to succeed him who will bear himself in office as honorably to himself and so satisfactorily to the public."

XI. Literary and Scientific Intelligence.

— SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.—At the request of the Council, the Executive Committee has prepared a report on the constitution and operations of the Association. They suggest that the departments should be reduced from six to four, viz.:—*first*, Jurisprudence and the Amendment of the Law; *second*, Education; *third*, Health; *fourth*, Economy and Trade. The department of Reformation has been embraced in that of Education; the department of Trade and International Law, partly in that of Jurisprudence and partly in that of Economy. It is suggested, at the same time, that the departments may be subdivided into sections when it is found advisable. As to the mode of conducting the proceedings at the Annual Congress, the following suggestions are made:—"That the principal subjects for discussion be fixed by the Committees of Departments, in the form of questions, sometime previous to the annual meeting, and with a view, among other considerations, to the specialities of the members likely to attend; that no department or section take up more than one such question on any day; that the committees obtain reports and papers to open the discussion on these questions, without subjecting the authors to the twenty-minute rule; that other papers, nevertheless, may be sent in under that rule at the option of the authors; but that the committees take care that the total number of papers read do not occupy more than one half of the day, the other half being reserved for discussion, under a limit of twenty minutes for each speaker; and that the papers not read may, nevertheless, be published in the *Transactions*, if the council think fit." A new law provides for holding an Annual Business Meeting of the members, at the office of the Association, for the election of the officers and the reception of the accounts. The Eighth Annual Meeting will be held at York, from the 22nd to the 29th of September next, under the presidency of Lord Brougham.

— THE NEW COMET.—Astronomers inform us that the face of the heavens is again about to be changed by the presence of one of those mysterious wanderers of the celestial spaces which from time to time, come into view clothed with great splendour, majestic proportions, and

awfully significant form. This visitation is altogether unheralded. The comet was discovered with a telescopic object, simultaneously at Marseilles and Bologna on the morning of the 6th ultimo. Its parabolic elements, as provisionally determined, indicate that it has never before been observed, at least so as to be computed; and that its future geocentric positions are favourable for its being seen in the evening and morning skies. The time it requires to move around the sun and its physical traits remain therefore, to be ascertained. The last comet of considerable magnitude, visible to the eye, was that discovered at Cambridge by Mr. Tuttle, about midsummer, 1862. It had the form of a Turkish scimitar, and moved out from the north with its convex side in advance. While traversing the arctic constellations it was a marvellously sublime spectacle, and attracted universal attention. The stars shone through its gigantic form, giving it a wondrously picturesque aspect.—Unfortunately this fine comet does not reappear till after the lapse of nearly a century and a half.—*Boston Courier*.

— SCIENCE IN NAPLES.—Prince Ottajano, governor of the Royal Palace of Naples, applies his salary of 1,000 fr. a month to purposes of charity or advancement of science and literature. With the latter intention he has just offered a prize of 1,000 fr. for the best comedy written in Italian by any inhabitants of the Southern provinces of Italy. The pieces are to be sent in to the said Academy on or before the 15th of October.

— THE QUEEN'S MEMOIRS.—The *Cobourg Gazette* states that Queen Victoria is engaged in writing her own memoirs, and that this accounts for her withdrawal from Court receptions, &c.

— BOOK AND COINS.—A very curious book has been published by Harper Brothers, New York, on the "Current Gold and Silver Coins of all Countries," with nine hundred *fac-simile* illustrations in silver and gilt values and denominations. Among the curious facts which it brings out, is the one that the Austrian dollar, coined at the present day, is the exact copy of the dollar of Maria Theresa of 1780.

UNIVERSITY OF VICTORIA COLLEGE.

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Materia Medica and Therapeutics—Charles V. Berryman, M.A., M.D.

Physician to Toronto General Hospital.

Physiology—John N. Reid, M.D.

Chemistry and Botany—J. Herbert Sangster, M.A., M.D.

Surgery and Surgical Pathology—James Newcombe, M.D., L.R.C.P.

London, M.R.C.S., Eng., Physician Toronto General Hospital.

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M.R.C.S., Eng.

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Practical Anatomy—J. A. Williams, M.D.

Curator of the Museum—S. P. May, M.D.

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Dean of the Faculty—Hon. John Rolph, 56 Gerrard Street East, Toronto, to whom apply for any further information.

Toronto, August 24, 1864.

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July, 1864

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