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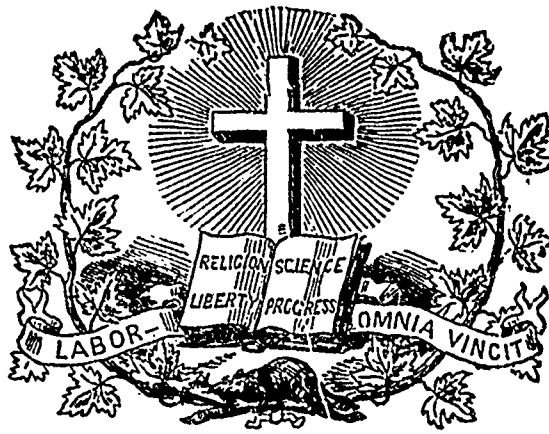
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# JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

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**SUMMARY.**—Education: The Colleges of Canada, the University of Toronto, by Hon. Pierre J. O. Chauveau (continued from our last).—School Days of Eminent Men in Great Britain, by J. F. Timbs (continued from our last).—Suggestive Hints towards practical secular education, by Revd. R. Dawes, IX. Elementary Drawing.—Notes of Lessons. The Word. LITERATURE.—Poetry: The Snow-Storm, Emerson.—Evening Prayer, Keble.—CANADIAN HISTORY: The North-West; First expedition to the Rocky Mountains, abridged from Garneau's History of Canada, by the *Toronto Leader*.—The fur trade in the North-Western parts of America under the French and under the English, from Washington Irving's Astoria.—OFFICIAL NOTICES.—Appointments: Council of Public Instruction.—School Inspectors.—Laval Normal School.—School Trustees.—Diplomas granted by the Boards of Examiners.—Donations to the library of the Department.—Situation as teacher wanted.—Teacher wanted.—EDITORIAL: To the friends of education.—Organization of the Council of Public Instruction for Lower Canada.—Report of the Superintendent of Education for Lower Canada, for 1858.—Extracts from the Reports of the Inspectors (continued).—MONTHLY SUMMARY: Literary Intelligence.

ment matured the plans which finally led to the issue of the first Royal Charter under the Great Seal, and provided the requisite funds for the immediate organization of a College for Upper Canada, with the style and privileges of a University, for the education of the youth of the Province in the higher branches of learning.

Accordingly, in the year 1827, a Charter was granted by His Majesty George IV., for the establishment of a University at York (now Toronto), under the designation of "King's College," and in the following year, the Institution was endowed by patent with a portion of the lands which had previously been set apart by His Majesty George III., for educational purposes. By this Charter it was provided that the chancellor, president, and seven professors, who were to constitute the College Council, should all be members of the Church of England, and give proof thereof, previous to their admission to the Council, by signing the Thirty-nine Articles as set forth in the English Book of Common Prayer. On this principle, therefore, the College Council was formed; but, owing to the diversity of religious opinions in the Province, and the mixed character of the population derived from England, Scotland, Ireland, and also from the Lower provinces, including many loyalists from the States, the exclusive character of the Royal Charter gave great offence to many; and an amendment in regard to the enforcement of exclusive religious tests was loudly called for, these being looked upon as unsuited to the state of the Province, and inconsistent with the original design of the endowment. This effectually prevented any practical steps being taken for carrying out the educational objects of the Charter, and at length, His Excellency, under instructions from the Imperial government, obtained its surrender, so as to admit of its modification by legislative enactment.

## EDUCATION.

### THE COLLEGES OF CANADA (1).

#### III.

#### The University of Toronto.

(Continued from our last.)

The first idea of the establishment of a provincial university originated with General Simcoe, the first Governor of Upper Canada, so early as 1792, and within six years thereafter, the Executive Council, with the Judges and Law officers of the Crown, unanimously reported to the Imperial government in favour of a large appropriation of lands, partly for the establishment of grammar-schools, and partly for the endowment of a university. The immediate result of this was the establishment of grammar-schools at Kingston and Newark, and ultimately in various other important centres of the province; but it was not till 1825 that the country was really felt to have arrived at that stage of development when the grammar-schools could no longer supply the demands of the people for higher education; and, accordingly, in that year, His Excellency Sir Peregrine Maitland, in a series of despatches to the Imperial govern-

(1) For an account of the Laval University see the first volume of our Journal, numbers 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8, and for a history of the McGill University see second volume, numbers 2, 3, 4, 6 and 7.

In 1837, the Royal Charter was amended by a Statute, passed by the Legislature of Upper Canada, with the object of removing the unpopular restrictions; but in consequence

of various impediments, the institution was not opened for the admission of students until June 8, 1843. From that date to December 31, 1849, it was conducted under the Royal Charter, as amended by the Provincial statute.

The amended charter, however, was still far from giving satisfaction; the chief grounds of complaint alleged were that, notwithstanding the abolition of the tests required by the original charter, a Faculty of Divinity had been established, a Professor in Divinity appointed, and a College Chapel provided, in which religious services were daily performed, according to the ritual of the Church of England. Difficulties were also occasioned by the existence of rival schools of medicine; and these and other grounds of dissatisfaction continued to interfere with the successful progress of the institution.

It was in 1843 that the important subject of interference, by legislative enactments, with the Charter of King's College was prominently brought before the Parliament of United-Canada. A bill for that object being before the House for its second reading, Mr. Draper was heard at the bar on behalf of the University, and in the very eloquent speech which he delivered on that occasion, may be found almost all that could be said, and has been said since, on that side of the question. We will, therefore, quote a few extracts from the learned gentleman's argument; but will preface them by other extracts from a well written pamphlet published afterwards, at Kingston, wherein the views and motives of his adversaries are clearly defined; so that our readers may have before them in their natural order the two sides of that great educational controversy.

Taking it for granted that King's College in the condition in which it then stood could not be acceptable to any other class of the community, but to the members of the Church of England, the author of the pamphlet inquires in what way the just claims of the majority of the population of Upper Canada, belonging to other religious denominations, should be adjusted—he says:—

“One or other of the following methods may be adopted:

1st. The whole endowment of King's College being left in the hands of its *de facto* possessors, the adherents of the Episcopal Church, endowments on an equal scale may be provided out of the public resources for the remaining three-fourths or four-fifths of the inhabitants of the Province.

Or, 2dly. The endowment of King's College may be divided among the various Religious denominations, in proportion to their numbers, to be applied by them to the endowment of separate Universities for themselves.

In either of these ways, justice, (a desire to do which will surely be disavowed by no party,) may be clumsily done, and clamour may perhaps be allayed. But these ends will be gained by deep injury to the cause of education, and by sowing the certain seed of future convulsions. The evil will have been only thrown forward on the path of time, to prove the misery of other generations.

There are deadly objections common to both of the above mentioned schemes. But there is an objection peculiar to the first—that, namely, of an approximation to impossibility. And yet, let it be observed, that the first-mentioned scheme—the leaving of King's College under the sole and unrestrained control of the Church of England, and the endowing other denominations on an equal scale—is the only method of doing justice to all, which those who uphold things as they are in King's College, can possibly devise or suggest. Let the question then be asked and answered:—Is the Crown or the Legislature prepared to appropriate a Million Currency, or lands of that value, say some two or three millions of acres, for the foundation of separate Universities? The burden of pointing out the sources from which endowment on this scale is to

come lies certainly; in all fairness, on those who demand that King's College shall remain as it is—a Church of England Seminary.

It has indeed been said somewhere, during the agitation of this question, that it is by no means a necessary deduction from the principles of justice applicable to the subject, that the means of University education should be provided for all parties in the Province alike. There is an unfairness of which the writer has no desire to be guilty, in making a most respectable portion of the community—even though the views of those who compose it to be much narrowed and distorted by self interest—responsible for all the insolence and folly vented by every coarse-minded or silly partizan. It is enough to shew that the position and proposals of a party are untenable and impracticable, without assuming that wherever they are maintained or exhibited, they are connected with a want of honorable feeling and principle. And yet we have heard, from quarters entitled to respect, references made on this point to the British Universities, which are admittedly under the direct control, or paramount influence, of the National Churches. But between these venerable Institutions and King's College there is no analogy whatever. The Universities of England and Scotland were placed in connection with the Church Establishments at a time when the whole population of these countries, with hardly an exception, were members of the same Religious community. Those who have since then separated themselves from the National Establishments, have done so with their eyes open, voluntarily abandoning—yea making a merit of abandoning—the benefits of these Institutions, and with a proud confidence in their own powers and a loud avowal of their determination, to provide, by their own unaided efforts, whatever they might require. Nor will any one, even the most tolerant, assert that it was the duty, had it been possible, of the Legislature, by following them with its favours into all the devious paths of sectarianism, to hold out a *premium* on division.—Besides—the property of these Institutions, while in by far the greater number of cases originating not from *public* but *private* sources, has been augmented, in the laps of ages, to tenfold its original amount, by benefactions and bequests bestowed by individuals connected with the Established Churches, and with a direct view to the prosperity of the Universities, as also connected therewith. In neither of these points of view are the cases analogous to that of King's College. That University was founded as the great Seminary of a Province, the population of which, at the time of its foundation, was divided into several great religious sections, one of which, at least, possessed an equal right to any exclusive or peculiar favour with the Church of England. And while endowed with a sufficiency for the University education of the whole country for a century to come—that is, with all the lands then properly available for such a purpose, and—to a large amount—to the extent of half its endowment—with property destined for a different purpose—(a fact repeatedly and unanswerably brought forward by the present Honble. Receiver General of the Province,) it was, on the representation of a single party among the many, secured to its use alone. Nor has the section of the community which thus obtained the exclusive possession of the only public University endowment in Canada West, acquired by any subsequent private benefactions of its members, exceeding the original public donation, a new shew of right to undisturbed enjoyment. We have heard even from its official Advocate, of only £500 worth of books contributed in this way, and of one or two Scholarships, the whole not amounting in value to a tenth of that which has been shewn to have been, during years of inefficiency, wasted and misapplied.

So much for the right of the Episcopal Church in Canada to exclusive endowment for University purposes. If, then, King's College is to remain as it is, under the paramount control of that Church, it is the bounded duty of the party demanding to retain this privilege, to show how it can be permitted to do so without flagrant injustice to others. We have said that the only way in which this can be done is by the endowment, on an equal scale, of other Denominations—that is by the appropriation, for new Universities, of four or five times the endowment of the Toronto University. Is the Legislature, then, prepared for this, the only means of securing the Episcopal Church in undisturbed possession of that which it acquired by stealing a march upon the rest of the community, in selfish disregard of every interest but its own?

But there are objections lying deeper, yet infinitely more important when brought to light, than the enormous pecuniary cost, to the establishment, in Canada West, of separate Universities, by new appropriations—objections which lie equally against the second of the schemes above stated, that, namely, of founding other Seminaries out of the endowment of King's College. Let us first,

however, consider the main disadvantage peculiar to that second scheme.

The great objection to this plan, and it is alike obvious and fundamental, seems to be, that by carrying it out, an endowment, not perhaps more than sufficient for the establishment of one useful Seminary, would be frittered away into portions utterly inadequate, severally, for the foundation and maintenance of *any thing like a University* in the land. Instead of one well-furnished Institution, with a sufficiency of Instructors to allow of that division of labour which alone conduces to excellence, and of the appliances needful to the advancement of sound learning and accurate science, we should have our Country dotted here and there with a number of mean and inefficient Academies, each—by its scanty staff of Professors, its limited library, its paltry museums and defective apparatus, belying the name it bore—that of a University. It is not wonderful that there should prevail, in this Colony, very incorrect ideas as to the nature of a University, and the pecuniary amount required for its effective establishment. But no one who is qualified to form an opinion on the subject, no one practically acquainted with the statistical details of such matters, will charge us with exaggeration, if we say, that to establish, on the most economical footing, any thing deserving the name or fitted for the purposes of a University, and that too without a *Medical School*, or with a very imperfect one, would require a sum of at least £100,000, or one third of that amount in hand, and a yearly revenue equal to the interest of the remainder. Nor would even that sum achieve the desired result, unless the duty of two or three Professors were conjoined, and committed to single Instructors, until the number of pupils, and consequently the amount of tuition-fees, should far exceed any thing that, on the system of separate Universities, can be expected for some generations in Canada.

We may, it is true, if we please, imitate the inhabitants of the neighbouring Republic, mistaking a warning for an example. The Appendix to the Twenty fourth Report of the American Educational Society, now lying on the table at which these remarks are penned, exhibits *precisely one hundred* separate Universities and Colleges, (exclusive of merely Theological and Medical Institutes,) established within the United States previously to 1840. Almost all, if not all, of these exercise, it is believed, University powers, so far as to confer degrees in Arts. A third of them, or probably more, are in the habit of conferring also degrees in Divinity, Law, and Medicine. In fifteen of these (so-called) Universities or Colleges—some of the fifteen founded as far back as 1794, and consequently, at the date of the Report, *forty six years* in operation—the average number of Instructors of every degree, all departments included, was *three and one fifth*; the average of Students, *nine*; the average of volumes in the respective Libraries, 1026—a smaller number than is contained in the private library of every second professional man in the United Kingdom, and far below that of many a Scottish parochial library. Of all the American Universities not one, except those of Harvard and Yale, has a library of 20,000 volumes.

Now—estimating the population of the United States, at the date of the Report, at *seventeen millions*, and that of Canada West, at present, at somewhat above *half a million*, we are already, with three Universities in that part of the Province, on a level with our Republican neighbours. But is this state of things—the ridicule of the European world of letters—and of which the result is superficial instruction and empiricism—to be a model for the Legislature of a British Colony? There are, we have no doubt, persons who imagine that such statistics give evidence of a prosperous state of learning, and who think, because a multitude of common and grammar schools is an undomable blessing, that Universities cannot be too plentiful. We can only hope that such persons have not found their way into a Legislative Assembly to which Divine Providence has committed the responsibility of dealing with such questions.

But in whatever way—whether by frittering down the funds of King's College, or by liberal and adequate endowments through an unnecessary waste of the public means—we establish separate Universities, one result certainly awaits us. We shall have men of high attainments in science and literature, here and there spending their lives and energies in lecturing to spiritless half-dozens of pupils, with the same expenditure of labour which would have availed for the instruction of hundreds, and infinitely less of that zeal which stimulates and sustains the laborious; while in vain we shall look to find, amid the thinly attended halls of our numerous Seminaries, that spirit-stirring intellectual activity, that University air, which gives life to great literary effort, and fans the flame of youthful genius. What is a University?—for elementary in the consideration of the subject as the question may be, we feel that it is needful to ask it—What is a University? Not a mere

Charter, and endowment, and staff of Teachers in various branches of art and science—not a mere *insundibulum* of knowledge, of this and that kind, into the intellect and the receptacles of the memory—but a miniature world—a commonwealth of varied dispositions and tastes and talents—in which man is not merely taught to know, but trained and stimulated amid the multitude of his fellows, to reason, and to act, and to excel, in all matters intellectual and moral—in which, not more by the instructions of qualified preceptors, than by the inspiring contact of other minds, engaged in friendly rivalry in similar pursuits, the early spark of talent is kindled—the individual capacity experimentally ascertained and strengthened—the erratic bent of individual taste and genius restrained and beneficially directed—the energy of the individual will be repressed where excessive, and invigorated where weak—the timidity and self-distrust which are not seldom the natural accompaniments of the finest powers, and the presumption as often attendant on limited abilities, alike worn off before the period of public action, and with infinitely less cost and pain than in the ruder school of worldly experience—where, in short—by the play and action of mind on mind, the future guardians of man's best interests are led each to know in some measure practically his appropriate part so he comes forth to perform it—and where all this goes on under the direction and example of the learned, the wise, and the pious.

And how is this great object to be realized in a thinly peopled country like ours, by the system of separate Universities? Let us do a little we can concentrate the matured and nascent talent of the Province, many years must pass by before we can possibly have in Canada West a University possessing that great essential to efficiency—a *sufficiency of Students* under a corps of Teachers enabled, by a proper division of the branches of science, fully to do them justice. The number of youth at this moment pursuing, in that part of the Colony, what may be properly called *University studies*, students of Medicine included, does not certainly approach one hundred. To delay to legislate in such a manner as shall, if possible, bring these together, is a sufficient neglect of the true interests of learning. To legislate so as that they shall necessarily be kept apart, or that any party shall find it its interest to keep them asunder, were a blunder worthy of Goths. Of such a self-defeating course cheapness would be no recommendation. What then shall we say of it, with the certainty before us of its entailing on the public treasury demands without end, and which it will be impossible, because unjust, to refuse. That this will be the result is proved already by the numerous petitions on the table of the House for aid to rival Academies. But this consideration, we again say, is not the truly important one. If the system of separate Universities be the best, then—whatever be the cost—let the Parliament, to the full extent of its available means, proceed to provide for the people and their descendants that which next to Righteousness, "exalteth a nation"—solid Learning, and true Science. But so far from being the best mode of advancing these precious interests, it is so surely the worst, that were it our express aim to doom Canada to a lasting and hopeless mediocrity in every literary and scientific pursuit, we could not more effectually attain it than by the system of separate Universities with our present population, each twinkling like a rush light, and instead of illuminating, itself scarce visible amid the darkness around. Let this system be encouraged, and many a generation will pass over our heads, ere that Spirit of Learning, which dwells, as the *genius loci*, in the ancient academic bowers of Europe, will visit our desolate halls and drowsy atmosphere.

And while such will be the inevitable effects of the system of separate Universities on the interests of Education, what will be its bearings on our *social condition*? In attempting to appreciate these, we have to set out from the consideration that these Universities will be, not merely *separate*, but, *sectarian*. The adoption of that system by the Legislature will amount to a public proclamation of the impossibility, the hopelessness, if not the undesirableness, of the various sections of the Religious Community "dwelling together in unity as brethren;"—and the surest way will have been taken of realising the dismal foreboding, by rendering it all but impracticable for our children to understand each other better than we have done,—by furnishing each denomination, at the public expense, with the means of training the flower of its youth, not for public but party purposes, *non reipublicæ sed sibi*; and of perpetuating the self destroying feuds by which our Province has hitherto been lacerated. We shall have established schools not of science, but of sect, in which the minds of our youth will be steeped for years in the gall and vinegar of partizan distrust and animosity, and from which the educated, and therefore influential, members

of the community will come forth in yearly bands, only the better qualified at the public cost, to be public pests, and to wage an incessant war with the nurslings of rival Seminaries."

(To be continued in our next.)

PIERRE J. O. CHAUVEAU.

### School days of Eminent Men in Great-Britain.

By JOHN TIMMS, F. S. A.

(Continued from our last.)

LXXXI.

#### THE CHARTER-HOUSE SCHOOL FOUNDED.

In one of the secluded corners of the City of London, and not far from Smithfield, which was once the Town Green, was founded by the chivalrous Sir Walter Manny, in the 14th century, a monastery of Carthusians, in which the founder was buried the year after its completion. Here Sir Thomas More gave himself to devotion and prayer for about four years. The monastery, after the surrender, had several noble owners; and in 1611 was sold to Thomas Sutton, the wealthy merchant, who endowed it as "the Hospital of King James;" though it is now known as the Charter-house, corrupted from Chartreux, the place where the order of Carthusians was originally instituted. Sutton designed the foundation as a collegiate asylum for the aged; a school-house for the young; and a chapel; but he died before he had perfected his good work, "the greatest gift in England, either in Protestant or Catholic times, ever bestowed by any individual." The foundation was, however, soon after complete. Few portions of the monastery buildings remain; but the wooden gates are those over which the mangled body of the last prior was placed by the spoilers at the Dissolution.

Upon the foundation are maintained 80 pensioners, or poor brethren, who "live together in collegiate style," and are nominated in the same manner as the 40 foundation scholars, "Gown Boys," by the Governors, who present in rotation. The foundation scholars receive their board, education, and clothing free of expense, and enjoy the right of election to an unlimited number of exhibitions, of from 80*l.* to 100*l.* a year, at either university. Others receive donations towards placing them out in life. The foundation scholars also enjoy the preference over the Scholars of presentation to valuable church preferment in the gift of the Governors. The number of scholars is about 180.

The Great Hall, built about the middle of the sixteenth century, has for its west wall part of the conventual edifice. It has a screen, music-gallery, sculptured chimney-piece, and lantern in the roof; and here hangs a noble portrait of the founder, Sutton. In this apartment is celebrated the anniversary of the foundation, on December 12; when is always sung the old Carthusian melody, with this chorus:

"Then blessed be the memory  
Of good old Thomas Sutton;  
Who gave us lodging—learning,  
And he gave us beef and mutton."

The present school-house is a modern brick building (1803); the large central door is surrounded by stones bearing the names of former Carthusians. There are two play-greens, — for the "Uppers" and "Unders," and by the wall of the ancient monastery is a gravel walk upon the site of a range of cloisters. The Master has his flower-garden, with its fountain; there are courts for tennis, a favourite game among Carthusians; a "wilderness" of fine trees, intersected by grass and gravel walks; the cloisters, where football and hockey are played; the old school, its ceiling charged with armorial shields; the great kitchen, probably the banqueting-hall of the old priory; the chapel where Sutton lies, beneath a sumptuous tomb; and lastly, the burial-ground for the poor brethren. There are besides solitary courts, remains of cloisters and cells, and old doorways and window-cases, which assert the antiquity of the place; and the governors have wisely extended the great object of the founder by the grant of a piece of ground, where a church and schools for the poorer classes have been built.

Among the eminent Schoolmasters of Charter-house is the Rev. Andrew Tooke, author of "The Pantheon." Among the eminent Schol-

ars: Richard Crashaw, the poet, author of "Steps to the Temple;" Isaac Barrow, the divine—he was celebrated at school for his love of fighting; Sir William Blackstone, author of the *Commentaries*; Joseph Addison and Richard Steele, scholars at the same time; John Wesley, the founder of the Wesleys; Lord Chief-Justice Ellenborough; Lord Liverpool, the Prime Minister; Bishop Monk; W. M. Thackeray; Sir G. L. Eastlake, P. R. A. The two eminent historians of Greece, Bishop Thirlwall and George Grote, Esq., were both together, in the same form, under Dr. Raine.—*abridged from Cunningham's Handbook of London.*

LXXXII.

#### EDUCATION OF CHARLES I.

Little is recorded of the early life of this ill-fated prince. He was the second son of James VI. of Scotland, by Anne of Denmark, his queen, and was born at the royal castle of Dunfermline, in Scotland, in 1600. At three years of age he was committed to the care of the lady of Sir George Cary, and under her management the weakly constitution of the young prince improved; it became firm and vigorous when he had attained to manhood, and he is said to have shown great activity in his field sports and exercises; his stature, however, remained below the middle size, and the deformity of his childhood was never entirely corrected. (1) Another natural defect under which he laboured was an impediment in utterance, which through life generally manifested itself whenever Charles became earnest in discourse, and which had, doubtless, a great share in producing the taciturnity for which he was remarkable. On completing his fourth year, Charles was brought to England; on Twelfth Day, 1605, he was created a Knight of the Bath, with twelve companions, and afterwards solemnly invested with the dignity of Duke of York.

Miss Aikin searched in vain among contemporary letters and memoirs for early anecdotes of this prince. His habits were sedentary and studious, and were much ridiculed by his elder brother, Henry, whose death rendered Charles heir-apparent to the British crown; but he appears still to have lived in seclusion. An encomiastic biographer attributes his supposed obstinacy and suspected perverseness to the above natural defects. An old Scottish lady, his nurse, used to affirm that he was of a very evil nature in his infancy, and the lady who afterwards took charge of him stated that he was "beyond measure wilful and unthankful." These faults of temper were, however, checked as Charles grew up. His reserve saved him from excesses; he was moderate in his expenses, prudent in his conduct, and regular at his devotions; he was industrious, and his pursuits and tastes were of an elegant turn. King James sought to inspire his son with his own love of learning. At the premature age of ten, Charles was made to go through the form of holding a public disputation in theology, and he actually became acquainted with the polemics of the time. His own inclinations, however, led him to the study of mechanics and the fine arts. An attached adherent has thus described the young prince's accomplishments:—

With any artist or good mechanic, traveller, or scholar, he would discourse freely; and as he was commonly improved by them, so he often gave light to them in their own art or knowledge. For there were few gentlemen in the world that knew more of useful or necessary learning than this prince did: and yet his proportion of books was but small, having, like Francis the First of France, learned more by the ear than by study. . . . His exertions were manly: for he rid the great horse very well; and on the little saddle he was not only adroit, but a laborious hunter or fieldsman, and they were wont to say of him, that he never failed to do any of his exercises artificially, but not very gracefully.

A collection of antiques (says Miss Aikin) and other objects of curiosity bequeathed to him by Prince Henry, appears first to have directed his attention towards painting and sculpture; the taste was afterwards fostered in him by the Duke of Buckingham, and his merits as a connoisseur and patron of arts and artists were unquestionably great.

At the age of sixteen, Charles was solemnly created Prince of Wales; and his household was formed, almost all the officers being Scotch. Mr. Murray, his tutor, who had been about him from his sixth year, was also a Scotsman and a Presbyterian. These circumstances led to many fears and jealousies, and being represented to the king, he appointed Dr. Hakewill, an eminent divine, of Oxford, as Charles's religious instructor; who, endeavoring to dissuade the prince from his marriage with the Spanish Infanta, a Catholic princess, was imprisoned, deprived of his office

(1) In the fine equestrian portrait of Charles I. by Van Dyke, now at Hampton Court, a curvature at the knee is distinctly visible.

about Charles, and for ever debarred of further preferment; but the provostship of Eton was afterwards conferred upon him in recompence for his long service.

The prince's "exercises of religion were most exemplary; for every morning early, and evening not very late, singly and alone, he spent some time in private meditation, and he never failed, before he sat down to dinner, to have part of the liturgy read to him and his servants; and when any young nobleman or gentleman who was going to travel, came to kiss his hand, he cheerfully would give him some good counsel leading to moral virtue, especially a good conversation."

Charles was certainly one of the most elegant and forcible English writers of his time, and a great friend to the fine arts; and to him we owe the first formation of the royal collection of pictures now in the palaces. Charles's works consist chiefly of letters, and a few state papers, and of the famous *Eikon Basilike*, which first appeared immediately after the death of the king; his claim to the authorship was much disputed; but Dr. Ch. Wordsworth, in an octavo volume of patient research, is considered to have proved the book to have been the production of Charles; Dr. Wordsworth states that Hooker, the divine Herbert, and Spenser were the king's favourite reading; and, "the closet companion of his solitude, William Shakspeare."

## LXXXIII.

## LITERATURE AND LEARNING AT THE ACCESSION OF CHARLES I.

At the period of Charles's accession, the cumbrous erudition of scholarship began to be laid aside, and general information was more prized than what is technically called learning. Books of voyages and travels were printed in considerable numbers, and read with avidity. Hakluyt published his collection of voyages; he was appointed lecturer on geography at Oxford, and was the first to introduce maps, globes, and spheres into the common schools. Purchas published his *Pilgrimage*; George Sandys, his *Travels and Researches on Classical Antiquities*; Knowles, his *History of the Turks*; Camden, his *Annals of Queen Elizabeth*; Speed, his *Chronicle*; Lord Herbert of Cherbury, his *Life of Henry VIII.*; and Lord Bacon, his *Life of Henry VII.*

Among the earliest results of the intellectual progress of the age was an extension of the established plan of education, as far, at least, as regarded youths of family and fortune. Peacham's "Complete Gentleman," addressed to his pupil, Thomas Howard, fourth son of the Earl of Arundel, presents us with a summary of the requirements at this time necessary to a man of rank. He stigmatises the class of schoolmasters, so often ignorant and incompetent, and generally rough and even barbarous to their pupils, who were "pulled by the ears, lashed over the face, beaten about the head with the great end of the rod, smitten upon the lips for every slight offence, with the ferula," &c. Domestic tutors he represents to have been still worse; ignorant and mean-spirited men, engaged by sordid persons at a pitiful salary, and encouraged to expect their reward in some family living, to be bestowed as the meed of their servility and false indulgence. Peacham blames parents for sending to the universities "young things of twelve, thirteen, or fourteen, that have no more care than to expect the carrier, and where to sup on Fridays and fasting nights; no further thought of study than to trim up their studies with pictures, and to place the fairest books in open view, which, poor lads, they scarce ever open, or understand not." . . . "Other fathers, if they perceive any wildness or unstayedness in their children," hastily despairing of their "ever proving scholars or fit for anything else, to mend the matter, send them either to the court to serve as pages, or into France and Italy to see fashions and mend their manners, where they become ten times worse." We gather from Peacham's work, that geography, with the elements of astronomy, geometry, and mechanics; the study of antiquities, comprising mythology and the knowledge of medals, and the theory and practice of the arts of design,—were parts of learning now almost for the first time enumerated amongst the becoming accomplishments of an English gentleman.

Lord Herbert of Cherbury has sketched a plan of education still more extensive being modelled apparently on his own acquirements. He advises that after mastering the grammar, the pupil should proceed with Greek, in preference to Latin, on account of the excellence of the writers of that language "in all learning." Geography and the state and manners of nations he would have thoroughly learned, and the use of the celestial globe; judicial astrology for general predictions only, as having no power to fore-show particular events; arithmetic and geometry "in some good bold measure;" and rhetoric and oratory. Like Bacon, he seems

much addicted to medical empiricism, and enjoys the study of drugs and antidotes. He speaks of botany as a pursuit highly becoming a gentleman, and judiciously recommends anatomy as a remedy against atheism. (1) He recommends riding the great horse and fencing; but disapproves of "riding running horses, because there is much cheating in that kind, and hunting takes up too much time." "Dicing and carding" he condemns.

Female Education, in the higher class, shared in the advancement. In classical learning, the reign of James supplied no rivals to the daughters of Sir Anthony Cooke, to Lady Jane Grey, or Queen Elizabeth; but Lady Anne Clifford received instructions from Daniel in history, poetry, and general literature; Lucy Harrington, afterwards Countess of Bedford, was a medalist and Latin scholar; Lady Wroth, born a Sidney, was both herself a writer and a patroness of the learned. Mrs. Hutchinson, whose admirable *Memoirs* of her husband bespeak a highly cultivated mind, informs us that at about the age of seven, she "had at one time eight tutors in several qualities—languages, music, drawing, writing, and needlework." (2).

## LXXXIV.

## A GOOD EDUCATION IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

"To learn to read and write" appears to have been the sum of good Education two centuries and a half since. Dekker, a dramatist at the beginning of the seventeenth century, however, makes a man of substance who is asked, "Can you read and write, then?" reply, "As most of your gentlemen do—my bond has been taken with my mark at it." Public records of the days of Elizabeth and James I. show that some of the men in authority—worshipful burgesses and aldermen—as commonly made their marks as others signed their names in fair Italian or German hands. There must be a general reason for this, besides the particular aptitude, or the particular unfitness, of the individual for acquiring the rudiments of learning. The reason is tolerably obvious. The endowed Grammar-schools which survived the Reformation were few in number, and were not established upon any broad principles of diffusing education throughout the land. Where they were established by Royal charter, or by the zeal of individuals, they did their work of keeping the sources of knowledge open to a portion of the people; some of the children of the middle classes availed themselves of their advantages, and could write a Latin letter as well as make a fair ledger entry; others, and there was no consequent derogation from their respectability, kept their accounts by the score and the tally, and left the Latin to the curate. The learning of the middle classes was then won by them as a prize in a lottery.

Now, at the end of two centuries, we find the same inequality still prevailing amongst what we term the lower classes. The old test of the spread of the rudiments of knowledge, in the exhibition of the ability to write, existed to our time. The Report of the Registrar-General for the year 1846 says: "Persons when they are married, are required to sign the marriage register; if they cannot write their names, they sign with a mark: the result has hitherto been, that nearly one man in three, and one woman in two married, sign with marks."

## LXXXV.

## SIR MATTHEW HALE'S PLAN OF INSTRUCTION.

The great lawyer of this and the succeeding reign, Sir Matthew Hale, in his "Advice to his Grandchildren" and "Counsels of a Father," has left the following course of instruction for sons. Till eight, English reading only. From eight to sixteen, the grammar-school. Latin to be thoroughly learned, Greek more slightly. From sixteen to seventeen at the university, or under a tutor: more Latin, but chiefly arithmetic, geometry, and geodesy. From seventeen to nineteen or twenty, "logic, natural philosophy, and metaphysics, according to the ordinary discipline of the university;" but after "some systems or late topical or philosophical tracts," the pupil to be chiefly exercised in Aristotle. Afterwards, should he follow no professor, yet to gain some knowledge of divinity, law, and physics, especially anatomy. Also of "husbandry, planting, and ordering of a country farm." For recreations, he advises "reading of history, mathematics, experimental philosophy, nature of trees, plants, or insects, mathematical observations, measuring land; nay, the more cleanly exercise of smithery, watchmaking, carpentry, joinery work of all kinds."

(1) *Memoirs of the Court of King Charles the First.* By Lucy Aikin.(2) *Ibid.*



## LXXXVI.

## NEWSPAPERS INTRODUCED.

The newspaper, which has now existed in England for nearly two centuries and a quarter, has from the first proved an active element of civilization, instruction, and popular enlightenment; until it has finally been elevated into a "Fourth Estate." In former times, much of the intelligence conveyed in newspapers was crude and ill-told: but so gigantic have been the improvements in the newspaper of the present century, that it is not too much to regard it as a powerful adjunct, if not a direct agent, in the education of the people. Its origin, therefore, should be noticed in the present work.

Until lately it was believed that the three numbers of "The English Mercurie," preserved in the British Museum, and professing to record the attack of the Spanish Armada, were the first newspapers printed in England; upon the credit of which the invention was given to Lord Burleigh. In 1840, however, this "Mercurie" was proved to be a clumsy forgery. (3) Pamphlets containing foreign news began to be occasionally published during the reign of James I. The first of these news-pamphlets, published at regular intervals, appears to have been "The News of the Present Week," edited by Nathaniel Butter, which was started in 1622, in the early days of the Thirty Years' War, and was continued, in conformity with its title, as a weekly publication.

But the English newspaper, properly so called, at least that containing domestic intelligence, commences with the Long Parliament. The earliest discovered is a few leaves, entitled "The Diurnal Occurrences, or Daily Proceedings of Both Houses, in this great and happy Parliament, from the 3rd of November, 1640, to the 3rd of November, 1641." More than a hundred newspapers, with different titles, appear to have been published between this date and the death of Charles I.; and upwards of 80 others between that event and the Restoration.

Where our modern newspapers begin, the series of our chronicles closes, with Sir Richard Baker's "Chronicles of the Kings of England,"—first published in 1641. It was several times reprinted, and was a great favourite with our ancestors for two or three succeeding generations; but it has now lost all its interest, except for a few passages relating to the author's own time; and Sir Richard and his Chronicle are now popularly remembered principally as the great historical authorities of Addison's Sir Roger de Coverley.—(See *Spectator*, No. 329.)

To conclude—the educational effect of Newspapers has resulted from the perusal of them encouraging and keeping alive the habit of reading; for a newspaper is to the general reader far more attractive than a book—in fact, a man can read a newspaper when he cannot read anything else. He often finds, however, that fully to understand the news of the day, he must have recourse to books—so difficult is it for educated persons, who now write in newspapers, to write with sufficient simplicity to be invariably understood by the uneducated, or rather the imperfectly educated. It is, moreover, in chronicling the progress of our educational institutions—from the university to the ragged-school—and in the fearless advocacy of the great cause of public instruction and political rights,—that the newspaper must be regarded as the most powerful aid to education.

(To be continued.)

### Suggestive Hints towards Improved Secular Instruction.

BY THE REV. RICHARD DAWES, A. M.

## IX.

## ELEMENTARY DRAWING.

(Continued from our last.)

This is a subject not mentioned in former editions of this work; but as it is most desirable it should be taught in our elementary schools, the following observations will, I trust, be useful to those for whom the book is intended:—

Hitherto drawing has been a branch of instruction mainly confined to schools for the upper classes, in which it has too often

been loosely and insufficiently taught as an accomplishment merely—but there is no reason why it should not form a recognised and most useful part of the routine of instruction of every school. By the aid of the appliances and opportunities of instruction now offered by the Department of Science and Art, any teacher may make himself master of as much of the theory and practice of drawing as will enable him to impart an extent of knowledge in this direction, better digested and really greater in amount than has been hitherto, in nine cases out of ten, given in schools in which it has formed an expensive extra. Efficient examples and illustrative manuals, following each other in proper sequence, are now supplied, on well-devised terms, by the new department of the Board of Trade; and by the aid of these the study of drawing may, in almost every case, be introduced to a certain extent.

By the term *drawing*, however, we must, in the outset, clearly understand that the end of the study, as introduced into elementary schools, is not necessarily "fine art" in the production of pictorial manifestations. Drawing, strictly speaking, should be looked upon as a mechanical exercise, analogous in fact to writing, and regarded, if I may so express it, as *graphic language*—that as ideas are expressed by words or in writing, so they may be embodied by drawing.

It would be useless to enlarge on the utility of this study: every person must have experienced either the benefit, or the want, of a knowledge of drawing, at some period or other of his life. In many trades a proper grounding in this art will obviously make a man a more efficient workman, enabling him to perform various manipulations with greater certainty and quickness, and, consequently, to obtain higher wages. But even if, as in the majority of cases, its use is but to sharpen and improve the perceptive faculty generally, a great good will have resulted. In this sense, it will do for the mechanical instrument of the will what logic does for the mind, teaching the hand and eye to work in unison with the judgment: and when these are thus trained to act together, the judgment itself is strengthened and a sense of power induced, giving increased certainty and command to all manual operations.

Our limits will not allow of as complete an illustration of drawing as could be wished, especially as there is a difficulty in the study in the necessity for explanatory engravings, of which the plan of this book will not admit. An abstract of the main features of the system promulgated by the Board of Trade may, however, be given, premising that it has evidently been an endeavour, in framing the course, to give it a thoroughly practical and unambiguous character, leaving nothing to the imagination, and providing full and complete appliances for every stage.

The Department divides the course of elementary drawing for common schools as follows:—

First stage—free hand outline-drawing from flat examples: second—rudiments of geometry as applied to drawing; third—drawing from solid models; fourth—theoretic perspective; fifth—advanced outline-drawing of ornament and the figure from flat examples and from casts in relief; sixth—shading; seventh—rudimentary instruction on the theory of colour.

The first, second, and third of these divisions may be taught in every school, and by the help of the "illustrative Manual" and examples, any schoolmaster may speedily qualify himself to commence the study. In the first stage, a set of twelve sheets of examples, containing a great variety of rectilinear and curved figures, is issued, accompanied by an illustrative manual, which minutely describes the method of procedure to be adopted in copying each figure. Nothing can be simpler and easier than this first step: the examples follow each other in due order, both of subject and relative difficulty, and have the great advantage, with respect to children, that each figure is a representation of some known object, thereby awakening and keeping alive the interest of the scholar, in a much more effective manner than would be the case if mere abstractions were placed before him. At the same time the objects chosen are such as are either quite flat, or at least do not obviously require the aid of perspective for their correct delineation; it being thought advisable to separate as far as possible, the simple geometrical delineation of figures from that of solid bodies, to represent which properly would be impossible, at this early stage, the pupil as yet knowing nothing of those fundamental facts of perspective, a knowledge of which would be indispensable.

The examples are drawn on a large scale, so that they may be pinned up on a board before the entire class, and the pupils copy them first, with white chalk on a slate or black canvass, the latter being preferable, and afterwards on a smaller scale with lead pencil on paper. The first few copies chiefly consist of the right-lined letters of the alphabet, such as the letters I E H X V etc., the doubled lines of which, and the various angles, are useful exercises

(3) For the details of this discovery, see *Popular Errors Explained and Illustrated*, pp. 61-63.

on parallels, vertical and horizontal lines, perpendiculars and angles. The various examples will be found, from the first, to suggest many useful geometrical definitions, of which the experienced teacher will know how to avail himself, and explain to his scholars.

The result, with pupils who have gone through this first stage, will be evident in the increased command of hand, which I have no doubt will be perceived in their simultaneous writing exercises—in a juster and more acute perception of the forms, proportions, and dimensions of all objects, whilst a certain facility in imitating natural objects will be the first evidence of, as we have before termed it, the new language acquired. At the conclusion of this stage, proper manuals and text books on *geometry*, in reference to drawing are provided; and the pupil after going through as much geometry as will at least enable him to understand the various terms and definitions, which occur in drawing and perspective, will next proceed to draw from *solid models* of simple geometrical forms. At this point of his studies, he enters upon perspective, the most obvious facts of which are, by model-drawing, made familiar to him in an easy and sensible way—so that by degrees, almost as it were intuitively, he acquires such a knowledge and familiar habit of appreciating the various changes in the appearance of solid objects to the eye, that theoretic perspective, which will afterwards be an important consideration, is thereby rendered of easy comprehension. Model-drawing, hitherto frequently held up by its advocates as the sole method of judicious teaching, will be found, I believe, to occupy its proper position as an essential part of a complete system of instruction, not as hitherto, a substitute for all other modes.

The number of models used, then, has been very much reduced, they now consist of a few only of the most obvious and useful forms of lines and geometrical solids; such as a straight wire line, solid cube, pyramid, cylinder, sphere, wire circle, disk, cone, etc.: these with the stand and universal joint, proper for displaying them to the class, form a set of apparatus which may now be procured, at such a reasonable cost, as to be within the reach of the most humble means; whilst an accompanying manual, shortly to be issued by the Department, will afford the necessary assistance and information in putting them in use.

Having described the system thus far, I may here say, that to this extent drawing may certainly be taught, in ordinary schools, without the aid of a special master, for, as I have said before, there is nothing up to this point, that may not be speedily mastered by any person, who will devote some little time and attention to the subject: and it ought to be the case of every teacher in future, to master thoroughly these elements.

The succeeding stages touch more or less on the province of fine art, and will require in the teacher more decided special knowledge—to acquire which, time and study will be necessary: theoretic perspective, it is true, offers no great difficulty, it is a definite study which, by the aid of the necessary works, may soon be mastered in its broad features.

Free hand-drawing from *the round*, and shading, however, offer greater difficulties: these, to be effectually taught, will demand experience in the teacher, obtainable only by long practice. Here, however, the being in the possession of good copies and examples, will be of great use, and at any rate beneficially supersede the random chance-medley copies, often far too elaborate and difficult, at which, we now so often see unfortunate children labouring with such ill-directed zeal. Besides, the examples in the advanced lists of the department of science and art being beautiful and interesting objects in themselves, will, when properly arranged and kept before the eyes of the pupils in their daily class-rooms, necessarily exert a most beneficial influence on them. Casts from beautiful antique works in sculpture, world-renowned works, for purposes of art as good as the originals in marble, cannot be made familiar as household objects to the young intelligence without powerfully manifesting their refining power, which is a virtual teaching.

Lastly (and of great importance), the subject of *colour* should be mooted in our schools, and will most appropriately form a part of all art-teaching. Children may soon be taught as much of the laws of colour, as will enable them to avoid those glaring errors which we every day see perpetrated by those who are ignorant of such elementary knowledge; familiar demonstrations, assisted by collections of coloured papers and other aids, will soon render the subject quite familiar. A most excellent and useful little manual on this subject has been prepared for the Department by Richard Redgrave, Esq., R. A., and should be in the hands of every teacher: by the aid of this, and of the coloured diagrams issued along with it, all that is requisite may be accomplished.

From this short sketch of what is doing in the cause of elementary teaching in art by the Board of Trade, it will be seen, that the publications of that department will form the best possible texts in aid of drawing in all its branches; and the simple practical character which pervades all of them, will, I have no doubt, tend greatly to remove that feeling of uncertainty and dubiousness which has hitherto deterred numbers of intelligent teachers from introducing the study into their schools, though fully alive to its importance.

(To be continued.)

## NOTES OF LESSONS

### THE WOLF.

The village is among the mountains of Switzerland. Deep snow is covering the ground, and the evening is coming on; then the greedy, half-starved wolf creeps from his den in the woods, and tries to seize the sheep and the goats of the villagers. Their faithful dogs have heard the robber, and roused their masters: and men and boys are rushing out of their houses to drive the thief back to his den, or to destroy him if they can. He is cowardly as well as fierce, as you may see by his ferocious growl; while he is at the same time running away from the dogs, as if he would like to fight them if he had but the courage. The shepherds of the Alps keep a very large and courageous kind of dog, who boldly follow the wolf even alone, and will fight with him to the death. The wolf will run away if he can; but if he is caught, he will then fight desperately for his life. If he overcomes the dog, he will devour him afterwards; but if the noble dog is victorious, he scorns to touch the carcase of his enemy—he leaves it to the other wolves, who will come by night, if they dare, and devour their dead companion. Although of the same family of animals, wolves and dogs are as unlike in their qualities as they are sometimes like in outward appearance—the dog is the friend and protector of man, the wolf his bitterest enemy; the dog is bold and faithful, the wolf treacherous, greedy, and cruel. The dog will bear even bad usage from his master, and will gently lick the hand that has struck him, returning good for evil; while no kindness has any effect in softening or taming the ferocity and treachery of the wolf. He is a robber and a murderer by nature, and no power of man can change him. For this reason he is an apt emblem of a wicked man—selfish, greedy, cruel. Thus Ezekiel says of the wicked princes of Israel, "Her princes in the midst thereof are like wolves ravening the prey, to shed blood, to destroy souls, to get dishonest gain" (Ezek. xxii. 27). Zephaniah compares the judges of Israel to "evening wolves" (Zeph. iii. 3).

Wolves generally live alone in their dens, in the woods, where they eat hares, birds, weasels, rats, mice, frogs, and even toads and snakes. In winter, when their prey is more difficult to get, they become doubly fierce; then they have been known to attack the sheep-folds, and sometimes to mine their way into them by scraping up the earth. The shepherds watch for the footstep of a wolf near their charge; and if a trace of one can be seen, a watch is set by night. In some of the villages, a thick piece of wood is set up as a mark, to show how far the shepherd sentinel is to walk in his nightly watch; and each in turn must make his own mark on the stick, as a sign that he has been there. If he fails to do this, he must bear the blame of any mischief done by the wolf that evening. In some of the villages among the mountains of the Jura, clubs are formed among the inhabitants to destroy the wolves. A leader is appointed, who divides the people under his command into two bands—one band, armed with guns, are stationed in ambush behind rocks or trees; while the others, with clubs and sticks, and accompanied by their dogs try to drive the wolf to the spot where his enemies are waiting for him. His death is announced to all the neighbourhood by the sound of trumpets, and the chase is ended by a feast, given at the expense of the man who has fired the shot that killed the robber. If any villager has shown himself cowardly, he is not allowed to share in the good cheer provided, but is bound with straw ropes, and served with water, while the others are feasting. No one is allowed to be a member of the club till he has been present at three successful wolf hunts: and, as wolves are now scarce in these mountains, fathers may be seen carrying their little boys in their arms to the chase, that they may be early able to join these clubs, which are so necessary to prevent the increase of the destroyers of their flocks. By such means they will probably soon succeed in killing them all. Wolves were once very destructive in England. The Saxon king Edgar released the Welsh from paying a tax in money, on condition of their bringing



him 300 wolves heads yearly. Criminals in England were sentenced to bring a certain number of wolves' tongues as a fine for their offences; and by these and other means they were gradually destroyed. Wolves infested Ireland as late as the year 1710.

In the northern countries, in Russia and Poland, wolves are far more numerous and destructive than in Switzerland. In winter they join in bands, and, pressed by hunger, become very bold, devouring large animals, and even men, following and attacking travellers in their sledges, and destroying whole parties. They follow the path of armies to devour the bodies of the dead. In the Russian province of Livonia alone, the wolves destroyed in one year (1823) 15,182 sheep, 1807 oxen, 1811 horses, 3270 lambs and goats, 4190 swine, 703 dogs, 1873 geese and fowls,—so fierce and destructive are they when they unite in bands.

When we read such an account of the ravages of the wolf, how fully it explains to us the words of our Lord to his disciples, "Behold, I send you forth as sheep in the midst of wolves." Their enemies were strong, powerful, and cruel,—wicked princes and rulers, these "evening wolves,"—were joined together to destroy them. How were they, weak and defenceless as sheep, to defend themselves at all? The only safety of the timid sheep is to keep close to its shepherd,—and so is it with Christ's people. Their good Shepherd is always near, though unseen; and while he guards them they are safe, for "none is able to pluck them out of his hand."

The sheep of Christ have to fear the treachery of the wolf no less than his open rage. False teachers are compared to "wolves in sheep's clothing" (Matt. vii. 15. Acts xx. 29.)

The wolf in the garb of a sheep might creep close to the unwatchful sheep, and might suck its very life-blood unperceived before it had time to fly. Thus wicked men, pretending to be Christian teachers, might lead the people of Christ to join them, and to wander far away from the Shepherd, to their own destruction.

There are some children very like wolves by nature,—greedy, selfish, cruel, and deceitful. Such children are not safe companions. They will try, if they can, to lead others to join in their wicked ways. What, then, ought a Christian child to do? Keep near the Shepherd—that is, keep always praying to our Lord Jesus for strength to resist temptation, and refuse to listen to evil advice.

But there is hope even for these poor wolf-children, for the power of God can change the nature of the wolf into the gentle nature of the lamb (Isa. xi. 6; lxxv. 25). And he has promised to do this for all those who really desire it, and ask it (Ezek. xxxvi. 26).

The selfish, greedy, and cruel child may, by God's grace, become gentle and loving as the innocent lamb—

"The Saviour calls his people sheep,  
And bids them on his love rely;  
For He alone their souls can keep,  
And He alone their wants supply.

The bull can fight, the hare can flee,  
The ant in summer food préparé;  
But helpless sheep—and such are we—  
Depend upon the Shepherd's care.

Jehovah is our Shepherd's name,  
Then what have we, though weak, to fear?  
Our sin and folly we proclaim,  
If we despond while He is near.

When Satan threatens to devour,  
When troubles press on every side,  
Think on our Shepherd's care and power—  
He can defend, He will provide

See the rich pastures of his grace  
Where in full streams salvation flows  
There He appoints our resting-place  
And we may feel secure from foes

There, 'midst the flock, the Shepherd dwells,  
The sheep around in safety lie;  
The wolf, in vain, with malice swells,  
For He protects them with his eye.

Dear Lord, if I am one of thine,  
From anxious thoughts I would be free;  
To trust, and love, and praise is mine—  
The care of all belongs to Thee."

—Children's Paper.

## LITERATURE.

### POETRY.

#### THE SNOW-STORM.

Announced by all the trumpets of the sky,  
Arrives the snow, and, driving o'er the fields,  
Seems no where to alight: the whited air,  
Hides hills and woods, the river, and the heaven,  
And veils the farm-house at the garden's end.  
The sled and traveler stopped, the courier's feet  
Delayed, all friends shut out, the housemates sit  
In a tumultuous privacy of storm.  
Come, see the north wind's masonry!  
Out of an unseen quarry, evermore  
Furnished with tile, the force artifice  
Curves his white bastions with projected roof  
Round every windward stake, or tree, or door;  
Spceding, the myriad handed, his wild work,  
So fanciful, so savage, naught cares he  
For number or proportion. Mockingly,  
On coop or kennel, he his Parian wreaths;  
A swan-like form invests the hidden thorn;  
Fills up the farmer's lane from wall to wall,  
Maugre the farmer's sighs; and, at the gate,  
A tapering turret overtops the work:  
And when his hours are numbered, and the world  
Is all his own, retiring, as he were not,  
Leaves, when the sun appears, astonished Art,  
To mimic in slow structures, stone by stone,  
Built in an age, the mad wind's night-work,  
The frolic architecture of the snow.

R. W. EMERSON.

#### EVENING PRAYER.

Lord I stay with me from morn to eve,  
For without Thee I can not live;  
Abide with me when night is nigh,  
For without Thee I can not die.

If some poor wandering child of thine  
Have spurned, to-day, the voice divine,  
Now, Lord, the gracious work begin;  
Let him no more lie down in sin.

Watch by the sick; enrich the poor  
With blessings from thy boundless store;  
Let every mourner's sleep to-night  
Be like an infant's, pure and light.

Come near and bless us when we wake,  
Ere through the world our way we take;  
Till in the ocean of thy love  
We lose ourselves in heaven above.

KEBLE.

## CANADIAN HISTORY.

### The North-West.—First expedition to the Rocky Mountains.

Among the new matter which M. Garnet has added to his *Histoire du Canada*, (1) in the third edition which he has just published, is an account of the discovery of the Rocky Mountains. As the expedition has a direct bearing on the present position we shall recite the leading facts connected with it. In the first quarter of the last century the French formed a project of visiting the Pacific ocean overland; the feat having already been performed by a savage named Yon, and perhaps by a great many others. About the year 1718, the French ministry had charged M. de Vaudouin to send M. de la Morandière on an expedition to discover this sea, provided he should receive favorable news from M. de Lanoue, who had gone to establish a post at Kamanestigoya, on the north of Lake Superior. Finally M. de Beauharnois determined to set seriously about the discovery of the Pacific ocean. It was not supposed that this would be a very difficult enterprise; for the notion which then obtained was that the continent became narrow

(1) Now being reprinted in an English dress, by Mr. John Lovell, Montreal.

towards the north. M. Verennes de la Verendrye was selected for this task. He had served in the French army, in New England, in 1701, and afterwards in Newfoundland. M. de la Verendrye advised by the Governor, at Quebec, to follow the Assiniboine instead of taking the country of the Sioux. With the ignorance of the inclination of the surface of the country which then prevailed, it was supposed that a river would be found near Lake Winnipeg that would conduct directly to the ocean which it was desired to reach.

The Russians were the rivals of the French in this discovery. Peter the great, before his death, while at Paris in 1717, promised the Academy of Sciences that he would take steps to ascertain the distance between Asia and America. In accordance with the orders contained in his last testament, his successors sent Vitus Behring and Tschirikoff, on the promised discovery; and as they, advancing by sea from the west, touched the American continent, French officers were exploring the interior and wending their way towards the west. But there was this difference in the position of the two: while the Russians were sustained by their Government, the French officers were expected to live on the good wishes of the Canadian Governor and the barren sympathies of the mother country.

M. de Beauharnois examined, with an engineer, a map of the country obtained from an Indian named Ochagach, whom M. de la Verendrye had chosen for his guide. The engineer, M. Chaussegros de Lery, came to the conclusion that, as New France was traversed by two great rivers, of which the sources were in the interior, the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi, one of which ran eastward and the other southward, there would be found at the west another great river; that there could not be 700 or 800 leagues of territory without it. This conclusion seemed the more certain, since it tallied with accounts given by the Indians.

At Montreal, M. de la Verendrye associated himself with some persons from whom he received advances of merchandize, both for trading and for his own personal necessities; and then left for Lake Superior with Father Messenger, a missionary priest. His orders were to take possession of any countries he might discover; and to examine with attention the advantages offered by a communication between Canada, Louisiana, and the supposed ocean. But while the French Government was willing to profit by the undertaking, it refused to render him any assistance. When he entered into unknown regions, where civilized man had never before set foot, he soon discovered that in proportion as he advanced from the French posts did trade become difficult; and that the more attention he paid to trafficking with the Indians the less was he likely to arrive at the object of his search. Thus by the aid of his four sons and his nephew, M. de la Jomerays, every one of whom was devoted to the enterprise with a generosity equal to his disinterestedness, he was destined never to see that unknown sea, of which he was in search. Twelve years of trouble and of sacrifices brought him only the glory of discovering the country between the Rocky Mountains on the West, and Lake Winnipeg on the East. M. de la Verendrye took the route of Lake Superior and Fort Kamanestigoyia, which was constructed by Lieutenant Robutel de la Lanoue, about the year 1717. He passed, with his companions, Lac de la Pluie, on which they built Fort St. Peter; by Lac des Bois, on which, next year, they erected Fort St. Charles; by the River Winnipeg, on which, in 1734, they constructed Fort Maurepas. The French, says M. Garneau, took possession of the country, in establishing posts for their protection, and the advancement of their fur trade. Continuing their course, they traversed the Lac Dauphin and the Lac des Cygnes; they fell in with the river des Biches and ascended to the fork of the Saskatchewan or Poskytac. They constructed fort Dauphin, on Lac Manitoba, and the fort de la Reine, on the same lake; fort Bourbon, on River des Biches, at the head of Lake Winnipeg; fort Rouge at the juncture of the Assiniboine with the Red River. They continued their course, now verging to the south and now to the north, without finding the ocean of which they were in search. In 1732, one of the sons of M. de la Verendrye, with his party, which consisted of twenty and the Jesuit Anneau, were all massacred, in an island in the Lake of the Woods by the Sioux. Five Canadian voyageurs discovered their remains, some days afterwards.

In 1738, the rest of the French explorers who had escaped the ferocity of the Indians, reached the Upper Missouri; which they ascended as far as the point since known as Yellow Stone, of which the source is in Lac des Sablettes, at the foot of the Rocky Mountains. "The eldest son of M. de la Verendrye and the chevalier, his brother," says M. Garneau, found themselves at length, on the 1st Jan., 1742, 60 years before the travels of Lewis and Clarke, before these mountains, in a journey which lasted from the 20th April, 1743, to the 2nd July in the following year, and in which

they passed by the village of Beaux-Hommes, and visited the Poyas, the nation of the Little Foxes, the Bowman and the Serpent nation."

After the death of M. de la Verendrye, the elder—who, as is often the lot of those who render great services to their country, had been pursued with unjust calumnies and suffered to accumulate a large debt, 40,000 livres, in the service of the country, but who received a captaincy and was decorated with the cross of St. Louis—his sons desired to continue the discoveries; but Bigot, who was Intendant of Canada, formed a company, of which he himself formed part, and which, carrying the fur trade to the foot of the Rocky Mountains, made fortunes for themselves, while they saddled the State with the expense of an expedition which in reality rendered it no service, unless it were the erection of Fort la Jonquiere, at the foot of the Rocky Mountains, in 1752.

The facts contained in the recital have a direct bearing upon the question of the North West territories. It is notorious that the Hudson's Bay Company did not penetrate into the country west of Lake Superior till after 1774; though the French had traversed it and erected numerous forts in it forty years previously. We are thus enabled to fix the dates and balance the pretensions of these two rivals in the fur trade, the French and the English. If the claim of the Hudson's Bay Company to the Red River Country is to rest upon discovery and priority of settlement, it must fall to the ground. But, in point of fact, the Company rest their claim to this portion of the territory in their possession upon the terms of their charter, under which they set up a pretence of ownership to all lands of which the rivers flow in Hudson's Bay. But it is obvious that according to the principles of international law, England could not convey by charter a territory of which it never had possession. "The earth," observes Vattel, "was given by God to mankind in general. But their multiplication made it impossible for the land to be possessed by all in common. It therefore became necessary for nations to settle in particular places, and appropriate to themselves certain portions of the earth and cultivate them. Hence came rights of property and dominion over land. The country which a nation inhabits is the settlement of the nation, and it has an exclusive and peculiar right over it. This right comprehends two things: 1st, The domain, (*dominium*); by virtue of which the nation alone may use this country for the supply of its necessities, may dispose of it as it thinks proper, and derive from it every advantage it is capable of yielding." According to these principles of public law, it is clear that Charles II. was in a position, to dispose of territory west of Lake Winnipeg. The nation of which he was King was not in possession of that "portion of the earth;" and as France was the first country to perform those acts by virtue of which the right of dominion is secured, it is impossible that the territory in question can belong to the Hudson's Bay Company by virtue of the Charter of Charles II. under which they claim.—*Leader*.

### The fur trade in the North-Western parts of America under the French and under the English.

Two leading objects of commercial gain have given birth to wide and daring enterprise in the early history of the Americas; the precious metals of the south, and the rich peltries of the north. While the fiery and magnificent Spaniard, inflamed with the mania for gold, has extended his discoveries and conquests over those brilliant countries scorched by the ardent sun of the tropics, the adroit and buoyant Frenchman, and the cool and calculating Briton, have pursued the less splendid, but no less lucrative, traffic in furs amidst the hyperborean regions of the Canadas, until they have advanced even within the Arctic circle.

These two pursuits have thus in a manner been the pioneers and precursors of civilization. Without pausing on the borders, they have penetrated at once, in defiance of difficulties and dangers, to the heart of savage countries: laying open the hidden secrets of the wilderness; leading the way to remote regions of beauty and fertility that might have remained unexplored for ages, and beckoning after them the slow and pausing steps of agriculture and civilization.

It was the fur trade, in fact, which gave early sustenance and vitality to the great Canadian provinces. Being destitute of the precious metals, at that time the leading objects of American enterprise, they were long neglected by the parent country. The French adventurers, however, who had settled on the banks of the St. Lawrence, soon found that in the rich peltries of the interior, they had sources of wealth that might almost rival the mines of Mexico and Peru. The Indians, as yet unacquainted with the

artificial value given to some descriptions of furs, in civilized life, brought quantities of the most precious kinds and bartered them away for European trinkets and cheap commodities. Immense profits were thus made by the early traders, and the traffic was pursued with avidity.

As the valuable furs soon became scarce in the neighborhood of the settlements, the Indians of the vicinity were stimulated to take a wider range in their hunting expeditions; they were generally accompanied on these expeditions by some of the traders or their dependents, who shared in the toils and perils of the chase, and at the same time made themselves acquainted with the best hunting and trapping grounds, and with the remote tribes, whom they encouraged to bring their peltries to the settlements. In this way the trade augmented, and was drawn from remote quarters to Montreal. Every now and then a large body of Ottawas, Hurons, and other tribes who hunted the countries bordering on the great lakes, would come down in a squadron of light canoes, laden with beaver skins, and other spoils of their year's hunting. The canoes would be unladen, taken on shore, and their contents disposed in order. A camp of birch bark would be pitched outside of the town, and a kind of primitive fair opened with that grave ceremonial so dear to the Indians. An audience would be demanded of the governor-general, who would hold the conference with becoming state, seated in an elbow chair, with the Indians ranged in semicircles before him, seated on the ground, and silently smoking their pipes. Speeches would be made, presents exchanged, and the audience would break up in universal good humor.

Now would ensue a brisk traffic with the merchants, and all Montreal would be alive with naked Indians running from shop to shop, bargaining for arms, kettles, knives, axes, blankets, bright-colored cloths, and other articles of use or fancy; upon all which, says an old French writer, the merchants were sure to clear at least two hundred per cent. There was no money used in this traffic, and, after a time, all payment in spirituous liquors was prohibited, in consequence of the frantic and riotous excesses and bloody brawls which they were apt to occasion.

Their wants and caprices being supplied, they would take leave of the governor, strike their tents, launch their canoes, and ply their way up the Ottawa to the lakes.

A new and anonymous class of men gradually grew out of this trade. These were called *coureurs des bois*, rangers of the woods; originally men who had accompanied the Indians in their hunting expeditions, and made themselves acquainted with remote tracts and tribes; and who now became, as it were, peddlers of the wilderness. These men would set out from Montreal with canoes well stocked with goods, with arms and ammunition, and would make their way up the crazy and wandering rivers that interlace the vast forest of the Canadas, coasting the most remote lakes, and creating new wants and habits among the natives. Sometimes they sojourned for months among them, assimilating to their tastes and habits with the happy facility of Frenchman; adopting in some degree the Indian dress, and not unfrequently taking to themselves Indian wives.

Twelve, fifteen, eighteen months would often elapse without any tidings of them, when they would come sweeping their way down the Ottawa in full glee, their canoes laden down with packs of beaver skins. Now came their turn for revelry and extravagance. "You would be amazed," says an old writer already quoted, "if you saw how low these peddlers are when they return; how they feast and game, and how prodigal they are, not only in their clothes, but upon their sweethearts. Such of them as are married have the wisdom to retire to their own houses; but the bachelors act just as an East Indian and pirates are wont to do; for they lavish, eat, drink, and play all away as long as the goods hold out; and when these are gone, they even sell their embroideries, their lace, and their clothes. This done, they are forced upon a new voyage for subsistence."

Many of these *coureurs des bois* became so accustomed to the Indian mode of living, and the perfect freedom of the wilderness, that they lost all relish for civilization, and identified themselves with the savages among whom they dwelt, or could only be distinguished from them by superior licentiousness. Their conduct and example gradually corrupted the natives, and impeded the works of the Catholic missionaries, who were at this time prosecuting their pious labors in the wilds of Canada.

To check these abuses, and to protect the fur trade from various irregularities practised by these loose adventurers, an order was issued by the French government prohibiting all persons, on pain of death, from trading into the interior of the country without a licence.

These licences were granted in writing by the governor general,

and at first were given only to persons of respectability; to gentlemen of broken fortunes; to old officers of the army who had families to provide for; or to their widows. Each license permitted the fitting out of two large canoes with merchandise for the lakes, and no more than fifty-five licenses were to be issued in one year. By degrees, however, private licenses were also granted, and the number rapidly increased. Those who did not choose to fit out the expeditions themselves, were permitted to sell them to the merchants; these employed the *coureurs des bois*, or rangers of the woods, to undertake the long voyages on shares, and thus the abuses of the old system were revived and continued.

The pious missionaries, employed by the Roman Catholic church to convert the Indians, did every thing in their power to counteract the profligacy caused and propagated by these men in the heart of the wilderness. The Catholic chapel might often be seen planted beside the trading house, and its spire surmounted by a cross, towering from the midst of an Indian village, on the banks of a river or a lake. The missions had often a beneficial effect on the simple sons of the forest, but had little power over the renegades from civilization.

At length it was found necessary to establish fortified posts at the confluence of the rivers and the lakes for the protection of the trade, and the restraint of these profligates of the wilderness. The most important of these was at Michilimackinac, situated at the strait of the same name, which connects Lakes Huron and Michigan. It became the great interior mart and place of deposit, and some of the regular merchants who prosecuted the trade in person, under their licenses, formed establishments here. This, too, was a rendezvous for the rangers of the woods, as well those who came up with goods from Montreal as those who returned with peltries from the interior. Here new expeditions were fitted out and took their departure for Lake Michigan and the Mississippi; Lake Superior and the northwest; and here the peltries brought in return were embarked for Montreal.

The French merchant at his trading post, in these primitive days of Canada, was a kind of commercial patriarch. With the lax habits and easy familiarity of his race, he had a little world of self-indulgence and misrule around him. He had his clerks, canoe-men, and retainers of all kinds, who lived with him on terms of perfect sociability, always calling him by his Christian name; nor was there ever wanting a louting train of Indians, hanging about the establishments, eating and drinking at his expense in the intervals of their hunting expeditions.

The Canadian traders, for a long time, had troublesome competitors in the British merchants of New-York, who inveigled the Indian hunters and the *coureurs des bois* to their posts, and traded with them on more favorable terms. A still more formidable opposition was organized in the Hudson Bay Company, chartered by Charles II, in 1670, with the exclusive privilege of establishing trading houses on the shores of that bay and its tributary rivers; a privilege which they have maintained to the present day. Between this British company and the French merchants of Canada, feuds and contests arose about alleged infringements of territorial limits, and acts of violence and bloodshed occurred between their agents.

In 1762, the French lost possession of Canada, and the trade fell principally into the hands of British subjects. For a time, however, it shrunk within narrow limits. The old *coureurs des bois* were broken up and dispersed, or, where they could be met with, were slow to accustom themselves to the habits and manners of their British employers. They missed the freedom, indulgence, and familiarity of the old French trading houses, and did not relish the sober exactness, reserve, and method of the new-comers. The British traders, too, were ignorant of the country, and distrustful of the natives. They had reason to be so. The treacherous and bloody affairs of Detroit and Michilimackinac showed them the lurking hostility cherished by the savages, who had too long been taught by the French to regard them as enemies.

It was not until the year 1766, that the trade regained its old channels; but it was then pursued with much avidity and emulation by individual merchants, and soon transcended its former bounds. Expeditions were fitted out by various persons from Montreal and Michilimackinac, and rivalships and jealousies of course ensued. The trade was injured by their artifices to outbid and undermine each other; the Indians were debauched by the sale of spirituous liquors, which had been prohibited under the French rule. Scenes of drunkenness, brutality, and brawl were the consequence, in the Indian villages and around the trading houses; while bloody feuds took place between rival

trading parties when they happened to encounter each other in the lawless depths of the wilderness.

To put an end to these sordid and ruinous contentions, several of the principal merchants of Montreal entered into a partnership in the winter of 1783, which was augmented by amalgamation with a rival company in 1787. Thus was created the famous "Northwest Company," which for a time held a lordly sway over the wintry lakes and boundless forests of the Canadas, almost equal to that of the East India Company over the voluptuous climes and magnificent realms of the Orient.

The company consisted of twenty-three shareholders, or partners, but held in its employ about two thousand persons as clerks, guides, interpreters, and "voyagers," or boatmen. These were distributed at various trading posts, established far and wide on the interior lakes and rivers, at immense distances from each other, and in the heart of trackless countries and savage tribes.

Several of the partners resided in Montreal and Quebec, to manage the main concerns of the company. These were called agents, and were personages of great weight and importance; the other partners took their stations at the interior posts, where they remained throughout the winter, to superintend the intercourse with the various tribes of Indians. They were thence called wintering partners.

The goods destined for this wide and wandering traffic were put up at the warehouses of the company in Montreal, and conveyed in batteaux, or boats and canoes, up the river Attawa, or Ottawa, which falls into the St. Lawrence near Montreal, and by other rivers and portages, to Lake Nipissing, Lake Huron, Lake Superior, and thence, by several chains of great and small lakes, to Lake Winipeg, Lake Athabasca, and the great Slave Lake. This singular and beautiful system of internal seas, which renders an immense region of wilderness so accessible to the frail bark of the Indian or the trader, was studded by the remote posts of the company, where they carried on their traffic with the surrounding tribes.

The company, as we have shown, was at first a spontaneous association of merchants; but, after it had been regularly organized, admission into it became extremely difficult. A candidate had to enter, as it were, "before the mast," to undergo a long probation, and to rise slowly by his merits and services. He began, at an early age, as a clerk, and served an apprenticeship of seven years, for which he received one hundred pounds sterling, was maintained at the expense of the company, and furnished with suitable clothing and equipments. His probation was generally passed at the interior trading posts; removed for years from civilized society, leading a life almost as wild and precarious as the savages around him; exposed to the severities of a northern winter, often suffering from a scarcity of food, and sometimes destitute for a long time of both bread and salt. When his apprenticeship had expired, he received a salary according to his deserts, varying from eighty to one hundred and sixty pounds sterling, and was now eligible to the great object of his ambition, a partnership in the company; though years might yet elapse before he attained to that enviable station.

Most of the clerks were young men of good families, from the Highlands of Scotland, characterized by the perseverance, thrift, and fidelity of their country, and fitted by their native hardihood to encounter the rigorous climate of the north, and to endure the trials and privations of their lot; though it must not be concealed that the constitutions of many of them became impaired by the hardships of the wilderness, and their stomachs injured by occasional famishing, and especially by the want of bread and salt. Now and then, at an interval of years, they were permitted to come down on a visit to the establishment at Montreal, to recruit their health, and to have a taste of civilized life; and these were brilliant spots in their existence.

As to the principal partners, or agents, who resided in Montreal and Quebec, they formed a kind of commercial aristocracy, living in lordly and hospitable style. Their early associations, when clerks at the remote trading posts, and the pleasures, dangers, adventures, and mishaps which they had shared together in their wild wood life, had linked them heartily to each other, so that they formed a convivial fraternity. Few travellers that have visited Canada some thirty years since, in the days of the McTavishes, the McGillivrays, the McKenzies, the Forbushers, and the other magnates of the northwest, when the company was in all its glory, but must remember the round of feasting and revelry kept up among these hyperborean nabobs.

Sometimes one or two partners, recently from the interior posts, would make their appearance in New-York, in the course of a tour of pleasure and curiosity. On these occasions there was

always a degree of magnificence of the purse about them, and a peculiar propensity to expenditure at the goldsmith's and jeweller's, for rings, chains, brooches, necklaces, jewelled watches, and other rich trinkets, partly for their own wear, partly for presents to their female acquaintances; a gorgeous prodigality, such as was often to be noticed in former times in southern planters and West India croles, when flush with the profits of their plantations.

To behold the Northwest Company in all its state and grandeur, however, it was necessary to witness an annual gathering at the great interior place of conference established at Fort William, near what is called the Grand Portage, on Lake Superior. Here two or three of the leading partners from Montreal proceeded once a year to meet the partners from the various trading posts of the wilderness, to discuss the affairs of the company during the preceding year, and to arrange plans for the future.

On these occasions might be seen the change since the unceremonious times of the old French traders; now the aristocratical character of the Briton shone forth magnificently, or rather the feudal spirit of the Highlander. Every partner who had charge of an interior post, and a score of retainers at his command, felt like the chieftain of a Highland clan, and was almost as important in the eyes of his dependents as of himself. To him a visit to the grand conference at Fort William was a most important event; and he repaired there as to a meeting of parliament.

The partners from Montreal, however, were the lords of the ascendant; coming from the midst of luxurious and ostentatious life, they quite eclipsed their compeers from the woods, whose forms and faces had been battered and hardened by hard living and hard service, and whose garments and equipments were all the worse for wear. Indeed, the partners from below considered the whole dignity of the company as represented in their persons, and conducted themselves in suitable style. They ascended the rivers in great state, like sovereigns making a progress; or rather like Highland chieftains navigating their subject lakes. They were wrapped in rich furs, their huge canoes freighted with every convenience and luxury, and manned by Canadian voyageurs, as obedient as Highland clansmen. They carried up with them cooks and bakers, together with delicacies of every kind, and abundance of choice wines for the banquets which attended this great convocation. Happy were they, too, if they could meet with some distinguished stranger; above all, some titled member of the British nobility, to accompany them on this stately occasion, and grace their high solemnities.

Fort William, the scene of this important annual meeting, was a considerable village on the banks of Lake Superior. Here, in an immense wooden building, was the great council hall, as also the banquetting chamber, decorated with Indian arms and accoutrements, and the trophies of the fur trade. The house swarmed at this time with traders and voyageurs, some from Montreal, bound to the interior posts; some from the interior posts, bound to Montreal. The councils were held in great state, for every member felt as if sitting in parliament, and every retainer and dependent looked up to the assemblage with awe, as to the house of lords. There was a vast deal of solemn deliberation, and hard Scottish reasoning, with an occasional swell of pompous declamation.

These grave and weighty councils were alternated by huge feasts and revels, like some of the old feasts described in Highland castles. The tables in the great banquetting room groaned under the weight of game of all kinds; of venison from the woods, and fish from the lakes, with hunters' delicacies, such as buffaloes' tongues, and beavers' tails; and various luxuries from Montreal, all served up by experienced cooks brought for the purpose. There was no stint of generous wine, for it was a hard-drinking period, a time of loyal toasts, and bacchanalian songs, and brimming bumpers.

While the chiefs thus revelled in hall, and made the rafters resound with bursts of loyalty and old Scottish songs, chanted in voices cracked and sharpened by the northern blast, their merriment was echoed and prolonged by a mongrel legion of retainers, Canadian voyageurs, half-breeds, Indian hunters, and vagabond hangers-on, who feasted somptuously without on the crumbs that fell from their table, and made the wilkin ring with old French ditties, mingled with Indian yelps and yellings.

Such was the Northwest Company in its powerful and prosperous days, when it held a kind of feudal sway over a vast domain of lake and forest. We are dwelling too long, perhaps, upon these individual pictures, endeared to us by the associations of early life, when, as yet a stripling youth, we have sat at the hospitable boards of the "mighty Northwesters," the lords of the ascendant at Montreal; and gazed with wondering and inexperienced eye at

the baronial wassailing, and listened with astonished ear to their tales of hardships and adventures. It is one object of our task, however, to present scenes of the rough life of the wilderness, and we are tempted to fix these few memorials of a transient state of things fast passing into oblivion;—for the feudal state of Fort William is at an end; its council chamber is silent and deserted; its banquet hall no longer echoes to the burst of loyalty, or the "auld world" ditty; the lords of the lakes and forests have passed away; and the hospitable magnates of Montreal—where are they?

#### THE CANADIAN VOYAGEURS DOWN THE HUDSON.

The "voyageurs" form a kind of confraternity in the Canadas, like the *arrieros*, or carriers of Spain, and, like them, are employed in long inland expeditions of travel and traffic: with this difference, that the *arrieros* travel by land, the voyageurs by water, the former with mules and horses, the latter with *batteaux* and canoes. The voyageurs may be said to have sprung up out of the fur trade, having originally been employed by the early French merchants in their trading expeditions through the labyrinth of rivers and lakes of the boundless interior. They were coeval with the *coureurs des bois*, or rangers of the woods, already noticed, and, like them, in the intervals of their long, arduous, and laborious expeditions, were prone to pass their time in idleness and revelry about the trading posts or settlements; squandering their hard earnings in heedless conviviality, and rivalling their neighbors, the Indians, in indolent indulgence and an imprudent disregard of the morrow.

When Canada passed under British domination, and the old French trading houses were broken up, the voyageurs, like the *coureurs des bois*, were for a time disheartened and desolate, and with difficulty could reconcile themselves to the service of the new comers, so different in habits, manners, and language from their former employers. By degrees, however, they became accustomed to the change, and at length came to consider the British fur traders, and especially the members of the Northwest Company, as the legitimate lords of creation.

The dress of these people is generally half civilized, half savage. They wear a capot or surcoat, made of a blanket, a striped cotton shirt, cloth trousers, or leathern leggings, moccasins of deer-skin, and a belt of various articles, from which are suspended the knife, tobacco-pouch, and other implements. Their language is of the same piebald character, being a French patois, embroidered with Indian and English words and phrases.

The lives of the voyageurs are passed in wild and extensive roving, in the service of individuals, but more especially of the fur traders. They are generally of French descent, and inherit much of the gayety and lightness of heart of their ancestors, being full of anecdote and song, and ever ready for the dance. They inherit, too, a fund of civility and complaisance; and, instead of that hardness and grossness which men in laborious life are apt to indulge towards each other, they are mutually obliging and accommodating; interchanging kind offices, yielding each other assistance and comfort in every emergency, and using the familiar appellations of "cousin" and "brother" when there is in fact no relationship. Their natural good-will is probably heightened by a community of adventure and hard-ship in their precarious and wandering life.

No men are more submissive to their leaders and employers, more capable of enduring hardship, or more good-humored under privations. Never are they so happy as when on long and rough expeditions, toiling up rivers or coasting lakes; encamping at night on the borders, gossiping round their fires, and bivouacking in the open air. They are dextrous boatmen, vigorous and adroit with the oar and paddle, and will row from morning until night without a murmur. The steersman often sings an old traditional French song, with some regular burden in which they all join, keeping time with their oars: if at any time they flag in spirits or relax in exertion, it is but necessary to strike up a song of the kind to put them all in fresh spirits and activity. The Canadian waters are vocal with these little French chansons, that have been echoed from mouth to mouth and transmitted from father to son, from the earliest days of the colony; and it has a pleasing effect, in a still golden summer evening, to see a *batteau* gliding across the bosom of a lake and dipping its oars to the cadence of these quaint old ditties, or sweeping along in full chorus on a bright sunny morning, down the transparent current of one of the Canada rivers.

But we are talking of things that are fast fading away! The march of mechanical invention is driving every thing poetical before it. The steamboats, which are fast dispelling the wildness and romance of our lakes and rivers, and aiding to subdue the

world into commonplace, are proving as fatal to the race of the Canadian voyageurs as they have been to that of the boatmen of the Mississippi. Their glory is departed. They are no longer the lords of our inland seas, and the great navigators of the wilderness. Some of them may still occasionally be seen coasting the lower lakes with their frail barks, and pitching their camps and lighting their fires upon the shores; but their range is fast contracting to those remote waters and shallow and obstructed rivers unvisited by the steamboat. In the course of years they will gradually disappear; their songs will die away like the echoes they once awakened, and the Canadian voyageurs will become a forgotten race, or remembered, like their associates, the Indians, among the poetical images of past times, and as themes for local and romantic associations.

An instance of the buoyant temperament and the professional pride of these people was furnished in the gay and braggart style in which they arrived at New-York to join the enterprise. They were determined to regale and astonish the people of the "States" with the sight of a Canadian boat and a Canadian crew. They accordingly fitted up a large but light bark canoe, such as is used in the fur trade; transported it in a wagon from the banks of the St. Lawrence to the shores of Lake Champlain; traversed the lake in it, from end to end; hoisted it again in a wagon and wheeled it off to Lansingburgh, and there launched it upon the waters of the Hudson. Down this river they plied their course merrily on a fine summer's day, making its banks resound for the first time with their old French boat songs; passing by the villages with whoop and halloo, so as to make the honest Dutch farmers mistake them for a crew of savages. In this way they swept, in full song, and with regular flourish of the paddle, round New-York, in a still summer evening, to the wonder and admiration of its inhabitants, who had never before witnessed on their waters, a nautical apparition of the kind.—*Washington Irving's Astoria.*

## OFFICIAL NOTICES.



### APPOINTMENTS.

#### COUNCIL OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

His Excellency the Governor General was pleased, on the 17th inst., to make the following appointments: The Right Reverend Francis Fulford, D. D., Lord Bishop of Montreal, The Right Reverend Joseph Laroque, Bishop of Cydonia, the Honorable Sir Etienne Pascal Taché, Kat., the Honorable Louis Victor Sicotte, the Honorable Timothy Lee Terrill, the Honorable Thomas Jean Jacques Loranger; the Reverend John Cook, D. D., the Reverend Elzéar Alexandre Taschereau, D. C. L., the Reverend Patrick Dowd; Christopher Dunkin, Esquire, M. P. P., Côme Séraphin Cherrier, Esquire, Q. C., Antoine Polette, Esquire, Q. C., François Xavier Garneau, Esquire, Jacques Crémazie, Esquire, L. L. D., to be, together with the Superintendent of Schools for Lower Canada, the Honorable Pierre Joseph Olivier Chauveau, a Council of Public Instruction for Lower Canada.

Louis Giard, Esquire, Secretary to the Education Department for Lower Canada, to be Recording Clerk to the said Council of Public Instruction.

#### SCHOOL INSPECTOR.

Mr. Félix Emmanuel Juneau, provided with a diploma authorising him to teach in Academies, and French Teacher of the Model School connected with the Laval Normal School, was, on the 2nd instant, appointed school Inspector for the counties of Dorchester and Lévis, heretofore forming part of the inspection district of Mr. Béland, who remains charged with the inspection of schools in the counties of Beauce and Lotbinière.

Mr. Samuel Boivin, provided with a diploma from the Laval Normal School for Model school, and Professor in the Academy for boys at Baie St. Paul, was, the 1st instant, appointed School Inspector for the counties of Charlevoix and Saguenay, vice Cléophe Cimon, Esq., M. P. P., resigned.

His Excellency the Governor General was also pleased, on the 23rd instant to appoint Henry Hubbard, Esq., A. M., late Principal of the Danville Academy, to be an Inspector of Schools in the place of the late Marcus Child, Esq. Mr. Hubbard shall have the inspection of the schools



in the counties of Stanstead, Richmond, Compton and Wolfe and of the protestant schools in the townships of Chester, Tingwick, Kugsey and Durham. The catholic schools in the said townships shall be under the care of Mr. Bourgeois, Inspector for the counties of Durham and Arthabaska.

#### LAVAL NORMAL SCHOOL.

Mr. Jean Baptiste Cloutier, Teacher of the Model school of St. Nicholas, provided with a model school diploma of the Laval Normal school, was on the 25th November last, appointed French Teacher to the Model school annexed to the Laval Normal school, vice Mr. Juneau, promoted to the office of Inspector.

#### SCHOOL TRUSTEES.

His Excellency the Governor General was pleased, the 17th ultimo, to approve of the following appointments:  
County of Huntingdon—Hemmingford: Thomas Dwyne  
County of Richelieu.—William Henry: Osa Fuller.

#### BOARD OF EXAMINERS FOR THE DISTRICT OF OTTAWA.

Misses Mary Bennett, Mary Curry, Mary Curren, Ann Jane Gockburn, Catherine Cuming, Maria Marcotte, Mary Ann McAdam, Maria Osborné, Ann Maria Payne, Julia Sullivan, Elizabeth Simon, Janet Ross, Marguerite Vézina; Messrs. Francis A. Wright, William Henry Arnold, William Baldwin, John Connolly, Joseph Devault, Alexander Kennedy, Edward O'Brien, David O'Connors, Michael O'Connors, Thomas Poster, John M. Quin, James Roberts, George Wilcox, W. F. Beverly Wilkins, have obtained diplomas authorising them to teach in elementary schools

JOHN H. WOODS,  
Secretary.

#### BOARD OF EXAMINERS FOR THE DISTRICT OF SHELBURNE.

Mr. Edward P. Hurd has obtained a diploma as Teacher for Model schools.

Messrs. William Adelic, Fred. Geo. Barlow; Misses Jessie Bonnallie, Jane Cowan, Henriette Côté, Sarah Henry, Anna B. McLean, Eliza M. Pope, Cenath S. Ryther, Louisa Sawyer; Messrs. Edward Sawyer, Joseph L. Terrill and Arabine Williams have obtained diplomas as Teachers for elementary schools.

S. A. HURD,  
Secretary.

#### DONATIONS TO THE LIBRARY OF THE DEPARTMENT.

The Superintendent acknowledges with thanks the receipt of the following donations to the Library of the Department.

From Mr. J. B. Biot, Paris: *Mr Biot on the Parochial schools of Scotland*, translated by Lord Brougham, a pamphlet in-80.

From Mr. Dupanloup, Bishop of Orleans, France: "Lettre pastorale pour appeler les bénédictions de Dieu sur le succès de nos expéditions et de nos négociations dans l'extrême Orient etc." a pamphlet in-80.

From Mr. G. W. Lawlor, Teacher, Three Rivers: *The British Columbia*, by W. C. Hazlitt, 1 vol. in-80.

From Messrs. Sower, Barnes & Co., Booksellers, Philadelphia: *Brock's Primary Arithmetic*, 1 vol. in-80; *Brock's Mental Arithmetic*, 1 vol. in-80; *Manual of Geology*, by E. Emmons, 1 vol. in-80.

From Mr. Barrau, Paris: "Morceaux choisis des orateurs français par lui-même," 1 vol. in-120; "La Patrie ou l'histoire et Géographie de la France," par lui-même, 1 vol. in-120.

From Mr. F. X. Garneau, Quebec: "Histoire du Canada," 3 vols. in-80., 3rd edition, 2 copies.

From Messrs. Fowler & Wells, Booksellers, New York: *The Right word in the right place*, 1 vol. in-80.

From M. le Ministre de l'Instruction publique de France: *Cartulaire de N. D. de Paris*, by Mr. Guérard, 4 vols. in-40; *Cartulaire de St. Victor de Marseille*, by the same, 2 vols. in-40; *Cartulaire de Savigny*, by Mr. Bernard, 2 vols. in-40; *Négociations diplomatiques de la France avec la Toscane*, by Mr. De-jardins, 1 vol. in-40.

*Histoire de la guerre de Navarre*, by Mr. F. Michel, 1 vol. in-40; *Peintures à fresque de St. Séverin*, by Messrs. Mérimée et Gérard Ségain, 2 vols. texte et atlas; *Iconographie chrétienne*, by Mr. Didron, 1 vol. in-40.

*Statistique monumentale de Paris*, par M. Albert Lenoir, 2 grands atlas in folio; *Monographie de N. D. de Chartres*, par MM. Lassus et Amaury Duval, 1 vol. in-40. texte et atlas, grand in-folio; *Monographie de N. D. de Noyon*, par MM. Vitet et Daniel Ramée; 1 vol. de texte in-40, et atlas grand in-folio; *Compte de dépenses de construction du Château de Gaillon*, par M. Deville, 1 vol. de texte in-40 et atlas in-folio.

#### SITUATIONS AS TEACHERS WANTED.

Mr. John Boyd, student in McGill University is desirous of a situation

as Teacher in an Academy or in a Model School Address: McGill College, Montreal.

Mr. J. B. Murray, resident of Montreal, having completed his collegiate course, is willing to undertake the charge of a class in an educational establishment wherein Latin, Greek and English might be taught: for commendatory testimonials he refers to Mousigneur de Charbonnel, Bishop of Toronto.

#### TEACHER WANTED.

The School Commissioners of Olarcodon, county of Pontiac, require a teacher provided with diploma for Elementary School. Salary \$200 per annum.

Applications to be addressed to the Education Office.

## JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

MONTREAL, (LOWER CANADA), DECEMBER, 1860.

#### To the Friends of Education.

We address this number of the *Journal of Education* to several persons and to a number of teachers who have not as yet honoured us with their patronage, trusting that it may induce them to become subscribers. Persons not desirous of becoming subscribers will please return the number.

#### Organization of the Council of Public Instruction.

We publish to-day the official announcement of the formation of the Council of Public Instruction for Lower Canada, and think it proper to insert at the same time the several clauses of the law defining the power and duties of this important public body. On referring to these extracts, it will at once be seen that a more important and difficult task could hardly devolve upon an equal number of men competent to undertake it. Although gratuitous, it is a task of great responsibility, and one in which the interests to be protected and cared for require from those entrusted with them unlimited devotedness and able management. That they will be equal to the trust reposed in them, there is every reason to expect. The high stations which they already occupy, their well known zeal for public instruction, and the manifest disinterestedness evinced in their acceptance of office, are facts that will go far to excuse us if we do not give them all the praise to which they are entitled. We must, therefore, be contented with merely expressing the hope, in us a very legitimate one,—that under the auspices and guidance of the Council of Public Instruction, the realization of our fondest desire will be, in due course of time, better secured, and this desire is to see the people continue to improve their condition and to advance in the great and good cause of civilization.

19 VICT. CAP. 14.

XVI. And inasmuch as it will be conducive to the furtherance of Education in Lower Canada to establish therein a Council of Public Instruction,—the Governor shall have authority to appoint not more than fifteen and not less than eleven persons (of whom the Superintendent of Schools for Lower Canada shall be one) to be a Council of Public Instruction for Lower Canada; and such persons

shall hold their office during pleasure, and shall be subject to all lawful orders and directions in the exercise of their duties, which shall from time to time be issued by the Governor in Council.

XVII. The Superintendent of Schools shall provide a place for the meetings of the Council of Public Instruction, shall call the first meeting thereof, and may call a special meeting at any time by giving due notice to the other Members; the expenses attending the proceedings of the said Council shall be defrayed and accounted for by the Superintendent of Schools as part of the contingent expenses of the Education Office; a Recording Clerk to the said Council shall be appointed by the Governor in Council, and such Clerk shall enter all its proceedings in a book to be kept for that purpose, and shall, as may be directed, procure the requisite maps, books and stationery, and shall keep all the accounts of the said Council.

XVIII. Five members of the said Council at any lawful meeting thereof, shall form a quorum for the transaction of business; and it shall be the duty of the said Council,—

1. To appoint one of its members to be Chairman thereof, and with the approval of the Governor in Council to establish the time of its meetings and its mode of proceeding; the Chairman shall have a second or casting vote in case of an equality of votes on any question.

2. To make from time to time, with the approval of the Governor in Council, such rules and regulations as at the time of the establishment of the Council the Superintendent of Schools shall have the power to cause to be made with the approval of the Governor in Council, for the management of the Normal School or Normal Schools which may be established, and for prescribing the terms and conditions on which students shall be received and instructed therein, the course of instruction to be gone through, and the mode and manner in which Registers and Books shall be kept. Certificates of Study shall be granted to Students, and the reports of the Principal of any such Normal School shall be made to the Superintendent of Schools.

3. To make from time to time, with the approval of the Governor in Council, such regulations as the Council shall deem expedient for the organization, government and discipline of Common Schools, and the classification of Schools and Teachers.

4. To select or cause to be published, with such approval as aforesaid, books, maps and globes, to be used to the exclusion of others, in the Academies, Model and Elementary Schools under the control of the Commissioners or Trustees, due regard being had in such selection to Schools wherein tuition is given in French and to those wherein tuition is given in English; but this power shall not extend to the selection of books having reference to religion or morals, which selection shall be made as provided by the fifth sub-section of the twenty-first section of the said Act of 1846, so much of which sub-section as may be inconsistent with the provision herein made, is hereby repealed.

5. To make from time to time with such approval as aforesaid, rules and regulations for the guidance of the Boards of Examiners.

6. To cause to be inserted by the Recording Clerk, in a book to be kept for that purpose, in such manner and form as the Council may direct, the names and classes of all Teachers who have received or shall hereafter receive certificates or diplomas of qualification from the Boards of Examiners already established or to be hereafter established, also the names of all Teachers, who after having gone through the regular course of instruction in any Normal School to be hereafter established, shall have received certificates or diplomas of qualification from the Superintendent of Schools; And to ensure compliance with the immediate foregoing provision, it shall be the duty of the Superintendent of Schools—Firstly, To report to or cause to be laid before the Council, if it be in his power, the names and classes of all Teachers admitted by the different Boards of Examiners since their establishment; Secondly, The names and classes of all Teachers hereafter to be admitted by the different Boards of Examiners; Thirdly, The names of all Teachers who may hereafter receive from him certificates or diplomas of qualification after going through the proper course of instruction in any Normal School.

XIX. It shall be lawful for the Council of Public Instruction to revoke any certificate or diploma of qualification granted or to be granted by any Board of Examiners, to any Teacher, or any certificate or diploma of qualification to be granted hereafter by the Superintendent of Schools to any student in any Normal School which may be established, for any want of good conduct as Teacher, of good morals, or of temperate habits, in the holder

thereof; such revocation not to take place, however, unless a charge in writing be made by some complainant, or upon the report of any School Inspector, submitted by the Superintendent of Schools to the said Council, nor unless such charge be fully proved: such charge shall be addressed to the Recording Clerk, who shall lay it before the Council at its then next meeting; and if the Council be of opinion that the charge is of such a nature as not to require any investigation, it shall be dismissed *in limine*; but if it be of opinion that the charge is of so grave a nature and character as to require investigation, it shall be the duty of the Recording Clerk to cause the Teacher complained of to be served by any Bailiff of the Superior Court for Lower Canada, with a copy of the charge, accompanied by a notice on behalf of the Council, summoning him to be and appear, either in person or by proxy, before the Council on such day and hour as the Council shall determine, to answer the charge made against him. If the Teacher denies the charge, the Council shall forthwith, or on a subsequent day, proceed to receive the evidence, oral or in writing, which each party shall have to offer, and the Recording Clerk is hereby authorized to administer the oath to any witness who may be produced; and it shall be his duty to take and keep of record the notes of the evidence taken.

It shall be lawful for the said Council to appoint one or two Commissioners to receive the evidence, when the parties shall reside at a great distance, or when the Council may see that by so doing a saving of unnecessary expense will be effected.

The instrument appointing such Commissioner or Commissioners shall be issued on behalf and in the name of "the Council of Public Instruction," and under the signature of the Recording Clerk.

Upon the receipt of such instrument, the Commissioner or Commissioners shall notify to the parties the time at which they will have to produce their witnesses; the Commissioner or Commissioners shall swear the witnesses, and are hereby authorized to that effect, and the evidence shall be taken by such Commissioner or Commissioners and afterwards transmitted by him or them to the Recording Clerk, who shall lay it before the Council.

If the Teacher do not appear, and neglect to answer the charge, the Council shall proceed by default against him, and shall receive and take the evidence, or cause it to be received and taken, in the manner above provided.

If the charge be not proved, the Council shall dismiss it, and if it be proved, the Council shall order as a penalty that the certificate or diploma of qualification of such Teacher be revoked, and that his name be struck from the book containing the names of the qualified Teachers.

## 22 VICT. CAP. 52.

1. It shall be lawful for the Governor in Council, whenever it may be deemed expedient so to do, upon report of the Superintendent of Schools or Council of Public Instruction for Lower Canada, by Proclamation, to constitute a Board of Examiners of Teachers in and for any County in Lower Canada, or in and for any two or more neighboring Counties in Lower Canada which may be conveniently united for such purpose; and every such Board shall meet at such place and at such times as the Governor in Council may upon like report from time to time ordain; and the members thereof shall from time to time be appointed by the Governor in Council through the Superintendent of Schools.

2. The certificates to be granted by every such Board shall only avail for the employment of the Teachers obtaining the same, within such County or Counties, and for such class or classes of Schools, as the Governor in Council upon like report may from time to time ordain, and for a term of three years from the date of such certificates; and those to be hereafter granted by the several Boards of Examiners in the Cities of Montreal and Quebec, and in the Districts of Kamouraska, Gaspé, Three-Rivers and Ottawa, and in the Counties of Sherbrooke and Stanstead, respectively, shall in like manner only avail for such territorial limit, and for such class or classes of Schools, as the Governor in Council upon like report may from time to time ordain, and for a like term of three years.

3. The meetings of the several Boards of Examiners in the Cities of Montreal and Quebec, the Districts of Kamouraska, Gaspé, Three-Rivers and Ottawa, and the Counties of Sherbrooke and Stanstead, respectively, shall hereafter be held at such places therein and may hereafter be held at such times instead of or besides those now fixed by law, as the Governor in Council may upon like report from time to time ordain.

4. Every Board of Examiners, with the exception of those in the Cities of Montreal and Quebec respectively, shall be composed of not less than five nor more than ten members, and may be organ-

ized, if the Governor in Council upon like report shall so ordain, but not otherwise, in two divisions, Roman Catholic and Protestant respectively; in which case each division shall separately perform the duties devolving on them.

5 It shall be lawful for the Governor in Council upon like report from time to time to modify, as occasion may require, the detail of duties imposed on Boards of Examiners and on the Secretaries of such Boards, by the fifth section of the Act passed in the ninth year of Her Majesty's Reign, entitled, *An Act to repeal certain enactments therein mentioned, and to make better provision for Elementary Instruction in Lower Canada*; and every modification so made of such duties shall be binding on all parties for whom the same may have been made, as though expressly embodied in this Act.

9. The copyright of any book, map, chart, musical composition, or other publication whatsoever, (whether original, or wholly or in part compiled,) which may hereafter be published for the use of Schools under the direction of the Council of Public Instruction for Lower Canada, may be acquired and held by the said Council; and all profits to result from such copyrights shall enure to the benefit of the Lower Canada Superior Education Income Fund.

### Report of the Chief Superintendent of Public Instruction for Lower Canada for 1858.

Translated from the French by the translators to the Legislative Assembly.

Extracts from the Reports of the Inspectors of Schools.

Extracts from the Reports of Mr. Inspector DORVAL.

If the saying that the master makes the school is true, as in this country the commissioners select and pay the teachers, it would be still more just to say "As are the commissioners, so are the schools." You must have observed in my former reports, that all the schools in the same municipality generally resemble each other; and this circumstance strikes me forcibly in my visits as Inspector. Wherever I have occasion to praise the schools, it is because the commissioners have chosen good teachers of both sexes, have paid them liberally and regularly, have watched them diligently, have visited their schools with zeal and intelligence, have caused all contributions to be paid punctually, have had the courage to sue all dilatory payers, and in the choice of a secretary treasurer have laid aside all favor, all intrigue and meanness, all party-spirit, to consider only the probity, qualifications, and activity which are indispensable in this important agent of Public Education.

Unfortunately the number of zealous and active commissioners is not yet as large as could be desired, and it is to be regretted that the Government did not attend to your suggestion of exacting a certain amount of education as a condition of eligibility for this public office. It is to be feared, that the absence of this condition will long set a bad example, and strongly counteract the efforts made to impress upon the fathers of families all the importance of Education.

Notwithstanding, however, the great number of weak and unqualified administrators still existing, I have again this year, in the total number of schools, in my District, to report a progress which will prove that the force of the impulse given is not at all abated.

The proportion of pupils entered on the school rolls to the whole population of this district, allowing for the probable increase in the population since the last census, is 1 to 7, and the number attending regularly is 1 to 10.

I have classified, as to their efficiency, the schools of my district as follows:—Excellent 37, good 48, middling 55, ill kept 16.

In short the most perceptible results that have been obtained appear to me to be: 1st. More uniformity in the books used in teaching; 2nd. More uniformity in the branches taught; 3rd. More connection between these branches and the ordinary wants of the children attending the schools, and consequently the suppression of several branches which, in my opinion, ought only to form part of the educational course in the superior schools; 4th. Better arrangements; maps and black boards being less rare than formerly; 5th. A little more regularity in the minutes of the proceedings of the school-commissioners and trustees; 6th. A slight increase in the salaries of teachers in several municipalities; 7th. More assiduity on the part of the pupils in attending school.

I cannot, however, conclude without saying a word concerning an

evil which is generally felt in my district; I speak of the too great facility with which the diploma of a school-master, and above all that of a mistress, is obtained. The evil caused by this facility in the school and in the management of affairs by the school-commissioners is incalculable; it is still more so with regard to the body of teachers generally; for this ease in obtaining diplomas causes an unjust competition between teachers of a very different capacity although furnished with the same diploma, which makes their engagement to be a mere affair of contract with the lowest bidder, particularly in some municipalities where the main object is cheap education.

I will now give a rapid sketch of the state of affairs in each municipality.

*Lachenaie.*—The two schools in this municipality are well furnished and provided with fine maps, black boards, registers, &c. The teacher of district No. 1, Mr. Trépanier, who has succeeded the Mlles. Filiatrault, receives a salary of £65. Mr. Bourgong, teacher of section No. 2, receives only £36. The commissioners deserve to be commended for the manner in which they act up to my suggestions and to those of the Department.

*St. Henry of Mascouche.*—Among the pupils of the industrial college, 16 in the highest classes appeared to me to have made some progress. The other schools of the commissioners have well qualified masters and mistresses. The schools of the Mlles. Beauchamp and Mayé, and that of Mr. Garraty, deserve honorable mention; unfortunately, the school-houses are not all well built, and seldom present the necessary accommodations in their internal arrangements; neither are there any maps, and as there was no register of the school visits, I could not distribute any prizes. However, I expect much from the intelligence and zeal of the new commissioners. The money matters are well managed, except that they have spared some rich defaulters who ought rather to show an example of punctuality in paying. It was by mistake that Mr. Garraty's school was mentioned as dissentient in my last report: it is under the control of the commissioners; almost all the pupils, however, belong to religious denominations different from theirs. The college receives £75 from the commissioners, the convent £40, and Mr. Garraty £30.

*St. Lin.*—The schools are well kept, the pupils are making progress, the school-houses are well furnished but they are destitute of maps. The dissentients have now only one school; that which they had formerly at Wesleyville is now only an independent school. Their affairs might be conducted with more punctuality and regularity. It is the same thing with the commissioners to whom very large arrears are due.

*St. Calixte of Kilkenny.*—This municipality is divided into four sections. During the last two years the commissioners have built two pretty school-houses which reflect the greatest credit on the inhabitants as contrasted with their poverty. The children in this municipality are also very attentive to school and cannot fail to make progress. The school-houses are well furnished, kept in repair, and supplied with tables. It is intended to purchase geographical maps. Only one school mistress is furnished with a diploma, the others, all things considered, appeared to me to be well enough qualified. The commissioners are in debt to these teachers. I hope better things for the future under the direction of Mr. le curé Desmarais.

*St. Roch de l'Achigan.*—There is a Superior-Primary school kept here by the Brethren of St. Viator. The pupils have made some progress, but they require furniture, geographical maps, &c. The Commissioners rarely visit the schools, and have not provided them with registers for the visits. A fine building intended as a school convent has been erected.

*Be-au-Pads and Be-aux-Castors.*—Mr. Marchessault has succeeded Miss Grinsell; the affairs of this municipality were admirably well conducted by the late Curé Mr. Filiatrault.

*Be-St. Ignace.*—The southern portion of the Island is poor. The Commissioners have not established the payment of monthly fees; they ought to do so if only to oblige parents to send their children to the school, which is very well conducted, but which is destitute of maps, black boards, &c. This municipality is also under great obligations to the late Curé M. Filiatrault.

*St. Alphonse de Kildare.*—The difficulties existing in this municipality are in the course of being arranged. The Commissioners however, are far from showing zeal of activity; they do not appear to understand their affairs properly. Mr. Rogan after an interruption of several months has been succeeded in district No. 1 by a mistress who teaches both languages. The school in district No.

2 kept by Mr. Brault shows some progress made, that of District No. 3 is very inferior.

**St. Ambroise de Kildare.**—The school of Mr. St. André is sufficiently well kept, the same may be said of the academy for girls, kept by the Nuns of Ste. Anne and also of the dissentient schools. The other schools are very ill conducted. They require black boards, geographical maps, &c. The salaries of the teachers are more meagre than in any other municipality in my district not even excepting the very poorest. The Commissioners are indolent beyond description and do not visit the schools. I exacted a promise from them to place a qualified teacher suitably remunerated in district No. 3.

**Ste. Melanie.**—This municipality is situated in a mountainous part of the country where the population is scattered over a vast extent. The schools necessarily make but little progress, the children are often in need of books, paper, and every thing necessary to them. Although the salaries of the teachers are very insufficient there are still long arrears due to them. The school of Mr. J. Robillard deserves honorable mention on account of the pains taken by the master, and the success of the pupils. This good teacher receives a salary of £49.

**Ste. Elizabeth.**—With the exception of the school at Cote St. Martin, the unprogressive state of which is in great measure due to the want of assiduity on the part of the pupils, the other schools in this District are making satisfactory progress. They are generally well furnished; though some of them still require visiting registers. Generally speaking the teachers are sufficiently well qualified. The affairs of the Commissioners are kept in good order by the Notary Mr. Lucasse. The dissentients have no schools in operation.

**Rawdon, St. Patrick.**—Two schools have been closed for part of the year for very frivolous reasons. The teachers are badly paid. No monthly collection is taken up, they affect to supply us in place by a voluntary subscription, partly payable in fire-wood. It suffices to say that several schools have remained closed for want of fire-wood to show how futile this resource is.

**Rawdon, Ste. Julienne.**—Notwithstanding that this parish is poor, the schools are good, clean and well furnished with benches, tables, maps, registers, &c. The affairs of the Commissioners are in the best order by their Secretary-Treasurer, Mr. de Caussin. The examinations of the schools in sections 1 and 2 have been satisfactory. That of No. 3 shows less progress. The dissentient school has been in operation a short time and seems to be well conducted by Mrs. McAdam.

**St. Esprit.**—The finances of the Commissioners in this municipality, and consequently their schools are in a most melancholy condition. In about a year and a half not less than five Secretary-Treasurers have applied themselves to the work. These frequent changes render the management of affairs almost impossible. The schools are destitute of the necessary furniture, maps, registers, &c. Several of the school-mistresses are not furnished with diplomas.

(To be continued.)

## MONTHLY SUMMARY.

### LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

—English literature has lost one of its brightest ornaments, and the United States one of her most distinguished writers. Washington Irving was born, at New York, on the 3rd April, 1783, year which ushered in the American Independence. His father was a Scotchman and gave his sons a fair education. One of them, Peter Irving, became an editor, Washington was trained to the bar, but the forum had few attractions for him and being little in harmony with his tastes and inclinations, he never practised. At the age of sixteen he contributed some papers over the signature of "Jonathan Oldstyle," to the *Morning Chronicle*, edited by Mr. P. Irving; the popularity they obtained induced him to start a satirical paper under the title of "Sa maguadi." At the age of twenty-one, his health gave way and he left the States on a tour through Italy, Switzerland, France, Holland and Great Britain. On his return. In 1808, he wrote "Knickerbocker's History of New York." Its title has become literally a household word, steamboats and

stages, banks and citizens have appropriated the name of Knickerbocker. Its success was immediate; a writer styles it the *magnum opus* of Irving. The profits, however, were not great and he would have made little by his triumph had it not been for the generous conduct of his brothers, who generously gave him an interest in their business on condition that he was to devote himself to letters and take no share in the management of the house beyond drawing his portion of the profits. The failure of his brothers' firm in 1819 compelled him to rely on his literary resources. During the war of 1812, Mr. Irving had made a brief trial of the military career. He rose to the rank of Colonel, but it does not appear that he was ever under fire. In 1813, he commenced the publication of the *Analectic Magazine*. In 1815, he returned to England, and while there published the *Sketch-Book*, his master-piece, for which he received \$2000 dollars. He spent some time with Walter Scott and visited Newstead Abbey; a close friendship existed between these great men, which is a pleasing page in the biography of literary celebrities. In 1820 he took up his residence in Paris, where he remained six years, occasionally visiting the South of France, Germany and England. During that period he wrote and published *Bracebridge Hall*, and the *Tales of a Traveller*. Irving enjoyed a copyright in England and in the United States, and with the profits of the sales in both countries was enabled to lead a life of agreeable bachelor leisure. He had the entrée of the best literary society, he was friend of Thomas Moore and of Campbell, and in terms of intimacy with such men as Lord John Russell and Lord Brougham. In 1826, he made a tour through Spain. This country furnished him materials for the *Life of Mahomet* and his immediate successors, the *Conquest of Granada*, the *Alhambra*, and the *Life and Voyages of Columbus* and his companions. Prescott has given him merited praise for the accuracy of these historical writings, and George IV. conferred on him one of the two golden medals which he had promised to the two best historians; the other was bestowed on Hallam, who also has died during the present year. On his return to New-York, in 1832, his countrymen welcomed him with a public ovation. To his travels in the western prairies we are indebted for a "Tour in the Prairies," *Captain Bonneville's Adventures*, and "Astoria." While preparing the first mentioned of these works, he visited Montreal and was the guest of the gentlemen of the Northwest Company. He gives some skilful sketches of the customs of the Canadian voyageurs, a class of men now nearly extinct, he has thus obtained a claim on our gratitude. He was the personal friend of John Jacob Astor, the great capitalist, two men of the most dissimilar habits and between whom there existed indeed a mutual love. Irving was named, in 1832, secretary of Legation to London. While in England he was created Doctor of Laws, by the University of Oxford. In 1842, he obtained, without solicitation, the appointment to Madrid of United States minister. It was then a sinecure, and left him ample time for literary occupations. He returned to his native country in 1848, where he passed the remainder of his life. His last years were spent peacefully and happily at his country place, Sunnyside, on the banks of the Hudson, and under the shadow of the Catskill Mountains. Here he passed the evening of his life, in the agreeable society of his nephews and nieces, towards whom he showed that kindness which he had received from his noble brothers. Not to be idle he wrote a life of Washington, the first interesting work on that great man.

He was of a genial and social temperament, the delight of society as he will be of future ages. America may glory in such a man, and England place him by her Addison, whom he has equalled in elegance and purity of diction, and surpassed by genius and imagination.

He was buried at Christ Church, Tarrytown. He died on the 28th November, 1859. We publish in another part of this number an interesting extract from *Astoria*.

—The Germans in Constantinople intend to erect a monument to Alexander de Humboldt, and also to found a museum and library for the use of the countrymen of the illustrious savant residing in the Sultan's capital.

—Among the promotions recently made in the Legion d'Honneur, we observe the following: to the grade of Commander, Mr. de Sainte-Beuve; to the grade of Officer, Mr. Léon Gozlan and Mr. A. Rénée, director of the *Constitutionnel*; to the grade of Knight, Messrs. A. Second, writer, Louis Bouilhet, dramatist, M. Schiller, editor of *La Patrie*, and E. Texier, editor of *Le Siècle*.—*Revue Européenne*.

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