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I. Education in Various Countries.

1. UNIVERSITY EXTENSION IN ENGLAND.

The Sub-Committee, lately appointed at a meeting of the heads of houses and others, at Oxford, to consider the suggestion for extending the University by founding one or more Colleges or Halls for the poorer classes of students, have agreed upon the following Report. The subject being an interesting one, we are induced to print the Report *in extenso* :—

“It will not be necessary, in the present Report, to argue at length the question that a need exists for the extension of the University in some form or another. The expression of opinion on this head, both within the University and without, has been decisive. But some explanation may be due of the precise form which the idea of University extension took in the minds of those who first moved in the matter in last Michaelmas Term, and whose own views are more especially represented by the present Sub-Committee.

“That which presented itself to their minds as the most obvious and pressing, though far from the sole ground of University extension, was the unquestionable duty of the Universities to provide for the education of the great body of the national Clergy. They considered that the strong and just feeling of the country in favour of a highly-educated Clergy ought to meet with a warm response here; and that not the least ground on which the government of the Universities continues to be entrusted to the Church of England is, that they are, or ought to be, the great seminaries of her Clergy.

“It is obvious, however, that a movement, the aim of which is to enable Oxford to fulfil more completely this her function of

educating the clergy, does not imply that the extension of the University should be clerical in any other or more narrow sense than the existing body. The same facilities which were intended, primarily, to draw to the University candidates for Holy Orders, would, in fact, unless guarded by some special regulations, be equally open to those who had other professions in view. And to make any such special regulations was not, from the first, any part of the plan which has resulted in the nomination of this Sub-Committee. Coupled, indeed, with the feeling that the University was not doing her fair share in the work of clerical education, was another, that the system of Local Examinations required, as its natural complement, some further movement which should enable those, whose talents and attainments were drawn out and recognised by means of these Examinations to follow out their studies, if so disposed, within the pale of the University itself.

“Still, the primary fact before them was, that the education of the Clergy, which has been from time immemorial the staple work of Oxford, seemed to be in a large measure passing out of her hands. The annexed table of the English and Welsh ordinations of the year 1841, and of the last sixteen years, shows (a) that the ordinations of the last eight years are less by 319 than those of the eight years preceding, a difference of which the significance is enhanced by the fact that during the last ten years 674 new parishes or districts have been formed. (b) That the diminution is entirely in the number of Clergy educated in the old Universities. Indeed, the number of Literates ordained, which twenty-five years ago was quite insignificant, has on the average of the last six years been 135, only 22 less than have been annually, during the same six years, ordained from Oxford.

	1841	1850	1851	1852	1853	1854	1855	1856	1857
Oxford	242	211	215	199	211	203	169	171	195
Cambridge	270	252	222	234	291	187	225	215	208
Durham	13	21	23	27	21	27	29	30	22
Dublin	33	50	41	38	41	30	40	40	51
Literates	48	88	113	104	128	77	99	120	130
Total.....	606	622	614	602	632	524	562	570	606

	1858	1859	1860	1861	1862	1863	1864	1865
Oxford	179	181	162	159	120	155	183	166
Cambridge.....	222	257	227	219	178	196	184	182
Durham	32	25	16	21	13	21	7	12
Dublin	29	29	29	30	82	32	27	29
Literates ..	133	123	133	141	146	119	124	146
Total.....	595	615	567	570	489	523	525	535

Many things have no doubt contributed to this result, which no alteration of our University arrangements would affect; and if the only thing observable were the diminution of academical candidates for Holy Orders, it might perhaps be supposed to be due to causes wholly beyond our control. The simultaneous increase of Literates points in another direction, and naturally suggests the inquiry, whether it would be possible to attract to the University many of those who now seek an entrance to Holy Orders through the channel of an inferior education, or to substitute for them any other class of young men, of whom a fair proportion might be expected to seek for the Orders of our Church.

Our inquiry, then, has naturally started from a consideration of the obstacles which at present prevent their coming. These obstacles may clearly be of very various kinds.

Besides those who are kept away from the University by the want of a certain measure of previous classical training, many no doubt, who would otherwise gladly become members of our body, are deterred by the length of residence required, especially from those who desire to become candidates for Honours.

Others again, and probably a larger number, are deterred by the age to which it has practically become necessary to defer the degree.

These obstacles we notice simply to point out, (1) that they lie beyond the province embraced by the present report, and (2) that they affect candidates for Holy Orders less than they affect any other class of students, since they cannot enter on their profession below the age of twenty-three.

There are, however, far more to whom the great impediment in the way of an University education is simply that of its expensiveness; not only in its actual cost, but in the extravagant habits which it is often believed to form.

Assuming, then, that the age at which the B.A. degree is customarily taken remains unchanged, the expense may conceivably be reduced in one of four ways. I. By a reduction of fees, academical and tutorial. II. By a cheaper scale of living. III. By removing men, partially or wholly, from the temptation of social expense. IV. By the aid of foundations or other benefactions.

We propose to consider each in turn, with especial reference to the plan on which we have to report. But before doing so, it seems desirable to state the principles which, in our view, ought to govern any plan for the introduction of a cheaper academical life.

A reduction of expense is entirely a relative question. The problem is, how to unite the greatest possible reduction with the retention of those advantages for the sake of which the great expense of an Oxford education is now so cheerfully borne by many.

These advantages may be briefly enumerated as follows:—

1. Our religious and moral discipline, which although not directly chargeable to the individuals under it, forms an essential part of a system which is more or less expensive.
2. The intellectual advantages derivable, whether simply from residence in a place possessing a large educated society with an ample supply of libraries and other appliances for study; or directly from the fact of University membership; or, lastly, from Collegiate life, with its elaborate system of tuition.
3. The social advantages enjoyed within the University through free intercourse between men of about the same age and the same high standard of education.

We conceive that it may be laid down as a principle, that no scheme of University extension is entirely free from objection which interferes with the enjoyment of any one of these advantages; and that if some sacrifice be necessary, that plan is preferable which sacrifices the least important, and to the least degree. We conceive also that in any scheme of which we undertake to recommend the adoption, the maintenance of these advantages should be carefully considered with reference not only to any new class to which we may hope either partially or wholly to extend them, but also to those who already possess them. We should think it a grave error to propose any plan which would in any way tend to diminish the advantages enjoyed by those now educated here, for the sake of giving an inferior education to another class of men, who may, after all, prove indifferent to that which it would have cost us so much to offer.

With these considerations before us, we have carefully examined the question whether it would be possible, by the establishment of a new College or Hall, materially to reduce the expenses of the University course in any or all of the four ways above enumerated. We have come to the conclusion—

1. That it is important not to reduce the tutorial fees so low as to impair the efficiency of the educating staff; for although able men might be found to devote themselves to the work, while the interests of it was fresh, for an almost nominal salary, it would not be wise to count on the continuous efficiency of underpaid labour.

We believe, however, that if a new College or Hall were estab-

lished on a sufficiently large scale, the fees might be fixed as low as £12 a year.

On the amount of the University fees, we express no opinion.

II. The expenses of living in College might, it is believed, be sensibly reduced below the standard ordinarily prevailing in Colleges; and, if a new College or Hall were built on a sufficient scale, and on plans carefully considered with a view to economical management, below the lowest prices now charged in the smaller Halls of the University.

The measures by which it is believed that greater economy may be secured are the following:—

(a) By having smaller rooms than are now usual in College; and by having these furnished at the expense of the College, the occupant paying a fair rent for the wear and tear of the furniture, as in ordinary furnished lodgings.

(b) By arranging the rooms along corridors, instead of by staircases, as is customary now in our Colleges. This arrangement, we believe, to be not only more economical, but intrinsically superior, more comfortable, and better adapted to modern habits of life. Its economical advantage is partly in the cost of construction, but far more in the opportunity which it gives for placing a large number of rooms under the management of one head servant, and of saving labour both to him and to his subordinates.

(c) By having breakfast as well as dinner in common. The economy of this plan is considerable, both in victuals and in servants' labour; and it need not, if properly managed, interfere with the comfort of the Undergraduates. Indeed, in an existing Hall, where the choice is given, it is found that the majority of the men prefer the common meal.

(d) By the abolition or material reduction of caution money and entrance fees.

(e) By including everything which is really necessary to living in ordinary comfort in one fixed terminal payment. All extras would then come under the eye of the Undergraduate as exactly what they are, expenses within his own control, and he would thus be helped to form habits of economy. A limit, narrower than is usual in most Colleges, would of course be fixed to the amount of extra battels.

III. This brings us to the third point, the possibility of reducing the social expenses which attend on Undergraduate life. It may be observed then—

(a) That the size of the rooms and the general mode of life would tend of themselves to keep down the cost of entertainments.

Whether it would be expedient to place this source of expense under any special restrictive regulations, is a question to be worked out, in a great measure, by the light of experience. But we believe that more can be effected by providing within the walls the means of a comfortable and comparatively inexpensive entertainment, as, e.g., by supplying, at a moderate tariff, wine and dessert from the College Buttery, when required, than by any very rigid system of prohibitions, which might fail, even economically, and be productive of indirect evils.

(b) The social expenses of existing Colleges differ far more widely than is at all generally supposed. In some colleges an undergraduate may easily live, without forfeiting society, or appearing in any way peculiar, if he spends about £10 a year in entertaining; and the only subscriptions expected from him are £1. 1s. to the Cricket Club, and an equal sum to the College boat. A few Colleges are exempt even from these light athletic taxes. Moreover, in those Colleges in which the general scale of living is not expensive, the position of a really poor man is quite understood and recognised. In no place in the world, probably, is poverty a less bar to joining in general society.

In a new College or Hall, such as we are contemplating, there ought to be no difficulty in making the general style of life even simpler than in the Colleges to which we have referred, without making it in the slightest degree unsocial. The prevalence of an inexpensive habit of entertainment is, in fact, in any society, one of the surest means for attaining a thoroughly social tone.

(c) It will be seen by the general tenor of these remarks, that we contemplate the establishment, not of a "Poor Man's Hall," as the phrase is commonly received, not, that is, of such an eleemosynary establishment as would be sought only by persons of inferior social position, less cultivated manners, or attainments and intellect below the ordinary level of the University, but rather of one which is adapted to the natural habits and tastes of gentlemen who wish to live economically. It would be, however, not a deviation from this principle, but a guarantee of its permanence, that extravagance should be understood to be a proper ground for requiring those who indulge in it to remove to some other College or Hall.

The exact sums which it would be necessary to charge to students must, if the plan is adopted, be the subject of minute calculations; but we have collected facts which enable us to say with sufficient

exactness what the expenses of residence within the walls would be. At St. Alban Hall a charge is made of £16 quarterly, including furnished rooms, tuition, attendance, meals, coals, washing, and almost all extras. At Bishop Hatfield's Hall, Durham, commons or board, including servants and all domestic charges, washing excepted, costs, £1. 1s. a-week; but an extra charge has latterly been made for beer, and for meat or eggs, if required at other meals besides dinner. The scale of both these establishments is very small. At St. Augustine's, Canterbury, where the number of students is forty-eight, the annual charge for college expenses is £35, which is at the rate of £17s. 6d. a week. This includes furnished rooms, attendance, breakfast with meat, as a general rule, dinner including beer, and tea; and the Warden gives us to understand that the College at least does not lose by its students. With these and some other facts before us, we have come to the conclusion that the cost of living may be defrayed in a large College or Hall for about £10 a term, or £30 a year, with some few extras.

IV. If we were able to establish a College or Hall on such a footing as this, we should feel the foundation of Scholarships and Exhibitions to be exceedingly valuable, but more for the intellectual tone which they would help to maintain than for their economical effects. We should desire them to be tolerably numerous, if possible, rather than of large pecuniary value, and we have no doubt that if the College were once firmly established, such Scholarships would be rapidly supplied.

It remains to be considered how far such a College or Hall would satisfy the conditions which we have laid down as tests of the excellence of a scheme of University extension.

1. Such special advantages as the Collegiate system provides for the maintenance of religious and moral discipline will belong to the new College or Hall; while the greater diligence which would be promoted by its special circumstances would be a great help towards raising its religious and moral tone.

2. The intellectual advantages of any new society cannot fail to be, in the first instance, inferior to those of the best of our older foundations. But the prestige of Oxford, unlike that of Cambridge, attaches far more to the University than to particular colleges. No College among ourselves has ever obtained that permanence of academical pre-eminence which belongs to the larger Colleges of our sister University; and, owing to a variety of causes, the intellectual life of the place is far more equably diffused. The majority of our existing Colleges have no prestige of their own whatever, and little of that individuality which becomes a moral heirloom. So that there is no reason why a new College, with a distinctive character of its own, and drawing its members from classes likely to be more than commonly industrious, might not find itself almost immediately on a level, in every intellectual respect, with many of the older Colleges, if only it can offer sufficient prizes to retain in the ranks of its Undergraduates a fair share of ability.

3. For society, again, the comparison must be made not with Colleges of the highest social reputation, but with the common run of the Colleges which are now frequented by the less wealthy Undergraduates. The evidence before us goes to shew that a large proportion of the members of a new College would be drawn from precisely the same classes as those which now fill the Colleges to which we refer. There would be a sprinkling of the sons of wealthier men, who prefer for their sons a College where plain living and steady reading set the prevailing tone. There would be many fathers who have afforded with difficulty to send one son to one of the existing colleges, but whose whole family would feel the relief a diminished cost, or who, on the other hand, might be induced to send two or more sons to the University where now they would only send one. There are others, socially in no way inferior, who are kept aloof from us by the tone of indolent extravagance which is believed to prevail among us, even more than it really does; but who would be induced to send their sons to a place the whole genius of which would be antagonistic to the tone they deprecate.

In a word, it would be a great mistake to suppose that if such a College or Hall were established, it would be filled with men from one grade of society, or possessing one uniform scale of means. The size of the establishment is of course, in this matter as in others, a point of the first importance; and a new College or Hall containing 100 men, would comprise within its walls the elements of as good a society as a large number of the existing Colleges can offer. It must not be forgotten, moreover, that a body founded upon a distinct principle, and animated with a distinctive spirit, carries within itself a germ of life, and teaches a self-respect which will command the respect of others.

In our belief, therefore, the establishment of a new College or Hall, fulfils the conditions necessary for a sound extension of our University system. It will open the University to a class of men who now cannot enter; but without placing them by themselves, apart from the classes which now avail themselves of it. It will retain, we trust, in all essentials, the advantages—religious, intel-

lectual and social—of our existing collegiate system; while it may add a simplicity and an energy peculiarly its own.

We proceed to state in greater detail what, in our opinion, the proposed establishment should be.

We have spoken of a College or Hall; not because we think the difference immaterial, but because we believe that a collegiate endowment, though desirable, is not essential to the success of the plan. We propose, therefore, in the first instance, the erection of a Hall for 100 Undergraduates. We recommend—

1. That until a sufficient amount of endowment be obtained to make incorporation desirable, any property which may be given to the Hall be vested in Trustees, with whom shall rest the discretion of accepting or refusing any particular gift.

2. That the principal be a Clergyman of the Church of England, appointed by the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, and the Chancellor of the University, conjointly.

3. That the Principal be expected to take part in the instruction, and especially in the Theological lectures.

4. That the Tutors be Clergymen of the Church of England, and shall assist the Principal in the general instruction and in the religious and moral discipline of their pupils; additional lectures being appointed, if necessary, for special branches of study.

5. That the charge for tuition be £4.; for furnished rooms £3.; for battels £10. a term—Easter and Act terms to count as one; making £51 per annum. The payments for each term to be made in advance. In the battels would be included breakfast, plain luncheon, dinner, attendance, and the general lighting of the College.

6. That out of the room rents one-third be reserved for a furniture repair and insurance fund; the rest, subject to rates and taxes, to form the endowment of the Principal, until an endowment be provided from other sources.

7. That breakfast and dinner be in common, the Principal and the Tutors being for the most part present at those meals.

8. That all reasonable extras, whether for entertainment or otherwise, be supplied within the walls, but only up to a stated limit; and that large parties be discouraged.

9. That there be a College reading-room, with library and newspapers, to which all the members shall have access, and where tea or coffee might be called for in the evening.

10. That if any member contract debts beyond a certain amount, or be found to be forming expensive habits, he shall be requested to remove to some other College or Hall, as not being of the character for which this foundation is instituted.

11. That if the funds permit, additional rooms be built, in order to allow a certain number of Undergraduates and Bachelors of Arts to remain within the walls for a limited number of years beyond their statutable residence, for the purposes of study. This is recommended on the double ground of economy to the senior men, and of the importance of keeping them in a position where their influence may bear freely on their juniors. If the rooms were charged to these senior members at a somewhat higher rate, say at £4 a term, they might be expected, in a carefully planned building, to pay a fair interest upon the cost of their erection, and so be no burden to the establishment.

12. That every facility be given to members to remain in residence during the Vacations, paying at the same rate, if found possible, as in Term.

If, however, it be desired to establish such a College or Hall as we have described, it remains to be considered by what means the end can be accomplished.

We are satisfied that it is useless to look to any of the existing Colleges for assistance in any project of the kind.

1. Because thorough independence is an indispensable condition to the real success of our project. And this, with all its springs of power, will be wanting to an establishment which is the dependent creation of any existing foundation or group of allied foundations.

2. Because, even if desirable, such assistance is not to be had. It implies the possession on the part of Colleges of an amount of superfluous wealth, which in fact does not exist. A small surplus income, in any College, would naturally be devoted to the improvement and enlargement of its buildings, to the foundations of prizes and exhibitions, or to other similar objects. In some of these ways assistance may be given to a number of poorer men. And it will no doubt be found that if both roads are laid open to them, some of our poorer students will prefer the shelter and support of the older Colleges, others the independence of the new. But it is only with a large and rapid increase of income that a College could be expected to embark on a scheme such as we design. And such a large increase of income will certainly not accrue to any College within the present generation. We have sent a circular, of which a copy is appended, to the Head and Bursar of every College in Oxford. The inquiry extended, as will be seen, only to the next

twenty years; but we are satisfied, from the general tenor of the answers, that it might have been extended still further, without making much difference as to the substance of the reply. In every instance the answer is that little or no surplus income is expected within the period specified.

In point of fact, the idea of the enormous increase to be expected in the income of certain Colleges, an idea which seems to be prevalent even in the minds of some who ought to be well informed, is based on an estimate of the value of their property, which supposed that the system of beneficial leases should everywhere be at an end. The inference is perfectly just, that their income would then be largely increased; the error lies in the supposition that the present generation will reap the golden harvest.

It must be borne in mind, (1) that wherever a considerable accession of income could be foreseen ten years ago, it was carefully directed by the University Commissioners into their own prescribed channels; (2) and chiefly, that it is only by very slow degrees that an increase of income can be realised from running out the leases. Except in the case of a few Colleges, none of them very wealthy, and the circumstances of which are exceptional, it is only since the passing of the College Leases Act in 1858 that the means have been provided for running out leases upon a large scale; and it is from this source alone that a great increase of income can ever be expected.

Under these circumstances, the only course open is to ask from private subscriptions such money as may be wanted. The importance of the experiment to the future of the education of England, and the strong assurances which we have received that such a foundation as we propose will, if properly carried out, answer, the end we have in view, justify a hope that such an appeal would not be made in vain.

With money sufficient for the purchase of a site and the erection of adequate buildings, we are satisfied that the work might be begun at once. For an endowment the Hall could not afford to wait; if the result is what we expect, it would not long be wanting. In no case would it be necessary, though it would certainly be of great value, both in order to raise the intellectual tone, and to reduce the expenses to a lower point than we have ventured to contemplate. (Signed),

W. W. SHIRLEY,
Chairman.
MONTAGUE BERNARD.
R. GRESWELL.
J. W. BURGON.

E. B. PUSEY.
H. L. MANSEL.
MONTAGU BURROWS.
J. RIDDELL.
W. INCE.

2. THE BATTLE OF EDUCATION IN HOLLAND.

Up to the commencement of the present century Holland had no general system of popular instruction. The Catholics possessed hardly any schools, the Protestants but few, and those few very imperfect. The first impulse towards educational progress was given by a private Association, founded in 1784, whose object was to diffuse enlightenment among the lower classes by publishing good and cheap elementary books, founding public libraries, and establishing model schools. Finally it organised a committee of enquiry upon the best methods of public instruction, and in 1797 the city of Amsterdam adopted the plan of reform recommended by this Society.

In 1801, the celebrated Orientalist, Van der Palm, who was then Minister of public instruction, framed a measure which, slightly modified, became in 1806 the basis of a new organization. The success which the law of 1806 obtained is attributed to its two main provisions; first, the establishment of a complete system of inspection for schools, and a rigorous examination for the teachers; and, secondly, the introduction of the entirely new fundamental principle of secular schools. The terms of this enactment were in effect these:—That the instruction was to be so organised as to further the acquirement of useful knowledge side by side with the development of the intellectual faculties, at the same time that the children were trained to the exercise of all the Christian virtues. That the children were not to be deprived of instruction in the dogmatic teaching of the communion to which they belonged, but that such instruction was not to be committed to the charge of the schoolmaster.

The ministers of the several religious bodies gladly accepted this condition, and the principle of secular schools was thenceforward established, under the belief that it would not only secure the cultivation of tolerance and charity, but was the only system under which dogmatic religion was likely to be adequately taught.

M. Van der Ende, the chief promoter of the law of 1806, thus describes its spirit:—"These elementary schools ought to be Christian, but neither Protestant nor Catholic. They ought to belong to no communion in particular, and to inculcate no positive dogma. The national school ought to be for the whole people."

M. Cousin, who visited these schools in 1836, found them realizing this design. In the great schools at Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and the Hague he saw Jews, Catholics, and Protestants of all denominations sitting on the same benches, and receiving the same instruction. The teaching of dogma was strictly excluded.

The law of 1806 remained in force until 1857. About this time a revision of it became necessary, in order to bring it into harmony with the constitution of 1848, which had proclaimed freedom of education. The principle of secular schools had then to sustain a violent attack. From the time that the Catholics had obtained equality of rights they had employed their influence in endeavouring to banish religious instruction from the schools more completely than before, and they had succeeded in getting the Bible proscribed even as a reading-book. But the more completely they succeeded in enforcing a rigorous observance of the terms of the law of 1806, the greater became the uneasiness of the ultra-Protestants. Unable to contest the right of the Catholics to insist upon the instruction in a comprehensive* school being purely secular, they proceeded to attack the principle itself of a comprehensive school. They dubbed such schools "atheistical," "focuses of irreligion or immorality," and freely prophesied the annihilation through them of all national virtue. They excited, moreover, against the law of 1806 the fears of the Protestants, already alarmed at the fancied progress of the Roman Church. They were anxious, at any price, to introduce a "denominational" system, under which each religious communion might have its special school.

In 1857 the question of the revision of the law was fully discussed by the Dutch Chambers. The debate was marked by the practical good sense of Dutchmen, animated by much earnest religious feeling, and a large and liberal spirit of tolerance. It was granted that it was of the very highest importance to teach morality and religion as moving forces without which progress in civilization was impossible; but the intervention of the Church in the domain of the school was steadily resisted, and it was finally ruled that all instruction in dogma should be left to the ministers of the several communions, while the culture of the social virtues should be entrusted to the schoolmaster under the control of the civil power.

The law proposed by the Government laid it down as the duty of the schoolmaster to develop the germs of the social and Christian virtues. The last phrase the Catholics opposed on the ground that it might be made to authorise the introduction of religious dogma. The Protestants, on the contrary, were for maintaining it, as expressing the wishes of the majority in the nation. By the Jews, strange as it may seem, the presence of the word "Christian" was cordially welcomed. They saw in this provision, as it was defined by the Government, simply a design to secure the teaching of the high and pure morality which Christianity (as they said) brought with it, and which those who were not Christians could no less cordially accept, as being no other than that universal morality which appealed to every right conscience and every enlightened spirit.

The ultra-Protestant party had strongly advocated a denominational system. M. Van der Brugghen attempted to show them that divergence of religious opinion sprang chiefly from men having fundamentally different conceptions of what constituted religion. That for some Christianity meant Christian dogma, and that therefore they laid the chief stress upon articles of faith and the letter of revealed truth; but that in the minds of others Christianity was not so much a matter of the understanding, as an object of feeling and conscience. That in every Christian nation, notwithstanding the great speculative differences in opinion, there was a common basis of religious belief and moral feeling, and that it was upon this basis that secular instruction ought to build.

The liberal Protestants and the moderate Catholics united their strength, and the law was carried. Its principal provisions were as follows:—That in every electoral district elementary instruction was to be given in public schools, which should be provided in sufficient number for the wants of the population, and that children belonging to all communions were to be admitted without distinction. That the instruction was to aim at developing the social and Christian virtues. That the teachers were to abstain from teaching, doing, or permitting anything which might wound the religious sensibilities of the communions to which the children might belong. That the teaching of religion was left to be supplied by the different communions, to facilitate which the school premises were to be kept open out of school hours for the use of the pupils.

A competent judge, who has lately visited the schools of the Netherlands, reports that the methods are good, the masters devoted to their useful mission, and the results obtained eminently satisfactory, the law meeting with no serious opposition even in the Catholic provinces.

* We use this term to denote a school which comprehends all denominations.

The parliament of Holland has not as yet made education compulsory, although a great number of its members have strongly advocated it. In the province of Gröningen, however, one of the most enlightened in the kingdom, a compulsory enactment has been some years in force. It was noticed that in the country schools especially the number of scholars was continually diminishing, and, therefore, in 1839 a regulation was put in force, which obliged every father of a family to pay the usual school fee for every child between the ages of 6 and 12, whether he was attending school or not, unless it could be shown that he was receiving instruction either at home or in a private school. The effect of this measure was that the number of children at school in this province increased in a few years from 20,000 to 30,000.*

From the returns of 1864, it appears that there were then in the Netherlands 3,608 elementary schools, of which 2,549 were public schools, and 1,059 private, or one school to every 100 of population. The total number of scholars amounted to 391,407, of whom 208,735 were boys and 182,672 girls, or 10 scholars to every 100 of population. Rather more than a third were receiving a gratuitous education. The schools, as in America, are mixed, and it is reported that the system of educating boys and girls in the same school is found to work most satisfactorily.—*English Papers for the Schoolmaster.*

II. Papers on Agricultural Education.

1. AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS AND EDUCATION.

At a recent meeting of the Craven Agricultural Society, Lord Frederick Cavendish, M.P., spoke as follows:—

"The price of labour has been gradually going up every month in the iron and coal districts, and everywhere else. The same process has at length reached the Agricultural Labourer. Serious as it may be to the farmer, to pay increased wages, I cannot say that I think there is the smallest chance of the rise in wages being stopped. I think it is far more likely that that rise will go on increasing. But it is not high wages alone that will improve the condition of the labourer. Too often they do not mean improved comfort of the family or improved homes, but simply more money to be spent in drinking. If we want our labourers to have an inducement to stay at home, instead of going abroad, we must alter this, and it can be done by one means alone, an improved education. If you get intelligent labourers to whom you can safely entrust valuable machines, you can, while paying more to each man, obtain more for your money. Therefore I say that, alike to the farmer and alike to the labourer, this question of a really good education is one demanding your most serious attention. Education amongst Agricultural Labourers has advanced, but is yet, I must consider, in an unsatisfactory condition, for there are but few labourers who can afford to keep their children at school beyond the age of twelve, for they must be earning something. I quite allow it. But how are we to meet this difficulty? The more I think of it, the more does it seem to me to be the case, that the only manner of dealing with this question is to extend to Agricultural Labourers the system of the Factory Acts. By them half the time of the child up to a certain age is spent in productive labour, and half in school. Now I see no reason on principle why that which has been extended to other labourers should not be extended to the Agricultural Labourers. I lay down no particular scheme; but somehow or other you may enact that no man shall employ young children at the cost of the degradation of their minds and bodies. Therefore, I hope that soon farmers—and they are the right people to commence with the subject—will consider this, and will propose some satisfactory scheme. In this way, with intelligent labourers, not used merely as brute beasts to do work, but as superintending and directing the various forces which nature has provided so amply, and which have been so largely utilised by science, we shall soon see that high farming and good farming does not merely mean high rents for landlords and good profits for tenants, but also the well-being of the labourer."—*Papers for the School Masters.*

2. AGRICULTURAL PROGRESS IN UPPER CANADA.

From the recent Address of the President of the Agricultural Association in Upper Canada, we make the following extracts:—

"Next to the blessing of peace, I might mention the fostering care of the legislature, as exemplified in their annual grants to this and kindred societies throughout the country, and in their late endeavours to introduce and extend the cultivation of flax. The growth of the population, ever adding as it does to the working energy of our country, had tended in no small degree to the increase of agri-

* A regulation to the same effect has been in force since 1530, in the province of Drenth, and in that of Ober-Yssel since 1566. Canada has lately adopted a like measure, with the greatest success.

cultural wealth, while the railways and public highways by facilitating the transmission of goods to market, benefit largely the farmers in the more remote settlements. The intelligence of a people is also a most important mean toward this end; and our common school system of education, in its steady advance, and in the cheapness with which a young farmer may now acquire much theoretical and scientific knowledge, has added greatly to this progress. The same has been the effect of the press, by means of which instructive articles on agriculture and commerce are daily circulated and read by our people. Lastly science has done its part in helping us. It is true that science, in its application to the farming interest, is slower in its effects than when applied to the manufacturing. The best mechanism of scientific research is expensive, and the wealth of the manufacturer generally enables him at once to avail himself of it, while the smaller available resources of the farmer often preclude him for procuring many a machine which would prove of great advantage. Nevertheless, science has been laid hold of by the Canadian farmer, and many are the appliances now, by which at little expense compared to years gone by the soil can be made to yield its fruits. A great deal might be done by our government in the establishment of agricultural schools. Such schools in Ireland, under the supervision of the Board of National Education, are among the valuable means that have produced in that country the present advancement in farming. These Irish schools are preparatory to a higher institution, at which young men, generally the sons of farmers, are taught at a cheap rate the usual branches of a sound English education, as also book-keeping, land-surveying, levelling, mapping, animal and vegetable physiology, botany, geology, chemistry, with practical agriculture, and horticulture—there being attached to the institution a farm, on which the practice of agriculture in its most improved forms is pointed out. In this country generally there is little knowledge of scientific farming, and often even by the farmer very little interest taken in the occupation.

III. Papers on Industry and Science.

1. PROGRESS OF MANUFACTURING IN CANADA.

The progress which Canada has made in Manufacturing of late years, is exceedingly satisfactory. It must therefore give pleasure to every patriotic citizen of Canada to know that for several years past the extent and variety of our manufactures have been rapidly increasing, and that the good work still goes rapidly on.

The manufacture of woollen, cotton and linen fabrics deserves early mention, for they are now made to a large extent among us. The greatest development has taken place in woollens, most successful establishments now being found in all parts of the country. The larger Manufactories in Upper Canada, such as those at Almonte, Cobourg, Galt, and Hespeler, are a credit to the industry of the Province, and from the finest tweeds to the coarsest homespun, they can compete favourably with the imported article, either as regards suitability, durability or cheapness. So successful has this branch of manufacturing been, that last year we sold large quantities of tweeds to the Americans, and if it were not for their enormous tariff, they would be steady purchasers in our markets. As far back as 1861, according to the census returns, about \$1,250,000 of woollen were annually manufactured. Besides cloths, at Toronto, Ancaster, Sherbrooke, and elsewhere, most excellent woollen under clothing is now being turned out. The largest Manufactory of this kind, however, is that of Randall and Farr, of Hespeler, at which there is made, besides shirts, drawers, socks, &c., some fine articles for ladies' wear, such as nubias or clouds. There is room for a larger development in this particular part of the woollen business, and it is to be hoped some of our enterprising capitalists will not leave so inviting a field long unoccupied. We believe there is no establishment in Canada engaged in worsted goods. This is to be regretted. There can be no doubt that, although costly, such an establishment would pay handsomely. Such Mills have been successful in the United States, and raising abundance of long wools as we do, any person who enters into the business with sufficient capital, energy and enterprise, would be sure to reap a rich reward. A manufactory for worsted goods has been spoken of in several manufacturing towns—but, so far as we know, none has yet been commenced. Who will act as pioneer?

Our progress in cotton and linens has not been so great as in woollen, but during the past five years rapid advancement has been made. This remark is particularly true as regards linen goods. A few years since, we had not only no flax manufactories, but scarcely a ton of flax was grown by our farmers. Now, flax has become one of our most profitable crops, scutching mills are to be found in every well-settled locality, whilst several extensive linen mills are in successful operation. Messrs. Elliott, Hunt & Stephen, of Preston, Gooderham and Worts of Streetsville, and Ferine Brothers of

Dover, are now making capital linens, towellings, bagging, cordage, etc. At the recent Upper Canada Exhibition, samples of these linen goods were shown, and frequent were the expressions of surprise and delight that we could now work up our home grown flax into such excellent and beautiful articles. Our principal cotton mills are situated in Dundas, Thorold, Hastings County, and this city. We may mention here, that there is also a successful cotton factory in St. John's, New Brunswick. The proprietors are Park and Son, who commenced operations in 1861. Cotton cloths, yarn, and batting are made by our mills to a considerable extent, and now that the cotton crop of the Southern States is beginning to increase again, we may reasonably expect that the goods which Canada requires will be fully supplied by our own workmen.

Large sums were wont to be annually spent by Canada abroad for machinery of different kinds. Machinery for mills, and even agricultural machinery, we had to go over to Brother Jonathan's dominions to procure. Thanks to a moderate Legislative encouragement—now, unfortunately, partly taken off—the Province abounds in machine shops, which can supply nearly all our wants. Besides the extensive works of Messrs. Morland, Watson & Co., Frothingham & Workman, Mr. George Brush, John McDougall & Co., and other well-known establishments in Montreal and vicinity, there are those of McGee & Hamilton, Toronto; Goldie, McCulloch & Co., Galt; the Canadian Engine and Machinery Company, Kingston; Gartshore & Co., Dundas; Ganson, Waterhouse & Co., Brantford; Hall & Co., Oshawa, and many others of equal merit. In 1861 we made agricultural implements alone to the value of \$723,220. We hope the day is not distant when we will buy no machinery from the United States which we can profitably make ourselves.

Among many successful branches of manufactures which call for mention at our hands, are the following: Tobacco and cigars, axes and other edge tools, glass and wooden-ware, soap and candles, paper, cards, and envelopes, starch, locks and nails, &c. The effect of Legislative encouragement in promoting industrial pursuits, has been well illustrated in the case of tobacco manufacturers. As if by magic, several large factories have sprung up, giving employment to a considerable number of both men and women. The existence of this branch of industry in our midst is directly attributable to the duties imposed on foreign tobacco and cigars by the tariffs of '58 and '59. As early as 1861, there were 31 factories in existence, whose produce amounted to \$354,586 during the twelve months.

Our Provincial paper market is now about wholly supplied by Canadian manufacturers. The principal mills are those owned by Messrs. A. Buntin & Co., situated at the head of the Beauharnois Canal. This paper-mill, or, more accurately speaking, these two mills, afford remunerative employment to some hundred and forty workmen. They are furnished with the most improved modern machinery, and are capable of producing paper of every description—writing, printing, coloured and wrapping. The demand upon the productive power of these mills is very large—still it is supplied with facility, and most of the journals of both sections of the Province are furnished with paper from the establishment. In addition to the manufacture of all descriptions of paper, this firm is engaged in the production of the same material for the making of shirt collars, a branch of industry which is successfully carried on by a house in this city. The manufacture of all classes of envelopes is also carried on extensively at these works. The machinery employed in this branch of the business is capable of turning out about half a million of envelopes a week. In addition to these are the mills of Messrs. Angus & Logan, of this city; of Messrs. Barber, at Georgetown, and Messrs. Taylor Bros., Toronto.

At Gananoque, Galt, and elsewhere, edge tools, waggon springs, and hand presses are produced of first-class quality, whilst this city has become noted for its glass-ware, nails, spikes, springs, and similar articles. There is still room for progress in all these departments of industry, but there is much cause for congratulation at the steady advancement which takes place from year to year.

Among new manufacturing enterprises into which our people are entering, are several well worthy of attention. Among these we give a prominent place to cheese factories. It is a singular fact that, up to this time, we have imported largely of cheese from the United States. This anomalous state of things is fast disappearing, for throughout Western Canada, in the Eastern Townships, and elsewhere, the production of cheese is being entered upon with great energy and spirit. One of the most successful factories is situated near Ingersoll, C.W., and its proprietors showed its capacity at the Provincial Exhibition at Toronto, by exhibiting a monster cheese, weighing no less than 7,000 lbs. ! We understand it is to be sent to the Paris Exhibition. In Toronto and Hamilton two large establishments for manufacturing pork into bacon, have been for some time doing a large business. We believe they ship to Britain, and handsome profits are made. At other places besides these

two cities, such factories would be profitable; being at the head of ocean navigation, Montreal appears to us an admirable point for commencing one. Besides these, we hear of new manufactories for making bent stuff for carriages and waggons, platform and counter scales, iron safes, looking-glasses, glnes, and wire-work of various kinds. Paper collars are now being made in Montreal and in Galt; the manufacture of Indiarubber combs has recently begun in Toronto, and at Dundas a screw manufactory lately commenced business. No little enterprise is at present being manifested by our citizens in taking up new trades which can be rendered profitable. This is a gratifying "sign of the times," and bids us hope that Canada may yet become as important as a manufacturing country as it now is as an agricultural one.—*Montreal Transcript*.

2. COMPOSITION OF THE PYRAMIDS.

Professor Unger has lately obtained some tiles from the well-known pyramids of Dashur, the building of which dates between 3300 and 3400 B.C. These, like all the Egyptian bricks, have been made with an addition of desert sand, and chopped straw, in order to give them greater cohesion and durability. Seeds of various plants, animal remains, and artificial products, were accidentally introduced with the materials used in the manufacture; and these bodies, encased in clay and secluded from the air have remained unaltered to the present time, and can be recognised distinctly. A careful examination shows the presence, at the remote period of the building of the pyramid, of five different cultivated plants, seven field weeds, and some local plants, together with several fresh-water mollusca, and remains of fishes and insects. Most of the organisms still occur in Egypt, and have remained unchanged. Besides the two cereals (wheat and barley), there were found the tef, the field pea, and the flax. (*Linum usitatissimum*), the last being, in all probability, employed as a food-plant as well as for textile purposes. Great interest attaches to the weeds, which belong to the commonest kinds, and have migrated with the cultivated plants, not only over all Europe, but over the greater part of the earth. Of artificial products there were found fragments of burnt bricks and earthen vessels, a small piece of linen thread, and one of woollen thread—all of which indicate a tolerably advanced civilization at the time of the building of the pyramid. Moreover, the condition in which all these objects—especially the chopped straw—occurred, proves that brick-making was really carried on in the manner stated by Herodotus, and described in Exodus v. 11.—*London Review*.

3. ANECDOTES OF THE MICROSCOPE.

The telescope, which resolves nebulae into stars, and stars into suns, which peoples the firmament with myriad worlds, is not more wonderful than the little microscope which reveals "the grand immensity of littleness." When it came into man's possession, it was as though a second Columbus had appeared, announcing the existence of a new world; and not one merely. The microscope reveals in a single drop of water a globe, peopled, according to Ehrenberg, with five hundred millions of living creatures, different from everything which man has seen before.—It shows us in every bit of clay or stone, every leaf, bud and flower, a world crowded with its busy multitudes. The substance of these animalcules is usually so transparent, that the internal structure is visible,—even the act of digestion can be watched, and the food traced from its mouth to its passage into the internal cavities. The eggs also can be seen within the bodies. Thus the microscope has silently overthrown man's theories for the explanation for vital phenomena, and has furnished materials for their true elucidation.

The microscope teaches man the structure of trees, and the uses they best serve in the affairs of life. By it he learns the elements entering into particular soils, and is enabled to supply those fertilizers necessary to the production of the desired crop. The accuracy with which the microscope detects counterfeit bills and forged manuscripts, adulterations in food and liquors, renders this instrument a valuable ally of justice.

In connection with this celebrated instrument, the following curious anecdote is related. Some years since in England, barrels containing gold dust were emptied of their precious contents and filled with sand. The party robbed not being entirely satisfied with the exchange, submitted the case to the microscopist, Ehrenberg. The latter, by examining with the microscope specimens of sand from the several stations on that part of the road traversed by the barrels, was enabled by the peculiarities of its appearance to designate the place at which the barrels had been filled. The officers of justice were thus put upon the right track, and the thieves captured.

In our own country, not many years since, a most curious and interesting case of murder was decided by this wonderful silent witness. The individual towards whom the whole circumstantial evidence was pointed as the guilty man, claimed that the blood-

stains found on a knife acknowledged to be his property, were from a lamb which he had killed the day before. The microscope was brought to bear upon the instrument by men known to be ignorant of the circumstances of the case. The blood-stains were not only found to be those of a human being, but the microscope revealed on the blade, what had been imperceptible to the naked eye, a secretion peculiar to the glands of the throat. Stranger still, it pointed to cotton fibres on the blade of the instrument. "The knife," said the microscopists in their report, "has been used in cutting through cotton into the neck of a human body." Now listen, and wonder at the power of this wonderful silent witness: The murdered man had been found with his throat cut through the neck band of his cotton shirt. The evidence was as conclusive as though a voice from the clouds had proclaimed in tones of thunder: "Thou art the man."

A few years ago, a man under trial for murder in Western New York asserted that blood-stains on an axe found in his possession were from a dog which he had killed. The case was referred to Prof. Hadley, of Buffalo, who was purposely kept in ignorance of the circumstances.—Submitting the blood stains to the microscopic inspection, he decided that they were from a dog, thus confirming the poor man's testimony.

You remember how you were startled, a few years since, by a voice from the scientific world, claiming that the microscope could detect the image of the murderer on the retina of the victim's eye, thus referring the matter to a witness that cannot be bribed—to a judge that would not hesitate to condemn the duke in the heart of his duchy, or the king in his purple.

The microscope is a peace maker, a settler of disputes. Some hundred years since, it was asserted by a learned savant of France, in contradiction to history and tradition, that the wrappings of the Egyptian mummies were of cotton. From this sprang a curious and voluminous discussion pro and con. In the midst of these philisophical discussions, some man conceived the idea of appealing to the microscope, when the question was forever settled. It was then discovered that the fibres of the cotton was composed of transparent tubes, while those of the flax were jointed like cane. The fibre of the mummy cloths were shown to be jointed as in the flax of the present day.

IV. Papers on Practical Education.

1. ADVANTAGE OF A PUBLIC EDUCATION.

The good effects and great utility of early instruction are universally allowed; but we often meet with a difference of opinion, whether public or private education is the most beneficial. This subject has employed the pens of many ingenious writers, ancient and modern; and although much has been said in recommendation of private tuition, as being best adapted to form youth to virtuous habits, yet it is certain that the various passions and affections of human nature, as they begin very early to exert and display themselves, will, if not authoritatively restrained and directed, have a fatal and unconquerable influence over the whole tenor of future life. The influence of parental affection and authority does not always succeed; and then propensities of self-will take so deep a root as never to be extirpated; and the youth, from indulgence, is too often made lastingly unhappy. Liberty unreasonably obtained is commonly intemperately used. Milton, in his "Treatise of Education," very elegantly says, "Come with me, and I will conduct you to a hill-side, where I will point out to you the right path of a virtuous and noble education; laborious, indeed, at the first ascent, but on every side so smooth, so green, so full of goodly prospect and melodious sounds, that the harp of Orpheus was not more charming."

In public schools, the nature and affections of the soul have the fairest exercise; equality is felt, friendships are formed, and literary improvement is pursued with most success; the powers are called forth into exertion from the influence of example, and idleness is avoided by the fear of disgrace and shame; and the careless and obstinate heart is led into willing obedience; and it is here youth are inspired with hopes of becoming worthy and distinguished members of society. Sir Joshua Reynolds, in his Discourses, says, that it is generally found that a youth more easily receives instruction from the companions of his studies, whose minds are nearly on a level with his own, than from those who are much his superiors; and it is from his equals only that he catches the fire of emulation, which will not a little contribute to his advancement. With proper guides to direct him, he travels through the most beautiful and fruitful regions of knowledge, the mind meanwhile gradually acquiring freedom, openness, and extent; and if he sometimes find the way difficult, it is beguiled by having fellow travellers, who keep an

even pace with him; for each light dispenses a brighter lustre by mixing its social rays with those of others.

"And thus the youth whom Education leads
Through Wisdom's paths, and Virtue's peaceful meads;
Though in his tender years he thoughtless play,
Nor think his flow'ry Spring will pass away;
Though trifling scenes and trifling toys amuse,
Yet still his course progressive he pursues:
Fresh streams of knowledge all their stores impart,
Wealth to his mind, and goodness to his heart;
The inspiring force of excellence confest,
Blest in himself he renders others blest."

A discerning youth perceives that courage, generosity, and gratitude, command the esteem and applause of all his companions; he cherishes, therefore, these qualities in his breast, and endeavors to connect himself in friendship with those who possess them. He sees, on the other hand, that meanness of spirit, ingratitude, and perfidy, are the objects of detestation. He shuns, therefore, those near him who display these odious qualities, and finds that the true sources of gratification are the respect and affection of his teachers. Here he is necessitated to decide and to act for himself: his reputation among his companions depends solely on his own conduct. This gradually strengthens his mind, inspires firmness and a certain manliness of character.

It is of great importance, as Quintilian observes, that those who are destined to occupy superior stations in society should enjoy the benefits of an enlarged and liberal education; that they should be furnished with every substantial and ornamental accomplishment; and that those who are intended for any particular profession or employment, should be principally directed to such studies as are appropriate to their future position; and, in every rank of life, an attention to the morals of youth should be a primary object; for it is by an amiable disposition, united with cultivated talents, that we secure the affection of our relatives, and the respect and esteem of the world. May we not therefore conclude, that a young man will most assuredly become wiser, and probably more virtuous, by public than by private education? For virtue flourishes in action and in trial. Accordingly, it has been the opinion of successful teachers, from Quintilian to Arnold, that young people attain to a better knowledge, both of themselves and the world, in free and populous schools, than when confined to private tuition in retired life, where we too often see contracted an awkward timidity, or an important self-conceit, for which there is no other apology than the want of experience. To advise a man, unaccustomed to the eyes of the multitude, to mount a tribunal without perturbation; or tell him whose life has passed in the shades of contemplation, that he must not be disconcerted in receiving or returning the compliments of a splendid assembly; is to reason, and to endeavor to communicate by precept, that which only time and habit can bestow.

These truths were poignantly felt by Cowper, who freely owns, in his Letters, "that the want of resolution and manly confidence was a severe check to his progress in life, and prevented his talents being called into action by a conspicuous and honourable appointment."—*W. M. Magazine.*

2. CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD COMMON SCHOOL TEACHER.

Communicated to the Journal of Education.

Never slovenly in his appearance; should keep the school house and the ground around it always clean and neat. A teacher certainly deserves to be much censured who neglects his duty in this respect. Is it not altogether likely he will be just as negligent in teaching and drilling his pupils? Also, should be free from all disgusting habits, and if possible from any deformities of body. Nothing should ever appear in a teacher's dress or manner which would lead his pupils or others to lightly esteem or secretly despise him.

Not austere. Should not make his scholars feel afraid to ask him questions; but on the contrary, should rather encourage them so to do. Kind and courteous to friends, enemies, parents, children, neighbors and all. Though politeness costs comparatively nothing, yet it is almost indispensable to a teacher's success. This characteristic will secure the esteem both of the ignorant and intelligent.

Cautious and sensible; possesses a good knowledge of human nature, especially that of children; knows when to praise and when to censure them; knows how to regulate their passions, affections, ambitions, &c.; and also how to manage the opinions, prejudices, &c., of more elderly persons. Works to obtain the good will of all, for "a good name is rather to be chosen than great riches."

At his school, either before or exactly at the time; never late, if there are any means of avoiding it. How can a teacher expect his pupils to be punctual when he himself is not on hand to open the school at the proper time.

Always active. While in school, keeping himself and his pupils constantly employed. Out of school, employing his time in such a manner as to prove a blessing to himself and others. In small schools there is every temptation to be indolent, but a conscientious teacher will (if the small number of his scholars cannot keep him constantly engaged) employ himself in gaining information which will be exclusively for the benefit of those under his charge.

Not only makes good rules but keeps them. Always conquers difficulties—dishonest boys and girls included. Bears with the children's obtuseness, and is patient in teaching. All teachers need perseverance, some, however, more than others, on account of the more discouragements he has to contend against. The scantiness of the furnishing of the school house, the smallness of the number of children who attend, the negligence and indifference of the parents to the interests of education, and the discontentment of others all tend to discourage them, but a good teacher will surmount these difficulties, and do ALL that he ought to do.

Knowledge equal to, and beyond, what his pupils need to know. A thorough understanding of the branches he is required to teach. Better for him not to attempt to teach any subject which he only partially knows than to fill the young mind with confused ideas which he himself is unable to clear away. Also, should be a diligent and studious reader of good and sound works. Scarcely any person can put vast reading to such a useful purpose as a good practical teacher. Almost every day he can illustrate and explain many things which he would be quite unable to do were he not an extensive reader.

Able to communicate his own knowledge to his pupils, so that they shall clearly understand him. Ability to keep up the attention of the scholars and make them love their studies. Skill to promote ambition in such a way as not to produce jealousy or hatred amongst themselves. Loves ORDER and keeps it. Though he had all the other qualifications, yet if he were not "apt to teach" he would be unsuccessful as a teacher.

One who has repented of his sins, given his heart to the Saviour, believed upon him and now loves and serves God. A moral teacher is better than a vicious one, a christian better than either. It is universally allowed that the character and disposition of the man almost entirely depend upon the influence exercised by the parents and teacher upon the child. How potent for good, then, must be the influence of the christian teacher upon the pupils of his school; His holy example will never be forgotten by them, and who knows but that it may be the means of leading many of them, either in their youth or in after years, to give their hearts to the Saviour who wept, and bled, and died for all?

J. S. ROSS.

Wallace, Oct. 22, 1866.

V. Papers on the English Language.

1. INTRICACIES OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

The construction of the English language must appear most formidable to a foreigner. One of them, looking at a picture of a number of vessels, said, "See what a flock of ships!" He was told that a flock of ships was called a fleet, and that a fleet of sheep was called a flock. And it was added, for his guidance in mastering the intricacies of our language, that "a flock of girls is called a bevy, that a bevy of wolves is called a pack, and a pack of thieves is called a gang, and a gang of angels is called a host, and a host of porpoises is called a shoal, and a shoal of buffaloes is called a herd, and a herd of children is called a troop, and a troop of partridges is called a covey, and a covey of beauties is called a galaxy, and a galaxy of ruffians is called a horde, and a horde of rubbish is called a heap, and a heap of oxen is called a drove, and a drove of blackguards is called a mob, and a mob of whales is called a school, and a school of worshippers is called a congregation, and a congregation of engineers is called a corps, and a corps of robbers is called a band, and a band of locusts is called a swarm, and a swarm of people is called a crowd."—*The Canadian Churchman.*

2. ON THE ORIGIN, AND ANALYSIS OF WORDS.

The following exposition of the *crude form* of teaching etymology is extracted from a paper upon this subject read at a recent meeting of the British Teachers' Association, by Mr. J. C. Curtis, B. A.

Those who are familiar with practical education need not be told that there is no subject in which the untrained and partially educated teacher more signally fails than in etymology. His attempt to analyze words and to explain their meanings is generally unsatisfactory, and too often is a signal failure; and this is due, in part, to the fact that our language contains a large number of words derived from classical sources. These words do not at once suggest their

signification to those unfamiliar with Latin and Greek. Had our language descended to us from the Anglo-Saxon without any material additions from the Latin, Greek, and French, the task of explaining words would have been greatly lightened, for many of them would have been compounds, and the children, knowing the meaning of the component parts, would have readily grasped the meaning of the whole word. Thus we should have had staff-craft (A. S. *stæf-cræft*), letter-craft for grammar; book-craft (*bóc-cræft*) for literature; rime-craft (*rîm-cræft*), number-craft for arithmetic; fiite-craft (*fîft-cræft*), contention-craft for logic; leech-craft (*læcc-cræft*) for the art of medicine; ship-craft (*scip-cræft*) for the art of navigation; earth-tilth (*eorthe-tilth*) for agriculture; oath-lian (*áth-loga*) for perjury; book-house (*bóc-hús*) for library; borough-speech (*burh-spræc*) for urbanity; death-wic (*deáth-wic*) for sepulchre.

Marsh reminds us that in abandoning some of the Saxon forms we have experienced a loss both in the beauty and force of our language. One group of very significant words began with the prefix *for*,—such as *forbled*, faint from bleeding; *fordo*, to ruin; *forwined*, dwindled away; *forfoughten*, tired with fighting; *forpined*, wasted away; *forwept*, weary with weeping. So the loss sustained was great when we exchanged *wanhope* for despair, and *wantrust* for jealousy or suspicion.

In our language we still preserve some compounds, such as thunderstorm, thundercloud, earthquake, handicraft, &c.; and as the separate elements are significant, they are among the most expressive words in our language. And there would have been no difficulty in constructing compound terms for scientific technicalities, such as bone-craft for osteology, and shell-craft for conchology. The German nomenclature is formed on this principle, and the words, therefore, present no difficulty; but as ours are usually taken from the Greek, it is necessary for us (would we know their exact etymological signification) to study to some extent Greek forms.

Our Latin derivatives come to us either directly from the Latin, or indirectly through the French. The latter, in many cases, have undergone considerable change, arising either from euphonic preferences or phonetic decay. The French preferred the *ch* to the sharp guttural *c* (for *c* was always hard in Latin): and thus we have L. *caro*, F. chair; L. *camera*, F. chambre, E. chamber; L. *cantus*, F. chant, E. chant; L. *capella*, F. chapelle, E. chapel; L. *caritas*, F. charité, E. charity; L. *carmen*, F. charme, E. charm; L. *castigare*, (O. F. *chastier*), F. *châtier*, E. chastise. L. *caballus*, F. cheval; L. *catena*, F. chaine, E. chain; L. *capitulum*, F. chapitre, E. chapter.

Again, the addition of the labial *b* is found after liquid labial *m*: as L. *numerare*, F. nombre, E. number; L. *camera*, F. chambre, E. chamber; L. *humilis*, F. and E. humble; L. *tremulare*, F. trembler, E. tremble; L. *simulare*, F. ssembler, E. (re)semble.

The tendency to contract words, which we have already referred to as quite natural, has operated largely in changing or modifying the forms of words. Thus L. *precari* becomes F. *prier* (*preari*), E. pray; L. *duplicare*, F. *doupler* (*dupliare*), E. double; L. *maritare*, F. *marier* (*mariare*), E. marry; L. *securus*, F. *sur* (*seurus*), E. sure; L. *regalis*, F. *royal* (*realis*), E. royal.

Another change was produced by the inability or the indisposition of the Celtic tribes to pronounce an initial *s* before a consonant; thus L. *stabilare* became O. F. *establi*, and M. F. *établir*, to establish; L. *status*, O. F. *estat*, M. F. *état*. In these and similar cases the English word was introduced before the French had reached its last stage.

Very many words in our language are derived immediately from the Latin; and these, as before remarked, present difficulty both in explaining the origin and the meaning. It appears to me that this difficulty would be much diminished if a more judicious method of deduction and analysis were employed. Both authors of grammars and teachers seem to assume, though quite unwarrantably, that our derivatives have been built up from the nominative case of the substantive and the adjective, and from the first person of the present tense of the verb. Sometimes the nominative and the genitive cases are given, without any reason assigned, as "*grex, gregis*, a flock." Sometimes a column is given of representatives, as, "*sedeo*, I sit, *sessum*, sat, *sed*, *sid*, *sess*, *sieg*," but no explanation is attempted in regard to their representatives. Now the crude-form method of teaching etymology is interesting and philosophical, and may, particularly with older pupils, cultivate valuable habits of comparison.

By a crude form is meant the base of all the forms actually employed,—*the naked word divested of all that is accidental*. The nominative case is a word, and something more. In its full and older form it always has a letter *s* at the end, which is no part of the true word, but is employed to show the relation that exists between that word and the other part of the sentence. So the *o* of the first person of the present indicative represents the pronoun *I*, and the *ere* or *re* the modification of meaning employed by the term "infinite."

It is very important that teachers should be careful in distinguishing between "related words" and "derived words,"—that is between words that come from the same source, and those which are

derived from another language. Thus dental is derived from *dent*, tooth; tooth is merely related to *dent*, both, no doubt, being modifications of some common word of the mother tongue of the Aryan race. It is worthy of notice that two words may be related to one another in which there may not be a single letter alike; as, *e. g.*, *prize*, a thing taken, and *hand*. Our word *prize* is a modification of the French *prize*, which is formed from *priz*, the past participle of *prendre*, to take. *Prendre* is derived from the Latin *prehendere*; but the root of *pre-hend-ere* is *hend*, *pre* being a prefix, and *ere* the infinitive ending. Thus we obtain the forms *hand* and *hend*, which are obviously nearly the same. It ought to be added that there was an obsolete Latin verb, *hend o*, and that the Greek *χαρδ-αο* is a sister word.—*Eng. Educational Record.*

VI. Papers on Meteorology, &c.

1. METEORIC SHOWER IN ENGLAND.

The meteoric shower, it seems, has not universally failed. In England there has been a grand display. The *New York Herald*, of Thursday, publishes the following special news by Atlantic Cable on the subject:—

GREENWICH OBSERVATORY, ENGLAND, }
November 14—6 A.M. }

The expected meteoric showers were observed last night. At nine o'clock a few meteors fell; at eleven o'clock they had increased in number and size, and between one and two o'clock this morning the maximum was reached. The night was clear and the stars were out in great numbers. The whole heavens were brilliantly illuminated.

The showers of meteors were of great beauty and brilliancy, and radiated from constellation Leo, near the star Gamma Leonis. Their direction was mostly from the east to the west. The paths of the meteors were from three to four degrees in the north. Near Ursa Major twenty or thirty were observed at one time, and crossing the zenith fifty or sixty more of unusual size and duration, the majority being larger than stars of the first magnitude. Several exceded from the vicinity of Jupiter; one, of immense dimensions, was coloured red, blue, green, orange and amber. Nearly all had trails of fire. Of two flaming from Leo at the same time, one crossed Beta Geminorum and the other Mars. Two more, one red, and the other of an oriental sapphire colour, crossed Alpha Orionis.

Some of the meteors burst forth in splendour; one, breaking behind the rising clouds, flashed like sheet lightning, and another of emerald hue burst near Eta Leonis at fifteen minutes after two o'clock, a.m., its trail of flame being visible for a minute and-a-half, and then faded away in brilliant nebulae.

At three, a.m., they commenced to diminish gradually, until, at the present moment, they are all, meteors and stars, fading away in the morning light.

We counted five thousand in one hour, nearly twelve thousand in all, with the naked eye.

2. THE METEORIC SHOWER.

Prof. Loomis, of Yale College, writes an interesting letter to a New York paper concerning the late expected shower of meteors. After explaining all that is known of the nature of meteors and aerolites, he says:—

"On Monday night, November 12, a company of observers here (Yale observatory) counted 696 shooting stars in 5 hours and 20 minutes, which is about four times the average number visible for the same period throughout the year. On Tuesday night, November 13, another company counted 881 shooting stars in five hours, which is five times the usual number. On Wednesday night the sky was overcast, so that no observations could be made. We conclude, then, that the number of shooting stars visible about November 13 was very remarkable. Nevertheless, this display is not to be compared with that of November 13, 1833, in which the number of meteors was variously estimated at from 10,000 to 30,000 per hour. The grand display, therefore, which it was supposed might occur this year has not been in the United States, or probably not in Europe, or it would have been announced to us by telegraph. It may have been witnessed in Asia or the Pacific Ocean, but if such had been the case it seems probable that the number visible in the United States would have been greater than it was. Professor Loomis states that the above telegram from the *N. Y. Herald*, purporting to have come from Greenwich, is evidently spurious, but the recent English papers contain a detailed description of a magnificent display, of which we shall give copious extracts in our next number.

A telegram from New York says that the steamer *Pioneer* returned to New London, Conn., on Wednesday night, from a six months' cruise in the Arctic Ocean after whales. She penetrated as far as the icebergs and communicated with Dr. Hall and party, who were looking for traces of Sir John Franklin's expedition, on July 26, at which time they were all well. The voyage was more successful than that of any other vessel in the same waters, and it has demonstrated the practicability of our whalers using steam power. The Officers of the *Pioneer* report that on the night of November 13 and the morning of the 14th, a splendid display of meteors was visible from the ship. The *Pioneer* at that time was between 30 and 40 miles southwest of Montauk Point.

The *English Intellectual Observer* gives some interesting information concerning meteoric showers, one of which occur during the present month:—

"Mr. Alexander Herschel recently gave a lecture at the Royal Institution, 'On the Shooting Stars of the years 1865-66, and on the Probability of the Cosmical Theory of their Origin.' He commenced by adverting to the probability established by Professor Newton, of Yale College, 'that in the current year, 1866, a prodigious flight of meteors, the most imposing of its kind, and visible over a large area of the earth's surface, will make its appearance—perhaps for the last time in the present century—either on the morning of the 13th or 14th of November.'

"The meteors should be especially looked for between midnight and sunrise, and may be expected in greatest abundance between three and four A.M. 'They proceed, with few exceptions, from a common centre in some part of the Constellation of Leo.'

"Mr. Herschel observes that 'between the 13th of October and the 12th of November, during the years from A.D. 903 to 1833, not less than thirteen great star showers have been recorded. They are separated from each other by the third part of a century, or by some multiple of this period; and are periodical reappearances of one grand meteoric shower, viz., that seen by Humboldt in 1799, and by Olmsted in 1833, the star shower expected to return in the present year, and known by the name of the 'great November shower.' Its contact with the earth takes place one day in the year at each of its principal returns.'

"According to the exact calculations of Professor Newton, 'the next passage of the earth through the centre of the meteoric group will take place two hours after sunrise at Greenwich on the morning of the 14th of November, 1866.' A watch on the morning of the 13th is recommended, 'as the moment of greatest brightness may fall one day before the predicted time.' On the 13th of November, 1865, first-class meteors were seen at Greenwich at the rate of 250 per hour, and the 'maximum display of the November meteors expected in 1866 is several hundred times greater than that observed at Greenwich on the 13th of November, 1865. Two hundred and forty thousand meteors are computed by Arago to have been visible above the horizon of Boston on the morning of the 13th of November, 1833.'

"The average height of shooting stars at the middle of their apparent paths is not quite sixty miles above the earth.

"Mr. Herschel points out a singular difference in the behaviour of shooting stars and aerolites, or meteoric stones. The meteoric stones most frequently fall after mid-day, between noon and nine p.m., while the shooting stars are most abundant after mid-night; and only one stone has been known to fall on the 10th of August or the 13th of November, when shooting stars are most numerous."

3. CLIMATIC CHANGES IN RUSSIA.

All changes are sudden and complete in Russia. Summer goes in a day, and winter comes. One may cross a river in a boat at night, and walk back on the ice in the morning. Doors and windows stand wide open in summer for a breath of cool air, but in the winter the cool air is barred out with double windows, triple doors, and heated stoves.—So in regard to clothing; thin linen summer habiliments are thrown aside in a day, and the reign of furs begins. Wheels are upon carriages of all sorts one day; snow comes during the night and the wheels vanish; in the morning nothing is seen but sledges. The transitions from class to class are of the same character. One class is of gentlemen and barons; the next step is to mousicks, peasant serfs, who live on black bread and salt, seasoned with sour cabbage and garlic; and who are covered with a dirty sheepskin instead of being clothed in ermine, sables and fine linen. Cronstadt is reached from Petersburg by steamers, in one week; in the next the traveller rides over the same water with three horses before him.

4. ABSTRACT OF MONTHLY METEOROLOGICAL RESULTS, compiled from the Returns of the daily observations at eight Grammar School Stations for SEPTEMBER, 1866.

OBSERVERS.—Barrie—Rev. W. F. Checkley, B.A.; Belleville—A. Burdon, Esq.; Hamilton—A. Macallum, Esq., M.A.; Pembroke—Alfred McClatchie, Esq., B.A.; Peterborough—Ivan O'Beirne, Esq.; Simcoe—Rev. J. G. Mulholland, M.A.; Stratford—C. J. Macgregor, Esq., M.A.; Windsor—A. McSween, Esq., M.A.

Table with columns: STATION, ELEVATION, North Longitude, West Longitude, Barometer at temperature of 32° Fahrenheit (Highest, Lowest, Range, Monthly Means), Temperature of the Air (Daily Range, High-Est., Low-Est., Monthly Range, Warm-Est Day, Cold-Est Day), Tension of Vapour (Monthly Means, 7 A.M., 1 P.M., 9 P.M., Mean).

* On Lake Simcoe. † Near Lake Ontario (on Bay of Quinte). ‡ On Lake Ontario. § On the Ottawa River. ¶ Close to Lake Erie. ** On the Detroit River. †† Inland Towns.

Table with columns: STATION, Humidity of Air, Winds, Number of Observations, Surface Current, Motion of Clouds, Rain, AURORAS, WHEN OBSERVED.

0 Velocity is estimated, 0 denoting calm or light air; 10 denoting very heavy hurricane. e 10 denotes that the sky is covered with clouds; 0 denotes that the sky is quite clear of clouds.

REMARKS.

Barrie.—On 10th, fog, 12th, at 4.25 p.m., violent hailstorm, with very high wind from W; aurora very bright. 14th, hail. 29th, fog. Storms of wind on 12th, 13th, 14th. Rain on 2nd, 7th, 8th, 11th, 12th, 13th, 16th, 17th, 19th, 20th, 21st, 22nd, 25th, 26th. BELLEVILLE.—On 1st, thunder, lightning and rain. High winds from S and W from the night of 11th to evening of 13th. On 12th, from 8 to 8.45 p.m., furious storm of wind and rain, with occasional peals of thunder. 14th, violent thunder storm, commenced at 5.30 p.m. and ended a few minutes after 6 p.m.; noise of peals terrific; lightning unusually vivid, rain fell fast, sky dark and gloomy; a short country from one to two miles in breadth, and in some places to depth of an inch, stones said to be of unusual size, wind N.W. 17th, between 3 and 4 a.m. some thunder in distance, with lightning while raining. 21st, between 3 and 4 a.m., some loud thunder and occasional lightning while raining. 28th, dense fog at 7 a.m., but soon cleared, again forming a little after sunset, continued till morning of 29th. Rain on 1st, 3rd, 5th, 7th, 8th, 11th, 12th, 14th, 16th, 17th, 20th, 21st, 25th, 26th.

SIMCOE.—On 1st. thunder storm, with lightning and heavy rain for 24 hours, from SW, calm. On 14th, lightning, thunder, and heavy rain. 15th, frost in morning. 16th, at night, lightning, thunder, and heavy rain. 22nd, hard frost in morning; minimum thermometer, 32°. 23rd and 24th, frost. 28th, fog. Rain on 1st, 2nd, 5th, 7th, 8th, 11th, 12th, 14th, 16th, 17th, 18th, 20th, 25th. Very heavy rain for 24 hours on 25th.

STRATFORD.—On 1st, at 8 20 a.m., thunder in SE; 7 40 p.m. lightning W—NE till 9 p.m. 12th, windy. 14th, at 1 30 p.m. distant thunder in NW, dense nimbi from W to E horizon fringed towards Z by cumuli moving from W to E, cumuli scattered along the rest of horizon, wind W, and velocity 2; at 1 40 p.m. rain began, wind W, velocity 8, nimbi covering nearly all the sky except from E to SW horizon, where cumuli were seen; at 1 42 p.m. hail, very heavy, stones small; at 1 45 p.m. lightning with thunder; at 1 46 p.m. hail ceased; at 2 p.m., wind lulled to velocity 5; at 2 40 p.m. rain ceased; at 3 30 p.m., wind NW, velocity 3; at 5 45 p.m., distant thunder again heard. 15th, frost; at 9 p.m. observed an arch of white light in the southern part of sky, extending from SE to W horizon. elevation at highest part about 45°, breadth of arch 16°, dark on upper edge; the light was similar to auroral light, and remained visible for half an hour. 16th, thunder, lightning and rain. 20th, high wind, E, from 9 30 a.m. to 4 p.m. 21st, hoar frost in the evening. 22nd, ice on the pools of water, first of season. 23rd, storm of wind. 26th, at 7 15 p.m., aerolite seen in S. 29th, frost. Fogs on 1st, 6th, 10th, 14th, 24th, 28th. Rain on 1st, 2nd, 4th, 7th, 8th, 11th, 12th, 14th, 16th, 17th, 18th, 19th, 20th, 21st, 24th, 25th, 26th. Continuous rain from 6 45 p.m. 24th to 5 a.m. of 26th; depth 2.3423 inches. The following is a comparative statement of rainfall at Stratford in September for seven years:—

September, 1860, 11 days	3.9915 inches.
" 1861, 15 "	2.9688 "
" 1862, 11 "	4.0103 "
" 1863, 7 "	1.8841 "
" 1864, 10 "	3.9274 "
" 1865, 9 "	3.1064 "
" 1866, 17 "	5.3225 "

The only month (since August, 1860) in which the rainfall exceeded that of September, 1866, was March, 1861, when rain and melted snow measured 5.3839 inches.

WINDSOR.—On 1st, lightning, thunder and rain. Meteors on 3rd, 14th and 28th from Z to SW. Meteor on 5th from Z to W. On 8th, lightning and rain; double rainbow observed in NE at 6 p.m.; wind N, dark cumulo strati, golden edged, passing rapidly from SW. 11th, lightning and rain. 12th, aurora at 9 p.m. for one hour, an arch with streamers, at 10 p.m. dark strati rose from N horizon, obscuring the sky. 15th, frost for the first time this season affected vegetation. 22nd, frost. 28th and 29th, remarkably heavy dews. Fog on 29th. Rain on 1st, 3rd, 4th, 7th, 8th, 10th, 11th, 13th, 15th, 16th, 17th, 18th, 19th, 20th, 21st, 24th, 25th, 26th. Harvest retarded by rain, but loss slight. Indian corn, near Detroit River, ripened, but in the interior considerably injured by frost. Month remarkable for a low temperature, with considerable variations; days sometimes warm, but nights cold.

5. THE WET WEATHER.

In England, they have had the same long period of wet weather that we have had in Canada. The *Christian World* has the following pertinent remarks upon the subject:—

Philosophers of the weather can write such pretty knowledge as this:—The rain we see descending was thawed for us out of the icebergs which have watched the Polar star for ages; and the lotus lilies have soaked from the Nile, and exhaled as vapor, snows that rested on the summit of the Alps." And also: "The atmosphere is a vast machine that is apparently tasked to its utmost, yet is always in order, and never breaks down; an engine which pumps our rivers up from the sea, and carries them through the clouds to their sources in the mountains. Air and water are the great agents of the sun in distributing his heat over the surface of the globe, cooling this climate and tempering that." But even Captain Maury, author of the marvellous theory of wind circuits, cannot tell us why we should have thousands of tons of water more than usual spilled over Europe (and especially the United Kingdom) this summer rather than other summers. Has the great southern oceanic cauldron, where during our winter and spring, the intense heat of a tropical sun has been manufacturing our rain, pumping up vapor to be condensed in the northern hemisphere—(for in our north temperate zone the annual mean rainfall is thirty-seven inches, while in the south only 26),—has this great cauldron been subject to stronger influences than usual? Perhaps it would be small practical satisfaction to know. We are really driven back from the strongholds of inductive philosophy to the simple fact of the Divine ordering; we must recognize here that "Circumstance, which is the will of God,"—a will which the majority of men deny and disown whenever they can, striving to imprison the Most High in His own laws; considering him as a God that is far off, and not a God that is at hand in the multiform affairs of His creatures. Yet inspiration tells that even the erratic "hail, snow, vapors, and stormy wind" are obedient to His impulses; they "fulfil His Word."

If we try to look at the bright side of our bad weather, we shall see the probability that it has largely aided in checking the advance of cholera. Had September been unusually close and sultry, as it was last year, there is no saying how the plague-germs might have ripened and diffused themselves through our cities. These chill torrents of rain have aided the sanitary inspectors not a little, sweeping both air and streets free from predisposing causes of disease. Again, it is not improbable that the past inclement season may originate a system for saving corn and hay by artificial drying, which may prove of incalculable value to future harvests. The leading newspapers have spoken about it. Improvements are often forced upon the world by calamities.

It does not seem hurtful to the votaries of science that they should learn that their boasted inductive philosophy cannot pierce "all mysteries and all knowledge." Before the every-day facts of the weather, the philosophers of Europe have been baffled. For the present, God has reserved to Himself this foreknowledge, and has hidden the links of law which doubtless bind cause and effect here, as elsewhere in His creation, from the keen eyes of learned men. Ocean has been spanned with a thin wire, which carries human thought from hemisphere to hemisphere; but not the most able electrician or meteorologist of them all can certainly say what weather will prevail to-morrow. It is as if to the proud boastings of modern philosophy were spoken the words, "Hitherto shalt thou come and no farther."

VII. Biographical Sketches.

No. 43.—J. B. E. DORION, ESQ., M.P.P.

The late Mr. Jean Baptiste Eric Dorion was the sixth of seven sons of the late Mr. P. A. Dorion, a member in the Lower Canada Legislature for Champlain previous to the Union Act, and a grandson, on the maternal side, of Mr. Bureau, M.P.P., in the same legislature for the County of St. Maurice. He was born at Ste. Anne de la Perade, in Sept., 1826, and was consequently in his fortieth year. Being descended from a family so closely connected with the legislature, his aspirations were early turned to politics, and in or about the year 1848, he, in concert with Mr. P. Blanchet and one or two other gentlemen of advanced political views, established *L'Avenir* newspaper in this city, which was always held to be the most uncompromising organ of the Rouge party in Canada. In 1857 he entered Parliament for Drummond and Arthabaska, which seat he held until 1857, when he was defeated, but was, however, again returned at last general election. Mr. Dorion was also editor of *Le Defricheur*, and a strong and influential advocate of the rights of the settlers, many of whom he induced to leave the French parishes along the river, and settle in the more fertile lands in the Eastern Townships. He was also one of the best stump speakers in the province, and a man of bold and uncompromising temperament, as also one of the most vigorous writers on the Rouge press—*Leader*.

No. 44.—THE VERY REV. JOHN H. McDONAGH, V.G.

It becomes our painful duty to announce the death of the Very Rev. J. H. McDonagh, late pastor of the Perth mission, and Vicar General of the diocese of Kingston. The sad event occurred on the morning of Wednesday, the 26th ulto., after an illness of some months' duration. The amiable and exemplary deceased was a native of the Archdiocese of Tuam, and made his studies in the College of St. Jarlath's. He was ordained, we believe, in 1834, and devoted himself to labor on a foreign mission. Perth, if we mistake not, was his first mission, where he spent thirty years of earnest zeal and ability, which won for him the affectionate regard of Catholics and Protestants alike. The death of the Very Rev. Vicar General McDonagh is deeply lamented by the inhabitants of Perth and the surrounding country, irrespective of creed. By his brethren in the priesthood his loss will be mourned as that of a faithful and prudent counsellor, a sincere and trustworthy friend. In his last hours, Father McDonagh had the consolation of being attended by his nephew, the Rev. Dr. Madden, of Port Hope, to whom he was much attached. His numerous friends in the Archdiocese of Tuam, and prominently amongst them, Archbishop Mac-Hale, by whom he was greatly esteemed, will learn with regret the premature demise of Vicar General McDonagh, who, but a few summers ago, was amongst them—the very impersonation of health and strength.—*Requiescat in pace.*—*Catholic Freeman*.

No. 45.—DEATH OF INVENTORS, LOWE AND SNIDER.

The English papers announce the death of Mr. James Lowe, the inventor of the screw propeller, and Mr. Snider, whose name has

been made famous in connection with breech-loading rifles. The death of the former was accidental, and of both sudden. Mr. Lowe, who resided in London, was on his way home, and was standing on the kerb of the footway in Blackfriars' road, preparatory to crossing the street, when a horse and cart coming at a rapid pace in a direction opposite to the one he was looking, caught him by the arm, swinging him into the roadway under the wheels, which passed over his chest, causing instantaneous death. The London *Times* of the 26th ult. says in reference to the other great inventor:—"Mr. Snider will trouble the war office no more. The poor man is dead. At the moment when the arsenals of the kingdom are ringing with the labor concentrated upon his invention, the inventor has expired in penury and affliction, without ever having touched a single sixpence of remuneration or profit. His solicitor now writes to apprise us that the department was really preparing to do something at the very minute that it became too late, and that if Mr. Snider could but have lived till this morning he might have heard of what was coming to him. Unfortunately he died on Thursday."

No. 46.—RECENT CANADIAN DEATHS.

MR. J. G. BEARD.—The remains were followed to their last resting place from his residence on Jarvis street, yesterday afternoon, by a large concourse of citizens. The deceased gentleman had resided for many years in this city and was universally respected and admired for his many manly virtues and business capacity. He was Mayor of the city in 1856, when that officer was chosen from amongst the aldermen, and he had also been an alderman for many years previously. He was also President of the Board of School Trustees for several years, and at the time when he was attacked by the sickness which carried him off, some two years ago, he occupied that position.—*Toronto Leader*.

ROBERT WIGMORE, ESQ.—We deeply regret to have to announce the decease of Mr. Wigmore, Lieutenant Colonel of the 3rd Battalion of the Peterborough Sedentary Militia, which occurred at his late residence, near Norwood, on Saturday last the 3rd instant. Deceased was a native of the City of Limerick, Ireland, and emigrated to this country in 1823, when he settled in the Township of Elizabethtown. In 1831, he removed to Dummer, at that time a wilderness, and was one of the first settlers in that township. He not only assisted largely in the improvement of that section of the country, but was a man of undoubted loyalty and warmly devoted to the success of the Militia Organization of the country. During 1837-8 he was one of those who promptly rushed to arms in defence of the Government, and ever since has devoted much time and attention to militia affairs. Under his auspices chiefly, the present Volunteer Infantry Company at Norwood was organized, and of this fine body of men he was Captain at the time of his decease. He was keenly alive to its success, and his latest public acts were directed towards procuring means wherewith to erect a Drill shed for its accommodation.—*Peterboro' Review*.

MR. C. N. TRIPP.—Very many in Ottawa became acquainted during the late Session of Parliament, with a person named Charles N. Tripp, who came here to urge the settlement of a disputed claim held by him to certain Enniskillen Oil lands, which he had purchased some years before. He succeeded in getting back some of these lands while here, or at least part payment for them, and again started back for Texas, where he was reported to be possessed of silver mines of great extent and richness. While at the Russell House here, he exhibited specimens of silver, some of the pieces weighing as much as five pounds. We have now received intelligence of his death at a hotel in New Orleans, which took place shortly after his arrival there. Tripp was a singular but inoffensive gentleman, and always full of great expectations. His death will be much lamented. Almost the last thing he did before leaving Canada, was to subscribe \$5 to the dinner to the Hon. J. A. Macdonald in Kingston, of whom he was a great admirer. He was a native of Schenectady, N. Y., whence he came to Canada some years ago, and was the first to predict what has now taken place respecting the oil regions of Enniskillen. He always had a penchant for mineralogy, and was fond of the roving life of an explorer. In 1853 and 1854 he roamed about Enniskillen and applied to the Crown Lands' Department from time to time for various lots of land there. He then proceeded to Quebec and showed his specimens of asphaltum or solidified oil from the surface, declaring there were oil springs below. He tried to get up a company with special privileges to dig for it, but he was laughed at as a dreamer, and regarded as little better than a bore by members and capitalists at that time—from whom he received the soubriquet of "old Asphalt." He failed then, but managed to raise money to pay the first instalment on his lands. It is now found that he had selected every lot of land on which successful wells have since been opened up. He plunged into the wilds of Texas, and was heard of no more. When

the oil fever broke out and application came to be made for these lands, they were all found standing in his name in the books of the department, with unpaid instalments long overdue. What he had paid was therefore, in most instances, forfeited, and the lands re-sold by auction. His family tried to save some of them, but absolute proof of his death could not be procured, nor authority obtained to administer on his estate. Meanwhile he was exploring the mineral lands of Louisiana and Texas, and securing the right to purchase valuable lands.

The war over, and direct communication established between the South and Canada, Tripp received news of oil speculations in Canada, and came northward to receive his rights if possible. To the surprise of everybody early last session he appeared suddenly among his old acquaintances of 1854. The greater part of his property was gone, but some of his claims remained good, and one of them he managed to sell for \$7,000, and took the money back with him to New Orleans to pay up instalments on his Southern lands. Our New Orleans contemporary says:—

"His death is, at this time, truly a serious calamity to the South, for he knew, practically, more about the mineral wealth of every Southern State than any other man; and at the time of his death he had just succeeded in making the pecuniary arrangements at the North, and was organizing companies to develop on a gigantic scale some of the wonderful, and heretofore unknown, mineral fields which he had discovered among the oil, copper, lead, zinc, and iron regions of Louisiana and Texas.—*Ottawa Citizen*.

MR. JOHN LITTLE.—We regret to have to announce the death of one of our oldest and most respected settlers in the County, John Little, Esq., of Mulmur, who was well known as "the father of the Township," its first settler, first postmaster and Clerk of the Division Court since its first establishment. He also at different periods occupied the position of Township Treasurer and Reeve of the Municipality. When he first entered Mulmur, nearly forty years ago, it was literally an untrodden wilderness, and the nearest settlement to the spot where he located himself was fifteen miles distant, and unapproachable except on foot. He made his entrance into the township with little property, save his axe; but he had a stout arm and willing mind for work, and soon hewed himself out a comfortable home and an independence.—*Barrie Northern Advance*.

MR. HUGH BYRES.—The old veterans of Canada are fast going to "that bourne whence no traveller returns." Lately the funeral of one of these veterans wending its way slowly through the streets of this city. The body that was being conveyed to its last earthly resting place, was all that remained of Hugh Byres, of Black Rapids, a man who, as bugler, sounded the charge at Lundy's Lane, the attack at Fort Niagara, and took part at the battle of Queenstown Heights, where the noble Brock fell fighting for his country. Nothing delighted the veteran loyalist, whose remains were on Saturday followed to the grave by a large number of friends and neighbors, so much, during his declining years, as recounting the incidents of his younger days. Though in declining years his loyal heart beat high, and his failing limbs gained strength as he heard and thought of the dastardly attempts upon Canada by the Fenians, and it was not without strong persuasion on the part of his friends that he could be induced not to enrol himself as a Volunteer and go forth once more to fight for the liberty and integrity of his country. The deceased had lived for upwards of half a century in Canada, and at the close of an eventful life, during which he had secured the esteem of very many, his remains were interred in the Roman Catholic cemetery here. May the spirit which animated these old veterans exist for ever, and become intensified by years, in the breasts of their descendants.—*Ottawa Citizen*.

VIII Papers on Places of Interest, etc.

1. THE RECOLLET CHURCH, MONTREAL.

SKETCH OF ITS HISTORY—WHO BUILT IT—WHO USED BY—ITS APPROACHING SALE.

The approaching sale, and probable demolition, of this old landmark in the history of the city will readily recall the period when the Catholics and Protestants alternately worshipped on Sundays within its walls, and the Elders of the present St. Gabriel Street Presbyterian Congregation (then houseless) on one occasion acknowledged the kindness of the Recollet Fathers by presenting them at the close of last century with "one box of candles, 56 lbs, at 8d;" and "one hhd. of Spanish wine at £6 0s 5d." The Recollet Church was built in or about the middle of the 18th century by the Monks of the order of Recollets, and, like many parish churches throughout the country, was once entirely built of rubble and masonry.

After the confiscation of their estates by the British Government the building fell into ruins, and the part fronting on Notre Dame street had to be taken down. This was in the early part of the present century, soon after which the Government exchanged the property (which was then of far greater depth and width than now, extending from Notre Dame street to Lemoine street in one direction, and from St. Peter to McGill in the other, and planted with venerable elms of great magnitude) from St. Helen's Island.—then owned by Baron Grant, the proprietor of the adjacent seigniory of Longueuil. The Baron seems to have made a good bargain by the transfer, for almost immediately after the transaction he sold several of the lots on St. Peter and Notre Dame Streets (the ground now occupied by Moss' stores) to the Hon. James Leslie, and the old church itself and one or two adjacent buildings to the Fabrique, who, it is said, therefor paid the then handsome sum of £4,500. The remainder of the property was laid out into lots and streets, one of which (Lemoine) was named after the Baroness' family. At this period (1817) the Fabrique were contemplating the erection of the present stately parish church, and soon after proceeded to repair the Recollet church. Eight years however elapsed before the work of restoration was completed. The old parish church, which then stood lengthwise in the middle of Notre Dame street, was, in the meantime, taken down, and its cut-stone front transferred to the Recollet church, the galleries and interior decorations being at the same time given to the Bonsecours church in St. Paul street. The date "1775" cut on the stone work above the principal entrance of Recollet Church is consequently apt to deceive with respect to the real age of the building. It was cut on the front of the old parish church in the year which it represents, but that church had been erected long previously,—in 1672. These repairs to the Recollet Church were finally completed in 1825, at which period the Rev. Messire Provost was appointed curé. The Irish residents in the communion of the church then attended it and continued to do so until St. Patrick's Church was completed. The other incumbents were the late Rev. Mr. Perrault and the Rev. Mr. Giband. Until within a few years the remains of many of the Recollet Fathers reposed within the vaults of the edifice they had assisted to erect and with them many of their grateful parishoners. The former were buried in the long woollen shrouds peculiar to the order, the materials of which still remained intact and perfect when the ghastly Fathers were recently removed to their new and last homes in the Cote des Neiges Cemetery. The memoirs and traditions of the past century speak in high terms of the zeal and piety of these old monks, who, by the self-abnegating rules of their order, were condemned to a life-long existence of pain and mortification, and self-condemned to live upon the alms of the charitable. In one sense it is to be regretted that the pecuniary necessities of the Fabrique are about to force such an old historical monument to the hammer; but the spirit of progress will take no note of this, especially as the site is undoubtedly one of the finest and most desirable ever put up to auction in the centre of a bustling city—and our capitalists are probably fully alive to its advantages and the productive uses it may be put to. Mr. Arnton will doubtless have a wealthy and influential audience when he puts it up for sale on the 15th instant.—*Montreal Gazette.*

2. THE ISLAND OF VALENTIA.

The Island of Valentia, the Irish Terminus of the Atlantic cable, is about 6,000 acres in extent. It has three proprietors, of whom the Knight of Kerry is the chief, the others being Trinity College, Dublin, and Col. Herbert of Muckcross.—The population is about 2,000; but although the Knight is a staunch Protestant, his co-religionists do not number more than 150. The harmony of this little community (says a correspondent of the *London Star*) is, however, undisturbed by religious discord. The old priest, who is now between 80 and 90 years of age, has had charge of the parish for half a century, and his watch-word has always been 'Peace.' The average value of land is about 15 shillings an acre. Much more of it is used for grazing purposes than for cultivation, the principal article manufactured being butter. Most of the cottages are simply hovels; but there is a very considerable number of a better class, and the peasantry have a well-fed, comfortable appearance. They owe much to the Knight, who spends nearly the whole of the income he derives from his property in improvements, and in giving employment to the people. He is regarded with a feudal reverence, tempered by modern manners. His traditional title gives him no precedence at court, but his ancient lineage really places him far before the mushroom creation of yesterday.—The late Knight, who was a protege of Lord Castlereagh and a distinguished politician, being once addressed as 'my lord' by an officious servitor, impatiently replied, 'Don't call me lord.—I don't wish to be anything of the kind.' Perhaps he remembered the Arab proverb, 'The dog when he has money must be called 'my lord the dog.' It is pleasant to be able to reconcile these relics of feudalism with the humanizing claims of modern civilization. It is pleasant also to find that the

Racoon has been here three months without discovering a single Fenian; and that although yesterday I saw the Fenian flag—the harp and the sun on a ground of green—hoisted on a skiff, this was done more in bravado than in earnest, and proves by its singularity that this imbecile form of disloyalty is altogether exceptional in Valentia and the adjacent mainland.

3. SKETCH OF HEART'S CONTENT.

The name given to the locality known as Heart's Content is by no means indicative of its real condition. The whole of Newfoundland is a dreary place at best, the extreme length of the island being 420 miles, and its area 36,000 square miles. First discovered in 1497 by John Cabot, and known as St John until 1583, the island was in that year named Newfoundland by Sir Humphrey Gilbert, though the point where Cabot landed still retained the name of St. John. The usual starting point for Heart's Content is Halifax, and from that point to Portugal Cove the trip is made in a lumbering coach, whose conveniences are none and whose charges are extortionate. Thus far the trip is confined to public conveyance; thence however, private enterprise must take the onus. There are no stages for their is ordinarily no travel. Nothing but a long hilly stretch of unbroken country connects the dirty Hamlet of Cabonear with the cramped and miserable settlement of Heart's Content. Once reached, Heart's Content is found to be a small coast settlement with no buildings worthy of note, and perhaps 700 inhabitants. Nothing in or of itself suggested its name nor secured its present prominence, but henceforth Heart's Content must have a name of historic interest, and stand side by side with the great names of the world, as it was selected as the American terminus of the international coil. The cable may break, the enterprise may be destined to failure and abandonment, but still Heart's Content must be noted.

To its bay the place is indebted for its future fame. Such a harbor must have a destiny. Like that at Acapulco, it would seem impossible for the Creator to fashion it by accident or without design. For purposes of ordinary commerce, it is and can be of no avail, for there are no avenues of trade here, but for the landing place of the cable, for the safe anchorage of great ships of war, whose protectorate may some day be invoked, for all purposes of tonnage and cableistic facility, this bay is simply superb. Should success attend the present enterprise, should the laid cable be enabled to do its duty, this place will become one of the curiosities of the hemisphere. It cannot fail to grow and become a great resort. As the seat of fashionable society during the Summer months it would be without a rival. The broad deep basin, which sleeps in perfect tranquility, leads directly from the little town. The place itself is surrounded by hills, abounding in trees and groves, and the harbor is some thirty miles from the former cable terminus.

The people there fish for a living, and eat fish for sustenance. Visitors, of whom there are many, now find no hotels and poor boarding houses, and the inhabitants are charging enormous rates for scanty and poor accommodations. Travellers also complain that the mosquitoes, or rather misquito-gnat, are most persistent biters and annoying musicians.

Such is Heart's Content. A better place could not have been chosen for the safe landing of the cable. Its advantages over the former selection are obvious, and so far as mere still deep water and a quiet basin are concerned, no skilled engineer could have so well devised a harbor as did the Great Architect of this.

4. THE RECONSTRUCTED MAP OF EUROPE.

The treaty signed at Prague between Prussia, Austria, Italy, and Bavaria, has materially altered the old boundaries of the map of Europe. Before the late war the appearance of Prussia on the map was that of an elongated and almost disjointed country. It was composed of the following Provinces and populations:

PRUSSIA BEFORE THE WAR.

Provinces.	Area in Square Miles.	Pop. in 1864
Silesia	15,762	3,510,706
Rhein	10,352	3,345,195
Prussia	25,063	3,014,595
Brandenburg	16,601	2,616,583
Saxony	9,700	2,043,965
Westphalia	7,819	1,666,581
Posen	11,401	1,523,729
Pomerania	12,294	1,437,365
Hohenzollern	443	64,958
Jande	5	1,573
Garrisons in Mayence, Frankfort and Luxemburg	—	28,869
Lunenburg (Duchy)	361	49,704
Total	108,771	19,304,843

Since the war the appearance of Prussia on the map has been much improved. It is more compact and connected, in consequence of the following duchies and kingdoms having been added to it by force of arms :

PRUSSIA AFTER THE WAR.

	Area in Square Miles.	Pop. in 1864.
Kingdom of Hanover	14,847	1,923,492
Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein.....	6,815	960,996
Grand Duchy of Mecklenberg.....	5,612	632,612
Electorate of Hesse Cassel	3,740	745,063
Landgraviate of Hesse-Homburg	106	27,374
Grand Duchy of Oldenburg	2,441	301,812
Duchy of Nassau	1,795	468,311
Duchy of Brunswick	1,531	293,388
Duchies of Saxe, &c.....	3,698	764,632
Minor principalities, together with a strip off the northern part of Bavaria, about	12,000	1,034,000
Total	42,594	7,171,680
Add old kingdom of Prussia	108,770	19,304,843
Grand Total	151,365	26,476,523

Thus it appears that more than ten new countries, so to speak, with an area of 32,582 square miles, and a population of 7,171,680 inhabitants, have been incorporated with Prussia by a campaign which lasted only about six weeks. Besides these material advantages, she is making Austria and the old German Confederation pay down in hard cash such large sums as will in a great measure cover the expenses of the war. Bismarck may well congratulate himself on such triumphant results. He has done more for his country than any man since the days of Frederick the Great. He has elevated her to a high position among European nations. The following table shows the standing of the great powers of Europe according to their extent of European territory and European populations :

	Area in Square Miles.	Pop. in 1863 or 1864.
Russia.....	2,162,216	66,898,484
France.....	211,100	37,472,732
Austria.....	235,235	31,711,157
Great Britain and Ireland.....	122,550	29,070,932
Prussia.....	151,355	26,476,523
Italy.....	122,788	25,268,879
Spain.....	176,671	15,752,607
Turkey.....	189,920	15,730,000
Sweden and Norway.....	292,440	4,762,274

Prussia, however, is not the only power which has gained by the war. Although worsted in every engagement with Austria, Italy yet comes out of the fight with Venetia, and a fair prospect of acquiring the Tyrol, with a combined population of 3,122,748, and an extent of territory of 20,676 square miles. Before the war the kingdom of Italy contained 25,268,879 inhabitants, and an area of 122,788 square miles. So that as it is most probable she will be reconstructed, she will embrace a total of 143,464 square miles and a population of 28,401,663 souls.

Of course quite a number of petty sovereigns have been deposed in this war. Foremost among them is George V. of Hanover, known in England as the Duke of Cumberland, and said to be a first cousin of our Queen. Then there are : Frederick Francis II. Grand Duke of Mecklenberg-Schwerin ; Frederick, Grand Duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz ; Frederick William I., Elector of Hesse-Cassel ; Ferdinand, Landgrave of Hesse-Homburg ; Nicholas, Grand Duke of Oldenburg ; Augustus, Duke of Nassau ; Augustus, Duke of Brunswick ; and Ernest, Duke of Saxe Cobourg, brother of our late Prince Consort.

The abolition of all these petty potentates, and the incorporation of their little territories into the powerful kingdom of Prussia, promises to be attended with good results, provided always that the people to be affected by the change are willing, and are not, in fact, reduced from independence to slavery. What will become of the dethroned and deposed ones it is hard to say. But it is by no means so hard to predict that the late revolutionary powers of Europe—Prussia and Italy—now that they have gained all that they wanted, will become very speedily eminently conservative in their policy, and in the views they will take of future European struggles and conflicts.—*London Prototype.*

IX. Educational Intelligence.

—UNIVERSITY OF TRINITY COLLEGE.—The annual Convocation of Trinity College took place in one of the rooms of that institution, Nov. 8th. The

attendance was large, the ladies, as usual on such pleasing occasions, predominating. The chair was occupied by the Hon. John Hillyard Cameron, Chancellor.

Degrees Conferred.—B. A.—Rev. Henry Wilson, Francis Checkley, George Irwin Taylor, Alfred Lindsay, William Wilson Holcroft, Rev. William Westney, Ralph W. Hindes, William Banfield Carey, Thomas F. Lewis Evans, John O'Rielly, Rev. William Grant, Thomas Charles Patteson, *ad eundem* from Merton College Oxford ; Rev. Mr. Morton, *ad eundem* from Lennoxville. M. A.—John Wells, Rev. Charles A. Wetherall, Rev. Mr. Morton, Rev. Featherstone L. Osler, *ad eundem* from St. Catherine's College Cambridge. D. C. L.—Robert A. Harrison, Charles J. Carroll, Henry B. Morphy.

Scholars.—George Mackenzie, from Rev. J. G. D. Mackenzie's school, Hamilton, Cameron and First foundation Scholarships, £45 R. Doherty (Brantford Grammar Schools), Bishop Strachan Scholarship of £30. T. W. Paterson (U. C. College), D. F. H. Wilkins (private tuition), equal—Dickson Scholarship, each £27 10s.

Matriculants.—G. A. Mackenzie, C. W. Ball, R. Doherty, T. W. Paterson, D. F. H. Wilkins, A. H. Coleman, A. E. Hagarty, G. Hamilton, A. J. Johnson, Rev. G. J. Low, A. N. Macnab, A. F. Matheson, E. F. Milbourne, E. Whitaker, Brown.

Prizes Presented.—Latin Essay, 1865, Rev. H. Wilson. Hamilton Memorial Prize, 1866, Rev. H. Wilson. Prince of Wales' Prize, 1865, Fletcher. The smallness of the prize list was occasioned by the fact that the annual examinations held usually in June, were deferred till Christmas, all the students of the College being with the Queen's Own, at Limeridge and Port Colborne.

The CHANCELLOR then offered a few observations relative to the progress and prospects of the college, which, he was glad to say, were in as satisfactory a condition as she had ever been. He believed that at no time since the year 1856 had there been a greater number of matriculants. He was gratified to state there was not a single room in the college vacant. They had also the fact that in the feeder of Trinity College, although not so highly favoured as the college in the west, there are no less than eight and forty students at present. Although, he said, as compared with the other school, it laboured under many disadvantages, yet he believed that in the character of the instruction, and the manner in which the young will be turned out, they will have no reason to regret their connection with it ; and although their scholars had been brought up in what he termed a more humble house, yet they would have quite as good if not better education than they could have received in the west. It was a great gratification that the school had turned out so successfully. It was a very satisfactory thing also, he said, to be enabled to state that their position in many respects was better this year than it has been for some time before, and that the number of inducements held out were also greater. This he proved by a contrast between 1865 and 1866, from which he argued that increased numbers would every year take advantage of the opportunities offered. In 1865, they found there were four foundation scholarships tenable for one year, one of £30, one of £25, and two of £20, open to all candidates of the the required age. In 1866, they found one of the value of £50, one of £45, and two of £30, with scholarships of the same value to be held during the second and third years, awarded according to the result of the June examination in each year. A scholarship of £25 per annum, tenable for three years, in the Arts course, is also open for the sons of clergymen while the Corporation has also provided that four bursaries shall be open every year, tenable from year to year, for a period not exceeding three years, of the value of £15 10s. per annum. Any student who shall have passed the matriculation examination, and shall have satisfied the Corporation that he cannot without the aid thus afforded, avail himself of the advantages of a University education, shall be eligible for a bursary, provided that he be not the holder of a scholarship. *Ceteris paribus*, the sons of clergymen to be preferred. He also expressed a hope that the medical branch which had been discontinued in consequence of their financial position some time ago, would be again resumed, and he had no doubt the beneficial effects of the statute lately passed, and which he explained would be fully taken advantage of, and that they would have that opportunity of holding out to their young men all the advantages they would obtain at any other institution. It was, he continued, a great satisfaction that the first scholarship had this year been taken by a young gentleman then present, Mr. McKenzie, who had been present at the conflict, where so many young men had been killed, and had himself received a wound, which, however, did not incapacitate him for study. The learned Chancellor afterwards adverted to the

necessity for a Convocation Hall, and trusted that they would be possessed of one, believing that no better appropriation of the funds at their disposal could be made. The proceedings closed by prayer and the singing of the national anthem, when the students gave three cheers for the Queen, three for the Bishop, the Chancellor, the Provost and the Bishop elect.—*Globe*.

— UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.—The Annual Convocation of the University of Toronto, and University College, was held on the 16th inst., in the Convocation Hall of the University Building. *Memorial Window*.—The President, in opening the convocation said, that previous to the regular order of the proceedings of convocation, there was a ceremony to be gone through with which claimed their special attention. He referred to the Memorial Window which had been erected in honor of the memory of those University students who were killed at Limeridge last June, while engaged in assisting in repelling a band of marauders, known as Fenians, who had invaded our soil. This window, said the learned President, which they were now about to unveil, had an interest and peculiarity attached to it which was unprecedented, and which arose out of circumstances that he hoped would never occur again. They were not intended to do honor to the memory of the aged, not for those who had closed a long life of usefulness, but for those who had been cut off before they had reached the prime of life, before they had arrived at the noon day of their existence, or before they were enabled to realize the sweetness of their early morn. They were for those who left their hearths and homes without a father's blessing, uncomforted by a mother's sweet voice, to go forth and pour out their life's blood on the soil they were protecting. It would be sufficient for him to say that they were in truth what was said of them on the inscription on the window, "*Eyregi Sunneque spei Adolescentes*." Of each of them he would state that if the Almighty had spared their lives they would then have been on that platform, probably receiving the highest honors that the University could have placed upon them. There was, he was happy to say, one other topic without which his remarks would have been incomplete, and that was, the solitary hope that they had formed those good and christian principles which prepared them for that transition from the seen to the unseen world. (Applause.) He would now call on the gentlemen he had selected, Messrs. Kingsford, Patton, and Vandermissen, to unveil the window. Before the next meeting of the convocation he trusted that the hall would be adorned with another memorial window in honor of those from the University who took part in the engagement at Limeridge, last June, and those of them that were wounded on that occasion.

The window, which is of richly stained glass, is situate at the north end of the hall, and is composed of three Gothic arches. Within a circle in the central arch are the arms of the university and college impaled—one of the university supporters, Minerva, being on the right, and one of the college supporters, a dolphin, on the left. Within a circle in the upper compartment is the crest of the university, a maple tree, with the motto, "*Velut arbor aeva*," and within a circle in the lower compartment is the crest of the college, a Roman lamp, with the motto, "*Rerum claris lucem dare*." In the arch on the right is a branch of laurel, with a cluster of maple leaves, above and below, and in that on the left a branch of cypress with similar clusters. At the base of the central arch is the following inscription :

IN MEMORIAM	REGGIORVM
I. H. MEWBURN	SVM MARQVE
MALC. MACKENZIE	SPEI
GVL. P. TEMPEST	ADOLESCENTIVM
QVI, PRO PATRIA PYGNANTES, OCCYBVERVNT.	
APVD LIMERIDGE, II. NON. IVN. A.D. MDCCCLXVI.	

which being translated reads :

"To perpetuate the memory of John Henry Mewburn, Malcolm McKenzie, and William Fairbanks Tempest, distinguished and very promising youths, who, whilst fighting for their country, fell at Limeridge on the 2nd of June, 1866.

The inscription is not complete. The remaining portion will, we believe, be on an ornamental wainscot, which it is intended to place under the windows of the hall, in honor of the members of the University company, who took part in the action, especially of Messrs. Vandermissen, Patterson, Paul and Kingsford, who were wounded in the engagement. The cost of the windows will be defrayed by subscription among the officers, graduates, and students of the university and college. The work was executed at the establishment of Mr. McCausland, Toronto, chiefly by one of his employes, Mr. Theodore Lyon.

Degrees Conferred.—The Vice-President of the University (Dr. Crooks,) then conferred degrees upon the following gentlemen :—

M.D.—E. Aiken, J. Cascallen, M. J. Kelly, W. J. Pasmore, F. Rae, A. Sill, J. C. Thom, T. J. White.

M.A.—J. W. Bell, D. Bemiss, J. E. Powers, J. Campbell, S. Foster, Rev. J. M. Gibson, G. S. Goodwillie, J. Hill, A. Macallum, J. Muir, L. C. Robinson, W. H. Vandermissen, J. S. Wilson, A. Woolvorton.

L.L.B.—J. C. Hamilton, M. J. Kelly, D. H. Preston.

M.B.—A. Beith, J. H. Burns, S. Cowan, M. J. Hanavan, J. H. Hughes, A. G. Jackes, T. Jacques, J. E. Koneely, J. A. Langrill, J. McConnell, J. McCullough, P. McDiarmid, N. McIntyre, A. McKay, W. J. Mickle, W. H. Miller, W. Morton, Oronhyatekha, J. Sinclair, D. Smith, J. W. Stewart, J. Stubbs, H. H. Sutton, J. J. Wadsworth, J. Wallace, G. Williams, R. W. Williams.

B.A.—R. R. Baldwin, P. M. Barker, C. W. Bell, G. Brumel, A. F. Campbell, H. F. Clarke, E. P. Crawford, W. Davidson, T. D. Delemere, W. S. Dorsey, W. G. Falconbridge, W. Fitzgerald, A. Greenlees, H. P. Hill, O. B. Jacks, D. Junor, J. H. Miller, M. O. Moderwell, D. H. Mooney, J. C. Morgan, J. A. Paterson, A. J. Robertson, A. J. Traver, W. Watt, A. Williams, A. H. Wright, G. S. Wright.

AD EUNDEM STATUM.—*Arts*.—First year, W. T. Holmes ; second year, W. Mitchell ; fourth year, J. E. Kennedy, J. D. D. Sully.

MEDALLISTS.—*Medicine*.—Gold Medal, Mickle, W. J. ; Silver medal, McCullough, J. ; Silver medal, Wadsworth, J. J. *Classics*.—Gold medal, Bell, C. W. ; silver medal, Campbell, A. F. *Mathematics*.—Gold medal, Fitzgerald, W. ; silver medal, Patterson, J. A. *Modern Languages*.—Gold medal, Falconbridge, W. G. ; silver medal, Morgan, J. C. ; silver medal, Campbell, A. F. ; silver medal, W. Watt. *Natural Sciences*.—Gold medal, Morgan, J. C. ; silver medal, Williams, A. ; silver medal, Moderwell, M. C. ; silver medal, Campbell, A. F. ; silver medal, Mooney, D. H. *Metaphysics, Ethics, &c.*—Silver medal, 1st, Delemere, T. D. ; silver medal, 2nd, Junor, D.

College Special Prizes.—Public Speaking, 1, Patterson, J. A. ; Public Speaking, 2, Deroche, H. M. ; Public Reading, Falconbridge, W. G. ; English Essay, 1, Junor, D. ; English Essay, 2, Mooney, D. H.

Rev. Dr. McCaul, in presenting these prizes, said that there were none in the college that he felt greater satisfaction in presenting than these for public speaking and reading, because they were the only prizes in the college that were presented by the students themselves. He felt as thoroughly satisfied that the prizes were well merited as if he had been the examiner himself.

Prince's Prize.—Campbell, A. F. The Vice-Chancellor presented Mr. A. F. Campbell with the Prince of Wales' prize. The Chancellor referred to the fact of His Royal Highness, since his visit to this Province, having kindly founded a prize in this University. He then referred to the severe ordeal which Mr. Campbell had to undergo before obtaining that prize, and he had now the satisfaction of knowing that the highest honor that could be competed for at the close of the University examination had been taken off by himself. (Applause.)

CLOSE OF CONVOCATION.—The Vice-Chancellor, in closing the proceedings, expressed his regret at the unavoidable absence of Chancellor Morrison. One of the best modes, he said, of testing the prosperity of any institution was to compare one year with another. He would, therefore, bring up a comparison of former years with that which had just passed. But before a test of figures could be relied on it would be well to ascertain what different changes had been made with regard to different pursuits. By instituting a comparison between the year 1866 and the year 1857, he found that in 1866 there were eighty degrees granted against only twenty in 1857. It would thus be seen what rapid strides the University had been making. Taking the number of degrees granted in the University from the year 1859 to 1866 it would give a fair idea of the progress of the institution :—

	LL.D.	M.D.	M.A.	LL.B.	M.B.	B.A.	TOTAL.
1857.....		1	12	..	1	11	25
1859.....		5	9	4	5	10	33
1860.....		2	10	15	6	10	43
1861.....	2	1	4	12	6	14	39
1862.....		1	2	12	3	18	36
1863.....	1	0	4	5	14	15	39
1864.....		2	9	8	18	22	59
1865.....		4	8	3	19	22	56
1866.....		8	14	3	27	28	80

He (the Vice-Chancellor) believed that a great deal of the success which now attended the University was owing to the zeal and ability of the gentleman who had established the University of King's College, that which was now endowed as the University of Toronto, and the province might be congratulated on having a gentleman like the Rev. Dr. McCaul

presiding over the University College. It was fortunate for the people of this country that they possessed such a man, and it was well to know that year after year the degrees which were conferred in this University were given for qualifications which were not inferior to those of the mother country. After having thus given a slight sketch of the progress of the University the Vice-Chancellor brought the proceedings of the convocation to a close, and the audience dispersed amid the usual cheers given by the under graduates. **ANNUAL DINNER.**—The annual dinner of the University College Literary and Scientific Association came off in the spacious dining hall in the University building in the evening; and, as usual, was a grand success in every respect.—*Leader.*

X. Departmental Notices.

REVISED LIST OF TEXT-BOOKS.

A revised list of books authorized for the Grammar Schools of Upper Canada, will be published in the December number of the *Journal of Education*.

The year 1867 will be allowed for the substitution of the newly authorized books, for those *already sanctioned* by the Council of Public Instruction; but, as already intimated, the Council disapproves of the use, in any Grammar or Common School, after the close of the current year (1866), of any text-book *not now sanctioned* by the Council.

OFFICIAL TOUR OF THE CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT.

The Rev. Dr. Ryerson, Chief Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada, having obtained leave of absence until June, 1867, left Toronto in the early part of this month to visit the United States and Europe. The object of this tour is the re-establishment of his health and the improvement of the system of Public Instruction in Upper Canada. He has been authorized by the Government to add to the collection of models and works of art for the proposed Provincial School of Art and Design, and to engage the services of a properly qualified master from the graduates of the Government Schools of art and design in England, to take charge of the same. He is also authorized by the Provincial Secretary to visit and collect information from the best institutions in the United States and in Europe for the education of the Deaf, Dumb and Blind, to be made available in the proposed Schools for these persons, to be established by the Government in Upper and Lower Canada. In a recent letter from Dr. Ryerson, while visiting this class of institutions in the United States, he says, writing from Cincinnati: "The institutions of the Deaf, Dumb and Blind in these States are worthy of all admiration. I do not regret the trouble I have taken to visit them. In Illinois the institutions are *free* for seven years—boarding as well as instructing the pupils, whether the parents are rich or poor—and they are admirably conducted. * * * I am making pretty copious notes." Dr. Ryerson sailed for England, from New York, in the Inman Steamer *City of Boston*, on the 23rd instant.

BLANKS FOR SCHOOL TRUSTEES'

Yearly and half-yearly Reports have been sent to the County Clerks, for distribution through the Local Superintendents.

FREE PUBLIC SCHOOL LIBRARIES IN U. C.

"The Public School Libraries are becoming the crown and glory of the institutions of the Province."—LORD ELGIN.

"Had I the power, I would scatter libraries over the whole land, as the sower sows his seed."—HORACE MANN.

Under the regulations of the Department, each County Council can establish *four classes* of libraries in their Municipality, as follows. City, Town, Village, and Township Councils can also establish the first three classes.

1. An ordinary *Common School Library* in each school house, for the use of the rate payers of the section.
2. A *General Public Lending Library*, available to all the rate payers of the Municipality.
3. A *Professional Library* of books on teaching, school organization, language and kindred subjects, available to teachers alone
4. A Library in any *Public Institution*, under control of the

Municipality, for the use of the inmates, or in the *County Jail* for the use of the prisoners.

We cannot too strongly urge upon School Trustees the importance and even necessity of providing, (especially during the autumn and winter months,) suitable reading books for the pupils in their school, either as prizes or in libraries. Having given the pupils a taste for reading and general knowledge, they should provide some agreeable and practical means of gratifying it.

PUBLIC LIBRARY BOOKS, MAPS, APPARATUS, AND SCHOOL PRIZE BOOKS.

The Chief Superintendent will add *one hundred per cent*, to any sum or sums, *not less than five dollars*, transmitted to the Department by Municipal and School Corporations, on behalf of Grammar and Common Schools; and forward Public Library Books, Prize Books, Maps, Apparatus, Charts, and Diagrams, to the value of the amount thus augmented, upon receiving a list of the articles required. In all cases it will be necessary for any person acting on behalf of the Municipal or Trustee Corporation, to enclose or present a written authority to do so, verified by the corporate seal of the Corporation. A selection of Maps, Apparatus, Library and Prize Books, &c., to be sent, can always be made by the Department, when so desired.

☞ Catalogues and Forms of Application furnished to School authorities on their application.

* * * If Library and Prize Books be ordered, in *addition* to Maps and Apparatus, it will be **NECESSARY FOR THE TRUSTEES TO SEND NOT LESS THAN five dollars additional** for each class of books, &c., with the proper forms of application for each class.

☞ The *one hundred per cent*. will not be allowed on any sum less than *five dollars*. Text books cannot be furnished on the terms mentioned above: they must be paid for at the net catalogue prices.

SUNDAY SCHOOL BOOKS AND REQUISITES.

Application having been frequently made to the Department for the supply from its Depository of Sunday School Library and Prize Books, Maps and other requisites, it is deemed advisable to insert the following information on the subject.

1. The Department has no authority to grant the one hundred per cent. upon any remittance for Library or Prize Books, Maps or Requisites, except on such as are received from Municipal or Public School Corporations in Upper Canada Books, Maps and other Requisites suitable for Sunday Schools, or for Library or other similar Associations, can however, on receipt of the necessary amount, be supplied from the Depository at the net prices, that is about twenty-five or thirty per cent. less than the usual current retail prices.

2. The admirable books published in England by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, and by the London Religious Tract Society, are furnished from the Societies' catalogues at currency for sterling prices (i. e. a shilling sterling book is furnished for twenty cents Canadian currency, and so on in proportion.) These two catalogues will, as far as possible, be furnished to parties applying for them. Books suitable for Sunday schools are received from the other large religious societies, Presbyterian and Methodist, and from the various extensive publishers in Britain and the United States, but the list would be too extensive to publish separately.

3. On receiving the necessary instructions, a suitable selection can be made at the Department, subject to the approval of the parties sending the order. Any books, maps, &c, not desired, which may be sent from the Depository, will be exchanged for others, if returned promptly and in good order.

SHORT ADVERTISEMENTS inserted in the *Journal of Education* for 20 cents per line, which may be remitted in *postage stamps* or otherwise.

TERMS: For a single copy of the *Journal of Education*, \$1 per annum back vols., neatly stitched, supplied on the same terms. All subscriptions to commence with the January Number, and payment in advance must in all cases accompany the order. Single numbers, 10 cents each

All communications to be addressed to J. GEORGE HODGINS, L.L.B., *Education Office, Toronto.*