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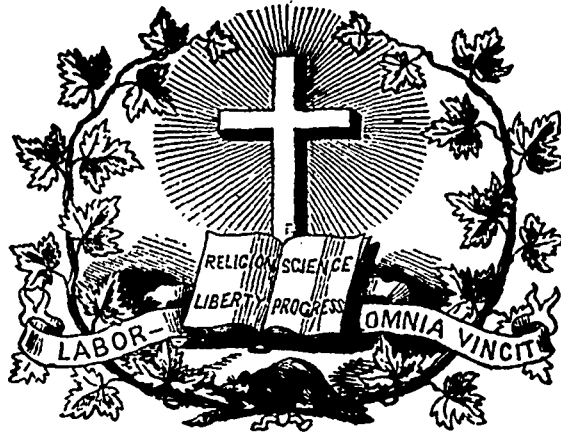
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JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

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SUMMARY.—**EDUCATION.**—The Colleges of Canada: The McGill University by Hon. Pierre Chauveau. (continued)—On the true foundation of school discipline, abridged from the French of J. J. Rapet, by Mrs Languedoc.—On teaching reading by Chs. Baker.—Catechism on methods of teaching: Geography by Abbenrode.—Tests of a good gallery lesson.—Inproprieties of speech.—**OFFICIAL NOTICES:** To school municipalities concerning the census of 1857—Appointments.—Jacques-Cartier Normal School.—Catholic Board of Examiners of Quebec.—School Commissioners.—Erection of school municipalities.—Diplomas granted by the Catholic Board of Examiners for the district of Montreal, and of Quebec, by the Boards of the districts of Three Rivers, Kamouraska, and Stanstead.—Notice to the directors of institutions claiming aid under Superior Education Act.—Donations to the library of the department.—Situations as teachers wanted.—**EDITORIAL:** The school house of Simcoe.—Report of the Chief Superintendent of Education for Lower Canada for 1856. (continued.)—**MONTHLY SUMMARY:** Educational intelligence.—Literary intelligence.—Scientific intelligence.—**WOOD CUTS:** The school house of Simcoe.—Plans of its interior.

EDUCATION.

THE COLLEGES OF CANADA.

II.

The McGill University.

(Continued from our April issue.)

The Revd. Canon Leach, formerly Principal and now Vice-Principal of the University, is the Dean of the Faculty of Arts. The regular course of studies in this Faculty extends over four sessions; and the fee for each session is £5. Candidates for matriculation are examined in Latin and Greek grammar, Cæsar's commentaries, Sallust, Virgil Æneid 1st book; Arithmetic, Algebra, to Quadratic Equations; Euclid's elements, 3 books; writing English from dictation. Students may matriculate for special courses in agriculture, commerce and civil engineering, after examination on the subjects above stated for the general course, with the exception of classics. Persons who may not be desirous of entering as regular students, may also obtain, on application to the secretary, tickets as occasional students for partial courses or for lectures on any particular subject. Sixteen scholarships in this Faculty are placed at the disposal of His Excellency the Governor General, and eight others will be granted by the Board of Governors, from time to time to the most successful students.

On completing the regular course of studies and after passing their examination to the satisfaction of the Faculty, students will be entitled to the degree of Bachelor of Arts. Bachelors of Arts of at least three years standing, are entitled to the degree of Master of Arts, after examination. Students in the fourth year of the course, desirous of matriculating in the Faculties of Law or Medicine, can do so in connection with keeping the term for their degrees in Arts, only on obtaining the consent of the Faculty and under such restrictions as it may impose.

Logic, mental and moral philosophy and rhetoric are taught by Professor Leach. English literature and history are confided to Mr. Edwin Gould, B. A. Professor Cornish is entrusted with the teaching of classical literature, which is divided as follows: The first year's students begin with Cicero's Orations in Catilinam and Homer's Iliad b. 1-3—then read Livy, b. 21—Virgil's Georgics, b. 1 and 4th. and Herodotus, b. 5. The second year they go through Sat. 1. 3. 8. 2. 10 of Juvenal, Tacitus, Germania and Agricola; Thucydides b. 2d.—Alcestis of Euripides and Prometheus of Æschylus. The third year's students read Horace's select odes, satires and epistles and Ars poetica; Æschiles and Demosthenes on the crown. During all the time composition in writing and *viva voce*, and critical exercises are attended to. French language and literature are taught by professor Fronteau; Corneille and Molière are the principal reading books. Professor Markgraf has charge of the German language and literature. The text books are: first and second year, Ollendorffs' grammar by Adler, and Adler's progressive German reader; for the third and fourth years, Adler's handbook of German literature and Woodbury's eclectic reader. The lectures in the third and fourth years are in the German language, which is also to be exclusively spoken in the classes. We omitted to state that the same rule applies to the French. A general insight into the history and nature of the different teutonic idioms is given in this course and special attention paid to the affinity of the German with the English. The course of Hebrew and Oriental literature

by professor A. DeSola, the Rabbin of the Montreal Synagogue, comprises lectures on the history of the Hebrew language and literature in particular, with a general notice of the other oriental languages, their genius and peculiarities. Mathematics and natural philosophy are confided to professor Johnson; natural history, agriculture and agricultural chemistry to the Principal, chemistry to professor Sutherland, and meteorology to Dr. Smallwood. The late lamented Dr. Barnston who, at the time of his decease, filled the chair of botany, has not yet been replaced. The course of civil engineering is divided into two years and is very comprehensive. It is conducted by professor Hamilton.

The following studies are optional: Hebrew, Commercial Law, Agriculture, Engineering; all the others are required for the degree of B. A. Most of the chairs above enumerated are of very recent creation and this Faculty has been the most difficult to organize. It is evident however that it now stands on a very large and very comprehensive basis.

The High School is under the immediate direction of professor Howe, who has been for many years one of the professors of the College, and presided at the same time over this department, the growing importance of which now commands his undivided energies.

For admission into the lowest Form, it is required that the pupil shall have attained the age of seven years and be able to read fairly. The course extends over a period of six or seven years; a general promotion taking place only once a year; cases of special promotions are few.

The following extract from the prospectus of the school for the year 57-58, will better explain the principles by which it is governed: "As the object in view is to give a sound general mental training, quite as much as a knowledge of particular subjects, no pupil will be permitted to indulge a partiality for any one study to the neglect of others. The whole of the course is therefore to be considered as imperative upon all the pupils. Latin and Greek are made the basis of the language division of the course, as Euclid is that of the mathematical division. They are taught to all the pupils, because they are the best means of training them into a sound knowledge of general grammar and of their mother tongue and facilitating the acquisition of the modern languages; they are taught also with reference to the learned professions for which a knowledge of them is required and because they possess innate perfections and beauties, which expanding to the mind of the advanced school-boy are among his inducements to become the college student. The time, however, devoted to the ancient languages is not excessive. Instead of the many hours formerly given to the subject in most public schools, the time has long been limited in the High School department of McGill College to at most two hours daily. The modern branches of education benefit greatly by the change, which under improved methods of teaching has been found not detrimental to progress in the classics. The correct writing of English is regarded as of paramount importance and the study of Latin and Greek is made subservient to it. The French and German languages form a part of the ordinary course. Much attention is given to the former, because it is

one of the colloquial languages of the country. French is imperative, but German is optional. Mathematics have an hour daily assigned to them as soon as the faculties of the pupil are sufficiently developed to cope with the difficulties of the subject. The senior pupils can by the payment of a trifling fee, attend the University lectures on *Physical Geography* and *Geology*. The elements of *Natural Philosophy* form part of the course of the senior form. This subject has been selected from the natural sciences, because it is properly the first in order if not the most important of them. The senior pupils may, however, attend the University Lectures on *Zoology* and *Botany*. The remaining subjects of a school course: History, Geography, Arithmetic, writing, book-keeping, so indispensable in a commercial community have in addition to the attention previously given to them, their share of the time which has been taken from the excessive study of Latin and Greek. Drawing and music have hitherto been voluntary subjects, but arrangements are now completed so as to make linear drawing and vocal music parts of the regular course without additional charge."

This abundant and wise programme, in which will be found ample evidence of a desire to meet the utilitarian tendencies of a community essentially commercial, without however, abandoning too much of the higher aspirations of the human intellect and of yielding to a limited extent, to the complaints and even to the prejudices alluded to in the commencement of this article, is carried out by a Rector, five assistant-masters and four instructors; and as wealth and a natural desire for mental cultivation will increase in this province, it is to be hoped that this High-School will become an invaluable feeder to the college itself.

Our readers are aware that Normal and Model schools under the joint direction of the Educational Department and of the Council of the University, are now in existence; but inasmuch as frequent reference has already been made to them in the *Journal of Education*, and as we intend taking up the Normal Schools of Canada immediately after the Colleges, we shall abstain from any further notice of this institution in the present article.

The number of persons receiving education in connexion with McGill College at present is 711; which are distributed as follow: Faculty of Law, 30; Faculty of Medicine, 90; Faculty of Arts, 35; High School, 244; Normal School, 70; Model Schools, 230.

(To be concluded in our next.)

PIERRE J. O. CHAUVEAU.

PEDAGOGY.

ON THE TRUE FOUNDATION OF SCHOOL DISCIPLINE.

(Abridged from the French of J. J. Rapet, by Mrs. Langnefic.)

I

There exist in the human breast four great springs of action; they are duty, self interest, fear and love.

Over the mind of the child, the two first hold little or no exercise, so far he has held duty as a consequence, not a moving principle of action. We ask, is it not duty that leads

the soldier on to glorious battle for his country, or the christian to the stake rather than swerve for one moment from its path? Then let us consider this sentiment as applicable to the growing mind that is destined one day to become a hero, die a martyr, or at the least, fill an honorable place in social life; for it is, among the four mentioned the truly greatest; it constitutes the true foundation of all moral training and where adopted, I consider the task of education as half-accomplished.

True, we also mentioned that most powerful motor in man, self-interest. We admit that self-interest though perhaps the most absorbing passion in man, following him even beyond the grave in his visions of a happy hereafter, yet we do not perceive the child to entertain any serious regard of a feeling of which his experience tells him nothing, and one far beyond what his young imagination can picture, who can only entertain objects as they are, present or passing.

We may be reminded that these exist in the master's frown, in his tone of harsh reprimand, and the other modes of punishment used in our schools. To this we answer that the feeling aroused from apprehension of punishment is no longer self-interest, but one of cowardly fear, which is altogether another state of the human mind. No, disguise it as we may under the name and title of emulation, let us give to it shape and form, in the way of prizes, public compliment, honorable precedence, &c., we will still maintain its futility, or its non existence in the scholar's mind. We have this conviction moreover in the fact that no true and permanent results stand to give us contradiction. It is not our present intention to enter into a detail of the merits or demerits of public rewards at school. We merely would suggest how erroneous and far-fetched is that impression on the general mind, that lends such importance to objects so remote in their attainment, and taken in a comparative view, of very indifferent consideration.

Let us in support of the last, suppose a school where the distribution of prizes is part of its rule. It may be a well ordered, or say an uproarious one, but in either case the rule for the distribution of prizes exist; the consequence is, that these rewards must be given somewhere, to somebody, and if not bestowed upon the excelling, the least careless, idle or obstreperous scholar is marched forward to receive a prize destined only for superlative and not merely, comparative merit. Under such a widely acknowledged state of things, we repeat that the promise of public rewards is not a sufficient basis to the proper exercise of school discipline. Neither is it a cause of surprise to the reflecting mind, for let us remember that the child's heart, coming as it does, still new, out of the hands of Divine Providence, necessarily continues full of that sweet confidence and hourly faith, which in our more vicious conditions, we call thoughtlessness, and that he cannot trouble himself for the morrow. Yet we are sufficiently irrational to expect him to run for a goal, which will be attainable only by a consistent race of one whole year? To be carried home perhaps in the shape of a handsomely gilt book!

If we consider promised rewards as bearing no great weight with the scholar, what shall we say of promised punishment? We cannot be supposed to pronounce too forcibly, by calling these the natural assassins of all generous impulse. What do they else, but inspire the mind with that cowardly fear which is the breeder of hypocrisy, lies and all kinds of faint heartedness. When we look around and investigate the condition of school-discipline as practised by the greater number of our educational establishments, we grieve to observe that systematic punishment exists every where; in some places it is even pushed to barbarity. By divine authority we are taught that fear is the beginning of wisdom; but it is fear as meant in equal ratio with God's

ineffable love, and of which he has given us a faint idea in the good father of family, who is loved with tenderness and because he is so, feared with respect. A fear so wholly based upon a prior feeling of love, that pain to its object is the thing most to be dreaded. But the child subjected to the fear of punishment becomes hardened to it, and his soul callous to shame. He soon no longer considers his master as a representative of a kind parent, but rather as a particular enemy, whose presence he is destined to shun as much as possible. The only possible advantage that we can recognise in the use of punishment as a means of discipline, is that it perhaps and for a time only retards the encroachment of evil; teachers are not only bound to do this, but also must learn how to inspire good and elevating sentiments, that will take such hold upon the child, as to become a governing line of conduct even when in presence of no other witness than that of his own little conscience. The child's heart though a tantalizing puzzle to some, is a beautiful open book to many, and we would have it so to all, and to teachers in particular, that they may acquire that influence without which the task of instruction is as great a labor and trial to the master, as it can be to the pupil.

II.

A lesson of perhaps still deeper conviction in regard to fear as opposed to the ends of education, is read in the complaints, and request of knowledge as to better means, that stand addressed to us from very many quarters.

The question thus put to us, we have weighed with every consideration due to so grave a subject, and after mature reflection give it as our opinion that love, such love as stands pictured in the good father, is the only safe foundation to a state of good and happy discipline in a school. A suavity of manner, kindness of tone, gentle though firm reproof in displeasure, will never fail to inspire the young with that love and respect in return which is called the "beginning of wisdom."

O! if parents and teachers would carefully estimate the beauty of the task that is confided to them, which is no other in strict reality, than the continuance and application to each one of those little souls, of the master's mission of divine love. If, as the apostle tells us we should be Jesus-Christ one to another, how much more so the parent and teacher, towards the little child entering on the path of human impressions, and ready to be drawn by the sweet cords of love, or drilled and driven into dangerous by-ways by undue coldness, severity or harshness. The teacher is by him supposed to hold all knowledge, and to his eyes, is the personification of his own good teachings. Then how dare that teacher from that tribune chastise the child for disobedience, lying or disorderly conduct, when he himself in the face of the mutual Father-Eternal, is guilty of all three? Has he not told that little child many a time that all creation was based upon love, from the foundation of the world up to the consummation of all time, that Christ came down more intimately to teach us this great and beautiful truth and that after the same example it should pervade man's every action; and there stands that little child trembling before a dark frown, an angry yell, a vengeful threat of worse punishment, or at the least a sneer at his weakness! Ah! Let those who read, remember that the soul in that little body is a spark, an emanation from the bosom of the divinity, and though he may be all incapable of communicating in language the marks thus left upon it, they are nevertheless made, and some day remembering that other picture of the divine master, sitting lovingly among the little children, he will learn to persuade himself that his parent, his master is no better than the rest of mankind who put such a wide difference between theory and practice.

Let us for a few moments become again little children, and remember how hard it is to our young elastic limbs,

and buoyant hearts, to be confined day after day to the prison of a school, fixed to one particular place, for a space of time which to us, always seems too long, made to study a set of lessons of which we no wise see the benefit, but merely yield obedience because we are pre-emptorily told that: "It must be done," exposed to all sorts of little unkindnesses from our companions, confusion and perhaps disgrace from the master, who if he be of harsh mind puts the crowning point upon our child's misery, by holding our little hearts the whole time in a state of momentary apprehension of some, impending visitation of punishment.

We ask why should not the master smooth that necessary course to childhood and youth, by shedding over it a refulgence of that love which he so earnestly teaches through a book, and which put into practice, would make of it one of mutual kind regard, affection and cherished duty?

The answer is this, that although all masters (not excepting the admirers of the application of corporal punishment, a function more worthy the public executioner than the mild instructor of youth,) attempt to gain the regard of their pupils, yet they do so, seeking the end, without caring for the means by which it can alone be obtained. Or if he remember that "love begets love;" what are his professions generally speaking? a display of words or rather of egotism, for with the declaration of it, he promises it to last only so long as the child gives no displeasure, inconvenience, or trouble of any kind! Now the child, who has borne the seal of love upon his birth into the world, and who therefore is never without a certain intuitive perception of it, knows right well how to distinguish the semblance from the reality, therefore his heart continues untouched, and his carelessness, insubordination and petulance remain the same, until further disgraced by hypocrisy and the other attributes of cowardly fear instilled by the influence we already spoke of, that of chastisement exercised as a rule. Some will urge that punishment cannot be banished either the parental hearth-stone, or the school ranks, for that children are in regard to feeling, very often insensible, and moreover ungrateful. To this we answer that these voids lie as often with the accusers as the accused. It is the shorter and easier method of dismissing a subject full of insurmountable details to him, who is without that innate love of his kind, that makes us consider the young as a sacred deposit in our hands destined to happiness in this and the next world, according as our own influence may have been brought to bear upon it.

Let us not be supposed as desirous of wholly withdrawing from schools the resource of punishment. By no means, for have we not the divine authority as an example of its due exercise, and its wholesomeness under certain conditions of the human mind. He chastised his people, but only after repeated chidings most lovingly delivered and as a last recall upon their approaching hardness of heart. After the same example we invite teachers to deal with the little people committed to their care, and will add, love them, for their own sakes with a purely disinterested regard, and that spirit of Christian self-sacrifice without which no master can work any good either to himself or to his scholars, and if punishment be absolutely called for, let it be administered so as to convince the child that it is for his ultimate good, and not for any feeling of harshness or despotism whatever.

On Teaching Reading.

A LECTURE.

Simpson, the mathematician, obtained his first knowledge of Fluxions, or the Differential Calculus, from Edmund Stone's translation of a French work on that subject—and who was Edmund Stone?

The father of Edmund Stone was gardener to the Duke of Argyle. One day as the Duke was walking in his garden, he observed a Latin copy of Newton's *Principia* lying on the grass, and thinking

it had been brought from his library, he called some one to carry it back to its place. Young Stone, then in his eighteenth year, claimed the book as his own. "Yours?" said the Duke, "Do you understand Geometry, Latin, and Newton?" "I know a little of them," said the young man. The Duke, who had some love for the sciences, entered into conversation with him, and was astonished at the force and accuracy of his observations. "But how came you by the knowledge of all these things?" Stone replied, "A servant taught me, ten years since, to read. Does one need to know anything more than the twenty-four letters in order to learn everything else that one wishes?"

The account of this interview goes on to say that the Duke's curiosity being excited, he sat down on a bank and listened to the following details.

"I first learned to read," said Stone, the masons were then at work upon your house. I observed that the architect used a rule and compasses, and that he made calculations. I inquired the meaning and the use of these things, and I was informed that there was a science called arithmetic. I purchased a book of arithmetic, and I learned it. I was told there was another science called geometry; I purchased books, and learned geometry. I found, by reading, that there were good books in these two sciences in Latin; I bought a dictionary, and I learned Latin. I also learned that there were good books of the same kind in French; I bought a dictionary, and I learned French. And this, my Lord, is what I have done: it seems to me that we may learn everything when we know the twenty-four letters of the alphabet."

I think we may all readily admit that Reading is one of the portals of knowledge, and further, that it is a portal not easily opened by the methods commonly applied—that "Reading," as usually taught, "is the most difficult of human attainments;" but when the art has been acquired, everything else that the masses need in the way of instruction is comparatively easy. Writing is easy, Arithmetic is easy, Geography is not only easy, but full of interest. Reading is the key to History, and a constant exercise in Grammar and language. I recollect an apophthegm that made a strong impression on me when I was a boy, its force has recurred to me very often in the course of my life, but I cannot name its author, neither have I seen it in print during many years. "If the poor man can but read how rich may he soon become in the noblest endowments." Stone's experience confirms its truth.

I shall divide the subject of this paper into two parts, the *first*, comprises my own theory and experience in the art of teaching Reading; the *second*, the means which I would suggest for obtaining a better style of reading in our National Schools.

Thirty years have elapsed since my attention was first directed to this branch of instruction. I was then studying the principles of a work by Duffet on the French language; and it became quite clear to me that we learn French, in England, chiefly by remembering the phases or appearances of the words, and this was one of the principles of the work.

Soon afterwards I became engaged in the instruction of the deaf and dumb, and one of the first observations I made was, that we kept the children six, eight, even twelve months, learning the alphabet on their fingers—learning to distinguish one letter from another—and acquiring the art of forming the letters on their slates. Not an idea was communicated to the children during this process—not even the name of a single object around them, and at the end of the time thus occupied, the children were as much "stocks and stones" as at the commencement.

I will not delay you with minutiae which only concern the instruction of the deaf and dumb, it is enough to say that I commenced a new system—that of teaching the children words from the first day of their admission, and at the end of six months, I had the satisfaction of seeing that the children were acquainted with the name of every common object about them, and in all respects equal to pupils who had been eighteen months under instruction on the old system. I will just add, in passing, that this improvement has found its way into nearly every Institution for the deaf and dumb in the kingdom—though in every case resisted at first.

The more I practiced this course myself, the more I became satisfied that a method somewhat analagous would be applicable to teaching reading to every child—but it was working in my own mind for several years before I ventured to recommend any one to put it in practice. I became confirmed in my views by reading the works of Pestalozzi and Jacotot; and the first time I suggested such a departure from the ordinary course of teaching reading was in the case of a hearing and speaking child in Doncaster.

A lady of this town, the mother of several children, was remarking to me with regard to one of them, that she was just about to commence a task which would extend over two years—that of

teaching the child to read—that she had occupied this length of time with each of her elder children, and that it was a dreary and disheartening labor. I found that she commenced in the orthodox way with A, B, C, went on with a, b, ab; b a b, bab; b a b e, babe; and so on through all the established gradations of the time: (I am speaking of 25 years ago,) there was no syllabic spelling at that time, no phonic system, no “Fonetic Nuz,” no “Reading Disentangled”; none of the inventions of later days; for, Mrs. Williams, Dr. Kay Shuttleworth, the Pitmans, and Varty were alike unknown. There was nothing but alphabetic teaching with all its impediments, choking the progress as fast as progress was made.

I ventured to ask the lady I have referred to whether she would have the courage to forsake the old path altogether, and to try a new one. I found that she was ready to adopt any course I might suggest, and I desired her to begin with some interesting child's book in a large type—such as Barbauld's *Lessons*—not the Hymns, at first, as being too full of figurative language, and to read a lesson of a few lines to the child with the book open, and the child's attention fixed on it—pointing to each word as she read the sentences—thus giving the child an interest in the matter of the lesson; then to take a single line, and to read it deliberately, the child repeating each word after her—to repeat that line over and over again, till the child knew each word by its appearance; then to add another line, and another; and to go over the whole together, for a quarter of an hour; to resume the lesson a few hours after; going again over the old ground, but adding some new sentences, and thus to proceed day by day, attentively marking the progress she made.

I was zero met with the objection since so often raised, “How will the child learn to spell?” I desired that with the reading exercise writing should commence, and not the writing of letters merely, or parts of letters, but of words, and not words without meaning, but the names of objects, such as *pin, cat, nut, &c.*, and if accompanied with pictures of the objects, so much the better. I also pointed out how much the child would learn from analogy, even as to new words, which had in their formation syllables, prefixes, or terminations, similar to others already taught—adding that I relied on *writing*, copying first, and dictation afterwards, for teaching correct spelling. (We spell when we write, we do not spell when we read.) I then referred her to this extract from *Edgeworth's Practical Education* :—

As it is usually managed, it is a dreadful task indeed to learn, and if possible a more dreadful task to teach, to read; with the help of counters, and coaxing and gingerbread, or by dint of reiterated pain and terror, the names of the four and twenty letters of the alphabet are, perhaps, in the course of some weeks firmly fixed in the pupil's memory. So much the worse; all these names will disturb him, if he have common sense, and at every step must stop his progress. To begin with the vowels; each of these have different sounds, and consequently ought to have several names, or different signs to distinguish them in different circumstances. In the first lesson of the spelling book the child begins with a-b makes ab; b-a makes ba. The inference, if any general inference can be drawn from this lesson, is, that when a comes before b it has one sound, and after b it has another sound; but this is contradicted by and by, and it appears that a after b has various sounds, as in *ball, in but, in bare*. The letter i in *fire* is, as we call it in the alphabet, but in *fire* it is changed; in *pin* it is changed again; so that the child being ordered to affix to the same sign a variety of sounds, and names, and not knowing in what circumstances to obey, and in what to disregard the contradictory injunctions imposed upon him, he pronounces sounds at hazard, and adheres positively to the last ruled case, or maintains an apparently sullen, or truly philosophic and sceptical silence. Must e in *pen*, and e in *where*, and e in *her*, and e in *fear*, all be called e alike? The child is patted on the head for reading u as it ought to be pronounced in *future*; but if, remembering this encouragement, the pupil should venture to pronounce u in *gun* and *gun* in the same manner, he will inevitably be disgraced. Pain and shame impress precepts upon the mind, the child therefore is intent upon remembering the new sound as u in *gun*; but when he comes to *busy*, and *burial*, and *prudence*, his last precedent will lead him fatally astray, and he will again be called a dunce. O in the exclamation *Oh!* is happily called by its alphabetical name, but in *to* we can hardly know it again, and in *morning* and *wonder* it has a third and fourth additional sound. The amphibious letter y, which is either a vowel or a consonant, has one sound in one character, and two sounds in the other character; as a consonant, it is pronounced as in *yesterday*; in *try*, it is sounded as i; in *any*, and in the termination of many other words, it is sounded like e. Must a child know all this by intuition, or must it be whipped into him? But he must know a great deal more before he can read the most common words; what length of time would we allow him for learning when c is sounded like k; and when like s? and how much longer time shall we add for learning when s shall be pronounced sh as in *sure*, or z as in *has*; the sound of which last letter z he cannot by any conjuration obtain from the name *zed*, the only name

by which he has been taught to call it? How much time shall we allow a patient tutor for teaching a docile pupil when g is to be sounded soft, and when hard. There are many carefully worded rules in the spelling books, specifying before what letters, and in what situations, g shall vary in sound, but unfortunately these rules are difficult to be learned by heart, and still more difficult to understand. These laws, however positive, are not found to be of universal application, or at least a child has not always wit or time to apply them upon the spur of the occasion. In coming to the words *good gentleman*, get an *ingenious grammar*, he may be puzzled by the nice distinctions he is to make in pronunciation in cases apparently similar; but he has not yet become acquainted with all the powers of this privileged letter; in company with h it assumes the character of f, as in *tough*: the next time he meets it perhaps in the same company, in the same place, and as nearly as possible in the same circumstances, as in the word *though*; but now g is to become a silent letter, and is to pass incognito, and the child would commit an unpardonable error if he claimed the incognito as his late acquaintance f. Still these are slight difficulties, a moment's reflection must convince us, that by teaching the common names of every consonant in the alphabet, we prepare a child for misery when he begins to spell or read. A consonant as sayeth the spelling book, is a letter which cannot be pronounced without a vowel before or after it; for this reason B is called *be*, and J *cl*; but why the vowel should come first in the one case, or last in the second, we are not informed; nor are we told why the names of some letters have no resemblance whatever to their sounds, either with a vowel before or after them. Suppose that after having heard the name of the alphebe, a child was to attempt to read the words, *Here is some apple pie*. He would pronounce the letters thus :—

“*Ach e a r c i e s e s o e m e a p e p e l e p e w i c .*”

My next trial was of a different character to any I had hitherto directed or superintended. A friend at Portsea, who, anxious that the method should be tried with the convicts there, wrote to me for precise instructions. He supplied himself with lessons in large type, the words of which were visible at several yards distance, and operations were commenced with the lowest class of convicts—those unable to read—success attended the experiments; in a few weeks they were able to read any of the lessons set before them.

Although in these days we are much in advance of the work I have quoted, in many respects; there is much that is good yet to be drawn from it in others. But what was the result of the experiment of the lady with her child? *Four months* sufficed to enable the child to read any chapter in the New Testament.

The same course was recommended by me to other individuals, and followed with equal success. My next experience was personal, and took place several years after. My eldest child was approaching seven years of age, the time when, in my opinion, regular instruction in reading should commence: the age at which the mind unfolds rapidly and requires constant direction. My success gave me confidence, and I rejected all other methods of teaching reading; successive experiments confirmed me in the plan I adopted, and proved that a child may be taught to read better, and with less trouble to its teacher, and with less harass to itself by rejecting Alphabetic teaching altogether, and without having recourse to either the Syllabic or the Phonic methods.

About this time I met with the following confirmation of my experience. I will however candidly admit, that had I not felt an especial interest in the views here set forth, I might have regarded them as the “go-a-head” notions so freely exported from the West.

“If in any family, there be one individual who can read, that individual could without serious interruption or detriment to any ordinary occupation, teach all the other members of said family, old and young, to read also. If, in every settlement or vicinage, consisting of a dozen or twenty individuals or families, there be one who can read, that one could teach all the others in like manner to read. Let voluntary associations or classes, of from six to twenty persons (the members, for instance, of one or of several contiguous families,) be formed; and let them agree to meet twice or thrice a week for one or two hours, as their numbers or convenience may suggest,—to learn to read. And not many weeks or months will elapse before they will be all readers.

“Adults have been recently taught to read, in penitentiaries and elsewhere in a very short period—even within one or two weeks, in some cases—who previously did not know a letter. The chaplain or teacher opens his Bible—directs the eye of his pupil to the first verse of the first chapter—reads it distinctly—points out each word to the learner, and makes him repeat it—and so on to the end of the verse. In a few minutes, the pupil can read the verse backwards, or forwards. He now knows the words by their phasis or appearance in the book.

“Many children, have been taught to read in this manner, by individuals who had never heard of *M. Jacotot*,—and long before he was born. By him, indeed, the method with certain modifica-

tions, has been announced to the world as a grand discovery: and it constitutes the first stage in the progress of his ingenious and greatly admired system of instruction. Let every teacher, however, do the best he can.

"Let him adapt his mode of instruction to the circumstances of his pupils. He will succeed, upon any plan, within some three or six months, in teaching his class or company to read. Were such a system to be put immediately and universally into operation in Tennessee, there would not be an individual, between the ages of six and fourscore, incapable of reading at the end of the year throughout the State. Not a dollar is wanted for the purpose. Any books will answer. Any place will do. Any hour of any day or evening will suffice.

"Now, if there be but one intelligent, patriotic, benevolent individual in each district, town or country, who will undertake to enlighten the people on this subject, and persuade them to co-operate in this good work of self-instruction, it will be speedily accomplished. Sunday Schools judiciously, in all parts of the country would certainly and easily effect the same object."—*President Lindsey's Lecture on Domestic Schools.*

I personally superintended the next attempt thus to teach Adults to read; it was made at Millbank Penitentiary. Myself and two friends were received by the chaplain, the schoolmasters, and several officers; and three classes of convicts were taken in succession. Of the two first I have little to say here; it was too mournful a sight to see men mixed together from every rank of life, all reduced to one level by crime and the prison garb, some of whom were qualified from their previous education and intellectual attainments to be the teachers of those who were placed over them as schoolmasters; but with the lowest class, consisting of about twenty, brought forward for the occasion, I was deeply interested. They might be called the very subsidence of society, and they were selected that morning by the schoolmasters present for their utter inability to read. We took a large type lesson, containing about fifty words, and commenced by reading the whole of it, the lesson was placed before them, and their attention was directed to it; each sentence was then read, and the men were called upon, first simultaneously, then individually, to read it after the teacher. Every sentence was read and understood. Questions on the sense of the lesson were asked and answered correctly, except in one or two instances; and with the exception of one youth, and he of very low intellect, every word in the lesson was pointed out by every one in the class, as it was called for, unconnectedly, and every word read, connectedly; the only occasional stumbles in the course of the lesson being with the small words, such as *on, no, so, upon, unto, &c.* This was a very satisfactory experiment to me, as it proved in how very short a time adults might be taught to read; and I remember one strong impression that my mind received at the time, connected with Sunday Schools. I had shortly before visited one, where two-thirds of the pupils were engaged in *spelling lessons*; while on this plan each child might have carried away in the precious hour devoted to instruction, both in words and meaning, a *living lesson* from our Saviour's life, instead of *dead letters*, acquired only to be forgotten before another Sunday. When we left the convicts, my friends and myself were invited by the chaplain to meet the schoolmasters, to have some conversation with them on the propriety of adopting this plan of teaching reading throughout the prison. I am sorry to say that the schoolmasters raised various objections to its adoption; the chaplain was only there temporarily, during the illness of the regular chaplain, and could not adopt it without the schoolmasters were content to carry it on with spirit; he, however, had one vacancy for a schoolmaster; and he requested me to find him a teacher who would carry out this plan independent of the other schoolmasters. I was so fortunate as to meet with one who had already had some experience with me, and he was appointed. In the course of several years he has received every encouragement, is a most exemplary officer, has had his salary advanced several times, and I trust in the end he will do his country good service in the education of convicts.

The next incident I shall mention took place in a gentleman's family a few miles hence. Calling one afternoon, I asked his eldest boy, whom I will call Willy, if he had learned to read? His father shrugged his shoulders and said they had been laboring for two years at *reading*, but with no success. I professed my willingness to teach him, and not to leave the house till he could read something, and then they would only have to follow the same path, and in a few months he would be able to read well. I felt confident that I could achieve enough in half an hour to convince his father and mother that there was no real difficulty in the matter. I asked for a book in tolerably large type. A Bible was handed to me; I objected to it, but, nevertheless, said it should do for the occasion.

I opened the book at one of the beautiful incidents in our Lord's life, and assured Will that he should be able to read it without any mistake, and without spelling, if he would be attentive for a short time. I went through the process which I shall detail presently, and in a quarter of an hour Willy read every word of several verses, with the exception of one or two *little words*, which are always stumbling blocks at first, from their similarity.

It is no little satisfaction to me that I am not here to-day under the *disadvantage* of advocating a *new thing*. You have seen that *Jacotot*, the *Edgeworths*, *Dufief*, and *President Lindsey* have all been before me—some in principles, others in their application. Whether what I have said, or may yet say, is accepted or rejected by your verdict, I feel confident that all who are present must go with me to a great extent.

You know that we do not spell words to little children when we are teaching them to speak, and that we endeavour to make them understand, not by selecting the shortest words, but words of simple meaning, whether they are short or long.

You are aware that for the same reason that we do not speak to little children in monosyllables, we do not divide polysyllables pausing in their utterance, in order that each syllable may be better understood; and that if we did so, such a word as *horse-man-ship* would not have its meaning facilitated thereby.

You are also convinced, but not by anything that I have said, that if we further divided words into their simplest parts in speaking to a child, instead of saying, "You must take some physic," we should have to say—giving the alphabetic name-sounds—

"You must take some physic."

And thus far I think you go with me, if no further. But depend upon it, that if the child knew at first the difference between the two modes of learning to read, the parts being so unlike the whole, he would rather take the physic than the reading administered in such small and contradictory doses.

You are all well aware that if you were commencing the study of a new language, you would not follow the method generally adopted in teaching our little natives to read their native tongue; words not letters would be the objects of your attainments.

And lastly, you may all probably remember from your own experience, that a book written in monosyllables is one of the most difficult you can place before a child from the great similarity of the words. It is only the inexperienced in practical teaching who will produce school books in monosyllables; every good teacher will reject such books for the three following reasons.

1st—from their constrained adoption of short words.

2nd—from their want of variety in the appearance of the words—

one of the elements of success in teaching reading.

3rd—from the monotony their common use induces.

I firmly believe that the monotony so prevalent in many of our schools for the poor and the middle classes, (not National Schools only,) is brought on and fostered by the prolonged use of lessons of this kind.

"*The way of God is a good way*" seems to us all, at first sight and sound, a simple enough sentence; but we should teach ideas as well as words, and what *does way* present to a child's mind? Does it bring before him the conducting of the Universe under the natural laws? Does it present to him the custom of God in dealing with his creatures? Does it bring God's moral laws before his mind? Does it show him God in Christ, reconciling the world to himself? I will venture to say that it does none of these, but that it either brings no idea to his mind, or an incorrect one. The sentence is a meionomy, and of too difficult a character for a child to comprehend; and I trust you will agree with me that figurative language is not adapted for a child's early lessons. This example is not unfairly chosen, and will illustrate my point that monosyllabic lessons are not the easiest.

I must now say a few words on the mode of teaching reading which experience has led me to adopt and to advocate. Convinced that its general acceptance would be a public advantage, I have done all in my power to make it known, especially by means of the little works of which I claim the parentage. In several of them I have made a few observations on this subject. I will read from the preface of "*Reading without Spelling.*"

ORDER OF PROCEEDING WITH A PUPIL OR A CLASS.

The pupil is supposed not to be able to read, not to know a word of the language, nor a letter of the alphabet.

1. The teacher is to mention the subject of the lesson, and the instruction it is intended to convey, so as to interest the pupil.

2. He is to place the lesson before the pupil, and read deliberately the whole lesson.

3. He is to re-commence, and read the first sentence, word by word, pointing to each word as he reads it. The pupil is to read each word after the teacher, his eyes being directed to each word as he reads to the end of the sentence, and so on to the end of the lesson.

4. The teacher is to read an entire sentence, and the pupil is to read it after him, and so on to the end of the lesson.

5. The teacher is to read again the entire sentence, and the pupil is to repeat the preceding sentences, till he reaches the end of the lesson.

6. The entire lesson is then read by the pupil without the aid of the teacher, unless a word should occur which causes hesitation, in which case the teacher is to pronounce that word.

By this course of proceeding it will generally be found that the pupil will read the entire lesson with ease. The teacher is not to be discouraged by the appearance of words of two, three, or more syllables. If such words express a simple idea they are easy words, and much more easy for pupils to remember than many of the short words.

Writing from dictation will be a sufficient spelling exercise, first the words, then sentences, then whole lessons.

I have nothing to add to this part of my paper, and will conclude with a few remarks on the improvement of the style of reading in our National Schools.

As a general rule I do not think the children *hear* enough of good reading. The fault cannot be attributed to the mode of speaking in the class to which they belong and with whom they associate out of school-hours. It is often to me a matter of surprise how well the uneducated classes speak, making due allowance for want of grammar and provincialisms, but though the reading of school-boys may be slightly affected by provincial pronunciation, it is not this that constitutes the peculiar fault which I find almost universal in their reading.

By the method of Teaching Reading which I have brought before you, the teacher must necessarily read much in the hearing of the children; the result would certainly be beneficial to the style of the children.

This part of the process is confined to children who are learning to read, but there are advanced classes also to be improved in style, and I would recommend that each lesson, or a considerable portion of it, should be read by the teacher before the class commences reading it. The various subjects—the different kinds of composition—the peculiarities of authors require at times a different mode of reading; these will be seen in the teacher's reading, and imitated.

There are some excellent directions* for reading, gathered from a variety of sources, in the introductory portion of *Sullivan's Literary Class Book*. Enough, I do not hesitate to say, for every school-master, and saving the necessity of reference to more expensive works. Of this book I think every schoolmaster should have a copy if only for the first 150 pages.

I think the Bible should be read *as the Bible*, and as nothing else; I see no objection to the children of the highest class in a school reading the Bible daily, with the master or mistress, but I would not have it treated as an ordinary school book;—the very fair objection arises,—How then would you have the Bible read? To this I reply that I would have a portion read by the master to the pupils every day; under such an arrangement, already provided in our Liturgy, as to go through the whole of the Bible in a year; and for this reason, that the children would understand it better from the master's reading than from their own; especially, if, as might be expected in their case, the sense were interrupted by pausing to spell the more difficult words, the attention of a whole class being diverted from the subject during such process. To this observation I would only add, that the reading of the head class for the day should be, in all cases, the chapter or portion read publicly in the school by the master.

I should regard this practice as a consistent application of some of the principles I have now set forth: viz., that children (and adults also) should learn to read by *words*, not by *letters*—while they should acquire their style of reading, whatever the subject, "grave, gay, lively, or severe," from the tones of their teacher.

Deaf and Dumb, Institution, Doncaster.—*The English Journal of Education*.

CHARLES BAKER.

Catechism on Methods of Teaching.

TRANSLATED FROM DIESTERWEG'S "ALMANAC," (*Jahrbuch*,) FOR 1855 AND 1856,

BY DR. HERMANN WIMMER.

(Continued from our last.)

VIII. GEOGRAPHY. BY ARDENRODE.

1. *What are the principles on which the present methods of teaching geography are based?*

They are intimately connected with the general principles of education. Some consider it necessary to proceed from a general view of the globe, in order to gain at first a general outline,—a scaffold, by means of which the building may be gradually constructed in all its details,—and this in such a way that the pupil shall remain always conscious of the relation of the several parts to the whole, and that the latter itself shall gradually be made more and more perspicuous in all respects.

Others think that the beginner should first be led into a sphere commensurate with his faculties, near to him and capable of being surveyed by his bodily eye; and that he ought to be made familiar with it, in order to sharpen his sight and tongue for the later geographical perceptions, and the intellect for the relations more and more complicated. Then, and not before, the boundaries of this field should be gradually extended, to give his growing powers more extended exercise, until, at last, in the highest grade of his studies, the whole earth is considered in all its various relations.

Others again are of opinion, that the mere observing, hearing and speaking of geographical matter, does not give thorough knowledge; that it is requisite to appeal to the spontaneous activity of the pupils themselves, and to cause them gradually to complete drawn or pictured representations of the localities studied. This method they say is not only in harmony with the juvenile inclination to such work, but gives an indelible knowledge of what is pictured, particularly of its relations of form and surface; which will serve as a solid basis for all further instruction.

On these three foundations rest the ideas of the geographical methods now in use,—the analytical, synthetical and constructive, (drawing,) method, each of which, in practice, admits of various modifications.

2. *What are the peculiar advantages and disadvantages of the analytical method?*

One advantage that should not be undervalued is, that it designedly keeps in view the connection of the several parts of the earth to the whole, so that, from the beginning, all discontinuance of the perceptions is avoided. It most carefully regards especially the topical and physical elements, as well as the necessity of graphic representation. It, however, has this peculiar disadvantage, that it forces upon the pupil the perception of the whole, at a time when he is not yet able to comprehend it fully; and, in particular, not to understand the general relations of climate, soil, produce, etc. It is impossible to carry the beginner along at once in all the collateral studies, e. g., in natural knowledge, so as to thoroughly acquaint him with all these elements. Many things consequently remain an undigested mass, gathered and retained merely in the hope of future understanding.

3. *By whom has the analytical method been particularly recommended?*

The "philanthropist," Guts-Muths, has, in his "Essay on methodical instruction in geography," (*Versuch einer Methodik des geographischen Unterrichts*, 1845,) exclusively advocated the analytical method, which is also used almost exclusively in scientific works. (see Berghaus, Room, Kalkstein, Rode, Barth, Viehoff, etc) Some have attempted to lessen the inconvenience of analysis, by dividing the material into appropriate courses.

4. *In what respect has the synthetical method of teaching geography unquestionable value.*

In that, according to correct principles of pedagogy, a small and easily comprehensible space is treated at the outset; that the most "concrete" things, easily understood by the children, form the ground-work of further instruction; that these small districts or parts are by this method made vividly distinct wholes, the gradual extension of which, and its increasing variety, are well accommodated to the gradual development of the pupil's mind. The subjects and relations thus learned are at the same time the elements of all geographical instruction. Moreover, by this method the pupil gains, within a reasonable time, and in an orderly way, a desirable familiarity with his native place and country; and in case the extent of his studies has to be curtailed, the more remote

parts of the globe would be omitted, rather than those with which the scholar and his life are closely connected, and which, therefore, must be most important to him. This method, likewise, admits of laying out definite courses. However, the strict and complete carrying out of it, would lead to an improper extension of the field to be gone through, and might, by tiresome repetition, cause other disadvantages.

5. Who advocate the synthetical method?

Charles Ritter, (see Guts-Muths, *Bibliothek*;) Henning, "Guide to methodical instruction in geography;" (*Seilsfaden zu einem methodischen unterricht in der geographie*, 1812;) Harnish, "Geography," (*Weltkunde*;) Diesterweg, "Introduction to methodical instruction in geography;" (*Anleitung zu einem methodischen unterricht in der geographie*;) and Ziemann, "Geographical instruction in the burger schools, (*Geographische unterricht in Burgerschulen*, 1833.)

6. What is to be thought of a combination of these two methods?

Strict consistency in either of them leads inevitably to many inconveniences. Therefore, we must either follow one in the main and make all kinds of exceptional uses of the other, or contrive to combine them judiciously. It is a great concession made to the synthetical method by the analytical, that the latter should permit, as introductory to the proper geographical course, a preliminary one, to include observation of the neighborhood and its objects; drawing easy sketches of the school-room, house, garden, etc.; instruction in measures of length and breadth, (if possible in the open air;) experiments in sketching the neighborhood from an elevated point, with estimates of area by eye, on a small scale, (for children of 7-8 years;) and geographical instruction on the native country, (province or state,) with an occasional exposition of the elementary geographical conceptions. Bormann, who tries to combine the best parts of the two methods, makes the first described preliminary course, (some what modified, and with the addition of observations of the most simple phenomena of the sky,) his *first* course; giving in the *second* a view of the globe, with instruction upon its principal imaginary lines, and the drawing of them, with a general view of Europe, and a particular one of Germany; advancing in the *third* course, to a more accurate description of Germany, followed by a view of the other European and extra-European countries. Such a combination may be considered as appropriate and practical; still it is not the only one possible.

7. What are the advantages of the constructive, (drawing,) method?

The drawing method proposes, by construction of maps, instruction in the elements of such construction, before all regular teaching, to furnish the basis and means of all geographical knowledge. It places especial value on the creative activity of the pupils; and upon such an impression of the pictures drawn, that this may be indelible and vivid in the pupil's mind and form the foundation on which future geographical teaching shall rest. The accuracy and strictness which this method gives in fixing and enlarging the forms is unquestionably very valuable, for very much depends on a thorough acquaintance with these forms. A designedly and gradual advance from the most general ground-forms to the more correct contours, and filling them out afterward with details of surface, is quite correspondent with pedagogical principles. This method, however, requires far too much in the way of accurate memory of numerous localities laid down. Geography contains still many other things of essential value, for which there would scarcely remain sufficient time and interest.

8. How is this constructive method usually carried out in detail?

Agren, general text-book, Part I, Physical Geography, (*Allgemeines Lehrbuch: physische Erdbeschreibung*,) Berlin, 1832, would first have the maps of the two hemispheres drawn, on a planispherical projection. Some characteristic points, (capes, mouths of rivers, etc.,) are then to be fixed and joined by straight lines, to gain a sort of ground-plan of the area. The formation of the coast comes next, and afterward the parts of the surface are put in,—all by fixed and defined rules. This method, therefore, distinguishes between description of the coast and of the surface.

Kapp, "Course of Geographical Drawing," (*Cehrgang der Zeichnenden Erdkunde*, Minden, 1837, takes the square form as a basis, and likewise assumes some characteristic points in the same, which he joins at first by straight lines, until successive corrections give the right representation.

Klößen rejects the gradual elaboration of the right map. According to him it must be drawn accurately from the very beginning by aid of some determining lines.

Canstein takes neither the whole geographical net of lines nor the form of a square; but any convenient geometrical figures, as triangles, rectangles, circles, etc., and uses but few meridians and

parallel circles. He admits no copying, nor does he aim at strict accuracy in all determinations of boundaries and directions.

Lohse keeps to the normal directions of the rivers; has copies made from a given model-drawing, and requires a memory of what has been drawn.

Oppermann, "Guide to Geographical Instruction," (*Leitfaden zum geographischen unterricht*,) gives the pupils the right maps, ready made, in accurate contours, has these contours painted over in the succession in which the countries occur in the lessons, and then the details of the surface put in.

Klößen's method, (see above,) seems to be the best. On the plan of Bormann and Vogel, the pupils have skeleton maps, with the chief positions already marked, (see the maps of Vogel, Freihold, Holle, etc.,) and gradually draw the correct maps.

9. To what limitations is the constructive method subject in the common schools?

The drawing of maps, (by which must not be understood mechanical copying,) can not of course begin until the scholars have skill in drawing generally sufficient to construct a relatively correct map with some success. But geographical instruction itself can not be put off until that time; therefore, drawing maps can not be placed at the beginning, but must take its place in a higher grade. Again, unless geography is to occupy all the study and leisure time of the pupils with making neat maps, not entire atlases, but only a few maps, can be drawn, (that of the native province and country, or one or another country of Europe, of Palestine, etc.; but scarcely, with advantage, the two planispheres.) At school, there is not time to draw every thing, and if there were, it would be better used in other things, since map-drawing, an excellent aid to geographical instruction, is not that instruction itself.

10. What is the proper introduction to teaching geography?

It must be preceded by an acquaintance with the relations of space in the immediate neighborhood, and with the geographical objects there, as well as by an elementary knowledge of maps, and thus of elementary conceptions, for the sake of conversing on the same; else the pupil can not understand clearly nor advance successfully.—*Barnard's American Journal of Education*.

(To be continued.)

Tests of a good Gallery Lesson.

In measuring the success of a collective lesson, and in criticising its merits and defects, the following are the points, which require most attention:—

I. *Language*.—This should be simple, adapted to the age and attainments of the children, free from pedantry and affectation, yet well chosen, fluent and accurate. The faults which most frequently occur under this head are, inattention to minor matters of pronunciation, aspirates, and distinct utterance; the use of untamilar or unsuitable words; and inattention to the grammatical structure of sentences. Long, entangled, or obscure sentences ought to be specially avoided.

II. *Matter*.—The choice of the subject, and its fitness for the comprehension of the class of scholars, should be first regarded; then the selection of the right facts, the exclusion of all irrelevant matter, and the careful limitation of the lesson to such a number of facts as children can be reasonably expected to learn within a prescribed time. It often happens that in the delivery of a lesson a teacher aims at imparting much more than ought to be attempted or can possibly be remembered; or he does not consider the special needs of the class of children whom he has to teach; or he fails to connect the subject with their previous knowledge and experience, or he is imperfectly provided with information; or has not a sufficient variety of illustration at command. Sometimes, too, a lesson on a common object errs by confining itself to common facts, such as children would necessarily learn out of doors; as if there could be any value in a lesson on a familiar thing, unless some unfamiliar or new knowledge were superadded to whatever the child knew of the subject before. All these faults may be avoided by careful and thorough preparation, and by writing out full and systematic notes beforehand. In connexion with the subject, it should be remembered that, although every teacher should determine to keep close to the subject in hand, and not to introduce more facts than fairly lie within its compass—he, himself, should have a considerable reserve of information on the point, and should know more than he attempts to teach; otherwise, he will be unable to offer explanation of any new difficulty which may seem to rise out of the lesson. Moreover, a teacher always feels embarrassed with the consciousness that he is approaching the limits of his own knowledge; and this feeling will destroy his confidence, and greatly interfere with the success of any lesson.

III. *Method*.—This includes the orderly and logical arrangement of the facts to be learnt; the right employment of questions, of illustrations, and of ellipses; judicious recapitulation at the end of each division of the subject; exhaustive recapitulation at the end of the lesson; spelling of difficult words; careful registration of the facts in order on a black-board, as soon as they are learnt; and many other points. The commonest errors in the method of a collective lesson are the employment of technical terms before the use or need of them has been understood; the neglect of the inductive process; the telling of facts which could with a little trouble have been elicited from the children; the too rapid transition from one fact to another, before the first has been thoroughly understood; the careless uses of ellipses in cases where they are supplied merely by echoing a word just uttered; the unequal distribution of questions throughout the class, by which a number of the scholars are often wholly neglected, and the readiness to depend on simultaneous answers. The method of a lesson is always defective if thought is not encouraged on the part of the children; if they have not been led to observe minutely and attend carefully; if the sequence of facts and reasonings and moral lessons is not perfectly logical and natural; or if the children have not been led to desire the instruction even before it was imparted.

IV. *Illustration*.—This may be of two kinds—visible, and nearly verbal: the former should, whether in the form of maps, pictures, diagrams, models or objects always be simple, unencumbered, plain, and very intelligible. Much judgment is required in the selection of the best illustrations of this kind, and still more in the dexterous and effective use of them. The oral illustrations depend on the pictorial or descriptive power of a teacher, and form a most important element in the success of a lesson; they require to be skilfully chosen, and to be put forth in the simplest language; they may, unless great care be taken, betray a teacher into redundancy and looseness, and if the analogies or similes be not perfectly sound, they are very apt to mislead learners, and leave false impressions. Hence, in judging of the value of such illustrations as are employed in a lesson, it is necessary to consider first their fitness and appropriateness; and secondly, the discretion and judgment with which they are used.

V. *Manner*.—If this is pleasing and yet dignified—if the teacher can manifest sympathy with the class, and yet show a determination to teach—if he is self-possessed and free from embarrassment, and yet not hard, arrogant, or sarcastic—the success and moral value of the lesson will be in a great measure secured. Among young teachers especially, there is often a tendency either to an ungentle and harsh demeanour which repels the learners, or a familiar and jocose style, which does still more mischief. The characteristics of a good manner in lesson giving are ease and alacrity of movement, quickness of observation, earnestness, and a demeanour which, while it invites confidence, secures authority, and rivets attention.

VI. *Discipline*.—No lesson can be regarded as successful, in which the order of the class is not sustained from beginning to end. If the first symptoms of disorder and inattention are not instantly detected and checked; if the supervision is not complete and effective over every child; if any needless threats are uttered, or if, after announcing any intentions as to rewards and punishments, the teacher fails to fulfil these intentions, the lesson will be defective in this important particular. Of course, the main preservatives for the discipline of a class are the interest and general attractiveness and efficiency of the teaching; but next to this, order will be found to depend on vigilance, and on quickness of eye and of ear, on the teacher's part, as well as on the firmness with which he insists on obedience to all his commands.

VII. *Results*.—Finally, the success of every lesson can only be judged of by the result. If the final recapitulation shows that little has been really appropriated by the children, or if, when they are tested by written examination, or otherwise they cannot reproduce what has been taught, the lesson must be regarded as a failure. No apparent skill in the design, or clearness in the delivery of the lesson, will compensate for deficiency under this head. In summing up the merits of a lesson, it will, therefore, be necessary to take into account, first, the number of facts which have actually been received and understood by the learners; and, secondly, the proportion of the whole number of learners which has thus received and understood them. Both of these circumstances require to be well considered.

It is in the belief that model lessons for criticism are now given much more frequently than heretofore in good schools, and the pupil-teachers and assistants generally will find the systematic criticism of such lessons a very valuable exercise, that we have

thus sought to enumerate some of the main points to which attention should be directed in estimating the success and excellence of gallery lessons generally.—*Educational Record*.

Improprieties of Speech.

We often hear persons speak of "an use," "an union," etc. As properly might they say "an year." When *u* at the beginning of a word has the sound of *yoo*, we must treat it as a consonant, and use *a* instead of *an* before it. So in the word *one*, the vowel sound is preceded by the consonant sound of *w*, as if it were *awin*; and we might as properly say "an wonder," as say "such an one." Before words commencing with *h* silent, *an* must be used; as "an hour," "an honest man," etc. Before words commencing with *h* aspirated we use *a* as "a hope," "a high hill," "a humble cot," etc. Do we aspirate the *h* in *humble*? Yes. So say Webster and the most modern authorities.

It is a common mistake to speak of a disagreeable *effluvia*. The word is *effluvium* in the singular, and *effluvia* in the plural. A similar form should be observed with *automaton*, *arcantum*, *erratum*, *phenomenon*, *alluvium*, and several other words which are less frequently used, and which change the *um* or *on* into *a*, to form the plural. In *memorandum* and *encumbrance*, usage has made it allowable to form the plural in the ordinary way, by the addition of *s*. We may say either *memorandums* or *memoranda*, *encumbrances* or *encumbrance*. A man, who should have known better, remarked the other day, "I found but one errata in the book." *Erratum*, he should have said; one *erratum*, two or more *errata*.

There is an awkwardness of speech prevalent among all classes of American society in such sentences as the following:—"He quitted his horse and got on to a stage-coach;" "He jumped from the counter on to the floor;" "She laid it on to a dish;" "I threw it on to the fire." Why use two prepositions where one would be quite as explicit, and far more elegant? Now, in the present day, would think of saying, "He came up to the city for to go to the exhibition," because the preposition *for* would be an awkward superfluity; so is to in the examples given. There are some situations, however, in which the two prepositions may with propriety be employed, though they are never indispensable; as, "I accompanied such a one to Bridgeport, and then walked on to Fairfield." But here *two* motions are implied, the walking onward and the reaching of a certain point.

There seems to be a natural tendency to deal in redundancy of prepositions. Many people talk of "continuing on." I should be glad to be informed in what other direction it would be possible to *continue*.

It is illiterate to put the preposition *of* after the adverb *off*; as "the satin measured twelve yards before I cut this piece *off of* it;" "the fruit was gathered *off of* that tree;" "he fell *off of* the scaffolding."

There is an inaccuracy connected with the use of the disjunctive conjunctions *or* and *nor* by persons who speak in the following manner:—"Henry or John *are* to go to the lecture;" "His son or his nephew *have* since put in their claim;" "Neither one nor the other *have* the least chance of success." The conjunctions disjunctive *or* and *nor* separate the objects in sense, as the conjunction copulative unites them; and as, by the use of the former, the things stand forth separately and singly to the comprehension, the verb or pronoun must be rendered in the singular number also; as, "Henry or John *is* to go to the lecture;" "His son or his nephew *has* put in his claim;" "Neither one nor the other *has* the least chance of success."

Many people improperly substitute the disjunctive *but* for the comparative *than*; as, "The mind no sooner entertains any proposition, *but* it presently hastens to some hypothesis to bottom it on."—*Locke*. "No other resource *but* this was allowed him;" "My behaviour," says she, "has, I fear, been the death of a man who had no other fault *but* that of loving me too much."—*Spectator*.

Sometimes a relative pronoun is used instead of a conjunction, in such sentences as the following: "I do not know but *what* I shall go to New York to-morrow;" instead of "I do not know but *that*," etc.

Never say "cut it in half;" for this you cannot do, unless you could annihilate one half. You may "cut it in two," or "cut it in halves," or "cut it through," or "divide it;" but no human ability will enable you to *cut it in half*.

There are speakers who are too refined to use the past (or perfect) participle of the verbs "to drink," "to run," "to begin," etc., and substitute the *imperfect tense*: thus, instead of saying, "I have drunk," "He has run," "They have begun," they say "I have drank," "He has ran," "They have began," etc. Some of the dictionaries

tolerate *drank* as a past participle; but *drunk* is unquestionably correct English. Probably it is from an unpleasant association with the word *drunk* that modern refinement has changed it to *drank*.

It is very easy to mistake the nominative when another noun comes between it and the verb, which is frequently the case in the use of the indefinite and distributive pronouns; as, "One of those houses *were* sold last week;" "Each of the daughters *are* to have a separate share;" "Every tree in those plantations *have* been injured by the storm;" "Either of the children *are* at liberty to claim it." Here it will be perceived that the pronouns "one," "each" "every," "either" are the true nominatives to the verbs; but the intervening noun in the plural number, in each sentence, deludes the ear; and the speaker, without reflection, renders the verb in the plural instead of the singular number. The same error is often committed when no second noun appears to plead an apology for the fault: as, "everybody has a right to look after *their* own interest;" "either *are* at liberty to claim it." This is the effect of pure carelessness.

There is another very common error, the reverse of that last mentioned, which is that of rendering the adjective pronoun in the plural number instead of the singular, in such sentences as the following: "These kind of entertainments are not conducive to general improvement;" "Those sort of experiments are often dangerous." This error seems to originate in the habit which people insensibly acquire of supposing the prominent noun in the sentence (such as "entertainments" or "experiments") to be the noun qualified by the adjective "these" or "those;" instead of which, it is "kind," "sort," or any word of that description *immediately following* the adjective which should be so qualified, and the adjective must be made to agree with it in the singular number. We confess, it is not so agreeable to the ear to say "This kind of entertainments," "That sort of experiments," but it would be easy to give the sentence a different form, and say "Entertainments of this kind;" "Experiments of that sort;" by which the requisitions of grammar would be satisfied, and those of euphony, too.

Whatever is worth doing, is worth doing well. If our native language is worth studying, it is worth speaking well. Youth is the time for forming correct habits of speech.—*English Journal of Education.*

OFFICIAL NOTICES.



EDUCATION OFFICE, Montreal, 31st May 1858.

All municipalities, whose reports of the census for 1857 shall not have been received at this office on or before the fifteenth day of July next, will be deprived of their share in the government grant hereafter to become due to them.

APPOINTMENTS.

His Excellency, the Governor General, has been pleased to approve of the following appointments:

JACQUES CARTIER NORMAL SCHOOL.

Mr. Frederick M. Ossaye to be an associate professor. Mr. Ossaye will give lessons on agriculture and rural economy.

CATHOLIC BOARD OF EXAMINERS FOR THE DISTRICT OF QUEBEC.

The Reverend Jean Langevin, Pft., to be a member of the Catholic Board of Examiners for the district of Quebec, in the place of His Lordship the Right Reverend Dr. Moran, Bishop of Kingston, resigned.

SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.

County of Bagot.—Stc. Rosalie: MM. André Beauguard and Olivier Sénécal.

ERECTION OF SCHOOL MUNICIPALITY.

His Excellency, the Governor General, has been pleased to dismember from the municipality of Trois-Pistoles, county of Temiscouata, that portion of the said municipality hereafter described, and to erect the same into a separate municipality, under the name of "Les Trois-Pistoles No. 1," that is to say: All that tract of land situated to the North-East of the seigniorial line of St. Simon, running towards the South-West as far as the division line separating the property of François Rioux from that

of Augustin Beoucher dit Morency, in the first concession of the said municipality of Trois-Pistoles, being about two leagues and a half in length and comprising the districts numbers one, two and three of the said municipality.

Also.—To erect into a separate school municipality, the new parish of Ste. Anne de Stukely, in the county of Shefford, to be comprised within the following limits, that is to say:—The first fourteen numbers, in each of the eleven ranges of the township of Stukely, containing about five miles and a half in front by eleven miles in depth, bounded as follows, to wit: to the South by the township of Bolton, to the West by the township of Shefford, to the North by the township of Ely, and to the East by the line separating all the above mentioned fourteen numbers, from the lots numbers fifteen in each of the said eleven ranges of the said township of Stukely.

(Signed,)

P. J. O. CHAUVEAU,
Superintendent of Education.

CATHOLIC BOARD OF EXAMINERS FOR THE DISTRICT OF MONTREAL.

Misses Philomène Bariteau, Hermine Racine, Louise Allard, Georgina Birs, Elmire Birs, Corinne Birs, Julie Malo, Philomène Aubé, Marie Hébert, Eulalie Beaudry, Louise Chenevert, Adéline Michi, Esther Charest, Mathilde Goyet, Flavie Blanchard, Emma Blain, Adéline Brault, Eliza Gagnon, Philomène Gosselin, Philomène Campbell; Mrs Joseph Chartrand; Misses Olive Dugal, Henriette Leblanc, Odile Bousquet, Céleste Davignon, Victoria Lemay, Joséphine Constantin, Sophie Trudeau, Sophie Ricard, Céline Ricard, Olivine Lamadeleine, Rose de Lima Boire, Philomène Bédard, Euphrasie Brière, Philomène Sauvé, Octavie Beauchemin; Mrs, Joseph Lanthier; Misses Adèle Monti, Philomène Pilon, Rose Anna Brady, Philomène Bonneau, Céline Godet, Philomène Foucher, Marguerite Mayer, Malvina Guyon, Adélaïde Charon, Marie Lagrandeur, Geneviève Champagne, Philomène Rodrigue; Mistresses D Bertrand and Luc Brunet; Misses Octavie Couillard, Emilie V. Hamel, Rosalie Brunet, Méline Mireau; Mrs. Hercule Lavoie; Misses Modeste Turcot, Adéline Charlebois, Marguerite Latour, Rose Poirier, Laure Chapeleau, Clara Chapeleau, Julienne Paquet, De Lima Bissonnet, Louise Minville, Hélène Lajoie, Eléonore Deschamps, Céline Beauregard, Marie Auger, Lucie Dauphinois, Virginie Lapré, Céline Dufresne, Philomène Charpen-tier, Pélégie Benoit, Onésime Chenay, Marguerite Boursier, Euphémie Dégré, Dina Gaudette, Céline Côté, Marguerite St. Germain, Esther Giguère, Marie Lalancette, Céline Allard, Henriette Chartrand, Apolline Cadieux, Philomène Gravelle, Mélodie Morelle, Adéline Lanthier, Clémence Cousin, Marie Beauregard, Marguerite Hervieux, Denise Vincelot, Sophie Cellier, Louise Demarbe, Marie Richard, Philomène Sylvestre, Julie Lajeunesse, Philomène Boileau, Henriette Paquet, Adélaïde Renault, Emélie Juneau, Domitilde Charland, Cordelia Le Testu, Emma Collin, Léocadie Brosseau, Almira Foisy and Marguerite Thibodeau, have obtained diplomas authorising them to teach in elementary schools.

F. X. VALADE,
Secretary.

CATHOLIC BOARD OF EXAMINERS FOR THE DISTRICT OF QUEBEC.

Miss Marie Louise Turgeon has received a diploma authorising her to teach in model or superior primary schools.

Misses Delphine Filteau, Alodie Roirault dit Laliberté, Rose de Lima Péruse, Marie Glympe Lauze, Marie Noémie Frenette, Joséphine Lemay, Marie Euphémie Péruse, Marie C. Bélanger, Virginie Blanchet, Euphémie Coulombe, Marie Hermine Toussignaut dit Vaudreuil, Marie Bernard, Hortense Auger, Vitalie Péruse, Marie Ursule Bélanger, Emilie Ludovine Vaillancourt, Julie Fraser, Marie Clarice Legendre, Marie Hermine Hamel, Marie Marceline Biron, Marie Zélie Demers, Marie Philomène Cayer, Adéline Boisvert, Marie Delphine Sévigny, Marie Desanges Gingras, Marie Sophie Noël, Marie Desanges Noël, Sarah Fréchette, Elizabeth Aubin, Marie Nathalie Côté, Marie Balsamic Turgeon, Marie Adèle Turgeon, Apolline Leclerc, Pamela Picard; Mr. Charles Dolbigny; Misses Agnès Bardé, Monique Bouchard, Marie Flavie Desgagné; Mr. Charles Philippe Martineau; Misses Léa Tremblay, Marie Zoé Charrier, Julie Catherine Audet, Stephanie ou Sophranie Turcot; Mrs. Exilda Sauvageau, wife of Mr. Frédéric Picard; Misses Flavie Clémentine Pilot, Marguerite Marie Obeline Labarre, Marie Anne Blais, Henriette Goulet, Esther Savard, Rose de Lima Angers, Picrie Clémence Gagnon and Mr. François-Xavier Chabot, have obtained diplomas authorising them to teach in elementary school.

C. DELAGRAVE,
Secretary.

BOARD OF EXAMINERS FOR THE DISTRICT OF THREE-RIVERS.

Miss Mary Anna Cameron; Messrs. D. N. St. Cyr et L. M. St. Cyr, have obtained diplomas authorising them to teach in academies.

Mr. Simon Jude LeBlanc has obtained a diploma authorising him to teach in model or superior primary schools.

Misses Henriette Beaudoin, Clémentine Morrissette, Adèle Duplessis, Clarice Lord, Louise Dupaul, Sarah Lemay, Zoé Martin, Marie Bergeron, Eliza Genest, Caroline Héon, Adéline Genest, Céline Ayotte, Mathilde Lefebvre, Philomène St. Cyr; Mr. Joseph Nathon; Misses Sophie Gagnon, Elmire Traversy, Philomène Bourque, Marie Proulx, Henriette Leblanc,

Aurélie Ringuette, Anafète Gravel, Eléonore Genest, Caroline Faucher, Hedwidge Goupille, Elizabeth Vidal, Céline Champoux, Edile Poisson, Rebecca Courtois, Eugénie Courchène; Mrs. Hedwidge Gill; Misses Olivine Blais and Emilie Blais, have obtained diplomas authorising them to teach in elementary schools.

J. HERBERT,
Secretary.

BOARD OF EXAMINERS FOR THE DISTRICT OF KAMOURASKA.

Misses Malvina Fortier, Mélanie Michaud, Philomène Lamarre, Eméranche Ouellet, Marie Emélie Auctil, Victoire Héribé et Philomène Lagacé, have obtained diplomas authorising them to teach in elementary schools.

P. DUMAIS,
Secretary.

BOARD OF EXAMINERS FOR THE COUNTY OF STANSTED.

Messrs. Alonzo G. Martin, Wm H. Mayo, Eli Ives, Jr., and Henry C. Rugg, have obtained diplomas authorising them to teach in model or superior primary schools.

Misses Mary Osgood, Adélaïde Ives, Elizabeth E. Long, Elvira Hall, Eléonore Elliott, Nancy M. Rafferty, Mary Pierce, Sydia J. Laberee, Sarah Boisvert, Julie Legendre, Luce Dufresne, Meroa Lebourveau and Mr. James Winslow, have obtained diplomas authorising them to teach in elementary schools.

S. A. HOND,
Secretary.

NOTICE TO THE DIRECTORS OF INSTITUTIONS CLAIMING AID ON THE GRANT FOR SUPERIOR EDUCATION UNDER THE ACT 19 VICT., CHAP. 54.

The distribution of the fund, granted for superior education having been much delayed in consequence of several institutions having alleged, that they had not been supplied with blank forms of demand and returns, within the usual time, or, that their returns had been duly mailed during the prescribed term, although they had never been received at the education office:

NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN.

1st. That this year, no institution shall be entitled to or receive any aid unless the return, and demand therefor, be filed within the period prescribed, that is to say, before the first day of August next. No exception will be made under any pretence whatsoever.

2nd. Acknowledgment of the receipt of such return and demand will be made immediately to the party forwarding same.

3rd. Any party not receiving such acknowledgment within eight days after mailing the documents should make enquiries at the post office and also at this office, failing which, such demand and return will be deemed, as not having been sent in.

4th. Blank forms will be transmitted during the first fortnight in June next, to all institutions now on the list, and institutions not receiving them during that period, must apply for them at the office of this department.

5th. Institutions not on the list, who may be desirous of making the necessary return and demand, can obtain the requisite blank forms by applying for them at this office between the 1st and 15th of June next.

Education Office,
Montreal, 15 May 1858. }

PIERRE J. O. CHAUVEAU,

DONATIONS TO THE LIBRARY OF THE DEPARTMENT.

The Superintendent acknowledges with thanks, the receipt of the following donations to the library of the department.

From the Revd. Mr. Daniel, Montreal: "Annales de l'Œuvre de la Sainte Enfance," 8 vols. in-12, and 50 copies of the Report therein for Canada, the Ecclesiastical Province of Halifax, and the United States.

From George B. Faribault, Esq., Quebec: "Collection de Mémoires et de Relations sur l'histoire ancienne du Canada," (four copies), a pamphlet in-8; "Voyages et Découvertes au Canada entre les années 1534 et 1542," by Jacques-Cartier, le sieur de Roberval, &c., (four copies), a pamphlet in-8; "Catalogue d'ouvrages sur l'histoire de l'Amérique," (four copies) and a bronze medal commemorative of the defence of Quebec in 1690 by Mr. de Frontenac.

From the Revd. the Grand-Vicar Cazau, Quebec: *Institutiones Philosophicæ ad usum Juventutis* by the Revd. Mr. Demers, (four copies) in-8; "Observations sur l'histoire du Canada de M. Brasseur de Bourbourg," by the Revd. Mr. Ferland.

From Messrs. Augustin Gôté & Co., Quebec: "Etude sur l'Union projetée des Provinces de l'Amérique Britannique du Nord," a pamphlet in-8, (nine copies).

From the Revd. Canon Fabre: "Annales de la Propagation de la Foi du diocèse de Montréal."

LIBRARY OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

All persons having books in their possession, belonging to this library, will please return them at as early a date as possible. It being intended to prepare a detailed and classified catalogue, the library will be closed until it is completed.

J. LENOIR,
Librarian.

SITUATIONS AS TEACHERS WANTED.

Mr. John Keys, a teacher provided with a diploma for an elementary school, and prepared to pass examination for a model school diploma, requests employment. Mr. Keys is a protestant, and is married.

Mr. Henri Corvin Zmijowski, will undertake to teach the french language, writing and arithmetic. Mr. Zmijowski will present himself for the purpose of obtaining a diploma for an elementary school, at the next meeting of the Catholic Board of Examiners for the district of Montreal.

Miss Sarah Jane Freeman, teacher, having an elementary school diploma from the Board of Examiners of Three Rivers, will take charge of a school in Lower Canada. She belongs to the Wesleyan Methodist persuasion, and has taught at St. Maurice and Three Rivers. Reference, P. Hubert, Esq., Inspector of Schools; address, Three Rivers.

Mr. Sheridan Knowles Marshall (grand son of the celebrated Sheridan Knowles) would undertake to teach in an Academy or Model School, Latin, Greek, French, English and Arithmetic. Mr. Marshall passed, last year, a successful examination before the Board of the Civil Commissioners, Dean's Yard, Westminster, and will undertake to obtain a diploma from the Montreal Board of Examiners. Reference, Revd. Dr. Mathieson, Montreal.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

MONTREAL, (LOWER CANADA) JUNE, 1858.

The School House of Simcoe.

We have great pleasure in transferring to our columns with the engravings, the following article, from the *Upper Canada Journal of Education*. The Trustees of Simcoe have given an example well worthy of imitation by our Lower Canada School Commissioners, at least on the part of those municipalities who are in a position to copy the improved plans now laid before them.

The accompanying drawings illustrate designs made by Messrs. Messer & Jones, architects, Toronto, in reply to an advertisement by the School Trustees of the Town of Simcoe, County of Norfolk, for "A two-story brick school house; cost of the building not to exceed £1,700; accommodation required for 500 or 600 children;" and to be built on a block of ground two acres in extent, near the town.

Thirteen designs were sent in from various parts of Canada and the United States; from which, Design No. 1, as shewn by ground-plan and perspective view above, was chosen.

The building is designed in the Old English style,—the most appropriate for a red brick building,—and is finished with Ohio stone dressings. The overhanging roofs afford protection to the walls. The windows are covered with hoods, which shade them, making the light free from the glare of sunshine and, being glazed in small squares, are less liable to be broken.

An entirely separate entrance is provided for boys and girls: the whole of the ground floor being appropriated to the use of the latter. The cloak room, which is next to the entrance hall, is provided with two doors, so that there may be no crowding when school is dismissed. The doors to school and class-room are made to open outwards, in accordance to the suggestions contained in the *Journal of Education* for December, 1851, pp. 180, 181.

The gallery-room will accommodate 120 pupils, and has a door, protected by a porch, opening on the covered play-ground. The gallery-room is an important feature in the construction of school houses, and its adoption has been strongly urged by the school authorities of Upper Canada, in various numbers of the *Journal of Education*.

The large school-room accommodates 160 pupils, with fixed seats and desks, like those manufactured by Jacques & Hay, Toronto, under the sanction of the Educational Department for Canada; and each class-room opening of it has similar desks and seats for thirty-six pupils.

Design No. 2, of which the ground plan only is given, accommodates the same number of pupils as the preceding, but it is so arranged that the greatest number of pupils in any one room is ninety-six. It can be adapted to same exterior as Design No. 1, and presents another system of internal arrangement which may be

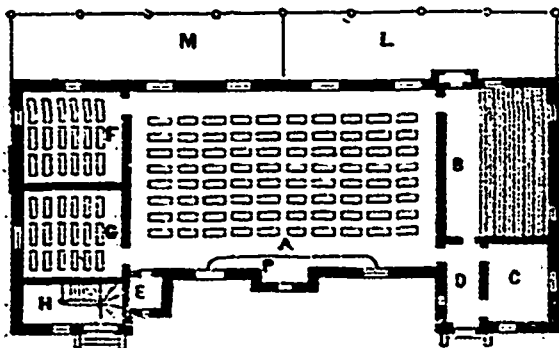


The boys enter the door in the left wing, and ascend a broad staircase to the second floor, where there is a large school-room, with seats for 160 pupils; two class-rooms for 48 pupils each; a gallery for 112 pupils; and a large cloak room. The bell-tower contains book-closets or library rooms on each floor, with the bell-rope leading down into them.

The basement is 6 ft. 6 in. high. The whole area of the building has been excavated, so that any system of heating may be adopted. The rooms on the ground floor are 14 ft. high. The large room on the upper floor has an open roof, 17 ft. to the ceiling, and the class-rooms a height of 14 ft.. All the rooms are ventilated by flues in the walls, carried up into the roof, from whence the foul air escapes by an open ventilator on the ridge.

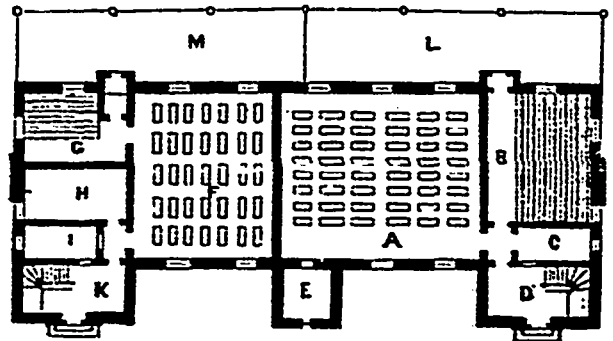
adopted at pleasure. The same general remarks apply to either design.

The whole of the interior arrangements has been the result of careful study and examination on the part of the architects. The plans embrace all the valuable improvements and suggestions which have appeared, from time to time, in the *Journal of Education* for Upper Canada. They are most creditable to the architects, Messrs. Messer & Jones, who in the exterior and interior of the building, have united elegance of design with economy and appropriateness of arrangements.



DESIGN NO. 1.—GROUND PLAN.

- | | |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------|
| A. Girls' School. | F. G. Class Rooms. |
| B. Gallery Room. | H. Staircase and Boys' School |
| C. Cloak Room. | L. M. Covered Play Shed. |
| D. Entrance Hall. | P. Platform. |
| E. Book or Library Room. | |



DESIGN NO. 2.—GROUND PLAN.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|----------------------------|
| A. Girls' School. | G. Gallery Room. |
| B. Gallery, or Infant's School. | H. Glass Room. |
| C. Cloak Room. | I. Cloak Room. |
| D. Staircase. | K. Staircase. |
| E. Book or Library Room. | L. M. Covered Play Ground. |
| F. Boys' School. | |

(From the U. C. Journal of Education.)

Report of the Chief Superintendent of Public Instruction for Lower Canada for 1856.

(Continued from our last.)

About one fourth of the Institutions did not think proper to afford the required information and the fact must be taken into consideration when reviewing this statement:—

Class of Institution.	NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO HAVE BEEN ATTACKED WITH SERIOUS DISEASE DURING THE YEAR.										NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO HAVE DIED WITHIN THE YEAR.									
	Inflammation and other diseases of the brain.	Consumption, bronchitis and other diseases of the organs of respiration.	Pleurisy.	Serious disease of the digestive organs.	Neuritis and other diseases of the nervous system.	Fever and other epidemic diseases.	Luxations, fractures and other accidents.	Total number of sick anal. during the year.	Inflammation and other diseases of the brain.	Consumption, bronchitis and other diseases of the organs of respiration.	Pleurisy.	Diseases of the digestive organs.	Neuritis and other diseases of the nerv. sys.	Fever and other epidemic diseases.	Accidentally killed.	Accidentally drowned.	Shunt. who died in consequence of other dis.	Total number of deaths during the year.		
Classical Colleges....	7	6	4	17	4	1	8	17	1	1			
Commercial Colleges	6	6	5	14	1	9	7	43	2	2	12			
Academies for boys, or mixed.....	...	9	4	...	2	29	4	49	2	1	4	2	12	17	33			
Academ. for females.	2	8	3	2	10	72	1	93	1	4	...	1	6	2	14			
Total.....	15	29	16	33	17	111	20	241	4	7	...	1	19	...	2	14	19	66		

This statement proves the great vigilance and care, of the principals of the different institutions. Serious diseases of the organs of respiration have not been numerous considering the rigour of the climate:—but the proportion of those diseases which terminated fatally is such, that it should engage principals and directors of Institutions to look with special care into their proper ventilation and heating. The apartments are not always kept at the same degree of temperature,—it is sometimes much too warm in the classes, while the passages are not heated at all. Want of ventilation is the cause that the windows are sometimes opened during class hours; every imprudent act of this kind, although strong robust children may perhaps feel no bad effect, is always fatal to feeble children predisposed to sickness. The number of pupils accidentally drowned during the year, viz: fourteen, should also reader teachers extremely vigilant during pleasure parties, excursions upon the water, &c.

The fifth division is a very important one, as it shows the different walks in life chosen by our youth after leaving Institutions for Superior Education. Among the young men who left these institutions within the last two years, after having completed more than half of the course of studies, 98 have entered the church; 3 the army; 232 have devoted themselves to agriculture; 21 are preparing for the bar; 28 are studying medicine; 28 the notarial profession; 23 surveying; 2 civil engineering; 355 follow, or are preparing to follow, mercantile pursuits; 201 are engaged in some branch of mechanics; and 66 have left the country. These figures are far from being complete; it is much to be desired that they should be so in the next report.

The total number of books in the libraries, is 96,823; the number of globes and orreries, 180; the number of geographical maps, 1552; the value of the apparatus for the study of natural philosophy, and of museums of natural History, about £16,000. There are in the Classical Colleges 174 professors; in the Commercial Colleges, 101. In the academies for boys, or mixed, 185 professors and female teachers; in the academies for female pupils there are 46 female teachers. Of this total number of professors, 260 belong to the regular clergy or to some religious order, and 155 are lay teachers; of the number of female teachers above stated, 333 belong to some religious order, and 113 are lay teachers.

The number of students in the Universities and Special Superior Schools was in 1855, 331; in 1856, 377, showing an increase of 46. In the Classical Colleges, the number was 2380; in 1856, 2576, being an increase of 190. The Commercial Colleges had 1709 pupils in 1855; in 1856 they had 1935, increase 226. The academies for boys, or mixed, had 4472 pupils in 1855; in 1856 they

numbered 6104, showing an increase of 1632. The Female Academies, in 1855, had 11,639 scholars; in 1856 this number was increased to 12,893, showing a difference in favor of the present year of 1254. The Primary Superior or Model Schools had, in 1855, 12,025 scholars attending them, and in 1856, 13,072, showing an increase of 1047. To conclude, in 1855, the Elementary Schools numbered 100,163 scholars, and in 1856 they numbered 105,912, being an increase of 5749. The total increase is not precisely as is above shown; this arises from our having used, for the purpose of comparing the statistics of the two years, the statements given in by the Institutions for Superior Education, which show a higher total, collectively, than those returned by the Inspectors. It will be perceived that the increase this year, as in the last, is greater in the Institutions of the middle class, (Commercial Colleges and Academies) than in either Classical Colleges or Academies.

It is true that a greater number of pupils in all the institutions, receive nothing more than an elementary education, or at most, Primary Superior, inasmuch as they generally leave the establishment before having gone through more than half the course. Besides some of this class of Institutions have returned, as pupils, scholars belonging to preparatory schools, or even to elementary schools affiliated with them.

Taking all these different calculations into consideration, that is to say, by deducting a certain portion of the pupils under sixteen, from each class of Institutions, and adding one half to the Primary Superior Schools and one half to the Elementary Schools the result would be as follows, which would approach near to the real state of things. Students receiving either a university or professional education, 377. Pupils receiving classical education, 2170. Pupils receiving an academical education, 16,393. Pupils receiving Primary Superior Education, 15,564. Pupils receiving Elementary Education, 108,404.

Independently of the results which we have shown above relative to schools under the control of Commissioners, the statistics of this year prove that the exact sciences have been much more generally studied than heretofore in all Educational Institutions. Much however is yet to be done in this branch. The total number of pupils learning to count by memory, or as it is generally termed, mental or spontaneous calculation is 4497 of whom 378 are studying in classical colleges, 664 in commercial colleges, 1581 in academies for boys or mixed schools, and 1871, in academies for females. I have used my utmost endeavours to bring this branch of study into more general use, and have urged the School Inspectors to introduce it into all the elementary schools. Book-keeping is taught to 1314 pupils, namely: to 248 in classical colleges, to 234 in commercial colleges, to 586 in academies for boys or mixed, and to 246 in academies for females. Algebra is taught to 777 pupils, viz: to 255 in classical colleges, to 135 in commercial colleges, to 379 in academies for boys or mixed, and to 8 in academies for females. The number of pupils studying geometry is 737, namely: 238 in classical colleges, 187 in commercial colleges, 310 in academies for boys or mixed, and 2 in academies for females. The number learning trigonometry is only 240, of whom 132 attend the classical colleges, 34 commercial colleges, and 74 academies. The number of pupils studying conic sections is 112, of whom 62 attend classical colleges, 6 commercial colleges, and 21 academies. To conclude, 160 pupils are learning differential and integral calculus, 20 in classical colleges, 13 in commercial colleges, and 127 in academies. This last figure, I must admit, appears to me to be the result of some error or misapprehension. The natural sciences are much more generally taught now than heretofore, although from the want of proper instruments and collections this branch of teaching must be yet very imperfect. The depository of apparatus and school appliances established by Dr. Ryerson in Upper Canada, as I have before mentioned, has conferred considerable benefit in this respect. I should, however, remark here, that students in colleges and academies, could, under the direction of their teachers, form little collections of specimens of natural history, and especially of entomology and botany. The collections in several of the academies in the United States have been formed in this manner. The manuals of natural history and of taxidermy by Roret—which can be procured for a low price—would be very useful in assisting the students; but the advice and example of an experienced amateur, would be still more advantageous. Meteorological observations and researches made with the assistance of the microscope are also of much assistance, and are much used in other countries for the purpose of instructing youth, while they are interesting, and furnish them with agreeable occupation at the same time.

The number of students learning natural philosophy is 545; of these 325 are studying in classical colleges, 11 in commercial colleges, 142 in academies for boys or mixed, and 37 in academies for

females. The number of students learning to take meteorological observations is 265, namely: 238 in classical colleges, 9 in commercial colleges, and 18 in academies. Astronomy is taught to 559 pupils, of whom 297 study in classical colleges, 41 in commercial colleges, 102 in academies for boys or mixed, and 119 in academies for females. Chemistry is taught to 249 pupils, of whom 95 study in classical colleges, 85 in commercial colleges, 62 in academies for boys or mixed, and 7 in academies for females. Natural history is taught to 668 pupils; 120 in classical colleges, 96 in commercial colleges, 167 in academies for boys or mixed, and to 285 in academies for females.

English is taught in secondary schools to 6309 pupils, whose vernacular language is French; and the French is taught to 1680 pupils, whose vernacular language is the English. The number of pupils practising composition or amplification is, 2652 for French, and 2017 for English composition. The number of pupils learning French versification is 180, namely: 79 in classical colleges, 15 in commercial colleges, 50 in academies for boys or mixed, and 36 in academies for females. The number of pupils learning English versification, is 235; 64 in classical colleges, 15 in commercial colleges, 105 in academies for boys or mixed, and 51 in academies for females. These numbers, when compared with the total number of pupils, are not, it is perceived, very considerable. Latin grammar is taught to 1642 pupils; to 1377 in classical colleges, 41 in commercial colleges, and to 224 in academies; 479 practice versification, and 470 amplification in that language, besides themes and versions. The Greek grammar is taught to 571 pupils in classical colleges, and to 36 in academies. Hebrew is taught to 15 pupils, and the German to 12 pupils only.

Belles-lettres are taught to 554 pupils, rhetoric to 460, and 1250 take lessons in declamation. Lessons in intellectual and moral philosophy are given to 204 pupils; in the elements of theology to 132, in law to 39, in constitutional law to 108. Theoretical agriculture is taught to 310 scholars, practical agriculture to 133, and horticulture to 459. Some institutions have a special commercial course distinct from the ordinary studies, and 610 scholars follow these courses; 288 in classical colleges, 128 in commercial colleges, and 194 in academies. In the meantime, however, neither are the useful or the fine arts neglected; 730 scholars learn linear drawing, of whom 158 study in classical colleges, 180 in commercial colleges, 232 in academies for boys or mixed, and 160 in the academies for females. This branch of study is also taught in the model schools to a great number of pupils. 191 pupils are studying architecture and painting; crayon and water colour drawing are taught to 402, vocal music to 2447, and instrumental music to 1225 pupils. There appears to be no regular gymnasium established in any institution, with the exception of the St. Mary's College at Montreal, and 50 pupils in this establishment practise gymnastics; 16 pupils in the academies also practice gymnastical exercises. Swimming appears to form no part of instruction in any of the colleges; 52 scholars however in the different academies practice natation. These two important branches of physical education should be generally introduced. The educated man experiences continually some feeling of shame when surpassed in acts requiring courage, or exertion in behalf of humanity, merely because he has not been trained when young to corporal exercises. It is necessary however that such training should be conducted with extreme precaution. The floor of the gymnasium should be covered with a thick bed of tan, or perhaps a bed of saw-dust or of fine sand would be still better. Swimming should be practised in pools of water of no considerable depth, and sides of which should gradually incline towards the centre. These pools or tanks could easily be made in the vicinity of the colleges, in consequence of the numerous springs and small streams which everywhere abound in the country parts of this province.

Dancing is only taught to 40 pupils, fencing to 44, horsemanship is taught in no institution.

Having thus cursorily shown the different branches of education, taught in our classical and academical institutions, setting aside those that are purely elementary, the results of which are shown in statement D. We must add that the very small number of pupils instructed in the more elevated branches of education, can be attributed to two causes. The first is, that many have been but recently established, and have not as yet completed the program of their course of studies. The other cause is, that, parents generally speaking, are in too great haste to withdraw their children from the colleges, and consequently that very few ever complete their regular course. Heads of families should in the first place reflect deeply on the nature of the education they intend to give to their children, and their choice once made, they should enforce a completion of the whole course and spare nothing to arrive at this result. They

should remember that the future of their children depends entirely upon their perseverance, and that it is far better to have followed regularly and benefited by a good course in an elementary school, than to have passed unprofitably through two or three classes in a college.

The pupils are respectively classed under the more important headings as follows: there are 9806 boys and 14073 girls in the Institutions for superior and secondary education, to which we have just referred. 15 male and 30 female deaf-mutes in private institutions, a more particular mention of which will be made; and according to the census, 62374 boys and 59381 girls attend elementary schools. From this last number must be deducted 2781 pupils attending secondary schools comprised in the census as already explained, and of whom it is probable, that at least two thirds are females, (the academies for girls under the control of the Commissioners being the more numerous,) will thus give 71268 boys and 71630 girls in all the educational institutions. It was generally believed heretofore, that the number of girls attending school far exceeded that of boys, but it will be perceived that the totals are nearly equal.

There are in the Universities and special Superior Schools, 200 boarders and 177 day scholars. In classical colleges 1013 boarders, 322 half boarders and 1235 day scholars; in the commercial colleges, 337 boarders, 441 half boarders, and 1157 day scholars; 156 boarders, 178 half boarders, and 5770 day scholars in the boys or mixed academies; 2146 boarders, 1489 half boarders, 9258 day scholars in the girls academies: Making a total of 3852 boarders, 2430 half boarders and 17597 day scholars. It is evident that the system of boarding schools, particularly with reference to girls, is viewed very favorably in the country.

With respect to the distribution of the pupils with reference to their religious creed, it is as follows: in universities, catholics 281, protestants 96; in classical colleges, catholics 1866, protestants 704; in commercial colleges, catholics 1796, protestants 139; in boys or mixed academies, catholics 4234, protestants 1870; in girls' academies, catholics 12,770, protestants 123. The total number of catholics is 20,947; the total number of protestants, is 2932.

Many institutions have a high reputation beyond the limits of the counties in which they are situated, for 1961 pupils attend colleges and academies out of their own counties. There are also, in the universities 20 students from Upper Canada, in classical colleges 26, from the same place, in commercial colleges 4, in boys academies 19, in the girls' academies 13,—forming a total from the Upper Province of 82. The number of pupils whose parents reside in the United States is, 6 in universities, 45 in classical colleges, 16 in commercial colleges, 51 in boys or mixed academies, and 35 in girls academies; making in all 153. Some of those contained in the tables of pupils who have left the country probably belong to this class.

Special secondary schools comprise only the two institutions for deaf mutes, mentioned by me in my report for the last year. I beg once more to draw attention to the vote of the legislature for the building of institutes for the deaf and dumb, passed a long time since, but which has never been acted upon.

Statement E especially refers to the statistics of the catholic schools in Quebec and Montreal procured by myself. It appears by this statement that there are 5176 in Quebec, and 6769 children in Montreal attending the schools; comprised in the last mentioned total are 2351 attending the schools kept by the sisters of the Congregational Nunnery, and 2380 children attending the schools of the Christian Brethren, established and entirely maintained by the Gentlemen of the Seminary of St. Sulpice.

Statement F shows the limits of each district of inspection and will give some idea of the extent of territory within which the Inspector has to perform his arduous duties. It is absolutely necessary that reference should be had to this statement in order that the others should be well understood.

Statement G, to which I have already referred several times, contains the general statistics, collected by the inspectors, particularly those relating to elementary schools. There are 490 municipalities, divided into 2619 districts, the school corporations own 1945 school houses; there are 2502 schools under the control of the commissioners, in which are taught 94,629 scholars; 93 schools under the control of the trustees for dissentient minorities, in which are taught 2584 scholars. There are 892 male teachers, of whom 448 possess diplomas, and 1574 female teachers, of whom 303 only have received diplomas.

112 male teachers and 878 female teachers receive less than £25 per annum; 366 male teachers and 519 female teachers receive from £25 inclusively a £50 per annum exclusively; 196 male

teachers and 20 female teachers receive from £50 inclusively to £100 exclusively, and 10 male teachers, receive over £100 (1).

There are several teachers under the control of the commissioners whose salary is not known; neither does this statement include ecclesiastics, teachers belonging to religious orders, nor teachers in independent schools. The minimum salary given to male teachers, is £12, to female teachers £9,—but these are exceptions. The maximum given to male teachers is £150 and to female teachers £75.—I have directed that the minimum salary of female teachers should be £25, and that of male teachers £50.

The average salary given to male teachers may be taken at from £40 to £60, and to female teachers from £20 to £30. In many cases teachers receive besides their salaries, lodging and fuel free. I have already stated my reasons for believing that the improvement in the conditions of school teachers, so much required is not far distant.

The number of parochial libraries is 92, containing 57,493 volumes.

The above is a rapid sketch of the statistics for the year 1856. I have attempted to account for several omissions, which could hardly be wondered at, considering that this is the first time so great an amount of information has been collected together, also, to explain as far as possible the apparent discrepancy in the statements, caused by their having been derived from different sources. I believe that no means have been spared to arrive at the true and correct state of things.

It is very evident that there is still much to be done to give public instruction all the development that could be wished; but it is to be hoped that better results will be obtained, in time, through the means of the Laws for the promotion of education, now in force.

The principal difficulty is, the present financial state of the department. I have already called attention to this matter in a special report printed by order of the legislative assembly. The government made most praiseworthy efforts to remedy, for a time, this difficulty, and to allow me to make the ordinary payments without any intermission.

This state of things, however, could not be prolonged for many years, without subjecting the department to serious inconvenience; the more so, as the ameliorations that are now the most urgent, demand that the pecuniary resources placed at my disposal should be considerably augmented.

I must, before closing this report, express my thankfulness to the clergy of all denominations, to the press, and to the friends of education generally for the powerful assistance so generously lent by them in furthering the efforts made by this department during the present year.

The remarkable advancement of education in Lower Canada has called for the praises of the Journals of foreign countries, and from all parts the most flattering marks of encouragement have been liberally bestowed upon us. This progress should not, however, blind us, with respect to what is still to be done, or induce us to overlook the dangers which our present system of public instruction must incur, so long as the reforms referred to in this report shall not have been effected.

(To be continued.)

MONTHLY SUMMARY.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

—The following account of the varied knowledge and attainments of a German schoolmaster, whose acquaintance I formed a few months ago, may not prove uninteresting or unimportant to your readers. It shows what may be effected by industry and application.

Herr Bach was head teacher in the public school of one of the towns situated on the Rhine; and of the poorest class were under his instruction, and his salary, at first about £45, had reached when I knew him about £70 per annum. He was acquainted with Latin, if not with Greek. English he spoke very well, and was more conversant with its literature than many of our countrymen. In French he conversed fluently, and gave instruction. The usual solid acquirements of a well qualified schoolmaster, as well as an acquaintance with his own country's literature, were combined with these attainments in language. He played the organ, pianoforte, and violin; and his compositions in both vocal and instrumental music showed his thorough knowledge of the science of harmony.

(1) Five of these teachers in Mr. Lantot's district of inspection, are omitted in Statement G.

Drawing and perspective he had also mastered, and a series of progressive lessons in the former, edited by himself, had been adopted in the public schools.

These pursuits might seem quite sufficient to have engrossed all his time—but not so. A collection of dried plants, and a very fine cabinet of beetles, containing four or five thousand specimens (some of which were first noticed by himself,) proved that natural history in two important branches had received a considerable share of his attention. In addition to the character, varieties, and locale of the plants in his neighbourhood, its minerals and chief geological features were also familiar to him; and a ramble over the hills, with Herr Bach pouring forth information about plants, insects, and geology, was a ramble not easily to be forgotten. It must be remembered that all this varied knowledge was not acquired during a life of quiet leisure, but amidst the arduous duties of a school, to which, in the hours free from regular employment he superadded lessons in his own language to foreigners desirous of acquiring it. One little incident will show the economy of time which he practised—playing over to us a passage in a duet which he was arranging for the violin, "that," said he, I composed yesterday when I was home from school at dinner." Besides all this, reviews and periodicals received occasional contributions from his pen.

The above account of this remarkable man's attainments and industry falls short of what they really are—such, however, as it is, it may serve to stimulate those who fill a similar position in this country, and show them that the routine of the school room need not debar them from the acquisition of solid learning, and the pursuit of those lighter and more elegant studies in which the mind, amidst the arduous duties of a schoolmaster's life, may find recreation and refreshment.—*Papers for the Schoolmaster.*

—New York has one Normal School, which costs only \$12,000 per annum; Massachusetts has four; Pennsylvania, by the act of May, 1857, made provision for twelve, to be established by private subscription. Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Kentucky, have each a Normal School, provided for by law. Ohio has two, sustained by teachers, without State assistance.

—In the Ohio penitentiary there is a regular evening school for the benefit of the illiterate convicts. The branches taught are reading, writing and arithmetic. Only 409 out of 608 inmates could both read and write; 128 have attended the school which is in charge of the chaplain.

—We have received several new educational periodicals which were started on this continent since the publication of our first number, and the cry is, "still they are coming." The first was the *North Carolina Journal of Education*, issued for the first time in January 1858, at Greensboro. It is conducted by a board of editors presided over by C. H. Wiley, Esq., Superintendent of common schools; the resident editor is Mr. J. D. Campbell. It is a fine 8vo pamphlet with 32 pages, divided in two columns. The next was *Sergeant's School Monthly*, Boston, published at \$1 a year. It is a large double column 8vo pamphlet of 32 pages illustrated with appropriate wood cuts. *The Parish School Advocate and Family Instructor*, for Nova-Scotia, New-Brunswick and Prince Edward Island, has also just been received at this office. It appears to have been issued for the first time, in January last. Each number contain 16 pages of two columns 8vo, close type. The editor is Mr. Alexander Munro, Baie Verte, New-Brunswick. It is printed in Halifax, by James Barnes. We wish success to this pioneer of the cause of Education in the Lower Provinces. The state of Maine although with a small population when compared to that of the other states of the Union does not wish to remain behind and the first number of a very neatly printed 8vo journal of 32 pages, has just reached us with a prayer to exchange to which we very readily assent. *The Maine Teacher* is edited by M. H. Dunnell, Esq., Superintendent of Common schools, and is printed at Portland. The following exchanges have ceased reaching our office for a very long time, the *Voice of Iowa* and the *New-Hampshire Journal of Education*. We hope neither of them has met with that last and fatal accident to which newspapers as well as human beings are subject.

—The *National Teacher's Association* which was organized in Philadelphia last August, will hold its next meeting at Cincinnati, Ohio, on the 11th of August next. It is exclusively composed of teachers, superintendents of schools and editors of educational journals.

—A gentleman who occupies a high position in this country and who has been recently visiting the British Isles and the continent of Europe, writes to us: "It is rather a strange coincidence that at the time I took my departure from Canada, the question of separate schools was much agitated here; on my arrival in the Highlands of Scotland, I found them engaged in a similar discussion and about a month afterwards in Switzerland, the press there was employed in discussing the same topic."

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

—Mr. Villemain, the celebrated French critic, who has been several times minister of public instruction in France, has recently been elected an honorary member of the University of St. Petersburg.

—In the state of New-York, in 1855, there were 559 newspapers and 112 other periodicals; 10 of which are devoted to education, 9 to science and arts, 15 to the promotion of temperance, 19 to medicine, 3 to law, and 254 to general literature.

— Auguste Brizeux whom the eminent critic of the *Journal des Débats*, Mr. Cuvillier Fleury called the Virgil of Brittany, died at Montpellier on the 2d of May last aged 53 years. He is the author of *Marie, les Bretons, les Ternaves* and several other volumes of poetry, almost all inspired by his native land and the peculiarities of its people. Our readers will find in our French journal several of his poems.

SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

— Professor Hall, the geologist, who is so well known to our fellow citizens since the last scientific convention in Montreal, has been awarded the Wollaston medal by the Royal Geological Society, the first instance of the award of that honor to an American since 1856, this medal has been struck in palladium in commemoration of the discovery of that metal by Wollaston.

— Dr. Robert Haro who was present and took an active part in the two last sessions of the scientific convention in Albany and in Montreal, where we are sorry to say he was conspicuous for a certain degree of eccentricity, died at his residence, in Philadelphia. He was born in 1781 and for more than a century has been reputed one of the most eminent chemists of the age. He is said to have invented the hydro-oxygen blowpipe, and he has contributed largely to scientific periodicals.

— Gold has been discovered at River Frazer, and at River Thompson; in the British territory on the Pacific. The Californian newspapers and among others the *Echo du Pacifique* contains detailed accounts of the operations of American and French miners, who have left in numbers for River Frazer. This will undoubtedly add to the interest of the present discussion on the Hudson Bay Company's possessions, in our Parliament and by the press. It is also reported that gold has been discovered in small quantities in the state of Iowa. It exists in small quantities in the county of Beauce in Lower Canada; but the mining operations which had been commenced in that part of the country do not seem to have yielded as yet any very profitable returns.

— A very interesting controversy is now going on as to whether it is possible to find in this Canada that which is geologically known as coal. It appears that coal at least workable deposits of coal ought not to be found in or immediately over the Lower Silurian rocks. The fundamental rocks of Canada are below the carboniferous strata, and we are told therefore that the deeper we dig the less probability is there of finding any.

Professor Dawson remarks in an article on the subject in the last number of the *Canadian Naturalist* "the thing that we cannot have, is always that which we most desire, and the more richly we are endowed otherwise, the more earnestly do we long for the one object that may have been withheld. So it would seem to be with the Canadian public in the matter of coal. All the riches of the earth and of the hills and of the deep beneath have been thrown into its lap, except this; and like the child whose toys are all valueless because mamma cannot give it the moon to play with in its own hands, it turns its eyes away from all its other treasures and cries for coal." Now in our humble opinion the comparison does not stand altogether unassailable; it is no childish thing to cry for an article which is much more useful than gold and without which it is so difficult to work out the other treasures; and next, from the learned professor's own showing, it is not such an impossibility after all to find coal in Canada as to catch the moon and play with it in one's own hand. His remarks however are fair enough as a reply to the unjust attacks made on science and savans on that account.

Unfortunately it appears that the first time that the existence of coal in Canada was mentioned, it was a glaring and bungling fraud on the part of the parties interested. We find in the *Transactions of the Literary and Historical Society of Quebec*, 2d vol. p. 91 in the *Additional Notes on the Geognosy of St. Paul's Bay*, by Lieut. Baddeley the following account of this attempt at mystification.

"We arrived about six o'clock at St. Urbains, which is between four and five leagues northward of St. Paul's Bay where passing the night, we made preparations in the morning to visit some deposits of iron which are said to occur in the mountains chain to the northward, and to test the truth of a report which had been brought to Quebec, concerning the occurrence of coal hereabouts. We had many reasons, geological as well as other, to question the accuracy of this latter report; but none of them were of so positive a nature as to render our visit to the spot unnecessary, particularly as if we had not done so, some doubt would always have existed on the subject as it was only from seeing the total discredit with which their story was received by us, after having visited the place, and the utter hopelessness which existed of imposing upon us that we obtained from one of the conspirators the following account. They purchased a bushel of good Newcastle coal, about three weeks before our arrival, and deposited the same in a small stream in rear of St. Paul's Bay. Fortunately there was not a geologist among them and their bituminous coal was deposited in defiance of the beautiful laws of nature, upon the sides and in close contact with primary rocks, with not a vestige of a secondary or transition formation within several miles. To see was therefore to be satisfied or rather dissatisfied and we turned our backs upon the beautiful but meretricious charms of the wanton sparkling with all her jetty blackness at the bottom, of a pellucid stream gurgling over a fine felspathose sand up which we were invited to walk."

In 1853, Count de Rottermund had with the geologists of the Provincial Survey a scientific polemic on a substance which was found in a vein of the rock of Quebec, in Mountain street. Sir William Logan had already alluded in his reports to the indurated bitumen which he said

was found in that locality. Mr. de Rottermund brought with him to France specimens which he, and the Hon. Mr. Drummond, his brother in law, submitted to Messrs. Dorbigny, Valenciennes and de Brongniard, who all stated that the fossils which these specimens contained were *stigmæria* belonging to the regular coal formation. This was disposed of we believe by stating that the place where the specimens were obtained was adjoining to a cellar where coal had been deposited and that there presence on the spot was purely accidental. No further boring took place and the thing was left in *statu quo* up to the recent alleged discovery of a coal seam at Bowmanville, a town of 4000 inhabitants in Upper Canada, 43 miles distant from Toronto. The first specimens that were sent to Professor Chapman were pronounced by him to be *compact bitumen*. Other specimens were sent to Professor Dawson who says: "The bore hole is again appealed to, and now produces actual, veritable coal, not only like coal and burning like coal, but having all the characteristics of true coal-measure, and showing its vegetable structures." But judging from the geological position assigned to the coal of Bowmanville, the learned professor gives it as his opinion, "that we must therefore in the meantime regard this case as beyond the pale of ordinary geological facts and as either a fraud, a mistake, or a singularly exceptional occurrence only to be explained by further exploration of the locality." This further exploration, the government and the geological survey seem bent on leaving altogether in the hands of the parties who have announced the discovery and who best know at all events whether there is a fraud or not. Speaking of Sir William Logan, Professor Dawson says: "All Sir William's early reputation as a geologist was gained in the coal fields, no more competent mining surveyor for coal could be found, and no one could be more rejoiced at the opportunity of reporting on a coal-field in Canada. But for this very reason he is too cautious to hazard any conjecture as to the probability of the occurrence of fossil fuel in a country where facts palpable to the geologist, have inscribed everywhere a negative of its presence. Not having this public responsibility weighing upon us, we may venture to mention certain possibilities as to the occurrence of coal in Canada, which would furnish the only means of accounting for the Bowmanville discovery should it prove a reality. The fundamental rocks of Canada are as we have said below the carboniferous and therefore unlikely to contain workable coal. But Canada may in this respect prove an exception to other countries. There may have been a land flora and an accumulation of coal at an earlier period than we have elsewhere ascertained these phenomena to exist. Unfortunately however no indication of this exists except the discovery by Sir W. E. Logan of a bed of coal one inch thick, in the devonian rocks of Gaspé, associated with a few vegetable fossils. This is in itself a rare and interesting geological fact, and the beds in which it occurs are those which are next below the true carboniferous series. Secondly the coal measures approach Canada so that closely both on the East and the West. In the peninsulas of Canada West and of Gaspé, we have the devonian series, the next below the carboniferous. To these succeed respectively the coal fields of Michigan and New-Brunswick which on the West and East occur just beyond the limits of Canada. In those parts of the Province which thus approach nearest to the carboniferous system, it is barely possible that outliers of the carboniferous districts, as yet unobserved, may extend within our limits. The Bowmanville locality is however too distant from the western coal field to give any likelihood to such a view in this case. Again it sometimes occurs that locally certain members of the geological series are wanting and the coal measures may thus rest directly on beds far older than themselves." Of this very important supposition however and of several others, Professor Dawson disposes in the same manner as above by showing that these exceptional cases give scarcely a shadow of a hope of coal in Canada, and that none of them applies to the Bowmanville case as it stands at present.

Still the specimens exhibited both from Quebec and from Bowmanville are coal specimens of the true coal formation and the only argument against the inference: "That a new fact extending the amount of those available for the construction of the theory of science has been ascertained" is the inscription de faux, that is to say the assertion that a fraud has been committed. This as Professor Dawson properly remarks can only be disposed of "by such inspection as can be made by actually opening the deposits" there being no corroborative evidence obtained from surface indications.

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